Working Draft, Standard for Programming Language C++

Note: this is an early draft. It’s known to be incomplet and incorrekt, and it has lots of bad formatting.
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1 General

1.1 Scope

This International Standard specifies requirements for implementations of the C++ programming language. The first such requirement is that they implement the language, and so this International Standard also defines C++. Other requirements and relaxations of the first requirement appear at various places within this International Standard.

C++ is a general purpose programming language based on the C programming language as described in ISO/IEC 9899:1990 Programming languages — C (1.2). In addition to the facilities provided by C, C++ provides additional data types, classes, templates, exceptions, namespaces, inline functions, operator overloading, function name overloading, references, free store management operators, and additional library facilities.

1.2 Normative references

The following standards contain provisions which, through reference in this text, constitute provisions of this International Standard. At the time of publication, the editions indicated were valid. All standards are subject to revision, and parties to agreements based on this International Standard are encouraged to investigate the possibility of applying the most recent editions of the standards indicated below. Members of IEC and ISO maintain registers of currently valid International Standards.

— ISO/IEC 2382 (all parts), Information technology — Vocabulary
— ISO/IEC 9899:1990, Programming languages — C
— ISO/IEC 9899/Amd.1:1995, Programming languages — C, AMENDMENT 1: C Integrity
— ISO/IEC 9899:1999, Programming languages — C
— ISO/IEC TR 19769:2004, Information technology — Programming languages, their environments and system software interfaces — Extensions for the programming language C to support new character data types

The library described in Clause 7 of ISO/IEC 9899:1990 and Clause 7 of ISO/IEC 9899/Amd.1:1995 is hereinafter called the C standard library.¹

¹) With the qualifications noted in Clauses 17 through 27, and in C.2, the C standard library is a subset of the C++ standard library.
1.3 Definitions

For the purposes of this International Standard, the definitions given in ISO/IEC 2382 and the following definitions apply. 17.3 defines additional terms that are used only in Clauses 17 through 27 and Annex D.

Terms that are used only in a small portion of this International Standard are defined where they are used and italicized where they are defined.

1.3.1 argument

an expression in the comma-separated list bounded by the parentheses in a function call expression; a sequence of preprocessing tokens in the comma-separated list bounded by the parentheses in a function-like macro invocation; the operand of `throw`; or an expression, `type-id` or `template-name` in the comma-separated list bounded by the angle brackets in a template instantiation. Also known as an actual argument or actual parameter.

1.3.2 conditionally-supported

a program construct that an implementation is not required to support. [Note: Each implementation documents all conditionally-supported constructs that it does not support. — end note]

1.3.3 diagnostic message

a message belonging to an implementation-defined subset of the implementation’s output messages.

1.3.4 dynamic type

dynamic type

the type of the most derived object (1.8) to which the lvalue denoted by an lvalue expression refers. [Example: if a pointer (8.3.1) `p` whose static type is “pointer to class C” is pointing to an object of class D, derived from C (Clause 10), the dynamic type of the expression `*p` is “D.” References (8.3.2) are treated similarly. — end example] The dynamic type of an rvalue expression is its static type.

1.3.5 ill-formed program

input to a C++ implementation that is not a well-formed program.

1.3.6 implementation-defined behavior
behavior, for a well-formed program construct and correct data, that depends on the implementation and that each implementation documents.

1.3.7 implementation limits
restrictions imposed upon programs by the implementation.

1.3.8 locale-specific behavior
behavior that depends on local conventions of nationality, culture, and language that each implementation documents.

1.3.9 multibyte character
a sequence of one or more bytes representing a member of the extended character set of either the source or the execution environment. The extended character set is a superset of the basic character set (2.3).

1.3.10 parameter
an object or reference declared as part of a function declaration or definition, or in the catch Clause of an exception handler, that acquires a value on entry to the function or handler; an identifier from the comma-separated list bounded by the parentheses immediately following the macro name in a function-like macro definition; or a template-parameter. Parameters are also known as formal arguments or formal parameters.

1.3.11 signature
the name and the parameter type list (8.3.5) of a function, as well as the class or namespace of which it is a member. If a function or function template is a class member its signature additionally includes the cv-qualifiers (if any) and the ref-qualifier (if any) on the function or function template itself. The signature of a function template additionally includes its return type and its template parameter list. The signature of a function template specialization includes the signature of the template of which it is a specialization and its template arguments (whether explicitly specified or deduced). [Note: Signatures are used as a basis for name mangling and linking. —end note]

1.3.12 static type
the type of an expression (3.9), which type results from analysis of the program without considering execution semantics. The static type of an expression depends only on the form of the program in which the expression appears, and does not change while the program is executing.

1.3.13 undefined behavior
behavior, such as might arise upon use of an erroneous program construct or erroneous data, for which this International Standard imposes no requirements. Undefined behavior may also be expected when this International Standard omits the description of any explicit definition of behavior. [Note: permissible undefined behavior ranges from ignoring the situation completely with unpredictable results, to behaving during translation or program execution in a documented manner characteristic of the environment (with or
without the issuance of a diagnostic message), to terminating a translation or execution (with the issuance of a diagnostic message). Many erroneous program constructs do not engender undefined behavior; they are required to be diagnosed. — end note]

1.3.14 unspecified behavior
behavior, for a well-formed program construct and correct data, that depends on the implementation. The implementation is not required to document which behavior occurs. [ Note: usually, the range of possible behaviors is delineated by this International Standard. — end note]

1.3.15 well-formed program
a C++ program constructed according to the syntax rules, diagnosable semantic rules, and the One Definition Rule (3.2).

1.4 Implementation compliance

1 The set of diagnosable rules consists of all syntactic and semantic rules in this International Standard except for those rules containing an explicit notation that “no diagnostic is required” or which are described as resulting in “undefined behavior.”

2 Although this International Standard states only requirements on C++ implementations, those requirements are often easier to understand if they are phrased as requirements on programs, parts of programs, or execution of programs. Such requirements have the following meaning:

— If a program contains no violations of the rules in this International Standard, a conforming implementation shall, within its resource limits, accept and correctly execute that program.

— If a program contains a violation of any diagnosable rule or an occurrence of a construct described in this Standard as “conditionally-supported” when the implementation does not support that construct, a conforming implementation shall issue at least one diagnostic message.

— If a program contains a violation of a rule for which no diagnostic is required, this International Standard places no requirement on implementations with respect to that program.

3 For classes and class templates, the library Clauses specify partial definitions. Private members (Clause 11) are not specified, but each implementation shall supply them to complete the definitions according to the description in the library Clauses.

4 For functions, function templates, objects, and values, the library Clauses specify declarations. Implementations shall supply definitions consistent with the descriptions in the library Clauses.

5 The names defined in the library have namespace scope (7.3). A C++ translation unit (2.2) obtains access to these names by including the appropriate standard library header (16.2).

6 The templates, classes, functions, and objects in the library have external linkage (3.5). The implementation provides definitions for standard library entities, as necessary, while combining translation units to form a complete C++ program (2.2).

7 Two kinds of implementations are defined: hosted and freestanding. For a hosted implementation, this International Standard defines the set of available libraries. A freestanding implementation is one in which execution may take place without the benefit of an operating system, and has an implementation-defined set of libraries that includes certain language-support libraries (17.6.1.3).

---

2) “Correct execution” can include undefined behavior, depending on the data being processed; see 1.3 and 1.9.
A conforming implementation may have extensions (including additional library functions), provided they do not alter the behavior of any well-formed program. Implementations are required to diagnose programs that use such extensions that are ill-formed according to this International Standard. Having done so, however, they can compile and execute such programs.

Each implementation shall include documentation that identifies all conditionally-supported constructs that it does not support and defines all locale-specific characteristics.

1.5 Structure of this International Standard

Clauses 2 through 16 describe the C++ programming language. That description includes detailed syntactic specifications in a form described in 1.6. For convenience, Annex A repeats all such syntactic specifications.

Clauses 18 through 30 and Annex D (the library clauses) describe the Standard C++ library. That description includes detailed descriptions of the templates, classes, functions, constants, and macros that constitute the library, in a form described in Clause 17.

Annex B recommends lower bounds on the capacity of conforming implementations.

Annex C summarizes the evolution of C++ since its first published description, and explains in detail the differences between C++ and C. Certain features of C++ exist solely for compatibility purposes; Annex D describes those features.

Throughout this International Standard, each example is introduced by “[Example:]” and terminated by “— end example]”. Each note is introduced by “[Note:” and terminated by “— end note]”. Examples and notes may be nested.

1.6 Syntax notation

In the syntax notation used in this International Standard, syntactic categories are indicated by italic type, and literal words and characters in constant width type. Alternatives are listed on separate lines except in a few cases where a long set of alternatives is marked by the phrase “one of.” If the text of an alternative is too long to fit on a line, the text is continued on subsequent lines indented from the first one. An optional terminal or nonterminal symbol is indicated by the subscript “opt”, so

\{ expression_{opt} \}

indicates an optional expression enclosed in braces.

Names for syntactic categories have generally been chosen according to the following rules:

— \textit{X-name} is a use of an identifier in a context that determines its meaning (e.g., \textit{class-name}, \textit{typedef-name}).

— \textit{X-id} is an identifier with no context-dependent meaning (e.g., \textit{qualified-id}).

— \textit{X-seq} is one or more \textit{X}’s without intervening delimiters (e.g., \textit{declaration-seq} is a sequence of declarations).

— \textit{X-list} is one or more \textit{X}’s separated by intervening commas (e.g., \textit{expression-list} is a sequence of expressions separated by commas).

This documentation also defines implementation-defined behavior; see 1.9.
1.7 The C++ memory model

1. The fundamental storage unit in the C++ memory model is the byte. A byte is at least large enough to contain any member of the basic execution character set and the eight-bit code units of the Unicode UTF-8 encoding form and is composed of a contiguous sequence of bits, the number of which is implementation-defined. The least significant bit is called the low-order bit; the most significant bit is called the high-order bit. The memory available to a C++ program consists of one or more sequences of contiguous bytes. Every byte has a unique address.

2. [Note: the representation of types is described in 3.9. — end note]

3. A memory location is either an object of scalar type or a maximal sequence of adjacent bit-fields all having non-zero width. [Note: Various features of the language, such as references and virtual functions, might involve additional memory locations that are not accessible to programs but are managed by the implementation. — end note] Two threads of execution (1.10) can update and access separate memory locations without interfering with each other.

4. [Note: Thus a bit-field and an adjacent non-bit-field are in separate memory locations, and therefore can be concurrently updated by two threads of execution without interference. The same applies to two bit-fields, if one is declared inside a nested struct declaration and the other is not, or if the two are separated by a zero-length bit-field declaration, or if they are separated by a non-bit-field declaration. It is not safe to concurrently update two bit-fields in the same struct if all fields between them are also bit-fields of non-zero width. — end note]

5. [Example: A structure declared as

```cpp
struct {
    char a;
    int b:5,
    c:11,
    :0,
    d:8;
    struct {int ee:8;} e;
}
```

contains four separate memory locations: The field `a` and bit-fields `d` and `e.ee` are each separate memory locations, and can be modified concurrently without interfering with each other. The bit-fields `b` and `c` together constitute the fourth memory location. The bit-fields `b` and `c` cannot be concurrently modified, but `b` and `a`, for example, can be. — end example]

1.8 The C++ object model

1. The constructs in a C++ program create, destroy, refer to, access, and manipulate objects. An object is a region of storage. [Note: A function is not an object, regardless of whether or not it occupies storage in the way that objects do. — end note] An object is created by a definition (3.1), by a new-expression (5.3.4) or by the implementation (12.2) when needed. The properties of an object are determined when the object is created. An object can have a name (Clause 3). An object has a storage duration (3.7) which influences its lifetime (3.8). An object has a type (3.9). The term object type refers to the type with which the object is created. Some objects are polymorphic (10.3); the implementation generates information associated with each such object that makes it possible to determine that object’s type during program execution. For other objects, the interpretation of the values found therein is determined by the type of the expressions (Clause 5) used to access them.
Objects can contain other objects, called subobjects. A subobject can be a member subobject (9.2), a base class subobject (Clause 10), or an array element. An object that is not a subobject of any other object is called a complete object.

For every object \( x \), there is some object called the complete object of \( x \), determined as follows:

- If \( x \) is a complete object, then \( x \) is the complete object of \( x \).
- Otherwise, the complete object of \( x \) is the complete object of the (unique) object that contains \( x \).

If a complete object, a data member (9.2), or an array element is of class type, its type is considered the most derived class, to distinguish it from the class type of any base class subobject; an object of a most derived class type or of a non-class type is called a most derived object.

Unless it is a bit-field (9.6), a most derived object shall have a non-zero size and shall occupy one or more bytes of storage. Base class subobjects may have zero size. An object of trivially copyable or standard-layout type (3.9) shall occupy contiguous bytes of storage.

[Note: C++ provides a variety of built-in types and several ways of composing new types from existing types (3.9). — end note]

1.9 Program execution

The semantic descriptions in this International Standard define a parameterized nondeterministic abstract machine. This International Standard places no requirement on the structure of conforming implementations. In particular, they need not copy or emulate the structure of the abstract machine. Rather, conforming implementations are required to emulate (only) the observable behavior of the abstract machine as explained below.

Certain aspects and operations of the abstract machine are described in this International Standard as implementation-defined (for example, \texttt{sizeof(int)}). These constitute the parameters of the abstract machine. Each implementation shall include documentation describing its characteristics and behavior in these respects. Such documentation shall define the instance of the abstract machine that corresponds to that implementation (referred to as the “corresponding instance” below).

Certain other aspects and operations of the abstract machine are described in this International Standard as unspecified (for example, order of evaluation of arguments to a function). Where possible, this International Standard defines a set of allowable behaviors. These define the nondeterministic aspects of the abstract machine. An instance of the abstract machine can thus have more than one possible execution sequence for a given program and a given input.

Certain other operations are described in this International Standard as undefined (for example, the effect of dereferencing the null pointer). [Note: this International Standard imposes no requirements on the behavior of programs that contain undefined behavior. — end note]

A conforming implementation executing a well-formed program shall produce the same observable behavior as one of the possible executions of the corresponding instance of the abstract machine with the same program and the same input. However, if any such execution contains an undefined operation, this International Standard places no requirement on the implementation executing that program with that input (not even with regard to operations preceding the first undefined operation).

4) This provision is sometimes called the “as-if” rule, because an implementation is free to disregard any requirement of this International Standard as long as the result is as if the requirement had been obeyed, as far as can be determined from the observable behavior of the program. For instance, an actual implementation need not evaluate part of an expression if it can deduce that its value is not used and that no side effects affecting the observable behavior of the program are produced.

5) This documentation also includes conditionally-supported constructs and locale-specific behavior. See 1.4.
The observable behavior of the abstract machine is its sequence of reads and writes to volatile data and calls to library I/O functions.\textsuperscript{6}

When the processing of the abstract machine is interrupted by receipt of a signal, the values of objects which are neither

— of type volatile std::sig_atomic_t nor
— lock-free atomic objects (29.4)

are unspecified, and the value of any object not in either of these two categories that is modified by the handler becomes undefined.

An instance of each object with automatic storage duration (3.7.3) is associated with each entry into its block. Such an object exists and retains its last-stored value during the execution of the block and while the block is suspended (by a call of a function or receipt of a signal).

The least requirements on a conforming implementation are:

— Access to volatile objects are evaluated strictly according to the rules of the abstract machine.
— At program termination, all data written into files shall be identical to one of the possible results that execution of the program according to the abstract semantics would have produced.
— The input and output dynamics of interactive devices shall take place in such a fashion that prompting messages actually appear prior to a program waiting prompting output is actually delivered before a program waits for input. What constitutes an interactive device is implementation-defined.

These collectively are referred to as the observable behavior of the program. \textsuperscript{[Note: more stringent correspondences between abstract and actual semantics may be defined by each implementation. — end note]}

Operators can be regrouped according to the usual mathematical rules only where the operators really are associative or commutative.\textsuperscript{7} For example, in the following fragment

```c
int a, b;
/* ... */
a = a + 32760 + b + 5;
```

the expression statement behaves exactly the same as

```
a = (((a + 32760) + b) + 5);
```

due to the associativity and precedence of these operators. Thus, the result of the sum (a + 32760) is next added to b, and that result is then added to 5 which results in the value assigned to a. On a machine in which overflows produce an exception and in which the range of values representable by an int is $[-32768,+32767]$, the implementation cannot rewrite this expression as

```
a = ((a + b) + 32765);
```

since if the values for a and b were, respectively, -32754 and -15, the sum a + b would produce an exception while the original expression would not; nor can the expression be rewritten either as

```
a = ((a + 32765) + b);
```

or

\textsuperscript{6) An implementation can offer additional library I/O functions as an extension. Implementations that do so should treat calls to those functions as “observable behavior” as well.}

\textsuperscript{7) Overloaded operators are never assumed to be associative or commutative.}
a = (a + (b + 32765));

since the values for a and b might have been, respectively, 4 and -8 or -17 and 12. However on a machine in which overflows do not produce an exception and in which the results of overflows are reversible, the above expression statement can be rewritten by the implementation in any of the above ways because the same result will occur. — end note]

A full-expression is an expression that is not a subexpression of another expression. If a language construct is defined to produce an implicit call of a function, a use of the language construct is considered to be an expression for the purposes of this definition. A call to a destructor generated at the end of the lifetime of an object other than a temporary object is an implicit full-expression. Conversions applied to the result of an expression in order to satisfy the requirements of the language construct in which the expression appears are also considered to be part of the full-expression.

[Example:

```c
struct S {
    S(int i): I(i) { }
    int& v() { return I; }
private:
    int I;
};

S s1(1); // full-expression is call of S::S(int)
S s2 = 2; // full-expression is call of S::S(int)

void f() {
    if (S(3).v()) // full-expression includes lvalue-to-rvalue and
        // int to bool conversions, performed before
        // temporary is deleted at end of full-expression

    }
}

— end example]

[Note: The evaluation of a full-expression can include the evaluation of subexpressions that are not lexically part of the full-expression. For example, subexpressions involved in evaluating default argument expressions (8.3.6) are considered to be created in the expression that calls the function, not the expression that defines the default argument. — end note]

Accessing an object designated by a volatile lvalue (3.10), modifying an object, calling a library I/O function, or calling a function that does any of those operations are all side effects, which are changes in the state of the execution environment. Evaluation of an expression (or a sub-expression) in general includes both value computations (including determining the identity of an object for lvalue evaluation and fetching a value previously assigned to an object for rvalue evaluation) and initiation of side effects. When a call to a library I/O function returns or an access to a volatile object is evaluated the side effect is considered complete, even though some external actions implied by the call (such as the I/O itself) or by the volatile access may not have completed yet.

Sequenced before is an asymmetric, transitive, pair-wise relation between evaluations executed by a single thread (1.10), which induces a partial order among those evaluations. Given any two evaluations A and B, if A is sequenced before B, then the execution of A shall precede the execution of B. If A is not sequenced before B and B is not sequenced before A, then A and B are unsequenced. [Note: The execution of unsequenced evaluations can overlap. — end note] Evaluations A and B are indeterminately sequenced when either A
is sequenced before $B$ or $B$ is sequenced before $A$, but it is unspecified which.  

[Note: Indeterminately sequenced evaluations cannot overlap, but either could be executed first. — end note]

Every value computation and side effect associated with a full-expression is sequenced before every value computation and side effect associated with the next full-expression to be evaluated.$^8$.

Except where noted, evaluations of operands of individual operators and of subexpressions of individual expressions are unsequenced.  

[Note: In an expression that is evaluated more than once during the execution of a program, unsequenced and indeterminately sequenced evaluations of its subexpressions need not be performed consistently in different evaluations. — end note] The value computations of the operands of an operator are sequenced before the value computation of the result of the operator. If a side effect on a scalar object is unsequenced relative to either another side effect on the same scalar object or a value computation using the value of the same scalar object, the behavior is undefined.

[Example:

```c
void f(int, int);
void g(int i, int* v) {
    i = v[i++];  // the behavior is undefined
    i = 7, i++, i++;  // i becomes 9
    i = i++ + 1;  // the behavior is undefined
    i = i + 1;  // the value of i is incremented
    f(i = -1, i = -1);  // the behavior is undefined
}
```

— end example]

When calling a function (whether or not the function is inline), every value computation and side effect associated with any argument expression, or with the postfix expression designating the called function, is sequenced before execution of every expression or statement in the body of the called function.  

[Note: Value computations and side effects associated with different argument expressions are unsequenced. — end note] Every evaluation in the calling function (including other function calls) that is not otherwise specifically sequenced before or after the execution of the body of the called function is indeterminately sequenced with respect to the execution of the called function.$^9$ Several contexts in C++ cause evaluation of a function call, even though no corresponding function call syntax appears in the translation unit.  

[Example: Evaluation of a new expression invokes one or more allocation and constructor functions; see 5.3.4. For another example, invocation of a conversion function (12.3.2) can arise in contexts in which no function call syntax appears. — end example] The sequencing constraints on the execution of the called function (as described above) are features of the function calls as evaluated, whatever the syntax of the expression that calls the function might be.

1.10 Multi-threaded executions and data races  

[intro.multithread]

A thread of execution (also known as a thread) is a single flow of control within a program, including the initial invocation of a specific top-level function, and recursively including every function invocation subsequently executed by the thread.  

[Note: when one thread creates another, the initial call to the top-level function of the new thread is executed by the new thread, not by the creating thread. — end note] Every thread in a

$^8$ As specified in 12.2, after a full-expression is evaluated, a sequence of zero or more invocations of destructor functions for temporary objects takes place, usually in reverse order of the construction of each temporary object.

$^9$ In other words, function executions do not interleave with each other.
program can potentially access every object and function in a program. Under a hosted implementation, a C++ program can have more than one thread of execution (a.k.a. thread) running concurrently. The execution of each thread proceeds as defined by the remainder of this standard. The execution of the entire program consists of an execution of all of its threads. [Note: Usually the execution can be viewed as an interleaving of all its threads. However, some kinds of atomic operations, for example, allow executions inconsistent with a simple interleaving, as described below. — end note] Under a freestanding implementation, it is implementation-defined whether a program can have more than one thread of execution.

The value of an object visible to a thread at a particular point might be the initial value of the object, a value assigned to the object by the thread, or a value assigned to the object by another thread, according to the rules below. [Note: In some cases, there may instead be undefined behavior. Much of this section is motivated by the desire to support atomic operations with explicit and detailed visibility constraints. However, it also implicitly supports a simpler view for more restricted programs. — end note] Under a freestanding implementation, it is implementation-defined whether a program can have more than one thread of execution.

The library defines a number of atomic operations (Clause 29) and operations on locks (Clause 30) that are specially identified as synchronization operations. These operations play a special role in making assignments in one thread visible to another. A synchronization operation on one or more memory locations is either a consume operation, an acquire operation, a release operation, or both an acquire and release operation. A synchronization operation without an associated memory location is a fence and can be either an acquire fence, a release fence, or both an acquire and release fence. In addition, there are relaxed atomic operations, which are not synchronization operations, and atomic read-modify-write operations, which have special characteristics. [Note: For example, a call that acquires a lock will perform an acquire operation on the locations comprising the lock. Correspondingly, a call that releases the same lock will perform a release operation on those same locations. Informally, performing a release operation on A forces prior side effects on other memory locations to become visible to other threads that later perform a consume or an acquire operation on A. “Relaxed” atomic operations are not synchronization operations even though, like synchronization operations, they cannot contribute to data races. — end note]

All modifications to a particular atomic object occur in some particular total order, called the modification order of the object. If A and B are modifications of an atomic object M and A happens before (as defined below) B, then A shall precede B in the modification order of M, which is defined below. [Note: This states that the modification orders must respect the “happens before” relationship. — end note] [Note: There is a separate order for each scalar atomic object. There is no requirement that these can be combined into a single total order for all objects. In general this will be impossible since different threads may observe modifications to different variables in inconsistent orders. — end note]

A release sequence on an atomic object M is a maximal contiguous sub-sequence of side effects in the modification order of M, where the first operation is a release, and every subsequent operation

— is performed by the same thread that performed the release, or
— is an atomic read-modify-write operation.

Certain library calls synchronize with other library calls performed by another thread. In particular, an atomic operation A that performs a release operation on an atomic object M synchronizes with an atomic operation B that performs an acquire operation on M and reads a value written by any side effect in the release sequence headed by A. [Note: Except in the specified cases, reading a later value does not necessarily ensure visibility as described below. Such a requirement would sometimes interfere with efficient implementation. — end note] [Note: The specifications of the synchronization operations define when one

---

10) An object with automatic or thread storage duration (3.7) is associated with one specific thread, and can be accessed by a different thread only indirectly through a pointer or reference (3.9.2).
reads the value written by another. For atomic variables, the definition is clear. All operations on a given
lock occur in a single total order. Each lock acquisition “reads the value written” by the last lock release.
— end note]

8 An evaluation $A$ carries a dependency to an evaluation $B$ if
   — the value of $A$ is used as an operand of $B$, unless:
     — $B$ is an invocation of any specialization of `std::kill_dependency` (29.3), or
     — $A$ is the left operand of a built-in logical AND ($\&\&$, see 5.14) or logical OR ($|$|, see 5.15) operator,
       or
     — $A$ is the left operand of a conditional (?:, see 5.16) operator, or
     — $A$ is the left operand of the built-in comma (, operator (5.18);
   or
     — $A$ writes a scalar object or bit-field $M$, $B$ reads the value written by $A$ from $M$, and $A$ is sequenced
       before $B$, or
   — for some evaluation $X$, $A$ carries a dependency to $X$, and $X$ carries a dependency to $B$.
   [Note: “Carries a dependency to” is a subset of “is sequenced before”, and is similarly strictly intra-thread.
     — end note]

9 An evaluation $A$ is dependency-ordered before an evaluation $B$ if
   — $A$ performs a release operation on an atomic object $M$, and $B$ performs a consume operation on $M$
     and reads a value written by any side effect in the release sequence headed by $A$, or
   — for some evaluation $X$, $A$ is dependency-ordered before $X$ and $X$ carries a dependency to $B$.
   [Note: The relation “is dependency-ordered before” is analogous to “synchronizes with”, but uses release/-
     consume in place of release/acquire. — end note]

10 An evaluation $A$ inter-thread happens before an evaluation $B$ if
    — $A$ synchronizes with $B$, or
    — $A$ is dependency-ordered before $B$, or
    — for some evaluation $X$
      — $A$ synchronizes with $X$ and $X$ is sequenced before $B$, or
      — $A$ is sequenced before $X$ and $X$ inter-thread happens before $B$, or
      — $A$ inter-thread happens before $X$ and $X$ inter-thread happens before $B$.
    [Note: The “inter-thread happens before” relation describes arbitrary concatenations of “sequenced before”,
      “synchronizes with” and “dependency-ordered before” relationships, with two exceptions. The first exception
      is that a concatenation is not permitted to end with “dependency-ordered before” followed by “sequenced
      before”. The reason for this limitation is that a consume operation participating in a “dependency-ordered
      before” relationship provides ordering only with respect to operations to which this consume operation
      actually carries a dependency. The reason that this limitation applies only to the end of such a concatenation
      is that any subsequent release operation will provide the required ordering for a prior consume operation.
      The second exception is that a concatenation is not permitted to consist entirely of “sequenced before”.
      The reasons for this limitation are (1) to permit “inter-thread happens before” to be transitively closed and
      (2) the “happens before” relation, defined below, provides for relationships consisting entirely of “sequenced
      before”. — end note]
An evaluation $A$ happens before an evaluation $B$ if:

- $A$ is sequenced before $B$, or
- $A$ inter-thread happens before $B$.

A visible side effect $A$ on a scalar object or bit-field $M$ with respect to a value computation $B$ of $M$ satisfies the conditions:

- $A$ happens before $B$ and
- there is no other side effect $X$ to $M$ such that $A$ happens before $X$ and $X$ happens before $B$.

The value of a non-atomic scalar object or bit-field $M$, as determined by evaluation $B$, shall be the value stored by the visible side effect $A$. [Note: If there is ambiguity about which side effect to a non-atomic object or bit-field is visible, then there is a data race, and the behavior is undefined. — end note] [Note: This states that operations on ordinary variables are not visibly reordered. This is not actually detectable without data races, but it is necessary to ensure that data races, as defined here, and with suitable restrictions on the use of atomics, correspond to data races in a simple interleaved (sequentially consistent) execution. — end note]

The visible sequence of side effects on an atomic object $M$, with respect to a value computation $B$ of $M$, is a maximal contiguous sub-sequence of side effects in the modification order of $M$, where the first side effect is visible with respect to $B$, and for every subsequent side effect, it is not the case that $B$ happens before it. The value of an atomic object $M$, as determined by evaluation $B$, shall be the value stored by some operation in the visible sequence of $M$ with respect to $B$. Furthermore, if a value computation $A$ of an atomic object $M$ happens before a value computation $B$ of $M$, and the value computed by $A$ corresponds to the value stored by side effect $X$, then the value computed by $B$ shall either equal the value computed by $A$, or be the value stored by side effect $Y$, where $Y$ follows $X$ in the modification order of $M$. [Note: This effectively disallows compiler reordering of atomic operations to a single object, even if both operations are “relaxed” loads. This effectively makes the “cache coherence” guarantee provided by most hardware available to C++ atomic operations. — end note] [Note: The visible sequence depends on the “happens before” relation, which depends on the values observed by loads of atomics, which we are restricting here. The intended reading is that there must exist an association of atomic loads with modifications they observe that, together with suitably chosen modification orders and the “happens before” relation derived as described above, satisfy the resulting constraints as imposed here. — end note]

The execution of a program contains a data race if it contains two conflicting actions in different threads, at least one of which is not atomic, and neither happens before the other. Any such data race results in undefined behavior. [Note: It can be shown that programs that correctly use simple locks to prevent all data races and use no other synchronization operations behave as though the executions of their constituent threads were simply interleaved, with each observed value of an object being the last value assigned in that interleaving. This is normally referred to as “sequential consistency”. However, this applies only to race-free programs, and race-free programs cannot observe most program transformations that do not change single-threaded program semantics. In fact, most single-threaded program transformations continue to be allowed, since any program that behaves differently as a result must perform an undefined operation. — end note]

[Note: Compiler transformations that introduce assignments to a potentially shared memory location that would not be modified by the abstract machine are generally precluded by this standard, since such an assignment might overwrite another assignment by a different thread in cases in which an abstract machine execution would not have encountered a data race. This includes implementations of data member assignment that overwrite adjacent members in separate memory locations. Reordering of atomic loads in cases in which the atomics in question may alias is also generally precluded, since this may violate the “visible sequence” rules. — end note]
16 [Note: Transformations that introduce a speculative read of a potentially shared memory location may not preserve the semantics of the C++ program as defined in this standard, since they potentially introduce a data race. However, they are typically valid in the context of an optimizing compiler that targets a specific machine with well-defined semantics for data races. They would be invalid for a hypothetical machine that is not tolerant of races or provides hardware race detection. — end note]

1.11 Acknowledgments [intro.ack]


2 Portions of the library Clauses of this International Standard are based on work by P.J. Plauger, which was published as The Draft Standard C++ Library (Prentice-Hall, ISBN 0-13-117003-1, copyright ©1995 P.J. Plauger).

3 All rights in these originals are reserved.
2 Lexical conventions

2.1 Separate translation

The text of the program is kept in units called source files in this International Standard. A source file
together with all the headers (17.6.1.2) and source files included (16.2) via the preprocessing directive
#include, less any source lines skipped by any of the conditional inclusion (16.1) preprocessing directives, is
called a translation unit. [Note: a C++ program need not all be translated at the same time. — end note]

2 [Note: previously translated translation units and instantiation units can be preserved individually or in
libraries. The separate translation units of a program communicate (3.5) by (for example) calls to functions
whose identifiers have external linkage, manipulation of objects whose identifiers have external linkage, or
manipulation of data files. Translation units can be separately translated and then later linked to produce
an executable program (3.5). — end note]

2.2 Phases of translation

1 The precedence among the syntax rules of translation is specified by the following phases.\footnote{Implementations must behave as if these separate phases occur, although in practice different phases might be folded
together.}

1. Physical source file characters are mapped, in an implementation-defined manner, to the basic source
character set (introducing new-line characters for end-of-line indicators) if necessary. The set of phys-
ical source file characters accepted is implementation-defined. Trigraph sequences (2.4) are replaced
by corresponding single-character internal representations. Any source file character not in the basic
source character set (2.3) is replaced by the universal-character-name that designates that charac-
ter. (An implementation may use any internal encoding, so long as an actual extended character
encountered in the source file, and the same extended character expressed in the source file as a
universal-character-name (i.e., using the \uXXXX notation), are handled equivalently.)

2. Each instance of a backslash character (\) immediately followed by a new-line character is deleted,
splicing physical source lines to form logical source lines. Only the last backslash on any physical
source line shall be eligible for being part of such a splice. If, as a result, a character sequence that
matches the syntax of a universal-character-name is produced, the behavior is undefined. If a source
file that is not empty does not end in a new-line character, or ends in a new-line character immediately
preceded by a backslash character before any such splicing takes place, the behavior is undefined.

3. The source file is decomposed into preprocessing tokens (2.5) and sequences of white-space characters
(including comments). A source file shall not end in a partial preprocessing token or in a partial com-
ment.\footnote{A partial preprocessing token would arise from a source file ending in the first portion of a multi-character token that
requires a terminating sequence of characters, such as a header-name that is missing the closing * or >. A partial comment
would arise from a source file ending with an unclosed /* comment.} Each comment is replaced by one space character. New-line characters are retained. Whether
each nonempty sequence of white-space characters other than new-line is retained or replaced by one
space character is unspecified. The process of dividing a source file’s characters into preprocessing to-
kens is context-dependent. [Example: see the handling of < within a #include preprocessing directive.
— end example]

4. Preprocessing directives are executed, macro invocations are expanded, and _Pragma unary operator
expressions are executed. If a character sequence that matches the syntax of a universal-character-name
is produced by token concatenation (16.3.3), the behavior is undefined. A `#include` preprocessing directive causes the named header or source file to be processed from phase 1 through phase 4, recursively. All preprocessing directives are then deleted.

5. Each source character set member and universal-character-name in a character literal or a string literal, as well as each escape sequence in a character literal or a non-raw string literal, is converted to the corresponding member of the execution character set (2.14.3, 2.14.5); if there is no corresponding member, it is converted to an implementation-defined member other than the null (wide) character.\(^{13}\)

6. Adjacent string literal tokens are concatenated.

7. White-space characters separating tokens are no longer significant. Each preprocessing token is converted into a token. (2.7). The resulting tokens are syntactically and semantically analyzed and translated as a translation unit. [Note: The process of analyzing and translating the tokens may occasionally result in one token being replaced by a sequence of other tokens (14.3). — end note] [Note: Source files, translation units and translated translation units need not necessarily be stored as files, nor need there be any one-to-one correspondence between these entities and any external representation. The description is conceptual only, and does not specify any particular implementation. — end note]

8. Translated translation units and instantiation units are combined as follows: [Note: some or all of these may be supplied from a library. — end note] Each translated translation unit is examined to produce a list of required instantiations. [Note: this may include instantiations which have been explicitly requested (14.8.2). — end note] The definitions of the required templates are located. It is implementation-defined whether the source of the translation units containing these definitions is required to be available. [Note: an implementation could encode sufficient information into the translated translation unit so as to ensure the source is not required here. — end note] All the required instantiations are performed to produce instantiation units. [Note: these are similar to translated translation units, but contain no references to uninstantiated templates and no template definitions. — end note] The program is ill-formed if any instantiation fails.

9. All external object and function references are resolved. Library components are linked to satisfy external references to functions and objects not defined in the current translation. All such translator output is collected into a program image which contains information needed for execution in its execution environment.

### 2.3 Character sets

The basic source character set consists of 96 characters: the space character, the control characters representing horizontal tab, vertical tab, form feed, and new-line, plus the following 91 graphical characters:\(^{14}\)

- a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z
- A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z
- 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
- _ { } [ ] # ( ) < > % : ; . ? * - / & ~ ! = , \ " '

The universal-character-name construct provides a way to name other characters.

---

\(^{13}\) An implementation need not convert all non-corresponding source characters to the same execution character.

\(^{14}\) The glyphs for the members of the basic source character set are intended to identify characters from the subset of ISO/IEC 10646 which corresponds to the ASCII character set. However, because the mapping from source file characters to the source character set (described in translation phase 1) is specified as implementation-defined, an implementation is required to document how the basic source characters are represented in source files.
3 The character designated by the universal-character-name \UNNNNNNNN is that character whose character short name in ISO/IEC 10646 is NNNNNNNN; the character designated by the universal-character-name \uNNNN is that character whose character short name in ISO/IEC 10646 is 0000NNNN. If the hexadecimal value for a universal-character-name corresponds to a surrogate code point (in the range 0xD800–0xDFFF, inclusive), the program is ill-formed. Additionally, if the hexadecimal value for a universal-character-name outside a character or string literal corresponds to a control character (in either of the ranges 0x00–0x1F or 0x7F–0x9F, both inclusive) or to a character in the basic source character set, the program is ill-formed.

3 The basic execution character set and the basic execution wide-character set shall each contain all the members of the basic source character set, plus control characters representing alert, backspace, and carriage return, plus a null character (respectively, null wide character), whose representation has all zero bits. For each basic execution character set, the values of the members shall be non-negative and distinct from one another. In both the source and execution basic character sets, the value of each character after 0 in the above list of decimal digits shall be one greater than the value of the previous. The execution character set and the execution wide-character set are supersets of the basic execution character set and the basic execution wide-character set, respectively. The values of the members of the execution character sets are implementation-defined, and any additional members are locale-specific.

2.4 Trigraph sequences

Before any other processing takes place, each occurrence of one of the following sequences of three characters (“trigraph sequences”) is replaced by the single character indicated in Table 1.

Table 1 — Trigraph sequences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trigraph</th>
<th>Replacement</th>
<th>Trigraph</th>
<th>Replacement</th>
<th>Trigraph</th>
<th>Replacement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>???=</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>??(</td>
<td>[</td>
<td>??&lt;</td>
<td>{</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>??/</td>
<td>\</td>
<td>??)</td>
<td>]</td>
<td>??&gt;</td>
<td>}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>??\</td>
<td>^</td>
<td>??!</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>??-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Example:

```c
??=define arraycheck(a,b) a??(b??) ??!??! b??(a??)
```

becomes

```c
#define arraycheck(a,b) a[b] || b[a]
```

— end example]

3 No other trigraph sequence exists. Each ? that does not begin one of the trigraphs listed above is not changed.
2.5 Preprocessing tokens

preprocessing-token:
  header-name
  identifier
  pp-number
  character-literal
  user-defined-character-literal
  string-literal
  user-defined-string-literal
  preprocessing-op-or-punc
  each non-white-space character that cannot be one of the above

1. Each preprocessing token that is converted to a token (2.7) shall have the lexical form of a keyword, an identifier, a literal, an operator, or a punctuator.

2. A preprocessing token is the minimal lexical element of the language in translation phases 3 through 6. The categories of preprocessing token are: header names, identifiers, preprocessing numbers, character literals (including user-defined character literals), string literals (including user-defined string literals), preprocessing operators and punctuators, and single non-white-space characters that do not lexically match the other preprocessing token categories. If a ‘ ’ or a ‘ ’ character matches the last category, the behavior is undefined. Preprocessing tokens can be separated by white space; this consists of comments (2.8), or white-space characters (space, horizontal tab, new-line, vertical tab, and form-feed), or both. As described in Clause 16, in certain circumstances during translation phase 4, white space (or the absence thereof) serves as more than preprocessing token separation. White space can appear within a preprocessing token only as part of a header name or between the quotation characters in a character literal or string literal.

3. If the input stream has been parsed into preprocessing tokens up to a given character, the next preprocessing token is the longest sequence of characters that could constitute a preprocessing token, even if that would cause further lexical analysis to fail.

4. [Example: The program fragment 1Ex is parsed as a preprocessing number token (one that is not a valid floating or integer literal token), even though a parse as the pair of preprocessing tokens 1 and Ex might produce a valid expression (for example, if Ex were a macro defined as +1). Similarly, the program fragment 1E1 is parsed as a preprocessing number (one that is a valid floating literal token), whether or not E is a macro name. — end example]

5. [Example: The program fragment x+++++y is parsed as x ++ ++ + y, which, if x and y are of built-in types, violates a constraint on increment operators, even though the parse x ++ + ++ y might yield a correct expression. — end example]

2.6 Alternative tokens

[lex.digraph]

1. Alternative token representations are provided for some operators and punctuators.15

2. In all respects of the language, each alternative token behaves the same, respectively, as its primary token,
Table 2 — Alternative tokens

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternative Primary</th>
<th>Alternative Primary</th>
<th>Alternative Primary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>&lt;%</code></td>
<td>`{</td>
<td><code>and_eq</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>%&gt;</code></td>
<td><code>}</code></td>
<td><code>&amp;=</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>&lt;:</code></td>
<td>`[</td>
<td><code>or_eq</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>:</code></td>
<td>`]</td>
<td>`</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>%;</code></td>
<td><code>#</code></td>
<td><code>xor_eq</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>:%;</code></td>
<td><code>##</code></td>
<td><code>not_eq</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>&amp;=</code></td>
<td><code>not</code></td>
<td><code>!=</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>^=</code></td>
<td><code>not_eq</code></td>
<td><code>!=</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

except for its spelling.\(^{16}\) The set of alternative tokens is defined in Table 2.

### 2.7 Tokens

\[\text{token:}\]
- \text{identifier}\text{ }
- \text{keyword}\text{ }
- \text{literal}\text{ }
- \text{operator}\text{ }
- \text{punctuator}\text{ }

There are five kinds of tokens: identifiers, keywords, literals,\(^{17}\) operators, and other separators. Blanks, horizontal and vertical tabs, newlines, formfeeds, and comments (collectively, “white space”), as described below, are ignored except as they serve to separate tokens. [Note: Some white space is required to separate otherwise adjacent identifiers, keywords, numeric literals, and alternative tokens containing alphabetic characters. — end note]

#### 2.8 Comments

The characters /* start a comment, which terminates with the characters */. These comments do not nest. The characters // start a comment, which terminates with the next new-line character. If there is a form-feed or a vertical-tab character in such a comment, only white-space characters shall appear between it and the new-line that terminates the comment; no diagnostic is required. [Note: The comment characters //, /*, and */ have no special meaning within a // comment and are treated just like other characters. Similarly, the comment characters // and /* have no special meaning within a /* comment. — end note]

#### 2.9 Header names

\[\text{header-name:}\]
- `< h-char-sequence >`\text{ }
- `" q-char-sequence "`\text{ }

\[\text{h-char-sequence:}\]
- \text{h-char}\text{ }
- `h-char-sequence h-char`\text{ }

### 15
\[\text{h-char:}\]
- any member of the source character set except new-line and >

\[\text{16}\]
These include “digraphs” and additional reserved words. The term “digraph” (token consisting of two characters) is not perfectly descriptive, since one of the alternative preprocessing-tokens is `%;X`: and of course several primary tokens contain two characters. Nonetheless, those alternative tokens that aren’t lexical keywords are colloquially known as “digraphs”.

\[\text{16}\]
Thus the “stringized” values (16.3.2) of ` ` and `<: ` will be different, maintaining the source spelling, but the tokens can otherwise be freely interchanged.

\[\text{17}\]
Literals include strings and character and numeric literals.
Header name preprocessing tokens shall only appear within a `#include` preprocessing directive (16.2). The sequences in both forms of `header-names` are mapped in an implementation-defined manner to headers or to external source file names as specified in 16.2.

If either of the characters `` or `\`, or either of the character sequences `*/` or `//` appears in a `q-char-sequence` or a `h-char-sequence`, or the character `"` appears in a `h-char-sequence`, the behavior is undefined.\(^1\)

### 2.10 Preprocessing numbers

Preprocessing number tokens lexically include all integral literal tokens (2.14.2) and all floating literal tokens (2.14.4).

A preprocessing number does not have a type or a value; it acquires both after a successful conversion (as part of translation phase 7 (2.2)) to an integral literal token or a floating literal token.

### 2.11 Identifiers

An identifier is an arbitrarily long sequence of letters and digits. Each universal-character-name in an identifier shall designate a character whose encoding in ISO 10646 falls into one of the ranges specified in Annex A of TR 10176:2003. Upper- and lower-case letters are different. All characters are significant.\(^2\)

\(^1\) Thus, sequences of characters that resemble escape sequences cause undefined behavior.

\(^2\) On systems in which linkers cannot accept extended characters, an encoding of the universal-character-name may be used in forming valid external identifiers. For example, some otherwise unused character or sequence of characters may be used to encode the `/\` in a universal-character-name. Extended characters may produce a long external identifier, but C++ does not place a translation limit on significant characters for external identifiers. In C++, upper- and lower-case letters are considered different for all identifiers, including external identifiers.
In addition, some identifiers are reserved for use by C++ implementations and standard libraries (17.6.3.3.2) and shall not be used otherwise; no diagnostic is required.

### 2.12 Keywords

The identifiers shown in Table 3 are reserved for use as keywords (that is, they are unconditionally treated as keywords in phase 7) except in an attribute-token (7.6.1):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>keyword</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>alignof</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decltype</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>return</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>typedef</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>default</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>typeid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>signed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>typename</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sizeof</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>static</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dynamic_cast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mutable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>static_assert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>using</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>catch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>else</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>namespace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>static_cast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>virtual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char16_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>new</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>struct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>void</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char32_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>explicit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nullptr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>switch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volatile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>export</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>operator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wchar_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>private</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>while</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>const</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>protected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thread_local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constexpr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>new</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>struct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>throw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reinterpret_cast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>try</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, the alternative representations shown in Table 4 for certain operators and punctuators (2.6) are reserved and shall not be used otherwise:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>operator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and_eq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bitand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not_eq</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.13 Operators and punctuators

The lexical representation of C++ programs includes a number of preprocessing tokens which are used in the syntax of the preprocessor or are converted into tokens for operators and punctuators:

```
preprocessing-op-or-punc: one of
  { } [ ] # ## ( )
  <: : > <\ % > \ % : \ % : ; : ;
  ++ + - * / \ % \ & | \ \ ^= && || ++ -- , , ->
  and and_eq bitand bitor compl not not_eq
  or or_eq xor xor_eq
```
Each *preprocessing-op-or-punc* is converted to a single token in translation phase 7 (2.2).

2.14 Literals

2.14.1 Kinds of literals

There are several kinds of literals.20

```plaintext
literal:
  integer-literal
  character-literal
  floating-literal
  string-literal
  boolean-literal
  pointer-literal
  user-defined-literal
```

2.14.2 Integer literals

```plaintext
integer-literal:
  decimal-literal integer-suffix_opt
  octal-literal integer-suffix_opt
  hexadecimal-literal integer-suffix_opt

decimal-literal:
  nonzero-digit
  decimal-literal digit

octal-literal:
  0
  octal-literal octal-digit

hexadecimal-literal:
  0x hexadecimal-digit
  0X hexadecimal-digit
  hexadecimal-literal hexadecimal-digit

nonzero-digit: one of
  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

octal-digit: one of
  0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

hexadecimal-digit: one of
  0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
  a b c d e f
  A B C D E F

integer-suffix:
  unsigned-suffix long-suffix_opt
  unsigned-suffix long-long-suffix_opt
  long-suffix unsigned-suffix_opt
  long-long-suffix unsigned-suffix_opt

unsigned-suffix: one of
  u U

long-suffix: one of
  1 L

long-long-suffix: one of
  11 LL
```

20) The term “literal” generally designates, in this International Standard, those tokens that are called “constants” in ISO C.

§ 2.14.2
An integer literal is a sequence of digits that has no period or exponent part. An integer literal may have a prefix that specifies its base and a suffix that specifies its type. The lexically first digit of the sequence of digits is the most significant. A decimal integer literal (base ten) begins with a digit other than 0 and consists of a sequence of decimal digits. An octal integer literal (base eight) begins with the digit 0 and consists of a sequence of octal digits. A hexadecimal integer literal (base sixteen) begins with 0x or 0X and consists of a sequence of hexadecimal digits, which include the decimal digits and the letters a through f and A through F with decimal values ten through fifteen. [Example: the number twelve can be written 12, 014, or 0XC. — end example]

The type of an integer literal is the first of the corresponding list in Table 5 in which its value can be represented.

Table 5 — Types of integer constants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Decimal constant</th>
<th>Octal or hexadecimal constant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>int</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>long int</td>
<td>unsigned int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>long long int</td>
<td>long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unsigned long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>long long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unsigned long long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u or U</td>
<td>unsigned int</td>
<td>unsigned int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unsigned long int</td>
<td>unsigned long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unsigned long long int</td>
<td>unsigned long long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l or L</td>
<td>long int</td>
<td>long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>long long int</td>
<td>unsigned long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>long long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unsigned long long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both u or U and l or L</td>
<td>unsigned long int</td>
<td>unsigned long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unsigned long long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ll or LL</td>
<td>long long int</td>
<td>long long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unsigned long int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both u or U and ll or LL</td>
<td>unsigned long long int</td>
<td>unsigned long long int</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If an integer literal cannot be represented by any type in its list and an extended integer type can represent its value, it may have that extended integer type. If all of the types in the list for the literal are signed, the extended integer type shall be signed. If all of the types in the list for the literal are unsigned, the extended integer type shall be unsigned. If the list contains both signed and unsigned types, the extended integer type may be signed or unsigned. A program is ill-formed if one of its translation units contains an integer literal that cannot be represented by any of the allowed types.

2.14.3 Character literals

character-literal:

' c-char-sequence '
' u' c-char-sequence ' 
' U' c-char-sequence '
' L' c-char-sequence '

21) The digits 8 and 9 are not octal digits.
A character literal is one or more characters enclosed in single quotes, as in ‘x’, optionally preceded by one of the letters u, U, or L, as in u’y’, U’z’, or L’x’, respectively. A character literal that does not begin with u, U, or L is an ordinary character literal, also referred to as a narrow-character literal. An ordinary character literal that contains a single c-char has type char, with value equal to the numerical value of the encoding of the c-char in the execution character set. An ordinary character literal that contains more than one c-char is a multicharacter literal. A multicharacter literal has type int and implementation-defined value.

A character literal that begins with the letter u, such as u’y’, is a character literal of type char16_t. The value of a char16_t literal containing a single c-char is equal to its ISO 10646 code point value, provided that the code point is representable with a single 16-bit code unit. (That is, provided it is a basic multi-lingual plane code point.) If the value is not representable within 16 bits, the program is ill-formed. A char16_t literal containing multiple c-chars is ill-formed. A character literal that begins with the letter U, such as U’z’, is a character literal of type char32_t. The value of a char32_t literal containing a single c-char is equal to its ISO 10646 code point value. A char32_t literal containing multiple c-chars is ill-formed. A character literal that begins with the letter L, such as L’x’, is a wide-character literal. A wide-character literal has type wchar_t. The value of a wchar_t literal containing a single c-char has value equal to the numerical value of the encoding of the c-char in the execution wide-character set, unless the c-char has no representation in the execution wide-character set, in which case the value is implementation-defined. [Note: the type wchar_t is able to represent all members of the execution wide-character set (see 3.9.1). — end note] The value of a wide-character literal containing multiple c-chars is implementation-defined.

Certain nongraphic characters, the single quote ‘, the double quote ”, the question mark ?, and the backslash \\', can be represented according to Table 6. The double quote ” and the question mark ?, can be represented as themselves or by the escape sequences \" and \? respectively, but the single quote ‘ and the backslash \ shall be represented by the escape sequences \’ and \\ respectively. Escape sequences

§ 2.14.3
in which the character following the backslash is not listed in Table 6 are conditionally-supported, with implementation-defined semantics. An escape sequence specifies a single character.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Escape sequences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>new-line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>horizontal tab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vertical tab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>backspace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carriage return</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>form feed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>backslash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>question mark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>single quote</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>double quote</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>octal number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hex number</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 The escape \ooo consists of the backslash followed by one, two, or three octal digits that are taken to specify the value of the desired character. The escape \xhhhh consists of the backslash followed by x followed by one or more hexadecimal digits that are taken to specify the value of the desired character. There is no limit to the number of digits in a hexadecimal sequence. A sequence of octal or hexadecimal digits is terminated by the first character that is not an octal digit or a hexadecimal digit, respectively. The value of a character literal is implementation-defined if it falls outside of the implementation-defined range defined for char (for literals with no prefix), char16_t (for literals prefixed by 'u'), char32_t (for literals prefixed by 'U'), or wchar_t (for literals prefixed by 'L').

5 A universal-character-name is translated to the encoding, in the appropriate execution character set, of the character named. If there is no such encoding, the universal-character-name is translated to an implementation-defined encoding. [Note: In translation phase 1, a universal-character-name is introduced whenever an actual extended character is encountered in the source text. Therefore, all extended characters are described in terms of universal-character-names. However, the actual compiler implementation may use its own native character set, so long as the same results are obtained. — end note]

2.14.4 Floating literals

floating-literal:
  fractional-constant exponent-part opt floating-suffix opt
digit-sequence exponent-part opt floating-suffix opt

fractional-constant:
  digit-sequence opt . digit-sequence
digit-sequence

exponent-part:
  e sign opt digit-sequence
  E sign opt digit-sequence

sign: one of
  + -

digit-sequence:
  digit
digit-sequence digit

§ 2.14.4

25
A floating literal consists of an integer part, a decimal point, a fraction part, an e or E, an optionally signed integer exponent, and an optional type suffix. The integer and fraction parts both consist of a sequence of decimal (base ten) digits. Either the integer part or the fraction part (not both) can be omitted; either the decimal point or the letter e (or E) and the exponent (not both) can be omitted. The integer part, the optional decimal point and the optional fraction part form the significant part of the floating literal. The exponent, if present, indicates the power of 10 by which the significant part is to be scaled. If the scaled value is in the range of representable values for its type, the result is the scaled value if representable, else the larger or smaller representable value nearest the scaled value, chosen in an implementation-defined manner. The type of a floating literal is double unless explicitly specified by a suffix. The suffixes f and F specify float, the suffixes l and L specify long double. If the scaled value is not in the range of representable values for its type, the program is ill-formed.

2.14.5 String literals

```plaintext
string-literal:
  " s-char-sequence_opt "
  u8" s-char-sequence_opt "
  u" s-char-sequence_opt "
  U" s-char-sequence_opt "
  L" s-char-sequence_opt "
  R raw-string
  uSR raw-string
  uR raw-string
  UR raw-string
  LR raw-string
  encoding-prefix_opt " s-char-sequence_opt "
  encoding-prefix_opt R raw-string

encoding-prefix:
  u8
  u
  U
  L

s-char-sequence:
  s-char
  s-char-sequence s-char

s-char:
  any member of the source character set except
  the double-quote "", backslash \, or new-line character
  escape-sequence
  universal-character-name

raw-string:
  " d-char-sequence_opt [ r-char-sequence_opt ] d-char-sequence_opt "

r-char-sequence:
  r-char
  r-char-sequence r-char
```
r-char:
   any member of the source character set, except
   (1), a backslash \ followed by a u or U, or
   (2), a right square bracket ] followed by the initial d-char-sequence
   (which may be empty) followed by a double quote ".

universal-character-name

d-char-sequence:
   d-char
   d-char-sequence d-char

d-char:
   any member of the basic source character set except:
   space, the left square bracket [, the right square bracket ],
   and the control characters representing horizontal tab,
   vertical tab, form feed, and newline.

1 A string literal is a sequence of characters (as defined in 2.14.3) surrounded by double quotes, optionally
   prefixed by R, u8, u8R, u, uR, U, UR, L, or LR, as in "...", R"[...]", u8"...", u8R"**[...]**", u"...", uR"*...*", ur"*...*", ur"[...]", ur"zzz[...]", uR"[...]", or LR"[...]", respectively.

2 A string literal that has an R in the prefix is a raw string literal. The d-char-sequence serves as a delimiter.
   The terminating d-char-sequence of a raw-string is the same sequence of characters as the initial d-char-sequence.
   A d-char-sequence shall consist of at most 16 characters.

3 [ Note: The characters '[' and ']' are permitted in a raw-string. Thus, R"delimiter[[a-z]]delimiter"
   is equivalent to "[a-z]". ]

4 [ Note: A source-file new-line in a raw string literal results in a new-line in the resulting execution string-
   literal, unless preceded by a backslash. Assuming no whitespace at the beginning of lines in the following
   example, the assert will succeed:
   ```
   const char *p = R"[a\n
   b
   c]";
   assert(std::strcmp(p, "ab\nc") == 0);
   ```

   — end note ]

5 A After translation phase 6, a string literal that does not begin with u8, u, U, or L an encoding-prefix
   is an ordinary string literal, and is initialized with the given characters.

6 A string literal that begins with u8, such as u8"asdf", is a UTF-8 string literal and is initialized with the
   given characters as encoded in UTF-8.

7 Ordinary string literals and UTF-8 string literals are also referred to as narrow string literals. A narrow
   string literal has type “array of n const char”, where n is the size of the string as defined below, and has
   static storage duration (3.7).

8 A string literal that begins with u, such as u"asdf", is a char16_t string literal. A char16_t string literal
   has type “array of n const char16_t”, where n is the size of the string as defined below; it has static storage
   duration and is initialized with the given characters. A single c-char may produce more than one char16_t
   character in the form of surrogate pairs.

9 A string literal that begins with U, such as U"asdf", is a char32_t string literal. A char32_t string literal
   has type “array of n const char32_t”, where n is the size of the string as defined below; it has static storage
   duration and is initialized with the given characters.
A string literal that begins with L, such as L"asdf", is a wide string literal. A wide string literal has type “array of n const wchar_t”, where n is the size of the string as defined below; it has static storage duration and is initialized with the given characters.

Whether all string literals are distinct (that is, are stored in nonoverlapping objects) is implementation-defined. The effect of attempting to modify a string literal is undefined.

In translation phase 6 (2.2), adjacent string literals are concatenated. If both string literals have the same prefix encoding-prefix, the resulting concatenated string literal has that prefix encoding-prefix. If one string literal has no prefix encoding-prefix, it is treated as a string literal of the same prefix encoding-prefix as the other operand. If a UTF-8 string literal token is adjacent to a wide string literal token, the program is ill-formed. Any other concatenations are conditionally supported with implementation-defined behavior. [Note: This concatenation is an interpretation, not a conversion. Because the interpretation happens in translation phase 6 (after each character from a literal has been translated into a value from the appropriate character set), a string literal’s initial rawness has no effect on the interpretation or well-formedness of the concatenation. — end note] [Example: Here are some examples of valid concatenations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Means</th>
<th>Source Means</th>
<th>Source Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>u&quot;a&quot; u&quot;b&quot;  u&quot;ab&quot;</td>
<td>U&quot;a&quot; U&quot;b&quot;  U&quot;ab&quot;</td>
<td>L&quot;a&quot; L&quot;b&quot;  L&quot;ab&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u&quot;a&quot;  &quot;b&quot;  u&quot;ab&quot;</td>
<td>U&quot;a&quot;  &quot;b&quot;  U&quot;ab&quot;</td>
<td>L&quot;a&quot;  &quot;b&quot;  L&quot;ab&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;a&quot;  u&quot;b&quot;  u&quot;ab&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;a&quot;  U&quot;b&quot;  U&quot;ab&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;a&quot;  L&quot;b&quot;  L&quot;ab&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

— end example]

Characters in concatenated strings are kept distinct.

[Example:
"\xA" "B"
contains the two characters \xA and B after concatenation (and not the single hexadecimal character \xAB). — end example]

After any necessary concatenation, in translation phase 7 (2.2), \0 is appended to every string literal so that programs that scan a string can find its end.

Escape sequences in non-raw string literals and universal-character-names in string literals have the same meaning as in character literals (2.14.3), except that the single quote ' is representable either by itself or by the escape sequence \’, and the double quote " shall be preceded by a \. In a narrow string literal, a universal-character-name may map to more than one char element due to multibyte encoding. The size of a char32_t or wide string literal is the total number of escape sequences, universal-character-names, and other characters, plus one for the terminating U’\0’ or L’\0’. The size of a char16_t string literal is the total number of escape sequences, universal-character-names, and other characters, plus one for each character requiring a surrogate pair, plus one for the terminating u’\0’. [Note: The size of a char16_t string literal is the number of code units, not the number of characters. — end note] Within char32_t and char16_t literals, any universal-character-names shall be within the range 0x0 to 0x10FFFF. The size of a narrow string literal is the total number of escape sequences and other characters, plus at least one for the multibyte encoding of each universal-character-name, plus one for the terminating \0.

2.14.6 Boolean literals [lex.bool]

boolean-literal:
- false
- true

§ 2.14.6
2.14.7 Pointer literals

pointer-literal:
    nullptr

1 The pointer literal is the keyword nullptr. It is an rvalue of type std::nullptr_t.

2.14.8 User-defined literals

user-defined-literal:
    user-defined-integer-literal
    user-defined-floating-literal
    user-defined-string-literal
    user-defined-character-literal
user-defined-integer-literal:
    decimal-literal ud-suffix
    octal-literal ud-suffix
    hexadecimal-literal ud-suffix
user-defined-floating-literal:
    fractional-constant exponent-part opt ud-suffix
    digit-sequence exponent-part ud-suffix
user-defined-string-literal:
    string-literal ud-suffix
user-defined-character-literal:
    character-literal ud-suffix
ud-suffix:
    identifier

1 If a token matches both user-defined-literal and another literal kind, it is treated as the latter. [Example: 123_km, 1.2LL, "Hello"s are all user-defined-literals, but 12LL is an integer-literal. — end example]

2 A user-defined-literal is treated as a call to a literal operator or literal operator template (13.5.8). To determine the form of this call for a given user-defined-literal L with ud-suffix X whose literal suffix identifier is X is looked up in the context of L using the rules for unqualified name lookup (3.4.1). Let S be the set of declarations found by this lookup. S shall not be empty.

3 If L is a user-defined-integer-literal, let n be the literal without its ud-suffix. If S contains a literal operator with parameter type unsigned long long, the literal L is treated as a call of the form

operator "" X (n ULL)

Otherwise, S shall contain a raw literal operator or a literal operator template (13.5.8) but not both. If S contains a raw literal operator the literal L is treated as a call of the form

operator "" X (""n"")

Otherwise (S contains a literal operator template), L is treated as a call of the form

operator "" X <'c1', 'c2', ... 'ck'>(())

where n is the source character sequence c1c2...ck. [Note: the sequence c1c2...ck can only contain characters from the basic source character set. — end note]

4 If L is a user-defined-floating-literal, let f be the literal without its ud-suffix. If S contains a literal operator with parameter type long double, the literal L is treated as a call of the form
operator \( "X (f L) \)

Otherwise, \( S \) shall contain a raw literal operator or a literal operator template (13.5.8) but not both. If \( S \) contains a raw literal operator the literal \( L \) is treated as a call of the form

\[
\text{operator} \ "X ("f") \]

Otherwise (\( S \) contains a literal operator template), \( L \) is treated as a call of the form

\[
\text{operator} \ "X (<'c_1', 'c_2', \ldots 'c_k'>()) \]

where \( f \) is the source character sequence \( c_1c_2\ldots c_k \). [Note: the sequence \( c_1c_2\ldots c_k \) can only contain characters from the basic source character set. — end note]

5 If \( L \) is a user-defined-string-literal, let \( str \) be the literal without its ud-suffix and let \( len \) be the number of characters (or code points) in \( str \) (i.e., its length excluding the terminating null character). The literal \( L \) is treated as a call of the form

\[
\text{operator} \ "X (str, len) \]

6 If \( L \) is a user-defined-character-literal, let \( ch \) be the literal without its ud-suffix. The literal \( L \) is treated as a call of the form

\[
\text{operator} \ "X (ch) \]

7 [Example:

```cpp
long double operator " w(long double);
std::string operator " w(const char16_t*, size_t);
unsigned operator " w(const char*);
int main() {
  1.2w; // calls operator " w(1.2L)
  u"one"w; // calls operator " w(u"one", 3)
  12w; // calls operator " w("12")
  "two"w; // error: no applicable literal operator
}
```

— end example]

8 In translation phase 6 (2.2), adjacent string literals are concatenated and user-defined-string-literals are considered string literals for that purpose. During concatenation, ud-suffixes are removed and ignored and the concatenation process occurs as described in 2.14.5. At the end of phase 6, if a string literal is the result of a concatenation involving at least one user-defined-string-literal, all the participating user-defined-string-literals shall have the same ud-suffix and that suffix is applied to the result of the concatenation.

9 [Example:

```cpp
int main() {
  L"A" "B" "C"x; // OK: same as L"ABC"x
  "P"x "Q" "R"y; // error: two different ud-suffixes
}
```

— end example]
3 Basic concepts

[Note: this Clause presents the basic concepts of the C++ language. It explains the difference between an object and a name and how they relate to the notion of an lvalue. It introduces the concepts of a declaration and a definition and presents C++’s notion of type, scope, linkage, and storage duration. The mechanisms for starting and terminating a program are discussed. Finally, this Clause presents the fundamental types of the language and lists the ways of constructing compound types from these. — end note]

[Note: this Clause does not cover concepts that affect only a single part of the language. Such concepts are discussed in the relevant Clauses. — end note]

An entity is a value, object, variable, reference, function, enumerator, type, class member, template, template specialization, namespace, or parameter pack.

A name is a use of an identifier (2.11), operator-function-id (13.5), literal-operator-id (13.5.8), conversion-function-id (12.3.2), or template-id (14.3) that denotes an entity or label (6.6.4, 6.1).

Every name that denotes an entity is introduced by a declaration. Every name that denotes a label is introduced either by a goto statement (6.6.4) or a labeled-statement (6.1).

A variable is introduced by the declaration of an object. The variable's name denotes the object.

Some names denote types or templates. In general, whenever a name is encountered it is necessary to determine whether that name denotes one of these entities before continuing to parse the program that contains it. The process that determines this is called name lookup (3.4).

Two names are the same if
- they are identifiers composed of the same character sequence, or
- they are operator-function-ids formed with the same operator, or
- they are conversion-function-ids formed with the same type, or
- they are template-ids that refer to the same class or function (14.5), or
- they are the names of literal operators (13.5.8) formed with the same literal suffix identifier.

A name used in more than one translation unit can potentially refer to the same entity in these translation units depending on the linkage (3.5) of the name specified in each translation unit.

3.1 Declarations and definitions

A declaration (Clause 7) introduces names into a translation unit or redeclares names introduced by previous declarations. A declaration specifies the interpretation and attributes of these names.

A declaration is a definition unless it declares a function without specifying the function’s body (8.4), it contains the extern specifier (7.1.1) or a linkage-specification24 (7.5) and neither an initializer nor a function-body, it declares a static data member in a class definition (9.4), it is a class name declaration (9.1), it is

24) Appearing inside the braced-enclosed declaration-seq in a linkage-specification does not affect whether a declaration is a definition.
an opaque-enum-declaration (7.2), or it is a typedef declaration (7.1.3), a using-declaration (7.3.3), or a using-directive (7.3.4).

[Example: all but one of the following are definitions:

```c
int a; // defines a
extern const int c = 1; // defines c
int f(int x) { return x+a; } // defines f and defines x
struct S { int a; int b; }; // defines S, S::a, and S::b
struct X {
    int x; // defines X
    static int y; // declares static data member y
    X() : x(0) { } // defines a constructor of X
};
int X::y = 1; // defines X::y
enum { up, down }; // defines up and down
namespace N { int d; } // defines N and N::d
namespace N1 = N; // defines N1
X anX; // defines anX
```

whereas these are just declarations:

```c
extern int a; // declares a
extern const int c; // declares c
int f(int); // declares f
struct S; // declares S
typedef int Int; // declares Int
extern X anotherX; // declares anotherX
using N::d; // declares N::d
```

—end example]

3 [Note: in some circumstances, C++ implementations implicitly define the default constructor (12.1), copy constructor (12.8), assignment operator (12.8), or destructor (12.4) member functions. [Example: given

```c
#include <string>

struct C {
    std::string s; // std::string is the standard library class (Clause 21)
};

int main() {
    C a;
    C b = a;
    b = a;
}
```

the implementation will implicitly define functions to make the definition of C equivalent to

```c
struct C {
    std::string s;
    C() : s() {} 
    C(const C& x) : s(x.s) {} 
    C& operator=(const C& x) { s = x.s; return *this; }
    ~C() {} 
};
```
4 [Note: a class name can also be implicitly declared by an elaborated-type-specifier (7.1.6.3). — end note]

5 A program is ill-formed if the definition of any object gives the object an incomplete type (3.9).

### 3.2 One definition rule

1 No translation unit shall contain more than one definition of any variable, function, class type, enumeration
type, or template.

2 An expression is potentially evaluated unless it is an unevaluated operand (Clause 5) or a subexpression
thereof. An object or non-overloaded function whose name appears as a potentially-evaluated expression is
used unless it is an object that satisfies the requirements for appearing in a constant expression (5.19)
and the lvalue-to-rvalue conversion (4.1) is immediately applied. A virtual member function is used if it is
not pure. An overloaded function is used if it is selected by overload resolution when referred to from a
potentially-evaluated expression. [Note: this covers calls to named functions (5.2.2), operator overloading
(Clauses 12 and 13), allocation function for placement new (5.3.4), as well as non-default initialization (8.5). A copy constructor is used even if the call is actually elided by the implementation. — end note] An allocation or deallocation function for a class is used by a new expression appearing in a
potentially-evaluated expression as specified in 5.3.4 and 12.5. A deallocation function for a class is used by
a delete expression appearing in a potentially-evaluated expression as specified in 5.3.5 and 12.5. A non-placement allocation or deallocation function for a class is used by the definition of a constructor of that
class. A non-placement deallocation function for a class is used by the definition of the destructor of that
class, or by being selected by the lookup at the point of definition of a virtual destructor (12.4). A copy
assignment function for a class is used by an implicitly-defined copy-assignment function for another class
as specified in 12.8. A default constructor for a class is used by default initialization or value initialization
as specified in 8.5. A constructor for a class is used as specified in 8.5. A destructor for a class is used as
specified in 12.4.

3 Every program shall contain exactly one definition of every non-inline function or object that is used in that
program; no diagnostic required. The definition can appear explicitly in the program, it can be found in the
standard or a user-defined library, or (when appropriate) it is implicitly defined (see 12.1, 12.4 and 12.8).
An inline function shall be defined in every translation unit in which it is used.

4 Exactly one definition of a class is required in a translation unit if the class is used in a way that requires the
class type to be complete. [Example: the following complete translation unit is well-formed, even though it
never defines X:

```c
struct X;     // declare X as a struct type
struct X* x1; // use X in pointer formation
X* x2;        // use X in pointer formation
```

— end example] [Note: the rules for declarations and expressions describe in which contexts complete class
types are required. A class type T must be complete if:

— an object of type T is defined (3.1), or

— a non-static class data member of type T is declared (9.2), or

— T is used as the object type or array element type in a new-expression (5.3.4), or

— an lvalue-to-rvalue conversion is applied to an lvalue referring to an object of type T (4.1), or

25) An implementation is not required to call allocation and deallocation functions from constructors or destructors; however,
this is a permissible implementation technique.
— an expression is converted (either implicitly or explicitly) to type T (Clause 4, 5.2.3, 5.2.7, 5.2.9, 5.4),
or

— an expression that is not a null pointer constant, and has type other than void*, is converted to the
type pointer to T or reference to T using an implicit conversion (Clause 4), a dynamic_cast (5.2.7) or
a static_cast (5.2.9), or

— a class member access operator is applied to an expression of type T (5.2.5), or

— the typeid operator (5.2.8) or the sizeof operator (5.3.3) is applied to an operand of type T, or

— a function with a return type or argument type of type T is defined (3.1) or called (5.2.2), or

— a class with a base class of type T is defined (10), or

— an lvalue of type T is assigned to (5.17), or

— the type T is the subject of an alignof expression (5.3.6), or

— an exception-declaration has type T, reference to T, or pointer to T (15.3).

— end note]

5 There can be more than one definition of a class type (Clause 9), enumeration type (7.2), inline function with
external linkage (7.1.2), class template (Clause 14), non-static function template (14.6.6), static data member
of a class template (14.6.1.3), member function of a class template (14.6.1.1), or template specialization for
which some template parameters are not specified (14.8, 14.6.5) in a program provided that each definition
appears in a different translation unit, and provided the definitions satisfy the following requirements. Given
such an entity named D defined in more than one translation unit, then

— each definition of D shall consist of the same sequence of tokens; and

— in each definition of D, corresponding names, looked up according to 3.4, shall refer to an entity defined
within the definition of D, or shall refer to the same entity, after overload resolution (13.3) and after
matching of partial template specialization (14.9.3), except that a name can refer to a const object
with internal or no linkage if the object has the same literal type in all definitions of D, and the object
is initialized with a constant expression (5.19), and the value (but not the address) of the object is
used, and the object has the same value in all definitions of D; and

— in each definition of D, the overloaded operators referred to, the implicit calls to conversion functions,
constructors, operator new functions and operator delete functions, shall refer to the same function,
or to a function defined within the definition of D; and

— in each definition of D, a default argument used by an (implicit or explicit) function call is treated as
if its token sequence were present in the definition of D: that is, the default argument is subject to
the three requirements described above (and, if the default argument has sub-expressions with default
arguments, this requirement applies recursively).26

— if D is a class with an implicitly-declared constructor (12.1), it is as if the constructor was implicitly
defined in every translation unit where it is used, and the implicit definition in every translation unit
shall call the same constructor for a base class or a class member of D. [Example:

    //translation unit 1:
    struct X {
        X(int);
        X(int, int);
    };

26) §3.2.6 describes how default argument names are looked up.
X::X(int = 0) {};
class D: public X {};
D d2;  // X(int) called by D()

// translation unit 2:
struct X {
  X(int);
  X(int, int);
};
X::X(int = 0, int = 0) {}  // X(int, int) called by D();
class D: public X {};
  // D()'s implicit definition
  // violates the ODR

— end example ]

If D is a template and is defined in more than one translation unit, then the last four requirements from the list above shall apply to names from the template’s enclosing scope used in the template definition (14.7.3), and also to dependent names at the point of instantiation (14.7.2). If the definitions of D satisfy all these requirements, then the program shall behave as if there were a single definition of D. If the definitions of D do not satisfy these requirements, then the behavior is undefined.

3.3 Scope [basic.scope]

3.3.1 Declarative regions and scopes [basic.scope.declarative]

1 Every name is introduced in some portion of program text called a declarative region, which is the largest part of the program in which that name is valid, that is, in which that name may be used as an unqualified name to refer to the same entity. In general, each particular name is valid only within some possibly discontiguous portion of program text called its scope. To determine the scope of a declaration, it is sometimes convenient to refer to the potential scope of a declaration. The scope of a declaration is the same as its potential scope unless the potential scope contains another declaration of the same name. In that case, the potential scope of the declaration in the inner (contained) declarative region is excluded from the scope of the declaration in the outer (containing) declarative region.

2 [Example: in
   int j = 24;
   int main() {
      int i = j, j;
      j = 42;
   }
]

the identifier j is declared twice as a name (and used twice). The declarative region of the first j includes the entire example. The potential scope of the first j begins immediately after that j and extends to the end of the program, but its (actual) scope excludes the text between the , and the }. The declarative region of the second declaration of j (the j immediately before the semicolon) includes all the text between { and }, but its potential scope excludes the declaration of i. The scope of the second declaration of j is the same as its potential scope. — end example ]

3 The names declared by a declaration are introduced into the scope in which the declaration occurs, except that the presence of a friend specifier (11.4), certain uses of the elaborated-type-specifier (7.1.6.3), and using-directives (7.3.4) alter this general behavior.

4 Given a set of declarations in a single declarative region, each of which specifies the same unqualified name,
— they shall all refer to the same entity, or all refer to functions and function templates; or
— exactly one declaration shall declare a class name or enumeration name that is not a typedef name
and the other declarations shall all refer to the same object or enumerator, or all refer to functions
and function templates; in this case the class name or enumeration name is hidden (3.3.10). [Note: a
namespace name or a class template name must be unique in its declarative region (7.3.2, Clause 14).
— end note]

[Note: these restrictions apply to the declarative region into which a name is introduced, which is not necessarily the same as the region in which the declaration occurs. In particular, elaborated-type-specifiers (7.1.6.3)
and friend declarations (11.4) may introduce a (possibly not visible) name into an enclosing namespace; these restrictions apply to that region. Local extern declarations (3.5) may introduce a name into the declarative region where the declaration appears and also introduce a (possibly not visible) name into an enclosing namespace; these restrictions apply to both regions. — end note]

3.3.2 Point of declaration

1 The point of declaration for a name is immediately after its complete declarator (Clause 8) and before its initializer (if any), except as noted below. [Example:

```c
int x = 12;
{ int x = x; }
```

Here the second x is initialized with its own (indeterminate) value. — end example]

2 [Note: a nonlocal name remains visible up to the point of declaration of the local name that hides it.[Example:

```c
const int i = 2;
{ int i[i]; }
```

declares a local array of two integers. — end example] — end note]

3 The point of declaration for a class or class template first declared by a class-specifier is immediately after the identifier or simple-template-id (if any) in its class-head (Clause 9). The point of declaration for an enumeration is immediately after the identifier (if any) in either its enum-specifier (7.2) or its first opaque-enum-declaration (7.2), whichever comes first. The point of declaration of a template alias immediately follows the identifier for the alias being declared.

4 The point of declaration for an enumerator is immediately after its enumerator-definition.[Example:

```c
const int x = 12;
{ enum { x = x }; }
```

Here, the enumerator x is initialized with the value of the constant x, namely 12. — end example]

5 After the point of declaration of a class member, the member name can be looked up in the scope of its class. [Note: this is true even if the class is an incomplete class. For example,

```c
struct X {
    enum E { z = 16 }
    int b[X::z];  // OK
};
```
The point of declaration of a class first declared in an elaborated-type-specifier is as follows:

— for a declaration of the form

\[
\text{class-key identifier attribute-specifier_{opt} ;}
\]

the identifier is declared to be a class-name in the scope that contains the declaration, otherwise

— for an elaborated-type-specifier of the form

\[
\text{class-key identifier}
\]

if the elaborated-type-specifier is used in the decl-specifier-seq or parameter-declaration-clause of a function defined in namespace scope, the identifier is declared as a class-name in the namespace that contains the declaration; otherwise, except as a friend declaration, the identifier is declared in the smallest non-class, non-function-prototype scope that contains the declaration. [Note: these rules also apply within templates. — end note] [Note: other forms of elaborated-type-specifier do not declare a new name, and therefore must refer to an existing type-name. See 3.4.4 and 7.1.6.3. — end note]

The point of declaration for an injected-class-name (9) is immediately following the opening brace of the class definition.

The point of declaration for a function-local predefined variable (8.4) is immediately before the function-body of a function definition.

The point of declaration for a template parameter is immediately after its complete template-parameter.

\begin{verbatim}
typedef unsigned char T;
template<class T = T>
  // lookup finds the typedef name of unsigned char
  , T // lookup finds the template parameter
  N = 0> struct A {);
\end{verbatim}

— end example]

[Note: friend declarations refer to functions or classes that are members of the nearest enclosing namespace, but they do not introduce new names into that namespace (7.3.1.2). Function declarations at block scope and object declarations with the extern specifier at block scope refer to declarations that are members of an enclosing namespace, but they do not introduce new names into that scope. — end note]

[Note: for point of instantiation of a template, see 14.7.4.1. — end note]

### 3.3.3 Local scope

1 A name declared in a block (6.3) is local to that block. Its potential scope begins at its point of declaration (3.3.2) and ends at the end of its declarative region.

2 The potential scope of a function parameter name (including one appearing in a lambda-declarator) or of a function-local predefined variable in a function definition (8.4) begins at its point of declaration. If the function has a function-try-block the potential scope of a parameter or of a function-local predefined variable ends at the end of the last associated handler, otherwise it ends at the end of the outermost block of the function definition. A parameter name shall not be redeclared in the outermost block of the function definition nor in the outermost block of any handler associated with a function-try-block.

3 The name in a catch exception-declaration is local to the handler and shall not be redeclared in the outermost block of the handler.
Names declared in the `for-init-statement`, the `for-range-declaration`, and in the `condition` of `if`, `while`, `for`, and `switch` statements are local to the `if`, `while`, `for`, or `switch` statement (including the controlled statement), and shall not be redeclared in a subsequent condition of that statement nor in the outermost block (or, for the `if` statement, any of the outermost blocks) of the controlled statement; see 6.4.

### 3.3.4 Function prototype scope

In a function declaration, or in any function declarator except the declarator of a function definition (8.4), names of parameters (if supplied) have function prototype scope, which terminates at the end of the nearest enclosing function declarator.

### 3.3.5 Function scope

Labels (6.1) have function scope and may be used anywhere in the function in which they are declared. Only labels have function scope.

### 3.3.6 Namespace scope

The declarative region of a `namespace-definition` is its `namespace-body`. The potential scope denoted by an `original-namespace-name` is the concatenation of the declarative regions established by each of the `namespace-declarations` in the same declarative region with that `original-namespace-name`. Entities declared in a `namespace-body` are said to be members of the namespace, and names introduced by these declarations into the declarative region of the namespace are said to be member names of the namespace. A namespace member name has namespace scope. Its potential scope includes its namespace from the name’s point of declaration (3.3.2) onwards; and for each `using-directive` (7.3.4) that nominates the member’s namespace, the member’s potential scope includes that portion of the potential scope of the `using-directive` that follows the member’s point of declaration. [Example:

```c
namespace N {
  int i;
  int g(int a) { return a; }
  int j();
  void q();
}
namespace { int l=1; }
// the potential scope of l is from its point of declaration
// to the end of the translation unit

namespace N {
  int g(char a) {
    // overloads N::g(int)
    return l+a; // l is from unnamed namespace
  }

  int i; // error: duplicate definition
  int j(); // OK: duplicate function declaration

  int j() {
    // OK: definition of N::j()
    return g(i); // calls N::g(int)
  }
  int q(); // error: different return type
}
```

— end example]
A namespace member can also be referred to after the :: scope resolution operator (5.1) applied to the name of its namespace or the name of a namespace which nominates the member’s namespace in a using-directive; see 3.4.3.2.

The outermost declarative region of a translation unit is also a namespace, called the global namespace. A name declared in the global namespace has global namespace scope (also called global scope). The potential scope of such a name begins at its point of declaration (3.3.2) and ends at the end of the translation unit that is its declarative region. Names with global namespace scope are said to be global.

### 3.3.7 Class scope [basic.scope.class]

The following rules describe the scope of names declared in classes.

1) The potential scope of a name declared in a class consists not only of the declarative region following the name’s point of declaration, but also of all function bodies, brace-or-equal-initializers of non-static data members, and default arguments in that class (including such things in nested classes).

2) A name N used in a class S shall refer to the same declaration in its context and when re-evaluated in the completed scope of S. No diagnostic is required for a violation of this rule.

3) If reordering member declarations in a class yields an alternate valid program under (1) and (2), the program is ill-formed, no diagnostic is required.

4) A name declared within a member function hides a declaration of the same name whose scope extends to or past the end of the member function’s class.

5) The potential scope of a declaration that extends to or past the end of a class definition also extends to the regions defined by its member definitions, even if the members are defined lexically outside the class (this includes static data member definitions, nested class definitions, member function definitions (including the member function body and any portion of the declarator part of such definitions which follows the declarator-id, including a parameter-declaration-clause and any default arguments (8.3.6)).

```
typedef int c;
enum { i = 1 };

class X {
  char v[i];
  // error: i refers to ::i
  // but when reevaluated is X::i
  int f() { return sizeof(c); } // OK: X::c
  char c;
  enum { i = 2 };
};

typedef char* T;
struct Y {
  T a;
  // error: T refers to ::T
  // but when reevaluated is Y::T
  typedef long T;
  T b;
};

typedef int I;
class D {
  typedef I I;
  // error, even though no reordering involved
};
```
The name of a class member shall only be used as follows:

— in the scope of its class (as described above) or a class derived (Clause 10) from its class,
— after the . operator applied to an expression of the type of its class (5.2.5) or a class derived from its class,
— after the -> operator applied to a pointer to an object of its class (5.2.5) or a class derived from its class,
— after the :: scope resolution operator (5.1) applied to the name of its class or a class derived from its class.

### 3.3.8 Enumeration scope

The name of a scoped enumerator (7.2) has enumeration scope. Its potential scope begins at its point of declaration and terminates at the end of the enum-specifier.

### 3.3.9 Template Parameter Scope

The declarative region of the name of a template parameter of a template is the smallest template-parameter-list in which the name was introduced.

The declarative region of the name of a template parameter of a template in which the name was introduced. Only template parameter names belong to this declarative region; any other kind of name introduced by the declaration of a template-declaration is instead introduced into the same declarative region where it would be introduced as a result of a non-template declaration of the same name. [Example:

```cpp
namespace N {
    template<class T> struct A { }; // #1
    template<class U> void f(U) { } // #2
    struct B {
        template<class V> friend int g(struct C*); // #3
    };
}
```

The declarative regions of T, U and V are the template-declarations on lines #1, #2 and #3, respectively. But the names A, f, g and C all belong to the same declarative region — namely, the namespace-body of N. (g is still considered to belong to this declarative region in spite of its being hidden during qualified and unqualified name lookup.) — end example]

3 The potential scope of a template parameter name begins at its point of declaration (3.3.2) and ends at the end of its declarative region. [Note: this implies that a template-parameter can be used in the declaration of subsequent template-parameters and their default arguments but cannot be used in preceding template-parameters or their default arguments. For example,

```cpp
template<class T, T* p, class U = T> class X { /* ... */ };
template<class T> void f(T* p = new T);
```

This also implies that a template-parameter can be used in the specification of base classes. For example,

```cpp
template<class T> class X : public Array<T> { /* ... */ };
template<class T> class Y : public T { /* ... */ };
```
The use of a template parameter as a base class implies that a class used as a template argument must be defined and not just declared when the class template is instantiated. — end note]

The declarative region of the name of a template parameter is nested within the immediately-enclosing declarative region. [Note: as a result, a template-parameter hides any entity with the same name in an enclosing scope (3.3.10).] [Example:

```c
typedef int N;
template<N X, typename N, template<N Y> class T> struct A;
```

Here, X is a non-type template parameter of type int and Y is a non-type template parameter of the same type as the second template parameter of A. — end example] — end note]

[Note: because the name of a template parameter cannot be redeclared within its potential scope (14.7.1), a template parameter’s scope is often its potential scope. However, it is still possible for a template parameter name to be hidded; see 14.7.1. — end note]

### 3.3.10 Name hiding

A name can be hidden by an explicit declaration of that same name in a nested declarative region or derived class (10.2).

A class name (9.1) or enumeration name (7.2) can be hidden by the name of an object, function, or enumerator declared in the same scope. If a class or enumeration name and an object, function, or enumerator are declared in the same scope (in any order) with the same name, the class or enumeration name is hidden wherever the object, function, or enumerator name is visible.

In a member function definition, the declaration of a local name hides the declaration of a member of the class with the same name; see 3.3.7. The declaration of a member in a derived class (Clause 10) hides the declaration of a member of a base class of the same name; see 10.2.

During the lookup of a name qualified by a namespace name, declarations that would otherwise be made visible by a using-directive can be hidden by declarations with the same name in the namespace containing the using-directive; see (3.4.3.2).

If a name is in scope and is not hidden it is said to be visible.

### 3.4 Name lookup

The name lookup rules apply uniformly to all names (including typedef-names (7.1.3), namespace-names (7.3), and class-names (9.1)) wherever the grammar allows such names in the context discussed by a particular rule. Name lookup associates the use of a name with a declaration (3.1) of that name. Name lookup shall find an unambiguous declaration for the name (see 10.2). Name lookup may associate more than one declaration with a name if it finds the name to be a function name; the declarations are said to form a set of overloaded functions (13.1). Overload resolution (13.3) takes place after name lookup has succeeded. The access rules (Clause 11) are considered only once name lookup and function overload resolution (if applicable) have succeeded. Only after name lookup, function overload resolution (if applicable) and access checking have succeeded are the attributes introduced by the name’s declaration used further in expression processing (Clause 5).

A name “looked up in the context of an expression” is looked up as an unqualified name in the scope where the expression is found.

The injected-class-name of a class (Clause 9) is also considered to be a member of that class for the purposes of name hiding and lookup.

§ 3.4
[Note: 3.5 discusses linkage issues. The notions of scope, point of declaration and name hiding are discussed in 3.3. — end note]

### 3.4.1 Unqualified name lookup

In all the cases listed in 3.4.1, the scopes are searched for a declaration in the order listed in each of the respective categories; name lookup ends as soon as a declaration is found for the name. If no declaration is found, the program is ill-formed.

1. The declarations from the namespace nominated by a `using-directive` become visible in a namespace enclosing the `using-directive`; see 7.3.4. For the purpose of the unqualified name lookup rules described in 3.4.1, the declarations from the namespace nominated by the `using-directive` are considered members of that enclosing namespace.

2. The lookup for an unqualified name used as the postfix-expression of a function call is described in 3.4.2. [Note: for purposes of determining (during parsing) whether an expression is a postfix-expression for a function call, the usual name lookup rules apply. The rules in 3.4.2 have no effect on the syntactic interpretation of an expression. For example,

```cpp
typedef int f;
namespace N {
    struct A {
        friend void f(A &); 
        operator int();
        void g(A a) {
            int i = f(a); // f is the typedef, not the friend
            // function: equivalent to int(a)
        }
    };
}
```

Because the expression is not a function call, the argument-dependent name lookup (3.4.2) does not apply and the friend function `f` is not found. — end note]

4. A name used in global scope, outside of any function, class or user-declared namespace, shall be declared before its use in global scope.

5. A name used in a user-declared namespace outside of the definition of any function or class shall be declared before its use in that namespace or before its use in a namespace enclosing its namespace.

6. A name used in the definition of a function following the function’s declarator-id that is a member of namespace `N` (where, only for the purpose of exposition, `N` could represent the global scope) shall be declared before its use in the block in which it is used or in one of its enclosing blocks (6.3) or, shall be declared before its use in namespace `N` or, if `N` is a nested namespace, shall be declared before its use in one of `N`’s enclosing namespaces. [Example:

```cpp
namespace A {
    namespace N {
        void f();
    }
}
void A::N::f() {
    i = 5;
    // The following scopes are searched for a declaration of i:
```

27) This refers to unqualified names that occur, for instance, in a type or default argument expression in the parameter-declaration-clause or used in the function body.
A name used in the definition of a class \( X \) outside of a member function body or nested class definition shall be declared in one of the following ways:

- before its use in class \( X \) or be a member of a base class of \( X \) (10.2), or
- if \( X \) is a nested class of class \( Y \) (9.7), before the definition of \( X \) in \( Y \), or shall be a member of a base class of \( Y \) (this lookup applies in turn to \( Y \)'s enclosing classes, starting with the innermost enclosing class), or
- if \( X \) is a local class (9.8) or is a nested class of a local class, before the definition of class \( X \) in a block enclosing the definition of class \( X \), or
- if \( X \) is a member of namespace \( N \), or is a nested class of a class that is a member of \( N \), or is a local class or a nested class within a local class of a function that is a member of \( N \), before the definition of class \( X \) in namespace \( N \) or in one of \( N \)'s enclosing namespaces.

[Example:

```cpp
namespace M {
    class B { }
};
namespace N {
    class Y : public M::B {
        class X {
            int a[i];
        };
    };
}
```

// The following scopes are searched for a declaration of \( i \):
// 1) scope of class \( N::X \), before the use of \( i \)
// 2) scope of class \( N::Y \), before the definition of \( N::X \)
// 3) scope of \( N::Y \)'s base class \( M::B \)
// 4) scope of namespace \( N \), before the definition of \( N::Y \)
// 5) global scope, before the definition of \( N \)

— end example] [Note: when looking for a prior declaration of a class or function introduced by a \texttt{friend} declaration, scopes outside of the innermost enclosing namespace scope are not considered; see 7.3.1.2. — end note] [Note: 3.3.7 further describes the restrictions on the use of names in a class definition. 9.7 further describes the restrictions on the use of names in nested class definitions. 9.8 further describes the restrictions on the use of names in local class definitions. — end note]

---

28) This refers to unqualified names following the class name; such a name may be used in the \texttt{base-clause} or may be used in the class definition.

29) This lookup applies whether the definition of \( X \) is nested within \( Y \)'s definition or whether \( X \)'s definition appears in a namespace scope enclosing \( Y \)'s definition (9.7).
A name used in the definition of a member function (9.3) of class \( X \) following the function’s delector-id 30 or in the brace-or-equal-initializer of a non-static data member (9.2) of class \( X \) shall be declared in one of the following ways:

— before its use in the block in which it is used or in an enclosing block (6.3), or

— shall be a member of class \( X \) or be a member of a base class of \( X \) (10.2), or

— if \( X \) is a nested class of class \( Y \) (9.7), shall be a member of \( Y \), or shall be a member of a base class of \( Y \) (this lookup applies in turn to \( Y \)’s enclosing classes, starting with the innermost enclosing class), 31 or

— if \( X \) is a local class (9.8) or is a nested class of a local class, before the definition of class \( X \) in a block enclosing the definition of class \( X \), or

— if \( X \) is a member of namespace \( N \), or is a nested class of a class that is a member of \( N \), or is a local class or a nested class within a local class of a function that is a member of \( N \), before the use of the name, in namespace \( N \) or in one of \( N \)’s enclosing namespaces.

[Example:

class B { }
namespace M {
    namespace N {
        class X : public B {
            void f();
        };
    }
}
void M::N::X::f() {
    i = 16;
}

// The following scopes are searched for a declaration of i:
// 1) outermost block scope of M::N::X::f, before the use of i
// 2) scope of class M::N::X
// 3) scope of M::N::X’s base class B
// 4) scope of namespace M::N
// 5) scope of namespace M
// 6) global scope, before the definition of M::N::X::f

— end example] [ Note: 9.3 and 9.4 further describe the restrictions on the use of names in member function definitions. 9.7 further describes the restrictions on the use of names in the scope of nested classes. 9.8 further describes the restrictions on the use of names in local class definitions. — end note]

Name lookup for a name used in the definition of a friend function (11.4) defined inline in the class granting friendship shall proceed as described for lookup in member function definitions. If the friend function is not defined in the class granting friendship, name lookup in the friend function definition shall proceed as described for lookup in namespace member function definitions.

In a friend declaration naming a member function, a name used in the function declarator and not part of a template-argument in a template-id is first looked up in the scope of the member function’s class. If it is not found, or if the name is part of a template-argument in a template-id, the look up is as described for unqualified names in the definition of the class granting friendship. [Example:

30 That is, an unqualified name that occurs, for instance, in a type or default argument expression in the parameter-declaration-clause or in the function body.

31 This lookup applies whether the member function is defined within the definition of class \( X \) or whether the member function is defined in a namespace scope enclosing \( X \)’s definition.
struct A {
    typedef int AT;
    void f1(AT);
    void f2(float);
};
struct B {
    typedef float BT;
    friend void A::f1(AT);  // parameter type is A::AT
    friend void A::f2(BT);  // parameter type is B::BT
};

— end example]

11 During the lookup for a name used as a default argument (8.3.6) in a function parameter-declaration-clause or used in the expression of a mem-initializer for a constructor (12.6.2), the function parameter names are visible and hide the names of entities declared in the block, class or namespace scopes containing the function declaration. [Note: 8.3.6 further describes the restrictions on the use of names in default arguments. 12.6.2 further describes the restrictions on the use of names in a ctor-initializer. — end note]

12 During the lookup of a name used in the constant-expression of an enumerator-definition, previously declared enumerators of the enumeration are visible and hide the names of entities declared in the block, class, or namespace scopes containing the enum-specifier.

13 A name used in the definition of a static data member of class X (9.4.2) (after the qualified-id of the static member) is looked up as if the name was used in a member function of X. [Note: 9.4.2 further describes the restrictions on the use of names in the definition of a static data member. — end note]

14 If a variable member of a namespace is defined outside of the scope of its namespace then any name used in the definition of the variable member (after the declarator-id) is looked up as if the definition of the variable member occurred in its namespace. [Example:

```cpp
namespace N {
    int i = 4;
    extern int j;
}
int i = 2;
int N::j = i;  // N::j == 4
— end example]

15 A name used in the handler for a function-try-block (Clause 15) is looked up as if the name was used in the outermost block of the function definition. In particular, the function parameter names shall not be redeclared in the exception-declaration nor in the outermost block of a handler for the function-try-block. Names declared in the outermost block of the function definition are not found when looked up in the scope of a handler for the function-try-block. [Note: but function parameter names are found. — end note]

16 [Note: the rules for name lookup in template definitions are described in 14.7. — end note]

3.4.2 Argument-dependent name lookup [basic.lookup.argdep]

1 When an unqualified name is used as the postfix-expression in a function call (5.2.2) is an unqualified-id, other namespaces not considered during the usual unqualified lookup (3.4.1) may be searched, and in those namespaces, namespace-scope friend function declarations (11.4) not otherwise visible may be found. These
modifications to the search depend on the types of the arguments (and for template template arguments, the namespace of the template argument). [Example:

```c
namespace N {
    struct S {
    }
    void f(S);
}

void g() {
    N::S s;
    f(s); // OK: calls N::f
    (f)(s); // error: N::f not considered; parentheses
    // prevent argument-dependent lookup
}
```

— end example]

2 For each argument type \( T \) in the function call, there is a set of zero or more associated namespaces and a set of zero or more associated classes to be considered. The sets of namespaces and classes is determined entirely by the types of the function arguments (and the namespace of any template template argument). Typedef names and using-declarations used to specify the types do not contribute to this set. The sets of namespaces and classes are determined in the following way:

— If \( T \) is a fundamental type, its associated sets of namespaces and classes are both empty.

— If \( T \) is a class type (including unions), its associated classes are: the class itself; the class of which it is a member; if any; and its direct and indirect base classes. Its associated namespaces are the namespaces of which its associated classes are members. Furthermore, if \( T \) is a class template specialization, its associated namespaces and classes also include: the namespaces and classes associated with the types of the template arguments provided for template type parameters (excluding template template parameters); the namespaces of which any template template arguments are members; and the classes of which any member templates used as template template arguments are members. [Note: non-type template arguments do not contribute to the set of associated namespaces. — end note]

— If \( T \) is an enumeration type, its associated namespace is the namespace in which it is defined. If it is class member, its associated class is the member’s class; else it has no associated class.

— If \( T \) is a pointer to \( U \) or an array of \( U \), its associated namespaces and classes are those associated with \( U \).

— If \( T \) is a function type, its associated namespaces and classes are those associated with the function parameter types and those associated with the return type.

— If \( T \) is a pointer to a member function of a class \( X \), its associated namespaces and classes are those associated with the function parameter types and return type, together with those associated with \( X \).

— If \( T \) is a pointer to a data member of class \( X \), its associated namespaces and classes are those associated with the member type together with those associated with \( X \).

If an associated namespace is an inline namespace (7.3.1), its enclosing namespace is also included in the set. If an associated namespace directly contains inline namespaces, those inline namespaces are also included in the set. In addition, if the argument is the name or address of a set of overloaded functions and/or function templates, its associated classes and namespaces are the union of those associated with each of the members of the set: the namespace in which the function or function template is defined and, i.e., the classes and namespaces associated with its (non-dependent) parameter types and return type.
Let $X$ be the lookup set produced by unqualified lookup (3.4.1) and let $Y$ be the lookup set produced by argument dependent lookup (defined as follows). If $X$ contains

- a declaration of a class member, or
- a block-scope function declaration that is not a `using-declaration`, or
- a declaration that is neither a function or a function template

then $Y$ is empty. Otherwise $Y$ is the set of declarations found in the namespaces associated with the argument types as described below. The set of declarations found by the lookup of the name is the union of $X$ and $Y$. [Note: the namespaces and classes associated with the argument types can include namespaces and classes already considered by the ordinary unqualified lookup. — end note] [Example:

```cpp
namespace NS {
    class T {
    public:
        static int n;
    };}
int main() {
    class A {
        public:
            static int n;
    }; int main() {
    int main() {
        int A;
        A::n = 42; // OK
        A b; // ill-formed: A does not name a type
    }
    }
    }
    }
```
Note: multiply qualified names, such as N1::N2::N3::n, can be used to refer to members of nested classes (9.7) or members of nested namespaces. — end note

In a declaration in which the declarator-id is a qualified-id, names used before the qualified-id being declared are looked up in the defining namespace scope; names following the qualified-id are looked up in the scope of the member's class or namespace. [Example:

```c
class X { };
class C {
    class X { };
    static const int number = 50;
    static X arr[number];
};
X C::arr[number]; // ill-formed:
// equivalent to: X C::arr[C::number];
// not to: C::X C::arr[C::number];
```
— end example]

A name prefixed by the unary scope operator :: (5.1) is looked up in global scope, in the translation unit where it is used. The name shall be declared in global namespace scope or shall be a name whose declaration is visible in global scope because of a using-directive (3.4.3.2). The use of :: allows a global name to be referred to even if its identifier has been hidden (3.3.10).

A name prefixed by a nested-name-specifier that nominates an enumeration type shall represent an enumerator of that enumeration.

If a pseudo-destructor-name (5.2.4) contains a nested-name-specifier, the type-names are looked up as types in the scope designated by the nested-name-specifier. Similarly, in a qualified-id of the form:

```c
::opt nested-name-specifier opt class-name :: ~ class-name
```
the second class-name is looked up in the same scope as the first. [Example:

```c
struct C {
    typedef int I;
};
typedef int I1, I2;
extern int* p;
extern int* q;
p->C::I::"I"(); // I is looked up in the scope of C
q->I1::"I2"(); // I2 is looked up in the scope of
// the postfix-expression
```

```c
struct A {
    ~A();
};
typedef A AB;
t void main() {
    AB *p;
    p->AB::"AB"(); // explicitly calls the destructor for A
}
```
— end example] [Note: 3.4.5 describes how name lookup proceeds after the . and -> operators. — end note]

3.4.3.1 Class members

1 If the nested-name-specifier of a qualified-id nominates a class, the name specified after the nested-name-specifier is looked up in the scope of the class (10.2), except for the cases listed below. The name shall represent one or more members of that class or of one of its base classes (Clause 10). [Note: a class member can be referred to using a qualified-id at any point in its potential scope (3.3.7). — end note] The exceptions to the name lookup rule above are the following:

— a destructor name is looked up as specified in 3.4.3;
— a conversion-type-id of an conversion-function-id is looked up both in the scope of the class and in the context in which the entire postfix-expression occurs and shall refer to the same type in both contexts;
— the names in a template-argument of a template-id are looked up in the context in which the entire postfix-expression occurs.
— the lookup for a name specified in a using-declaration (7.3.3) also finds class or enumeration names hidden within the same scope (3.3.10).

2 In a lookup in which the constructor is an acceptable lookup result and the nested-name-specifier nominates a class C:

— if the name specified after the nested-name-specifier, when looked up in C, is the injected-class-name of C (Clause 9), or
— if the name specified after the nested-name-specifier is the same as the identifier or the simple-template-id’s template-name in the last component of the nested-name-specifier,

the name is instead considered to name the constructor of class C. [Note: for example, the constructor is not an acceptable lookup result in an elaborated-type-specifier so the constructor would not be used in place of the injected-class-name. — end note] Such a constructor name shall be used only in the declarator-id of a declaration that names a constructor or in a using-declaration. [Example:

```
struct A { A(); };  // object of type A
struct B: public A { B(); };  // error, A::A is not a type name
A::A a;  // object of type A
A::A a2;  // object of type A
```
— end example]

3 A class member name hidden by a name in a nested declarative region or by the name of a derived class member can still be found if qualified by the name of its class followed by the :: operator.

3.4.3.2 Namespace members

1 If the nested-name-specifier of a qualified-id nominates a namespace, the name specified after the nested-name-specifier is looked up in the scope of the namespace, except that the names in a template-argument of a template-id are looked up in the context in which the entire postfix-expression occurs.

§ 3.4.3.2
Given \( X::m \) (where \( X \) is a user-declared namespace), or given \( ::m \) (where \( X \) is the global namespace), let \( S \) be the set of all declarations of \( m \) in \( X \) and in the transitive closure of all namespaces nominated by \textit{using-directives} in \( X \) and its used namespaces, except that \textit{using-directives} that nominate non-inline namespaces (7.3.1) are ignored in any namespace, including \( X \), directly containing one or more declarations of \( m \). No namespace is searched more than once in the lookup of a name. If \( S \) is the empty set, the program is ill-formed. Otherwise, if \( S \) has exactly one member, or if the context of the reference is a \textit{using-declaration} (7.3.3), \( S \) is the required set of declarations of \( m \). Otherwise if the use of \( m \) is not one that allows a unique declaration to be chosen from \( S \), the program is ill-formed. [\textit{Example:}\]

```cpp
int x;
namespace Y {
    void f(float);
    void h(int);
}

namespace Z {
    void h(double);
}

namespace A {
    using namespace Y;
    void f(int);
    void g(int);
    int i;
}

namespace B {
    using namespace Z;
    void f(char);
    int i;
}

namespace AB {
    using namespace A;
    using namespace B;
    void g();
}

void h() {
    AB::g();  // \textit{g} is declared directly in AB,
        // therefore \( S \) is \{ \textit{AB::g()} \} and \textit{AB::g()} is chosen
    AB::f(1);  // \textit{f} is not declared directly in AB so the rules are
        // applied recursively to A and B;
        // namespace Y is not searched and Y::f(float)
        // is not considered;
        // \( S \) is \{ \textit{A::f(int)}, \textit{B::f(char)} \} and overload
        // resolution chooses \textit{A::f(int)}
    AB::f('c');  // as above but resolution chooses \textit{B::f(char)}
    AB::x++;  // \textit{x} is not declared directly in AB, and
        // is not declared in A or B, so the rules are
        // applied recursively to Y and Z,
        // \( S \) is \{ \} so the program is ill-formed
    AB::i++;  // \textit{i} is not declared directly in AB so the rules are
```

§ 3.4.3.2
4 The same declaration found more than once is not an ambiguity (because it is still a unique declaration).

For example:

```cpp
namespace A {
    int a;
}

namespace B {
    using namespace A;
}

namespace C {
    using namespace A;
}

namespace BC {
    using namespace B;
    using namespace C;
}

void f() {
    BC::a++;  // OK: S is { A::a, A::a }
}

namespace D {
    using A::a;
}

namespace BD {
    using namespace B;
    using namespace D;
}

void g() {
    BD::a++;  // OK: S is { A::a, A::a }
}
```

4 Because each referenced namespace is searched at most once, the following is well-defined:

```cpp
namespace B {
    int b;
}

namespace A {
    int a;
}
```
using namespace B;
  int a;
}

namespace B {
  using namespace A;
}

void f() {
  A::a++;
  // OK: a declared directly in A, S is \{A::a\}
  B::a++;
  // OK: both A and B searched (once), S is \{A::a\}
  A::b++;
  // OK: both A and B searched (once), S is \{B::b\}
  B::b++;
  // OK: b declared directly in B, S is \{B::b\}
}

— end example

During the lookup of a qualified namespace member name, if the lookup finds more than one declaration of
the member, and if one declaration introduces a class name or enumeration name and the other declarations
either introduce the same object, the same enumerator or a set of functions, the non-type name hides the
class or enumeration name if and only if the declarations are from the same namespace; otherwise (the
declarations are from different namespaces), the program is ill-formed. [Example:

namespace A {
  struct x { };  
  int x;
  int y;
}

namespace B {
  struct y { }; 
}

namespace C {
  using namespace A;
  using namespace B;
  int i = C::x;   // OK, A::x (of type int)
  int j = C::y;   // ambiguous, A::y or B::y
}

— end example]

In a declaration for a namespace member in which the declarator-id is a qualified-id, given that the qualified-id
for the namespace member has the form

    nested-name-specifier unqualified-id

the unqualified-id shall name a member of the namespace designated by the nested-name-specifier. [Example:

namespace A {
namespace B {
  void f1(int);
}
using namespace B;
}
void A::f1(int){ }  // ill-formed, f1 is not a member of A

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However, in such namespace member declarations, the nested-name-specifier may rely on using-directives to implicitly provide the initial part of the nested-name-specifier. [Example:

```cpp
namespace A {
    namespace B {
        void f1(int);
    }
}
namespace C {
    namespace D {
        void f1(int);
    }
}
using namespace A;
using namespace C::D;
void B::f1(int){ } // OK, defines A::B::f1(int)
```

— end example]

3.4.4 Elaborated type specifiers

1 An elaborated-type-specifier (7.1.6.3) may be used to refer to a previously declared class-name or enum-name even though the name has been hidden by a non-type declaration (3.3.10).

2 If the elaborated-type-specifier has no nested-name-specifier, and unless the elaborated-type-specifier appears in a declaration with the following form:

```
class-key identifier attribute-specifieropt;
```

the identifier is looked up according to 3.4.1 but ignoring any non-type names that have been declared. If the elaborated-type-specifier is introduced by the enum keyword and this lookup does not find a previously declared type-name, the elaborated-type-specifier is ill-formed. If the elaborated-type-specifier is introduced by the class-key and this lookup does not find a previously declared type-name, or if the elaborated-type-specifier appears in a declaration with the form:

```
class-key identifier attribute-specifieropt;
```

the elaborated-type-specifier is a declaration that introduces the class-name as described in 3.3.2.

3 If the elaborated-type-specifier has a nested-name-specifier, qualified name lookup is performed, as described in 3.4.3, but ignoring any non-type names that have been declared. If the name lookup does not find a previously declared type-name, the elaborated-type-specifier is ill-formed. [Example:

```cpp
struct Node {
    struct Node* Next; // OK: Refers to Node at global scope
    struct Data* Data; // OK: Declares type Data
                       // at global scope and member Data
};

struct Data {
    struct Node* Node; // OK: Refers to Node at global scope
    friend struct ::Glob; // error: Glob is not declared
                           // cannot introduce a qualified type (7.1.6.3)
    friend struct Glob; // OK: Refers to (as yet) undeclared Glob
                         // at global scope.
    /* ... */
```

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struct Base {
    struct Data; // OK: Declares nested Data
    struct ::Data* thatData; // OK: Refers to ::Data
    struct Base::Data* thisData; // OK: Refers to nested Data
    friend class ::Data; // OK: global Data is a friend
    friend class Data; // OK: nested Data is a friend
    struct Data { /* ... */ }; // Defines nested Data
};

struct Data; // OK: Redefines Data at global scope
struct ::Data; // error: cannot introduce a qualified type (7.1.6.3)
struct Base::Data; // error: cannot introduce a qualified type (7.1.6.3)
struct Base::Datum; // error: Datum undefined
struct Base::Data* pBase; // OK: refers to nested Data

— end example

3.4.5 Class member access [basic.lookup.classref]

1 In a class member access expression (5.2.5), if the . or \texttt{\textasciitilde} token is immediately followed by an \textit{identifier} followed by a \texttt{\textasciitilde}, the identifier must be looked up to determine whether the \texttt{\textasciitilde} is the beginning of a template argument list (14.3) or a less-than operator. The identifier is first looked up in the class of the object expression. If the identifier is not found, it is then looked up in the context of the entire \textit{postfix-expression} and shall name a class template. If the lookup in the class of the object expression finds a template, the name is also looked up in the context of the entire \textit{postfix-expression} and

— if the name is not found, the name found in the class of the object expression is used, otherwise

— if the name is found in the context of the entire \textit{postfix-expression} and does not name a class template, the name found in the class of the object expression is used, otherwise

— if the name found is a class template, it shall refer to the same entity as the one found in the class of the object expression, otherwise the program is ill-formed.

2 If the \textit{id-expression} in a class member access (5.2.5) is an \textit{unqualified-id}, and the type of the object expression is of a class type \texttt{C}, the \textit{unqualified-id} is looked up in the scope of class \texttt{C}. If the type of the object expression is of pointer to scalar type, the \textit{unqualified-id} is looked up in the context of the complete \textit{postfix-expression}.

3 If the \textit{unqualified-id} is \texttt{\textasciitilde\textit{type-name}}, the \textit{type-name} is looked up in the context of the entire \textit{postfix-expression}. If the \texttt{T} of the object expression is of a class type \texttt{C}, the \textit{type-name} is also looked up in the scope of class \texttt{C}. At least one of the lookups shall find a name that refers to (possibly cv-qualified) \texttt{T}. [Example:

\begin{verbatim}
struct A { }

struct B {
    struct A { }
    void f(::A* a);
};

void B::f(::A* a) {
    a->\texttt{\textasciitilde}A(); // OK: lookup in *a finds the injected-class-name
}
\end{verbatim}

— end example]
If the id-expression in a class member access is a qualified-id of the form

\[\text{class-name-or-namespace-name::...}\]

the class-name-or-namespace-name following the . or -> operator is looked up both in the context of the entire postfix-expression and in the scope of the class of the object expression. If the name is found only in the scope of the class of the object expression, the name shall refer to a class-name. If the name is found only in the context of the entire postfix-expression, the name shall refer to a class-name or namespace-name. If the name is found in both contexts, the class-name-or-namespace-name shall refer to the same entity.

If the qualified-id has the form

\[::\text{class-name-or-namespace-name::...}\]

the class-name-or-namespace-name is looked up in global scope as a class-name or namespace-name.

If the nested-name-specifier contains a simple-template-id (14.3), the names in its template-arguments are looked up in the context in which the entire postfix-expression occurs.

If the id-expression is a conversion-function-id, its conversion-type-id shall denote the same type in both the context in which the entire postfix-expression occurs and in the context of the class of the object expression (or the class pointed to by the pointer expression).

### 3.4.6 Using-directives and namespace aliases

When looking up a namespace-name in a using-directive or namespace-alias-definition, only namespace names are considered.

### 3.5 Program and linkage

A program consists of one or more translation units (Clause 2) linked together. A translation unit consists of a sequence of declarations.

\[\text{translation-unit:} \]
\[\text{declaration-seq} \text{opt}\]

A name is said to have linkage when it might denote the same object, reference, function, type, template, namespace or value as a name introduced by a declaration in another scope:

- When a name has external linkage, the entity it denotes can be referred to by names from scopes of other translation units or from other scopes of the same translation unit.
- When a name has internal linkage, the entity it denotes can be referred to by names from other scopes in the same translation unit.
- When a name has no linkage, the entity it denotes cannot be referred to by names from other scopes.

A name having namespace scope (3.3.6) has internal linkage if it is the name of

- an object, reference, function or function template that is explicitly declared static; or,
- an object or reference that is explicitly declared const and neither explicitly declared extern nor previously declared to have external linkage; or
- a data member of an anonymous union.

A name having namespace scope has external linkage if it is the name of

- an object or reference, unless it has internal linkage; or
- a function, unless it has internal linkage; or

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a named class (Clause 9), or an unnamed class defined in a typedef declaration in which the class has
the typedef name for linkage purposes (7.1.3); or
— a named enumeration (7.2), or an unnamed enumeration defined in a typedef declaration in which the
enumeration has the typedef name for linkage purposes (7.1.3); or
— an enumerator belonging to an enumeration with external linkage; or
— a template, unless it is a function template that has internal linkage (Clause 14); or
— a namespace (7.3), unless it is declared within an unnamed namespace.

5 In addition, a member function, static data member, a named class or enumeration of class scope, or an
unnamed class or enumeration defined in a class-scope typedef declaration such that the class or enumeration
has the typedef name for linkage purposes (7.1.3), has external linkage if the name of the class has external
linkage.

6 The name of a function declared in block scope and the name of an object declared by a block scope extern
declaration have linkage. If there is a visible declaration of an entity with linkage having the same name and
type, ignoring entities declared outside the innermost enclosing namespace scope, the block scope declaration
declares that same entity and receives the linkage of the previous declaration. If there is more than one such
matching entity, the program is ill-formed. Otherwise, if no matching entity is found, the block scope entity
receives external linkage. [Example:

```c
static void f();
static int i = 0; // 1
void g() {
    extern void f(); // internal linkage
    int i; // 2: i has no linkage
    {
        extern void f(); // internal linkage
        extern int i; // 3: external linkage
    }
}
```

There are three objects named `i` in this program. The object with internal linkage introduced by the
declaration in global scope (line //1 ), the object with automatic storage duration and no linkage introduced
by the declaration on line //2, and the object with static storage duration and external linkage introduced
by the declaration on line //3. — end example]

7 When a block scope declaration of an entity with linkage is not found to refer to some other declaration,
then that entity is a member of the innermost enclosing namespace. However such a declaration does not
introduce the member name in its namespace scope. [Example:

```c
namespace X {
    void p() {
        q(); // error: q not yet declared
        extern void q(); // q is a member of namespace X
    }

    void middle() {
        q(); // error: q not yet declared
    }

    void q() { /* ... */ } // definition of X::q
}
```

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void q() { /* ... */ } // some other, unrelated q

— end example]

8 Names not covered by these rules have no linkage. Moreover, except as noted, a name declared in a local scope (3.3.3) has no linkage. A type is said to have linkage if and only if:

— it is a class or enumeration type that is named (or has a name for linkage purposes (7.1.3)) and the name has linkage; or
— it is a specialization of a class template (14)\(^{32}\); or
— it is a fundamental type (3.9.1); or
— it is a compound type (3.9.2) other than a class or enumeration, compounded exclusively from types that have linkage; or
— it is a cv-qualified (3.9.3) version of a type that has linkage.

A type without linkage shall not be used as the type of a variable or function with \textit{external} linkage unless

— the variable or function has \texttt{extern “C”} \texttt{C} \texttt{language} linkage (7.5), or
— the variable or function is declared within an unnamed namespace (7.3.1), or
— the variable or function is not used (3.2) or is defined in the same translation unit.

[\textit{Note:} in other words, a type without linkage contains a class or enumeration that cannot be named outside its translation unit. An entity with external linkage declared using such a type could not correspond to any other entity in another translation unit of the program and thus must be defined in the translation unit if it is used. Also note that classes with linkage may contain members whose types do not have linkage, and that typedef names are ignored in the determination of whether a type has linkage. — end note]

[Example:

\begin{verbatim}
template <class T> struct B {
    void g(T) { }
    void h(T);
    friend void i(B, T) { }
};

void f() {
    struct A { int x; }; // no linkage
    A a = { 1 };        // declares B<A>::g(A) and B<A>::h(A)
    B<A> ba;            // declares B<A>::g(A) and B<A>::h(A)
    ba.g(a);            // OK
    ba.h(a);            // error: B<A>::h(A) not defined in the translation unit
    i(ba, a);           // OK
}

— end example]

9 Two names that are the same (Clause 3) and that are declared in different scopes shall denote the same object, reference, function, type, enumerator, template or namespace if

— both names have external linkage or else both names have internal linkage and are declared in the same translation unit; and

\footnote{\textit{32} A class template always has external linkage, and the requirements of 14.4.1 and 14.4.2 ensure that the template arguments will also have appropriate linkage.}
both names refer to members of the same namespace or to members, not by inheritance, of the same class; and
— when both names denote functions, the parameter-type-lists of the functions (8.3.5) are identical; and
— when both names denote function templates, the signatures (14.6.6.1) are the same.

After all adjustments of types (during which typedefs (7.1.3) are replaced by their definitions), the types specified by all declarations referring to a given object or function shall be identical, except that declarations for an array object can specify array types that differ by the presence or absence of a major array bound (8.3.4). A violation of this rule on type identity does not require a diagnostic.

[Note: linkage to non-C++ declarations can be achieved using a linkage-specification (7.5). — end note]

### 3.6 Start and termination

#### 3.6.1 Main function

A program shall contain a global function called `main`, which is the designated start of the program. It is implementation-defined whether a program in a freestanding environment is required to define a `main` function. [Note: in a freestanding environment, start-up and termination is implementation-defined; start-up contains the execution of constructors for objects of namespace scope with static storage duration; termination contains the execution of destructors for objects with static storage duration. — end note]

An implementation shall not predefine the `main` function. This function shall not be overloaded. It shall have a return type of type `int`, but otherwise its type is implementation-defined. All implementations shall allow both of the following definitions of `main`:

```c
int main() { /* ... */ }
```

and

```c
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) { /* ... */ }
```

In the latter form `argc` shall be the number of arguments passed to the program from the environment in which the program is run. If `argc` is nonzero these arguments shall be supplied in `argv[0]` through `argv[argc-1]` as pointers to the initial characters of null-terminated multibyte strings (NTMBSs) (17.5.2.1.4.2) and `argv[0]` shall be the pointer to the initial character of a NTMBS that represents the name used to invoke the program or "". The value of `argc` shall be non-negative. The value of `argv[argc]` shall be 0. [Note: it is recommended that any further (optional) parameters be added after `argv`. — end note]

The function `main` shall not be used (3.2) within a program. The linkage (3.5) of `main` is implementation-defined. A program that defines `main` as deleted or that declares `main` to be `inline`, `static`, or `constexpr` is ill-formed. The name `main` is not otherwise reserved. [Example: member functions, classes, and enumerations can be called `main`, as can entities in other namespaces. — end example]

Calling the function `std::exit(int)` declared in `<cstdlib>` (18.5) terminates Terminating the program without leaving the current block (e.g., by calling the function `std::exit(int)` (18.5)) and hence without destroying does not destroy any objects with automatic storage duration (12.4). If `std::exit` is called to end a program during the destruction of an object with static or thread storage duration, the program has undefined behavior.

A return statement in `main` has the effect of leaving the main function (destroying any objects with automatic storage duration) and calling `std::exit` with the return value as the argument. If control reaches the end of `main` without encountering a `return` statement, the effect is that of executing

§ 3.6.1
return 0;

3.6.2 Initialization of non-local objects

There are two broad classes of named non-local objects: those with static storage duration (3.7.1) and those with thread storage duration (3.7.2). Non-local objects with static storage duration are initialized as a consequence of program initiation. Non-local objects with thread storage duration are initialized as a consequence of thread execution. Within each of these phases of initiation, initialization occurs as follows.

Objects with static storage duration (3.7.1) or thread storage duration (3.7.2) shall be zero-initialized (8.5) before any other initialization takes place.

Constant initialization is performed:

1. If each full-expression (including implicit conversions) that appears in the initializer of a reference with static or thread storage duration is a constant expression (5.19) and the reference is bound to an lvalue designating an object with static storage duration or to a temporary (see 12.2)
2. If an object with static or thread storage duration is initialized such that the initialization satisfies the requirements for the object being declared with constexpr (7.1.5).

Together, zero-initialization and constant initialization are called static initialization; all other initialization is dynamic initialization. Static initialization shall be performed before any dynamic initialization takes place. Dynamic initialization of a non-local object with static storage duration is either ordered or unordered. Definitions of explicitly specialized class template static data members have ordered initialization. Other class template static data members (i.e., implicitly or explicitly instantiated specializations) have unordered initialization. Other objects defined in namespace scope have ordered initialization. Objects with ordered initialization defined within a single translation unit shall be initialized in the order of their definitions in the translation unit. If a program starts a thread (30.3), the subsequent initialization of an object is unsequenced with respect to the initialization of an object defined in a different translation unit. Otherwise, the initialization of an object is indeterminately sequenced with respect to the initialization of an object defined in a different translation unit. If a program starts a thread, the subsequent unordered initialization of an object is unsequenced with respect to every other dynamic initialization. Otherwise, the unordered initialization of an object is indeterminately sequenced with respect to every other dynamic initialization. [Note: This definition permits initialization of a sequence of ordered objects concurrently with another sequence. — end note] [Note: 8.5.1 describes the order in which aggregate members are initialized. The initialization of local static objects is described in 6.7. — end note]

3. An implementation is permitted to perform the initialization of an object of namespace scope as a static initialization even if such initialization is not required to be done statically, provided that

1. The dynamic version of the initialization does not change the value of any other object of namespace scope prior to its initialization, and
2. The static version of the initialization produces the same value in the initialized object as would be produced by the dynamic initialization if all objects not required to be initialized statically were initialized dynamically.
3. [Note: as a consequence, if the initialization of an object obj1 refers to an object obj2 of namespace scope potentially requiring dynamic initialization and defined later in the same translation unit, it is unspecified whether the value of obj2 used will be the value of the fully initialized obj2 (because obj2 was statically initialized) or will be the value of obj2 merely zero-initialized. For example,

```c
inline double fd() { return 1.0; }
extern double d1;
double d2 = d1; // unspecified:
```
4 It is implementation-defined whether the dynamic initialization (8.5, 9.4, 12.1, 12.6.1) of an object of namespace scope with static storage duration is done before the first statement of main. If the initialization is deferred to some point in time after the first statement of main, it shall occur before the first use of any function or object defined in the same translation unit as the object to be initialized.\footnote{An object defined in namespace scope having initialization with side-effects must be initialized even if it is not used (3.7.1).} [Example:

\verbatim
// - File 1 -
#include "a.h"
#include "b.h"
B b;
A::A(){
  b.Use();
}

// - File 2 -
#include "a.h"
A a;

// - File 3 -
#include "a.h"
#include "b.h"
extern A a;
extern B b;

int main() {
  a.Use();
  b.Use();
}
\endverbatim

It is implementation-defined whether either a or b is initialized before main is entered or whether the initializations are delayed until a is first used in main. In particular, if a is initialized before main is entered, it is not guaranteed that b will be initialized before it is used by the initialization of a, that is, before A::A is called. If, however, a is initialized at some point after the first statement of main, b will be initialized prior to its use in A::A. — end example]

5 It is implementation-defined whether the dynamic initialization (8.5, 9.4, 12.1, 12.6.1) of an object of namespace scope and with thread storage duration is done before the first statement of the initial function of the thread. If the initialization is deferred to some point in time after the first statement of the initial function of the thread, it shall occur before the first use of any object with thread storage duration defined in the same translation unit as the object to be initialized.

6 If construction or destruction of a non-local static or thread duration object ends in throwing an uncaught exception, the result is to call std::terminate (18.8.3.3).

3.6.3 Termination [basic.start.term]

1 Destructors (12.4) for initialized objects (that is, objects whose lifetime (3.8) has begun) with static storage duration are called as a result of returning from main and as a result of calling std::exit (18.5). Destructors

\footnote{An object defined in namespace scope having initialization with side-effects must be initialized even if it is not used (3.7.1).}
for initialized objects with thread storage duration within a given thread are called as a result of returning
from the initial function of that thread and as a result of that thread calling std::exit. The completions
of the destructors for all initialized objects with thread storage duration within that thread are sequenced
before the initiation of the destructors of any object with static storage duration. If the completion of the
constructor or dynamic initialization of an object with thread storage duration is sequenced before that of
another, the completion of the destructor of the second is sequenced before the initiation of the destructor
of the first. If the completion of the constructor or dynamic initialization of an object with static storage
duration is sequenced before that of another, the completion of the destructor of the second is sequenced
before the initiation of the destructor of the first. [ Note: this definition permits concurrent destruction.
— end note ] If an object is initialized statically, the object is destroyed in the same order as if the object
was dynamically initialized. For an object of array or class type, all subobjects of that object are destroyed
before any local object with static storage duration initialized during the construction of the subobjects is
destroyed.

2 If a function contains a local object of static or thread storage duration that has been destroyed and the
function is called during the destruction of an object with static or thread storage duration, the program
has undefined behavior if the flow of control passes through the definition of the previously destroyed local
object. Likewise, the behavior is undefined if the function-local object is used indirectly (i.e., through a
pointer) after its destruction.

3 If the completion of the initialization of a non-local object with static storage duration is sequenced before
a call to std::atexit (see <cstdlib>, 18.5), the call to the function passed to std::atexit is sequenced
before the call to the destructor for the object. If a call to std::atexit is sequenced before the completion
of the initialization of a non-local object with static storage duration, the call to the destructor for the
object is sequenced before the call to the function passed to std::atexit. If a call to std::atexit is
sequenced before another call to std::atexit, the call to the function passed to the second std::atexit
call is sequenced before the call to the function passed to the first std::atexit call.

4 If there is a use of a standard library object or function not permitted within signal handlers (18.10) that
does not happen before (1.10) completion of destruction of objects with static storage duration and execution
of std::atexit registered functions (18.5), the program has undefined behavior. [ Note: if there is a use
of an object with static storage duration that does not happen before the object’s destruction, the program
has undefined behavior. Terminating every thread before a call to std::exit or the exit from main is
sufficient, but not necessary, to satisfy these requirements. These requirements permit thread managers as
static-storage-duration objects. — end note ]

5 Calling the function std::abort() declared in <cstdlib> terminates the program without executing any
destructors and without calling the functions passed to std::atexit() or std::at_quick_exit().

3.7 Storage duration
[ basic.stc ]

1 Storage duration is the property of an object that defines the minimum potential lifetime of the storage
containing the object. The storage duration is determined by the construct used to create the object and is
one of the following:
   — static storage duration
   — thread storage duration
   — automatic storage duration
   — dynamic storage duration

2 Static, thread, and automatic storage durations are associated with objects introduced by declarations (3.1)
and implicitly created by the implementation (12.2). The dynamic storage duration is associated with objects
created with operator new (5.3.4).
3 The storage duration categories apply to references as well. The lifetime of a reference is its storage duration.

3.7.1 Static storage duration

1 All objects which do not have dynamic storage duration, do not have thread storage duration, and are not local have *static storage duration*. The storage for these objects shall last for the duration of the program (3.6.2, 3.6.3).

2 If an object of static storage duration has initialization or a destructor with side effects, it shall not be eliminated even if it appears to be unused, except that a class object or its copy may be eliminated as specified in 12.8.

3 The keyword *static* can be used to declare a local variable with static storage duration. [*Note: 6.7 describes the initialization of local *static* variables; 3.6.3 describes the destruction of local *static* variables. — end note*]

4 The keyword *static* applied to a class data member in a class definition gives the data member static storage duration.

3.7.2 Thread storage duration

1 All objects and references declared with the *thread_local* keyword have *thread storage duration*. The storage for these objects and references shall last for the duration of the thread in which they are created. There is a distinct object or reference per thread, and use of the declared name refers to the object or reference associated with the current thread.

2 An object or reference with thread storage duration shall be initialized before its first use and, if constructed, shall be destroyed on thread exit.

3.7.3 Automatic storage duration

1 Local objects explicitly declared *register* or not explicitly declared *static* or *extern* have *automatic storage duration*. The storage for these objects lasts until the block in which they are created exits.

2 [*Note: these objects are initialized and destroyed as described in 6.7. — end note*]

3 If a named automatic object has initialization or a destructor with side effects, it shall not be destroyed before the end of its block, nor shall it be eliminated as an optimization even if it appears to be unused, except that a class object or its copy may be eliminated as specified in 12.8.

3.7.4 Dynamic storage duration

1 Objects can be created dynamically during program execution (1.9), using *new-expressions* (5.3.4), and destroyed using *delete-expressions* (5.3.5). A C++ implementation provides access to, and management of, dynamic storage via the global *allocation functions* operator new and operator new[] and the global *deallocation functions* operator delete and operator delete[].

2 The library provides default definitions for the global allocation and deallocation functions. Some global allocation and deallocation functions are replaceable (18.6.1). A C++ program shall provide at most one definition of a replaceable allocation or deallocation function. Any such function definition replaces the default version provided in the library (17.6.3.6). The following allocation and deallocation functions (18.6) are implicitly declared in global scope in each translation unit of a program.

```
void* operator new(std::size_t) throw(std::bad_alloc);
void* operator new[](std::size_t) throw(std::bad_alloc);
void operator delete(void*) throw();
void operator delete[](void*) throw();
```
These implicit declarations introduce only the function names `operator new`, `operator new[]`, `operator delete`, `operator delete[]`. [Note: the implicit declarations do not introduce the names `std`, `std::bad_alloc`, and `std::size_t`, or any other names that the library uses to declare these names. Thus, a `new-expression`, `delete-expression` or function call that refers to one of these functions without including the header `<new>` is well-formed. However, referring to `std`, `std::bad_alloc`, and `std::size_t` is ill-formed unless the name has been declared by including the appropriate header. — end note] Allocation and/or deallocation functions can also be declared and defined for any class (12.5).

Any allocation and/or deallocation functions defined in a C++ program, including the default versions in the library, shall conform to the semantics specified in 3.7.4.1 and 3.7.4.2.

### 3.7.4.1 Allocation functions

1. An allocation function shall be a class member function or a global function; a program is ill-formed if an allocation function is declared in a namespace scope other than global scope or declared static in global scope. The return type shall be `void*`. The first parameter shall have type `std::size_t` (18.2). The first parameter shall not have an associated default argument (8.3.6). The value of the first parameter shall be interpreted as the requested size of the allocation. An allocation function can be a function template. Such a template shall declare its return type and first parameter as specified above (that is, template parameter types shall not be used in the return type and first parameter type). Template allocation functions shall have two or more parameters.

2. The allocation function attempts to allocate the requested amount of storage. If it is successful, it shall return the address of the start of a block of storage whose length in bytes shall be at least as large as the requested size. There are no constraints on the contents of the allocated storage on return from the allocation function. The order, contiguity, and initial value of storage allocated by successive calls to an allocation function are unspecified. The pointer returned shall be suitably aligned so that it can be converted to a pointer of any complete object type with a fundamental alignment requirement (3.11) and then used to access the object or array in the storage allocated (until the storage is explicitly deallocated by a call to a corresponding deallocation function). Even if the size of the space requested is zero, the request can fail. If the request succeeds, the value returned shall be a non-null pointer value (4.10) `p0` different from any previously returned value `p1`, unless that value `p1` was subsequently passed to an `operator delete`. The effect of dereferencing a pointer returned as a request for zero size is undefined.34

3. An allocation function that fails to allocate storage can invoke the currently installed new-handler function (18.6.2.3), if any. [Note: A program-supplied allocation function can obtain the address of the currently installed `new_handler` using the `std::set_new_handler` function (18.6.2.4). — end note] If an allocation function declared with an empty `exception-specification` (15.4), `throw()`, fails to allocate storage, it shall return a null pointer. Any other allocation function that fails to allocate storage shall indicate failure only by throwing an exception of a type that would match a handler (15.3) of type `std::bad_alloc` (18.6.2.1).

4. A global allocation function is only called as the result of a new expression (5.3.4), or called directly using the function call syntax (5.2.2), or called indirectly through calls to the functions in the C++ standard library. [Note: in particular, a global allocation function is not called to allocate storage for objects with static storage duration (3.7.1), for objects or references with thread storage duration (3.7.2), for objects of type `std::type_info` (5.2.8), or for the copy of an object thrown by a `throw` expression (15.1). — end note]

### 3.7.4.2 Deallocation functions

1. Deallocation functions shall be class member functions or global functions; a program is ill-formed if deallocation functions are declared in a namespace scope other than global scope or declared static in global scope.

34 The intent is to have `operator new()` implementable by calling `std::malloc()` or `std::calloc()`, so the rules are substantially the same. C++ differs from C in requiring a zero request to return a non-null pointer.
2 Each deallocation function shall return `void` and its first parameter shall be `void*`. A deallocation function can have more than one parameter. If a class `T` has a member deallocation function named `operator delete` with exactly one parameter, then that function is a usual (non-placement) deallocation function. If class `T` does not declare such an `operator delete` but does declare a member deallocation function named `operator delete` with exactly two parameters, the second of which has type `std::size_t` (18.2), then this function is a usual deallocation function. Similarly, if a class `T` has a member deallocation function named `operator delete[]` with exactly one parameter, then that function is a usual (non-placement) deallocation function. If class `T` does not declare such an `operator delete[]` but does declare a member deallocation function named `operator delete[]` with exactly two parameters, the second of which has type `std::size_t`, then this function is a usual deallocation function. A deallocation function can be an instance of a function template. Neither the first parameter nor the return type shall depend on a template parameter. [Note: that is, a deallocation function template shall have a first parameter of type `void*` and a return type of `void` (as specified above). — end note] A deallocation function template shall have two or more function parameters. A template instance is never a usual deallocation function, regardless of its signature.

3 If a deallocation function terminates by throwing an exception, the behavior is undefined. The value of the first argument supplied to a deallocation function may be a null pointer value; if so, and if the deallocation function is one supplied in the standard library, the call has no effect. Otherwise, the value supplied to `operator delete(void*)` in the standard library shall be one of the values returned by a previous invocation of either `operator new(std::size_t)` or `operator new(std::size_t, const std::nothrow_t&)` in the standard library, and the value supplied to `operator delete[](void*)` in the standard library shall be one of the values returned by a previous invocation of either `operator new[](std::size_t)` or `operator new[](std::size_t, const std::nothrow_t&)` in the standard library.

4 If the argument given to a deallocation function in the standard library is a pointer that is not the null pointer value (4.10), the deallocation function shall deallocate the storage referenced by the pointer, rendering invalid all pointers referring to any part of the deallocated storage. The effect of using an invalid pointer value (including passing it to a deallocation function) is undefined.35

3.7.4.3 Safely-derived pointers [basic.stc.dynamic.safety]

1 A traceable pointer object is
   — an object of pointer-to-object type, or
   — an object of an integral type that is at least as large as `std::intptr_t`, or
   — a sequence of elements in an array of character type, where the size and alignment of the sequence match that of some pointer-to-object type.

2 A pointer value is a safely-derived pointer to a dynamic object only if it has pointer-to-object type and it is one of the following:
   — the value returned by a call to the C++ standard library implementation of `::operator new(std::size_t);`;36
   — the result of taking the address of a subobject of an `lvalue` an object (or one of its subobjects) designated by an `lvalue` resulting from dereferencing a safely-derived pointer value;
   — the result of well-defined pointer arithmetic using a safely-derived pointer value;
   — the result of a well-defined pointer conversion of a safely-derived pointer value;

35) On some implementations, it causes a system-generated runtime fault.

36) This section does not impose restrictions on dereferencing pointers to memory not allocated by `::operator new`. This maintains the ability of many C++ implementations to use binary libraries and components written in other languages. In particular, this applies to C binaries, because dereferencing pointers to memory allocated by `malloc` is not restricted.
— the result of a `reinterpret_cast` of a safely-derived pointer value;
— the result of a `reinterpret_cast` of an integer representation of a safely-derived pointer value;
— the value of an object whose value was copied from a traceable pointer object, where at the time of the copy the source object contained a copy of a safely-derived pointer value.

3 An integer value is an *integer representation of a safely-derived pointer* only if its type is at least as large as `std::intptr_t` and it is one of the following:

— the result of a `reinterpret_cast` of a safely-derived pointer value;
— the result of a valid conversion of an integer representation of a safely-derived pointer value;
— the value of an object whose value was copied from a traceable pointer object, where at the time of the copy the source object contained an integer representation of a safely-derived pointer value;
— the result of an additive or bitwise operation, one of whose operands is an integer representation of a safely-derived pointer value \( P \), if that result converted by `reinterpret_cast<void*>` would compare equal to a safely-derived pointer computable from `reinterpret_cast<void*>(P)`.

4 If a pointer value that is not a safely-derived pointer value is dereferenced or deallocated, and the referenced complete object is of dynamic storage duration and has not previously been declared reachable (20.8.15.6), the behavior is undefined. [Note: this is true even if the unsafely-derived pointer value might compare equal to some safely-derived pointer value. — end note]

### 3.7.5 Duration of subobjects

1 The storage duration of member subobjects, base class subobjects and array elements is that of their complete object (1.8).

### 3.8 Object lifetime

1 The *lifetime* of an object is a runtime property of the object. An object is said to have non-trivial initialization if it is of a class or aggregate type and it or one of its members is initialized by a constructor other than a trivial default constructor. [Note: initialization by a trivial copy constructor is non-trivial initialization. — end note] The lifetime of an object of type \( T \) begins when:

— storage with the proper alignment and size for type \( T \) is obtained, and
— if the object has non-trivial initialization, its initialization is complete.

The lifetime of an object of type \( T \) ends when:

— if \( T \) is a class type with a non-trivial destructor (12.4), the destructor call starts, or
— the storage which the object occupies is reused or released.

2 [Note: the lifetime of an array object starts as soon as storage with proper size and alignment is obtained, and its lifetime ends when the storage which the array occupies is reused or released. 12.6.2 describes the lifetime of base and member subobjects. — end note]

3 The properties ascribed to objects throughout this International Standard apply for a given object only during its lifetime. [Note: in particular, before the lifetime of an object starts and after its lifetime ends there are significant restrictions on the use of the object, as described below, in 12.6.2 and in 12.7. Also, the behavior of an object under construction and destruction might not be the same as the behavior of an object whose lifetime has started and not ended. 12.6.2 and 12.7 describe the behavior of objects during the construction and destruction phases. — end note]
4 A program may end the lifetime of any object by reusing the storage which the object occupies or by explicitly calling the destructor for an object of a class type with a non-trivial destructor. For an object of a class type with a non-trivial destructor, the program is not required to call the destructor explicitly before the storage which the object occupies is reused or released; however, if there is no explicit call to the destructor or if a delete-expression (5.3.5) is not used to release the storage, the destructor shall not be implicitly called and any program that depends on the side effects produced by the destructor has undefined behavior.

5 Before the lifetime of an object has started but after the storage which the object will occupy has been allocated\(^{37}\) or, after the lifetime of an object has ended and before the storage which the object occupied is reused or released, any pointer that refers to the storage location where the object will be or was located may be used but only in limited ways. Such a pointer refers to allocated storage (3.7.4.2), and using the pointer as if the pointer were of type void*, is well-defined. Such a pointer may be dereferenced but the resulting lvalue may only be used in limited ways, as described below. The program has undefined behavior if:

- the object will be or was of a class type with a non-trivial destructor and the pointer is used as the operand of a delete-expression,
- the pointer is used to access a non-static data member or call a non-static member function of the object, or
- the pointer is implicitly converted (4.10) to a pointer to a base class type, or
- the pointer is used as the operand of a static_cast (5.2.9) (except when the conversion is to void*, or to void* and subsequently to char*, or unsigned char*), or
- the pointer is used as the operand of a dynamic_cast (5.2.7).

\[\text{Example:}\]

```c
#include <cstdlib>

struct B {
    virtual void f();
    void mutate();
    virtual ~B();
};

struct D1 : B { void f(); };
struct D2 : B { void f(); };

void B::mutate() {
    new (this) D2;  // reuses storage — ends the lifetime of *this
    f();            // undefined behavior
    ... = this;    // OK, this points to valid memory
}

void g() {
    void* p = std::malloc(sizeof(D1) + sizeof(D2));
    B* pb = new (p) D1;
    pb->mutate();
    &pb;           // OK: pb points to valid memory
    void* q = pb;  // OK: pb points to valid memory
    pb->f();       // undefined behavior, lifetime of *pb has ended
}
```

\(^{37}\) For example, before the construction of a global object of non-POD class type (12.7).
Similarly, before the lifetime of an object has started but after the storage which the object will occupy has been allocated or, after the lifetime of an object has ended and before the storage which the object occupied is reused or released, any lvalue which refers to the original object may be used but only in limited ways. Such an lvalue refers to allocated storage (3.7.4.2), and using the properties of the lvalue which do not depend on its value is well-defined. The program has undefined behavior if:

- an lvalue-to-rvalue conversion (4.1) is applied to such an lvalue,
- the lvalue is used to access a non-static data member or call a non-static member function of the object, or
- the lvalue is implicitly converted (4.10) to a reference to a base class type, or
- the lvalue is used as the operand of a `static_cast` (5.2.9) except when the conversion is ultimately to `cv char&` or `cv unsigned char&`, or
- the lvalue is used as the operand of a `dynamic_cast` (5.2.7) or as the operand of `typeid`.

If, after the lifetime of an object has ended and before the storage which the object occupied is reused or released, a new object is created at the storage location which the original object occupied, a pointer that pointed to the original object, a reference that referred to the original object, or the name of the original object will automatically refer to the new object and, once the lifetime of the new object has started, can be used to manipulate the new object, if:

- the storage for the new object exactly overlays the storage location which the original object occupied, and
- the new object is of the same type as the original object (ignoring the top-level cv-qualifiers), and
- the type of the original object is not const-qualified, and, if a class type, does not contain any non-static data member whose type is const-qualified or a reference type, and
- the original object was a most derived object (1.8) of type `T` and the new object is a most derived object of type `T` (that is, they are not base class subobjects). [Example:

```cpp
class C {
  int i;
  void f();
  const C& operator=( const C& );
};

const C& C::operator=( const C& other ) {
  if ( this != &other ) {
    this->~C(); // lifetime of *this ends
    new (this) C(other); // new object of type C created
    f(); // well-defined
  }
  return *this;
}

C c1;
C c2;
c1 = c2; // well-defined
C c1.f(); // well-defined: c1 refers to a new object of type C
```

— end example]
8 If a program ends the lifetime of an object of type \( T \) with static (3.7.1), thread (3.7.2), or automatic (3.7.3) storage duration and if \( T \) has a non-trivial destructor,\(^{38}\) the program must ensure that an object of the original type occupies that same storage location when the implicit destructor call takes place; otherwise the behavior of the program is undefined. This is true even if the block is exited with an exception. [Example:

```cpp
class T {};
struct B {
    B();
};

void h() {
    B b;
    new (&b) T; // undefined behavior at block exit
}
```

—end example]

9 Creating a new object at the storage location that a \texttt{const} object with static, thread, or automatic storage duration occupies or, at the storage location that such a \texttt{const} object used to occupy before its lifetime ended results in undefined behavior. [Example:

```cpp
struct B {
    B();
    ~B();
};
const B b;
void h() {
    b.~B();
    new (&b) const B; // undefined behavior
}
```

—end example]

3.9 Types [basic.types]

1 [Note: 3.9 and the subclauses thereof impose requirements on implementations regarding the representation of types. There are two kinds of types: fundamental types and compound types. Types describe objects (1.8), references (8.3.2), or functions (8.3.5).

2 For any object (other than a base-class subobject) of trivially copyable type \( T \), whether or not the object holds a valid value of type \( T \), the underlying bytes (1.7) making up the object can be copied into an array of \texttt{char} or \texttt{unsigned char}.\(^{39}\) If the content of the array of \texttt{char} or \texttt{unsigned char} is copied back into the object, the object shall subsequently hold its original value. [Example:

```cpp
#define N sizeof(T)
char buf[N];
T obj; // obj initialized to its original value
std::memcpy(buf, &obj, N); // between these two calls to std::memcpy,
                           // obj might be modified
```

\(^{38}\) That is, an object for which a destructor will be called implicitly—upon exit from the block for an object with automatic storage duration, upon exit from the thread for an object with thread storage duration, or upon exit from the program for an object with static storage duration.

\(^{39}\) By using, for example, the library functions (17.6.1.2) \texttt{std::memcpy} or \texttt{std::memmove}.

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std::memcpy(&obj, buf, N); // at this point, each subobject of obj of scalar type  
// holds its original value

--- end example

3 For any trivially copyable type T, if two pointers to T point to distinct T objects obj1 and obj2, where neither obj1 nor obj2 is a base-class subobject, if the value of underlying bytes (1.7) making up obj1 is are copied into obj2 using the std::memcpy library function,40 obj2 shall subsequently hold the same value as obj1. [Example:

```c
T* t1p;
T* t2p;
// provided that t2p points to an initialized object ...
std::memcpy(t1p, t2p, sizeof(T));
// at this point, every subobject of trivially copyable type in *t1p contains  
// the same value as the corresponding subobject in *t2p

--- end example
```

4 The object representation of an object of type T is the sequence of N unsigned char objects taken up by the object of type T, where N equals sizeof(T). The value representation of an object is the set of bits that hold the value of type T. For trivially copyable types, the value representation is a set of bits in the object representation that determines a value, which is one discrete element of an implementation-defined set of values.41

5 A class that has been declared but not defined, or an array of unknown size or of incomplete element type, is an incompletely-defined object type.42 Incompletely-defined object types and the void types are incomplete types (3.9.1). Objects shall not be defined to have an incomplete type.

6 A class type (such as “class X”) might be incomplete at one point in a translation unit and complete later on; the type “class X” is the same type at both points. The declared type of an array object might be an array of incomplete class type and therefore incomplete; if the class type is completed later on in the translation unit, the array type becomes complete; the array type at those two points is the same type. The declared type of an array object might be an array of unknown size and therefore be incomplete at one point in a translation unit and complete later on; the array types at those two points (“array of unknown bound of T” and “array of N T”) are different types. The type of a pointer to array of unknown size, or of a type defined by a typedef declaration to be an array of unknown size, cannot be completed. [Example:

```c
struct X { int i; }; // now X is a complete type
```

40) By using, for example, the library functions (17.6.1.2) std::memcpy or std::memmove.

41) The intent is that the memory model of C++ is compatible with that of ISO/IEC 9899 Programming Language C.

42) The size and layout of an instance of an incompletely-defined object type is unknown.
int  arr[10];  // now the type of arr is complete

X  x;
void  bar()  {
   xp = &x;  // OK; type is “pointer to X”
   arrp = &arr;  // ill-formed: different types
   xp++;
   // OK: X is complete
   arrp++;
   // ill-formed: UNKQ can’t be completed
}

— end example ]

[ Note: the rules for declarations and expressions describe in which contexts incomplete types are prohibited.
— end note ]

An object type is a (possibly cv-qualified) type that is not a function type, not a reference type, and not a void type.

Arithmetic types (3.9.1), enumeration types, pointer types, pointer to member types (3.9.2), std::nullptr_t, and cv-qualified versions of these types (3.9.3) are collectively called scalar types. Scalar types, POD classes (Clause 9), arrays of such types and cv-qualified versions of these types (3.9.3) are collectively called POD types. Scalar types, trivially copyable class types (Clause 9), arrays of such types, and cv-qualified versions of these types (3.9.3) are collectively called trivially copyable types. Scalar types, trivial class types (Clause 9), arrays of such types and cv-qualified versions of these types (3.9.3) are collectively called trivial types. Scalar types, standard-layout class types (Clause 9), arrays of such types and cv-qualified versions of these types (3.9.3) are collectively called standard-layout types.

A type is a literal type if it is:
— a scalar type; or
— a class type (Clause 9) with
   — a trivial copy constructor,
   — a trivial destructor,
   — a trivial default constructor or at least one constexpr constructor other than the copy constructor, and
   — all non-static data members and base classes of literal types; or
— an array of literal type.

If two types T1 and T2 are the same type, then T1 and T2 are layout-compatible types. [ Note: Layout-compatible enumerations are described in 7.2. Layout-compatible standard-layout structs and standard-layout unions are described in 9.2. — end note ]

3.9.1 Fundamental types

Objects declared as characters (char) shall be large enough to store any member of the implementation’s basic character set. If a character from this set is stored in a character object, the integral value of that character object is equal to the value of the single character literal form of that character. It is implementation-defined whether a char object can hold negative values. Characters can be explicitly declared unsigned or signed. Plain char, signed char, and unsigned char are three distinct types. A char, a signed char, and an unsigned char occupy the same amount of storage and have the same alignment requirements (3.11); that
is, they have the same object representation. For character types, all bits of the object representation participate in the value representation. For unsigned character types, all possible bit patterns of the value representation represent numbers. These requirements do not hold for other types. In any particular implementation, a plain `char` object can take on either the same values as a `signed char` or an `unsigned char`; which one is implementation-defined.

2 There are five standard signed integer types: “signed char”, “short int”, “int”, “long int”, and “long long int”. In this list, each type provides at least as much storage as those preceding it in the list. There may also be implementation-defined extended signed integer types. The standard and extended signed integer types are collectively called signed integer types. Plain `ints` have the natural size suggested by the architecture of the execution environment; the other signed integer types are provided to meet special needs.

3 For each of the standard signed integer types, there exists a corresponding (but different) standard unsigned integer type: “unsigned char”, “unsigned short int”, “unsigned int”, “unsigned long int”, and “unsigned long long int”, each of which occupies the same amount of storage and has the same alignment requirements as the corresponding signed integer type; that is, each signed integer type has the same object representation as its corresponding unsigned integer type. Likewise, for each of the extended signed integer types there exists a corresponding extended unsigned integer type with the same amount of storage and alignment requirements. The standard and extended unsigned integer types are collectively called unsigned integer types. The range of non-negative values of a signed integer type is a subrange of the corresponding unsigned integer type, and the value representation of each corresponding signed/unsigned type shall be the same. The standard signed integer types and standard unsigned integer types are collectively called the standard integer types, and the extended signed integer types and extended unsigned integer types are collectively called the extended integer types.

4 Unsigned integers, declared `unsigned`, shall obey the laws of arithmetic modulo \(2^n\) where \(n\) is the number of bits in the value representation of that particular size of integer.

5 Type `wchar_t` is a distinct type whose values can represent distinct codes for all members of the largest extended character set specified among the supported locales. Type `wchar_t` shall have the same size, signedness, and alignment requirements as one of the other integral types, called its underlying type. Types `char16_t` and `char32_t` denote distinct types with the same size, signedness, and alignment as `uint_least16_t` and `uint_least32_t`, respectively, in `<cstdint.h>`, called the underlying types.

6 Values of type `bool` are either `true` or `false`. Values of type `bool` participate in integral promotions.

7 Types `bool`, `char`, `char16_t`, `char32_t`, `wchar_t`, and the signed and unsigned integer types are collectively called integral types. A synonym for integral type is integer type. The representations of integral types shall define values by use of a pure binary numeration system. [Example: this International Standard permits 2’s complement, 1’s complement and signed magnitude representations for integral types. — end example]

---

43) that is, large enough to contain any value in the range of `INT_MIN` and `INT_MAX`, as defined in the header `<climits>.
44) See 7.1.6.2 regarding the correspondence between types and the sequences of type-specifiers that designate them.
45) This implies that unsigned arithmetic does not overflow because a result that cannot be represented by the resulting unsigned integer type is reduced modulo the number that is one greater than the largest value that can be represented by the resulting unsigned integer type.
46) Using a `bool` value in ways described by this International Standard as “undefined,” such as by examining the value of an uninitialized automatic variable, might cause it to behave as if it is neither `true` nor `false`.
47) Therefore, enumerations (7.2) are not integral; however, enumerations can be promoted to integral types as specified in 4.5.
48) A positional representation for integers that uses the binary digits 0 and 1, in which the values represented by successive bits are additive, begin with 1, and are multiplied by successive integral power of 2, except perhaps for the bit with the highest position. (Adapted from the American National Dictionary for Information Processing Systems.)
There are three floating point types: float, double, and long double. The type double provides at least as much precision as float, and the type long double provides at least as much precision as double. The set of values of the type float is a subset of the set of values of the type double; the set of values of the type double is a subset of the set of values of the type long double. The value representation of floating-point types is implementation-defined. Integral and floating types are collectively called arithmetic types. Specializations of the standard template std::numeric_limits (18.3) shall specify the maximum and minimum values of each arithmetic type for an implementation.

The void type has an empty set of values. The void type is an incomplete type that cannot be completed. It is used as the return type for functions that do not return a value. Any expression can be explicitly converted to type cv void (5.4). An expression of type void shall be used only as an expression statement (6.2), as an operand of a comma expression (5.18), as a second or third operand of ?: (5.16), as the operand of typeid, or as the expression in a return statement (6.6.3) for a function with the return type void.

A value of type std::nullptr_t is a null pointer constant (4.10). Such values participate in the pointer and the pointer to member conversions (4.10, 4.11). sizeof(std::nullptr_t) shall be equal to sizeof(void*).

Note: even if the implementation defines two or more basic types to have the same value representation, they are nevertheless different types. — end note

3.9.2 Compound types

Compound types can be constructed in the following ways:

— arrays of objects of a given type, 8.3.4;
— functions, which have parameters of given types and return void or references or objects of a given type, 8.3.5;
— pointers to void or objects or functions (including static members of classes) of a given type, 8.3.1;
— references to objects or functions of a given type, 8.3.2. There are two types of references:
  — lvalue reference
  — rvalue reference
— classes containing a sequence of objects of various types (Clause 9), a set of types, enumerations and functions for manipulating these objects (9.3), and a set of restrictions on the access to these entities (Clause 11);
— unions, which are classes capable of containing objects of different types at different times, 9.5;
— enumerations, which comprise a set of named constant values. Each distinct enumeration constitutes a different enumerated type, 7.2;
— pointers to non-static 49 class members, which identify members of a given type within objects of a given class, 8.3.3.

These methods of constructing types can be applied recursively; restrictions are mentioned in 8.3.1, 8.3.4, 8.3.5, and 8.3.2.

A pointer to objects of type T is referred to as a “pointer to T.” [Example: a pointer to an object of type int is referred to as “pointer to int ” and a pointer to an object of class X is called a “pointer to X.” — end example] Except for pointers to static members, text referring to “pointers” does not apply to pointers to members. Pointers to incomplete types are allowed although there are restrictions on what can be done with them (3.11). A valid value of an object pointer type represents either the address of a byte in memory (1.7)

49) Static class members are objects or functions, and pointers to them are ordinary pointers to objects or functions.
or a null pointer (4.10). If an object of type \( T \) is located at an address \( A \), a pointer of type \( cv\ T* \) whose value is the address \( A \) is said to point to that object, regardless of how the value was obtained. [Note: for instance, the address one past the end of an array (5.7) would be considered to point to an unrelated object of the array’s element type that might be located at that address. There are further restrictions on pointers to objects with dynamic storage duration; see 3.7.4.3. — end note] The value representation of pointer types is implementation-defined. Pointers to \( cv \)-qualified and \( cv \)-unqualified versions (3.9.3) of layout-compatible types shall have the same value representation and alignment requirements (3.11). [Note: pointers to over-aligned types (3.11) have no special representation, but their range of valid values is restricted by the extended alignment requirement. This International Standard specifies only two ways of obtaining such a pointer: taking the address of a valid object with an over-aligned type, and using one of the runtime pointer alignment functions. An implementation may provide other means of obtaining a valid pointer value for an over-aligned type. — end note]

Objects of \( cv \)-qualified (3.9.3) or \( cv \)-unqualified type \( void* \) (pointer to void), can be used to point to objects of unknown type. A \( void* \) shall be able to hold any object pointer. A \( cv \)-qualified or \( cv \)-unqualified (3.9.3) \( void* \) shall have the same representation and alignment requirements as a \( cv \)-qualified or \( cv \)-unqualified \( char* \).

3.9.3 CV-qualifiers [basic.type.qualifier]

1 A type mentioned in 3.9.1 and 3.9.2 is a \( cv \)-unqualified type. Each type which is a \( cv \)-unqualified complete or incomplete object type or is \( void \) (3.9) has three corresponding \( cv \)-qualified versions of its type: a \( const \)-qualified version, a \( volatile \)-qualified version, and a \( const\-volatile \)-qualified version. The term object type (1.8) includes the \( cv \)-qualifiers specified when the object is created. The presence of a \( const \) specifier in a \( decl\-specifier\-seq \) declares an object of \( const \)-qualified object type; such object is called a \( const \) object. The presence of a \( volatile \) specifier in a \( decl\-specifier\-seq \) declares an object of \( volatile \)-qualified object type; such object is called a \( volatile \) object. The presence of both \( cv \)-qualifiers in a \( decl\-specifier\-seq \) declares an object of \( const\-volatile \)-qualified object type; such object is called a \( const\-volatile \) object. The \( cv \)-qualified or \( cv \)-unqualified versions of a type are distinct types; however, they shall have the same representation and alignment requirements (3.9).\(^{50}\)

2 A compound type (3.9.2) is not \( cv \)-qualified by the \( cv \)-qualifiers (if any) of the types from which it is compounded. Any \( cv \)-qualifiers applied to an array type affect the array element type, not the array type (8.3.4).

3 Each non-static, non-mutable, non-reference data member of a \( const \)-qualified class object is \( const \)-qualified, each non-static, non-reference data member of a \( volatile \)-qualified class object is \( volatile \)-qualified and similarly for members of a \( const\-volatile \) class. See 8.3.5 and 9.3.2 regarding \( cv \)-qualified function types that have \( cv \)-qualifiers.

4 There is a partial ordering on \( cv \)-qualifiers, so that a type can be said to be more \( cv \)-qualified than another. Table 8 shows the relations that constitute this ordering.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( no\ cv-qualifier )</th>
<th>( const )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( no\ cv-qualifier )</td>
<td>( volatile )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( no\ cv-qualifier )</td>
<td>( const\ volatile )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( const )</td>
<td>( const\ volatile )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \)\(^{50}\) The same representation and alignment requirements are meant to imply interchangeability as arguments to functions, return values from functions, and non-static data members of unions.

§ 3.9.3
In this International Standard, the notation \textit{cv} (or \textit{cv1}, \textit{cv2}, etc.), used in the description of types, represents an arbitrary set of cv-qualifiers, i.e., one of \{\textit{const}\}, \{\textit{volatile}\}, \{\textit{const}, \textit{volatile}\}, or the empty set. Cv-qualifiers applied to an array type attach to the underlying element type, so the notation “\textit{cv T},” where \textit{T} is an array type, refers to an array whose elements are so-qualified. Such array types can be said to be more (or less) cv-qualified than other types based on the cv-qualification of the underlying element types.

3.10 Lvalues and rvalues

Every expression is either an \textit{lvalue} or an \textit{rvalue}.

An lvalue refers to an object or function. Some rvalue expressions—those of (possibly cv-qualified) class or array type—also refer to objects.\footnote{Expressions such as invocations of constructors and of functions that return a class type refer to objects, and the implementation can invoke a member function upon such objects, but the expressions are not lvalues.}

\[\text{Example: if } E \text{ is an expression of pointer type, then } *E \text{ is an lvalue expression referring to the object or function to which } E \text{ points. As another example, the function}\]
\[
\text{int\& } f();
\]
yields an lvalue, so the call \textit{f()} is an lvalue expression. \textit{— end example} \textit{— end note}

\[\text{Example: built-in assignment operators all expect their left-hand operands to be lvalues. }\textit{— end example}\]

\[\text{Other built-in operators yield rvalues, and some expect them. }\textit{— end example}\]

The discussion of each built-in operator in Clause 5 indicates whether it expects lvalue operands and whether it yields an lvalue. \textit{— end note}\]

The result of calling a function that does not return an lvalue reference is an rvalue. User defined operators are functions, and whether such operators expect or yield lvalues is determined by their parameter and return types.

An expression which holds a temporary object resulting from a cast to a type other than an lvalue reference type is an rvalue (this includes the explicit creation of an object using functional notation (5.2.3)).

Whenever an lvalue appears in a context where an rvalue is expected, the lvalue is converted to an rvalue; see 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3.

The discussion of reference initialization in 8.5.3 and of temporaries in 12.2 indicates the behavior of lvalues and rvalues in other significant contexts.

Class rvalues can have cv-qualified types; non-class rvalues always have cv-unqualified types. Rvalues shall always have complete types or the \textit{void} type; in addition to these types, lvalues can also have incomplete types.

An lvalue for an object is necessary in order to modify the object except that an rvalue of class type can also be used to modify its referent under certain circumstances. \[\text{Example: a member function called for an object (9.3) can modify the object. }\textit{— end example}\]

Functions cannot be modified, but pointers to functions can be modifiable.

A pointer to an incomplete type can be modifiable. At some point in the program when the pointed to type is complete, the object at which the pointer points can also be modified.

The referent of a \textit{const}-qualified expression shall not be modified (through that expression), except that if it is of class type and has a \textit{mutable} component, that component can be modified (7.1.6.1).
14 If an expression can be used to modify the object to which it refers, the expression is called *modifiable*. A program that attempts to modify an object through a nonmodifiable lvalue or rvalue expression is ill-formed.

15 If a program attempts to access the stored value of an object through an lvalue of other than one of the following types the behavior is undefined:

- the dynamic type of the object,
- a cv-qualified version of the dynamic type of the object,
- a type similar (as defined in 4.4) to the dynamic type of the object,
- a type that is the signed or unsigned type corresponding to the dynamic type of the object,
- a type that is the signed or unsigned type corresponding to a cv-qualified version of the dynamic type of the object,
- an aggregate or union type that includes one of the aforementioned types among its elements or non-static data members (including, recursively, an element or non-static data member of a subaggregate or contained union),
- a type that is a (possibly cv-qualified) base class type of the dynamic type of the object,
- a char or unsigned char type.

### 3.11 Alignment

Object types have *alignment requirements* (3.9.1, 3.9.2) which place restrictions on the addresses at which an object of that type may be allocated. An alignment is an implementation-defined integer value representing the number of bytes between successive addresses at which a given object can be allocated. An object type imposes an alignment requirement on every object of that type; stricter alignment can be requested using the alignment attribute (7.6.2).

A *fundamental alignment* is represented by an alignment less than or equal to the greatest alignment supported by the implementation in all contexts, which is equal to `alignof(std::max_align_t)` (18.2).

An *extended alignment* is represented by an alignment greater than `alignof(std::max_align_t)`. It is implementation-defined whether any extended alignments are supported and the contexts in which they are supported (7.6.2). A type having an extended alignment requirement is an *over-aligned type*. [Note: every over-aligned type is or contains a class type with a non-static data member to which an extended alignment has been applied. — end note]

Alignments are represented as values of the type `std::size_t`. Valid alignments include only those values returned by an `alignof` expression for the fundamental types plus an additional implementation-defined set of values which may be empty.

Alignments have an order from *weaker* to *stronger* or *stricter* alignments. Stricter alignments have larger alignment values. An address that satisfies an alignment requirement also satisfies any weaker valid alignment requirement.

The alignment requirement of a complete type can be queried using an `alignof` expression (5.3.6). Furthermore, the types `char`, `signed char`, and `unsigned char` shall have the weakest alignment requirement. [Note: this enables the character types to be used as the underlying type for an aligned memory area (7.6.2). — end note]

---

52) The intent of this list is to specify those circumstances in which an object may or may not be aliased.

53) It is intended that every valid alignment value be an integral power of two.
Comparing alignments is meaningful and provides the obvious results:

— Two alignments are equal when their numeric values are equal.
— Two alignments are different when their numeric values are not equal.
— When an alignment is larger than another it represents a stricter alignment.

Note: the runtime pointer alignment function (20.8.16) can be used to obtain an aligned pointer within a buffer; the aligned-storage templates in the library (20.6.7) can be used to obtain aligned storage. — end note

If a request for a specific extended alignment in a specific context is not supported by an implementation, the program is ill-formed. Additionally, a request for runtime allocation of dynamic storage for which the requested alignment cannot be honored shall be treated as an allocation failure.
4 Standard conversions

Standard conversions are implicit conversions defined for built-in types. Clause 4 enumerates the full set of such conversions. A standard conversion sequence is a sequence of standard conversions in the following order:

- Zero or one conversion from the following set: lvalue-to-rvalue conversion, array-to-pointer conversion, and function-to-pointer conversion.
- Zero or one conversion from the following set: integral promotions, floating point promotion, integral conversions, floating point conversions, floating-integral conversions, pointer conversions, pointer to member conversions, and boolean conversions.
- Zero or one qualification conversion.

[Note: a standard conversion sequence can be empty, i.e., it can consist of no conversions. — end note]

A standard conversion sequence will be applied to an expression if necessary to convert it to a required destination type.

Expressions with a given type will be implicitly converted to other types in several contexts:

- When used as operands of operators. The operator’s requirements for its operands dictate the destination type (Clause 5).
- When used in the condition of an if statement or iteration statement (6.4, 6.5). The destination type is bool.
- When used in the expression of a switch statement. The destination type is integral (6.4).
- When used as the source expression for an initialization (which includes use as an argument in a function call and use as the expression in a return statement). The type of the entity being initialized is (generally) the destination type. See 8.5, 8.5.3.

[Note: An expression e can be implicitly converted to a type T if and only if the declaration T t=e; is well-formed, for some invented temporary variable t (8.5). Certain language constructs require that an expression be converted to a Boolean value. An expression e appearing in such a context is said to be contextually converted to bool and is well-formed if and only if the declaration bool t(e); is well-formed, for some invented temporary variable t (8.5). The effect of either implicit conversion is the same as performing the declaration and initialization and then using the temporary variable as the result of the conversion. The result is an lvalue if T is an lvalue reference type (8.3.2), and an rvalue otherwise. The expression e is used as an lvalue if and only if the initialization uses it as an lvalue.

- end note]

[Note: For user-defined types, user-defined conversions are considered as well; see 12.3. In general, an implicit conversion sequence (13.3.3.1) consists of a standard conversion sequence followed by a user-defined conversion followed by another standard conversion sequence. — end note]

[Note: There are some contexts where certain conversions are suppressed. For example, the lvalue-to-rvalue conversion is not done on the operand of the unary & operator. Specific exceptions are given in the descriptions of those operators and contexts. — end note]
4.1 Lvalue-to-rvalue conversion

1 An lvalue (3.10) of a non-function, non-array type $T$ can be converted to an rvalue. If $T$ is an incomplete type, a program that necessitates this conversion is ill-formed. If the object to which the lvalue refers is not an object of type $T$ and is not an object of a type derived from $T$, or if the object is uninitialized, a program that necessitates this conversion has undefined behavior. If $T$ is a non-class type, the type of the rvalue is the cv-unqualified version of $T$. Otherwise, the type of the rvalue is $T$.54

2 When an lvalue-to-rvalue conversion occurs in an unevaluated operand or a subexpression thereof (Clause 5) the value contained in the referenced object is not accessed. Otherwise, if the lvalue has a class type, the conversion copy-initializes a temporary of type $T$ from the lvalue and the result of the conversion is an rvalue for the temporary. Otherwise, if the lvalue has (possibly cv-qualified) type std::nullptr_t, the rvalue result is a null pointer constant (4.10). Otherwise, the value contained in the object indicated by the lvalue is the rvalue result.

[Note: See also 3.10. — end note]

4.2 Array-to-pointer conversion

1 An lvalue or rvalue of type “array of $N$ $T$” or “array of unknown bound of $T$” can be converted to an rvalue of type “pointer to $T$”. The result is a pointer to the first element of the array.

A string literal (2.14.5) with no prefix, with a u prefix, with a ll prefix, or with an l prefix can be converted to an rvalue of type “pointer to char”, “pointer to char16_t”, “pointer to char32_t”, or “pointer to wchar_t”, respectively. In any case, the result is a pointer to the first element of the array. This conversion is considered only when there is an explicit appropriate pointer target type, and not when there is a general need to convert from an lvalue to an rvalue. [Note: this conversion is deprecated. See Annex D. — end note.] For the purpose of ranking in overload resolution (13.3.3.1.1), this conversion is considered an array to pointer conversion followed by a qualification conversion (4.4). [Example: “abc” is converted to “pointer to const char” as an array-to-pointer conversion, and then to “pointer to char” as a qualification conversion. — end example].

4.3 Function-to-pointer conversion

1 An lvalue of function type $T$ can be converted to an rvalue of type “pointer to $T$.” The result is a pointer to the function.55

2 [Note: See 13.4 for additional rules for the case where the function is overloaded. — end note]

4.4 Qualification conversions

1 An rvalue of type “pointer to cv1 $T$” can be converted to an rvalue of type “pointer to cv2 $T$” if “cv2 $T$” is more cv-qualified than “cv1 $T$”.

2 An rvalue of type “pointer to member of $X$ of type cv1 $T$” can be converted to an rvalue of type “pointer to member of $X$ of type cv2 $T$” if “cv2 $T$” is more cv-qualified than “cv1 $T$”.

3 [Note: Function types (including those used in pointer to member function types) are never cv-qualified (8.3.5). — end note]

4 A conversion can add cv-qualifiers at levels other than the first in multi-level pointers, subject to the following rules:56

54) In C++ class rvalues can have cv-qualified types (because they are objects). This differs from ISO C, in which non-lvalues never have cv-qualified types.
55) This conversion never applies to non-static member functions because an lvalue that refers to a non-static member function cannot be obtained.
56) These rules ensure that const-safety is preserved by the conversion.
Two pointer types $T_1$ and $T_2$ are *similar* if there exists a type $T$ and integer $n > 0$ such that:

$$T_1 = \text{cv}_{1,0} \text{ pointer to } \text{cv}_{1,1} \text{ pointer to } \cdots \text{cv}_{1,n-1} \text{ pointer to } \text{cv}_{1,n} \text{ } T$$

and

$$T_2 = \text{cv}_{2,0} \text{ pointer to } \text{cv}_{2,1} \text{ pointer to } \cdots \text{cv}_{2,n-1} \text{ pointer to } \text{cv}_{2,n} \text{ } T$$

where each $\text{cv}_{i,j}$ is `const`, `volatile`, `const volatile`, or nothing. The $n$-tuple of cv-qualifiers after the first in a pointer type, e.g., $\text{cv}_{1,1}$, $\text{cv}_{1,2}$, $\cdots$, $\text{cv}_{1,n}$ in the pointer type $T_1$, is called the *cv-qualification signature* of the pointer type. An expression of type $T_1$ can be converted to type $T_2$ if and only if the following conditions are satisfied:

---

- the pointer types are similar.
- for every $j > 0$, if `const` is in $\text{cv}_{1,j}$ then `const` is in $\text{cv}_{2,j}$, and similarly for `volatile`.
- if the $\text{cv}_{1,j}$ and $\text{cv}_{2,j}$ are different, then `const` is in every $\text{cv}_{2,k}$ for $0 < k < j$.

[Note: if a program could assign a pointer of type $T**$ to a pointer of type `const T**` (that is, if line #1 below were allowed), a program could inadvertently modify a `const` object (as it is done on line #2). For example,

```c
int main() {
    const char c = 'c';
    char* pc;
    const char** pcc = &pc; // #1: not allowed
    *pcc = &c;
    *pc = 'C'; // #2: modifies a const object
}
```

---

4.5 Integral promotions

1 An rvalue of an integer type other than `bool`, `char16_t`, `char32_t`, or `wchar_t` whose integer conversion rank (4.13) is less than the rank of `int` can be converted to an rvalue of type `int` if `int` can represent all the values of the source type; otherwise, the source rvalue can be converted to an rvalue of type `unsigned int`.

§ 4.5
An rvalue of type `char16_t`, `char32_t`, or `wchar_t` (3.9.1) can be converted to an rvalue of the first of the following types that can represent all the values of its underlying type: `int`, `unsigned int`, `long int`, `unsigned long int`, `long long int`, or `unsigned long long int`. If none of the types in that list can represent all the values of its underlying type, an rvalue of type `char16_t`, `char32_t`, or `wchar_t` can be converted to an rvalue of its underlying type.

An rvalue of an unscoped enumeration type whose underlying type is not fixed (7.2) can be converted to an rvalue of the first of the following types that can represent all the values of the enumeration (i.e., the values in the range $b_{\text{min}}$ to $b_{\text{max}}$ as described in 7.2): `int`, `unsigned int`, `long int`, `unsigned long int`, `long long int`, or `unsigned long long int`. If none of the types in that list can represent all the values of the enumeration, an rvalue of an unscoped enumeration type can be converted to an rvalue of the extended integer type with lowest integer conversion rank (4.13) greater than the rank of `long long` in which all the values of the enumeration can be represented. If there are two such extended types, the signed one is chosen.

An rvalue of an unscoped enumeration type whose underlying type is fixed (7.2) can be converted to an rvalue of its underlying type. Moreover, if integral promotion can be applied to its underlying type, an rvalue of an unscoped enumeration type whose underlying type is fixed can also be converted to an rvalue of the promoted underlying type.

An rvalue for an integral bit-field (9.6) can be converted to an rvalue of type `int` if `int` can represent all the values of the bit-field; otherwise, it can be converted to `unsigned int` if `unsigned int` can represent all the values of the bit-field. If the bit-field is larger yet, no integral promotion applies to it. If the bit-field has an enumerated type, it is treated as any other value of that type for promotion purposes.

An rvalue of type `bool` can be converted to an rvalue of type `int`, with `false` becoming zero and `true` becoming one.

These conversions are called integral promotions.

### 4.6 Floating point promotion

An rvalue of type `float` can be converted to an rvalue of type `double`. The value is unchanged.

This conversion is called floating point promotion.

### 4.7 Integral conversions

An rvalue of an integer type can be converted to an rvalue of another integer type. An rvalue of an unscoped enumeration type can be converted to an rvalue of an integer type.

If the destination type is unsigned, the resulting value is the least unsigned integer congruent to the source integer (modulo $2^n$ where $n$ is the number of bits used to represent the unsigned type). [Note: In a two’s complement representation, this conversion is conceptual and there is no change in the bit pattern (if there is no truncation). — end note]

If the destination type is signed, the value is unchanged if it can be represented in the destination type (and bit-field width); otherwise, the value is implementation-defined.

If the destination type is `bool`, see 4.12. If the source type is `bool`, the value `false` is converted to zero and the value `true` is converted to one.

The conversions allowed as integral promotions are excluded from the set of integral conversions.

### 4.8 Floating point conversions

An rvalue of floating point type can be converted to an rvalue of another floating point type. If the source value can be exactly represented in the destination type, the result of the conversion is that exact
representation. If the source value is between two adjacent destination values, the result of the conversion is an implementation-defined choice of either of those values. Otherwise, the behavior is undefined.

The conversions allowed as floating point promotions are excluded from the set of floating point conversions.

### 4.9 Floating-integral conversions

1. An rvalue of a floating point type can be converted to an rvalue of an integer type. The conversion truncates; that is, the fractional part is discarded. The behavior is undefined if the truncated value cannot be represented in the destination type. [Note: If the destination type is `bool`, see 4.12. — end note]

2. An rvalue of an integer type or of an unscoped enumeration type can be converted to an rvalue of a floating point type. The result is exact if possible. If the value being converted is in the range of values that can be represented but the value cannot be represented exactly, it is an implementation-defined choice of either the next lower or higher representable value. [Note: loss of precision occurs if the integral value cannot be represented exactly as a value of the floating type. — end note] If the value being converted is outside the range of values that can be represented, the behavior is undefined. If the source type is `bool`, the value `false` is converted to zero and the value `true` is converted to one.

### 4.10 Pointer conversions

1. A `null pointer constant` is an integral constant expression (5.19) rvalue of integer type that evaluates to zero or an rvalue of type `std::nullptr_t`. A null pointer constant can be converted to a pointer type; the result is the `null pointer value` of that type and is distinguishable from every other value of pointer to object or pointer to function type. Two null pointer values of the same type shall compare equal. The conversion of a null pointer constant to a pointer to cv-qualified type is a single conversion, and not the sequence of a pointer conversion followed by a qualification conversion (4.4). A null pointer constant of integral type can be converted to an rvalue of type `std::nullptr_t`. [Note: The resulting rvalue is not a null pointer value. — end note]

2. An rvalue of type “pointer to cv `T`,” where `T` is an object type, can be converted to an rvalue of type “pointer to cv `void`”. The result of converting a “pointer to cv `T`” to a “pointer to cv `void`” points to the start of the storage location where the object of type `T` resides, as if the object is a most derived object (1.8) of type `T` (that is, not a base class subobject). The null pointer value is converted to the null pointer value of the destination type.

3. An rvalue of type “pointer to cv `D`”, where `D` is a class type, can be converted to an rvalue of type “pointer to cv `B`”, where `B` is a base class (Clause 10) of `D`. If `B` is an inaccessible (Clause 11) or ambiguous (10.2) base class of `D`, a program that necessitates this conversion is ill-formed. The result of the conversion is a pointer to the base class subobject of the derived class object. The null pointer value is converted to the null pointer value of the destination type.

### 4.11 Pointer to member conversions

1. A null pointer constant (4.10) can be converted to a pointer to member type; the result is the `null member pointer value` of that type and is distinguishable from any pointer to member not created from a null pointer constant. Two null member pointer values of the same type shall compare equal. The conversion of a null pointer constant to a pointer to member of cv-qualified type is a single conversion, and not the sequence of a pointer to member conversion followed by a qualification conversion (4.4).

2. An rvalue of type “pointer to member of `B` of type cv `T`”, where `B` is a class type, can be converted to an rvalue of type “pointer to member of `D` of type cv `T`”, where `D` is a derived class (Clause 10) of `B`. If `B` is an inaccessible (Clause 11), ambiguous (10.2), or virtual (10.1) base class of `D`, or a base class of a virtual base class of `D`, a program that necessitates this conversion is ill-formed. The result of the conversion refers to the same member as the pointer to member before the conversion took place, but it refers to the base class.
member as if it were a member of the derived class. The result refers to the member in D’s instance of B. Since the result has type “pointer to member of D of type cv T”, it can be dereferenced with a D object. The result is the same as if the pointer to member of B were dereferenced with the B subobject of D. The null member pointer value is converted to the null member pointer value of the destination type.57

4.12 Boolean conversions

1 An rvalue of arithmetic, unscoped enumeration, pointer, or pointer to member type can be converted to an rvalue of type bool. A zero value, null pointer value, or null member pointer value is converted to false; any other value is converted to true. An rvalue of type std::nullptr_t can be converted to an rvalue of type bool; the resulting value is false.

4.13 Integer conversion rank

1 Every integer type has an integer conversion rank defined as follows:

— No two signed integer types other than char and signed char (if char is signed) shall have the same rank, even if they have the same representation.

— The rank of a signed integer type shall be greater than the rank of any signed integer type with a smaller size.

— The rank of long long int shall be greater than the rank of long int, which shall be greater than the rank of int, which shall be greater than the rank of short int, which shall be greater than the rank of signed char.

— The rank of any unsigned integer type shall equal the rank of the corresponding signed integer type.

— The rank of any standard integer type shall be greater than the rank of any extended integer type with the same size.

— The rank of char shall equal the rank of signed char and unsigned char.

— The rank of bool shall be less than the rank of all other standard integer types.

— The ranks of char16_t, char32_t, and wchar_t shall equal the ranks of their underlying types (3.9.1).

— The rank of any extended signed integer type relative to another extended signed integer type with the same size is implementation-defined, but still subject to the other rules for determining the integer conversion rank.

— For all integer types T1, T2, and T3, if T1 has greater rank than T2 and T2 has greater rank than T3, then T1 shall have greater rank than T3.

[Note: The integer conversion rank is used in the definition of the integral promotions (4.5) and the usual arithmetic conversions (5). — end note]

57) The rule for conversion of pointers to members (from pointer to member of base to pointer to member of derived) appears inverted compared to the rule for pointers to objects (from pointer to derived to pointer to base) (4.10, Clause 10). This inversion is necessary to ensure type safety. Note that a pointer to member is not a pointer to object or a pointer to function and the rules for conversions of such pointers do not apply to pointers to members. In particular, a pointer to member cannot be converted to a void*.
5 Expressions

1 [Note: Clause 5 defines the syntax, order of evaluation, and meaning of expressions. An expression is a sequence of operators and operands that specifies a computation. An expression can result in a value and can cause side effects. —end note]

2 [Note: Operators can be overloaded, that is, given meaning when applied to expressions of class type (Clause 9) or enumeration type (7.2). Uses of overloaded operators are transformed into function calls as described in 13.5. Overloaded operators obey the rules for syntax specified in Clause 5, but the requirements of operand type, lvalue, and evaluation order are replaced by the rules for function call. Relations between operators, such as ++a meaning a+=1, are not guaranteed for overloaded operators (13.5), and are not guaranteed for operands of type bool. —end note]

3 Clause 5 defines the effects of operators when applied to types for which they have not been overloaded. Operator overloading shall not modify the rules for the built-in operators, that is, for operators applied to types for which they are defined by this Standard. However, these built-in operators participate in overload resolution, and as part of that process user-defined conversions will be considered where necessary to convert the operands to types appropriate for the built-in operator. If a built-in operator is selected, such conversions will be applied to the operands before the operation is considered further according to the rules in Clause 5; see 13.3.1.2, 13.6.

4 If during the evaluation of an expression, the result is not mathematically defined or not in the range of representable values for its type, the behavior is undefined, unless such an expression appears where an integral constant expression is required (5.19), in which case the program is ill-formed. [Note: most existing implementations of C++ ignore integer overflows. Treatment of division by zero, forming a remainder using a zero divisor, and all floating point exceptions vary among machines, and is usually adjustable by a library function. —end note]

5 If an expression initially has the type “lvalue reference to T” (8.3.2, 8.5.3), the type is adjusted to T prior to any further analysis, the expression designates the object or function denoted by the lvalue reference, and the expression is an lvalue.

6 If an expression initially has the type “rvalue reference to T” (8.3.2, 8.5.3), the type is adjusted to “T” prior to any further analysis, and the expression designates the object or function denoted by the rvalue reference. If the expression is the result of calling a function, whether implicitly or explicitly, it is an rvalue; otherwise, it is an lvalue. [Note: In general, the effect of this rule is that named rvalue references are treated as lvalues and unnamed rvalue references are treated as rvalues. —end note]

[Example:

```c
struct A {};
A&& operator+(A, A);
A&& f();

A a;
A&& ar = a;
```

The expressions f() and a + a are rvalues of type A. The expression ar is an lvalue of type A. —end example]

58) The precedence of operators is not directly specified, but it can be derived from the syntax.
An expression designating an object is called an object-expression.

In some contexts, unevaluated operands appear (5.2.8, 5.3.3, 7.1.6.2). An unevaluated operand is not evaluated. [Note: In an unevaluated operand, a non-static class member may be named (5.1) and naming of objects or functions does not, by itself, require that a definition be provided (3.2). — end note]

Whenever an lvalue expression appears as an operand of an operator that expects an rvalue for that operand, the lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), or function-to-pointer (4.3) standard conversions are applied to convert the expression to an rvalue. [Note: because cv-qualifiers are removed from the type of an expression of non-class type when the expression is converted to an rvalue, an lvalue expression of type const int can, for example, be used where an rvalue expression of type int is required. — end note]

Many binary operators that expect operands of arithmetic or enumeration type cause conversions and yield result types in a similar way. The purpose is to yield a common type, which is also the type of the result. This pattern is called the usual arithmetic conversions, which are defined as follows:

- If either operand is of scoped enumeration type (7.2), no conversions are performed; if the other operand does not have the same type, the expression is ill-formed.
- If either operand is of type long double, the other shall be converted to long double.
- Otherwise, if either operand is double, the other shall be converted to double.
- Otherwise, if either operand is float, the other shall be converted to float.
- Otherwise, the integral promotions (4.5) shall be performed on both operands.

Then the following rules shall be applied to the promoted operands:

- If both operands have the same type, no further conversion is needed.
- Otherwise, if both operands have signed integer types or both have unsigned integer types, the operand with the type of lesser integer conversion rank shall be converted to the type of the operand with greater rank.
- Otherwise, if the operand that has unsigned integer type has rank greater than or equal to the rank of the type of the other operand, the operand with signed integer type shall be converted to the type of the operand with unsigned integer type.
- Otherwise, if the type of the operand with signed integer type can represent all of the values of the type of the operand with unsigned integer type, the operand with unsigned integer type shall be converted to the type of the operand with signed integer type.
- Otherwise, both operands shall be converted to the unsigned integer type corresponding to the type of the operand with signed integer type.

The values of the floating operands and the results of floating expressions may be represented in greater precision and range than that required by the type; the types are not changed thereby.

---

59) As a consequence, operands of type bool, char16_t, char32_t, wchar_t, or an enumerated type are converted to some integral type.

60) The cast and assignment operators must still perform their specific conversions as described in 5.4, 5.2.9 and 5.17.
5.1 Primary expressions

5.1.1 General

primary-expression:
    literal
    this
    ( expression )
    id-expression
    lambda-expression

id-expression:
    unqualified-id
    qualified-id

unqualified-id:
    identifier
    operator-function-id
    conversion-function-id
    literal-operator-id
    ~ class-name
    template-id

1 A literal is a primary expression. Its type depends on its form (2.14). A string literal is an lvalue; all other literals are rvalues.

2 The keyword this names a pointer to the object for which a non-static member function (9.3.2) is invoked or a non-static data member’s initializer (9.2) is evaluated. The keyword this shall be used only inside a non-static class member function body (9.3) or in a brace-or-equal-initializer for a non-static data member. The type of the expression is a pointer to the class of the function or non-static data member, possibly with cv-qualifiers on the class type. The expression is an rvalue.

3 The operator :: followed by an identifier, a qualified-id, or a operator-function-id, or a literal-operator-id is a primary-expression. Its type is specified by the declaration of the identifier, qualified-id, operator-function-id, or literal-operator-id. The result is the entity denoted by the identifier, qualified-id, operator-function-id, or literal-operator-id. The result is an lvalue if the entity is a function or variable. The identifier, qualified-id, operator-function-id, or literal-operator-id shall have global namespace scope or be visible in global scope because of a using-directive (7.3.4). [Note: the use of :: allows a type, an object, a function, an enumerator, or a namespace declared in the global namespace to be referred to even if its identifier has been hidden (3.4.3). — end note]

4 A parenthesized expression is a primary expression whose type and value are identical to those of the enclosed expression. The presence of parentheses does not affect whether the expression is an lvalue. The parenthesized expression can be used in exactly the same contexts as those where the enclosed expression can be used, and with the same meaning, except as otherwise indicated.

5 An id-expression is a restricted form of a primary-expression. [Note: an id-expression can appear after . and -> operators (5.2.5). — end note]

6 An identifier is an id-expression provided it has been suitably declared (Clause 7). [Note: for operator-function-ids, see 13.5; for conversion-function-ids, see 12.3.2; for literal-operator-ids, see 13.5.8; for template-ids, see 14.3. A class-name prefixed by ~ denotes a destructor; see 12.4. Within the definition of a non-static member function, an identifier that names a non-static member is transformed to a class member access
expression (9.3.1). — end note] The type of the expression is the type of the identifier. The result is the entity denoted by the identifier. The result is an lvalue if the entity is a function, variable, or data member.

\texttt{qualified-id:}  
\texttt{:: opt nested-name-specifier template opt unqualified-id}  
\texttt{:: identifier}  
\texttt{:: operator-function-id}  
\texttt{:: literal-operator-id}  
\texttt{:: template-id}  

\texttt{nested-name-specifier:}  
\texttt{type-name ::}  
\texttt{namespace-name ::}  
\texttt{nested-name-specifier identifier ::}  
\texttt{nested-name-specifier template opt simple-template-id ::}  

A \texttt{nested-name-specifier} that names a class, optionally followed by the keyword \texttt{template} (14.3), and then followed by the name of a member of either that class (9.2) or one of its base classes (Clause 10), is a \texttt{qualified-id}; 3.4.3.1 describes name lookup for class members that appear in \texttt{qualified-ids}. The result is the member. The type of the result is the type of the member. The result is an lvalue if the member is a static member function or a data member. [ Note: a class member can be referred to using a \texttt{qualified-id} at any point in its potential scope (3.3.7). — end note] Where \texttt{class-name :: class-name} is used, and the two \texttt{class-names} refer to the same class, this notation names the constructor (12.1). Where \texttt{class-name :: class-name} is used, the two \texttt{class-names} shall refer to the same class; this notation names the destructor (12.4). [ Note: a \texttt{typedef-name} that names a class is a \texttt{class-name} (9.1). — end note]

7 A \texttt{nested-name-specifier} that names a namespace (7.3), followed by the name of a member of that namespace (or the name of a member of a namespace made visible by a \texttt{using-directive}) is a \texttt{qualified-id}; 3.4.3.2 describes name lookup for namespace members that appear in \texttt{qualified-ids}. The result is the member. The type of the result is the type of the member. The result is an lvalue if the member is a function or a variable.

8 A \texttt{nested-name-specifier} that names an enumeration (7.2), followed by the name of an enumerator of that enumeration, is a \texttt{qualified-id} that refers to the enumerator. The result is the enumerator. The type of the result is the type of the enumeration. The result is an rvalue.

9 In a \texttt{qualified-id}, if the \texttt{id-expression} is a \texttt{conversion-function-id}, its \texttt{conversion-type-id} shall denote the same type in both the context in which the entire \texttt{qualified-id} occurs and in the context of the class denoted by the \texttt{nested-name-specifier}.

10 An \texttt{id-expression} that denotes a non-static data member or non-static member function of a class can only be used:

- as part of a class member access (5.2.5) in which the object-expression refers to the member’s class or a class derived from that class, or
- to form a pointer to member (5.3.1), or
- in the body of a non-static member function of that class or of a class derived from that class (9.3.1), or
- in a \texttt{mem-initializer} for a constructor for that class or for a class derived from that class (12.6.2), or
- in a \texttt{brace-or-equal-initializer} for a non-static data member of that class or of a class derived from that class (12.6.2), or
- if that \texttt{id-expression} denotes a non-static data member and it is the sole constituent of \texttt{appears in} an unevaluated operand, except for optional enclosing parentheses. [ Example:  

\begin{verbatim}
struct S {

\end{verbatim}

\texttt{§ 5.1.1}
```c
int m;
};
int i = sizeof(S::m); // OK
int j = sizeof(S::m + 42); // OK error: reference to non-static member in subexpression

— end example ]

5.1.2 Lambda expressions [expr.prim.lambda]

Lambda expressions provide a concise way to create simple function objects. [Example:
#include <algorithm>
#include <cmath>
void abssort(float *x, unsigned N) {
    std::sort(x, x + N,
        [](float a, float b) {
            return std::abs(a) < std::abs(b);
        });
}
— end example ]

lambda-expression:
  lambda-introducer lambda-parameter-declaration... lambda-declarator_opt compound-statement
lambda-introducer:
  [ lambda-capture_opt ]
lambda-capture:
  capture-default,
capture-list
capture-default:
  & =
capture-list:
  capture,
capture-list, capture
capture:
  identifier
  & identifier
  this
lambda-declarator:
  ( parameter-declaration-clause ) attribute-specifier_opt mutable_opt
  exception-specification_opt trailing-return-type_opt

2 The evaluation of a lambda-expression results in an rvalue temporary (12.2). This temporary is called the
closure object. A lambda-expression shall not appear in an unevaluated operand (Clause 5). [Note: a closure
object behaves like a function object (20.7). — end note]

3 The type of the lambda-expression (which is also the type of the closure object) is a unique, unnamed non-
union class type — called the closure type — whose properties are described below. This class type is not an
aggregate (8.5.1). The closure type is declared in the smallest block scope, class scope, or namespace scope
that contains the corresponding lambda-expression. [Note: this determines the set of namespaces and classes
associated with the closure type (3.4.2). The parameter types of a lambda-declarator do not affect these
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associated namespaces and classes. — end note] An implementation may define the closure type differently from what is described below provided this does not alter the observable behavior of the program other than by changing:

— the size and/or alignment of the closure type,
— whether the closure type is trivially copyable (Clause 9),
— whether the closure type is a standard-layout class (Clause 9), or
— whether the closure type is a POD class (Clause 9).

An implementation shall not add members of rvalue reference type to the closure type.

4 If a lambda-expression does not include a lambda-declarator, it is as if the lambda-declarator were (). If a lambda-expression does not include a trailing-return-type, it is as if the trailing-return-type denotes the following type:

— if the compound-statement if of the form

  \[
  \{ \text{return attribute-specifier}_{\text{opt}} \text{expression} ; \}
  \]

  the type of the returned expression after lvalue-to-rvalue conversion (4.1), array-to-pointer conversion (4.2), and function-to-pointer conversion (4.3);
— otherwise, void.

[ Example:

\[
\text{auto } x1 = []; (\text{int } i)\{ \text{return } i; \}; \quad \text{// OK: return type is int}
\text{auto } x2 = []; \{ \text{return } \{1, 2\}; \}; \quad \text{// error: the return type is void (a}
\text{// braced-init-list is not an expression)}
\]

— end example ]

5 The closure type for a lambda-expression has a public inline function call operator (13.5.4) whose parameters and return type are described by the lambda-expression’s parameter-declaration-clause and trailing-return-type respectively. This function call operator is declared const (9.3.1) if and only if the lambda-expression’s parameter-declaration-clause is not followed by mutable. It is not declared volatile. Default arguments (8.3.6) shall not be specified in the parameter-declaration-clause of a lambda-declarator. Any exception-specification specified on a lambda-expression applies to the corresponding function call operator. Any attribute-specifiers appearing immediately after the lambda-expression’s parameter-declaration-clause appertain to the type of the corresponding function call operator. [ Note: names referenced in the lambda-declarator are looked up in the context in which the lambda-expression appears. — end note ]

6 The lambda-expression’s compound-statement yields the function-body (8.4) of the function call operator, but for purposes of name lookup (3.4), determining the type and value of this (9.3.2) and transforming id-expressions referring to non-static class members into class member access expressions using (*this) (9.3.1), the compound-statement is considered in the context of the lambda-expression. [ Example:

\[
\text{struct S1 \{}
\text{int } x, y;
\text{int } \text{operator}()\{(\text{int});
\text{void } f() \{\}
\text{[=]()[->]int \{}\]
\text{return } \text{operator}()\{(\text{this}->x + y); \quad \text{// equivalent to } \text{S1::operator}()\{(\text{this}->x + (\text{*this}).y}
\text{// this has type S1*}
\}
\}\]

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For the purpose of describing the behavior of lambda-expressions below, this is considered to be “used” if replacing this by an invented variable v with automatic storage duration and the same type as this would result in v being used (3.2).

If a lambda-capture includes a capture-default that is &, the identifiers in the lambda-capture shall not be preceded by &. If a lambda-capture includes a capture-default that is =, the lambda-capture shall not contain this and each identifier it contains shall be preceded by &. An identifier or this shall not appear more than once in a lambda-capture. [Example:

```c
struct S2 { void f(int i); };
void S2::f(int i) {
    [&, i]{ }; // OK
    [&, &i]{ }; // error: i preceded by & when & is the default
    [=, this]{ }; // error: this when = is the default
    [i, i]{ }; // error: i repeated
}
```

— end example]

A lambda-expression’s compound statement can use (see above) this from an immediately enclosing member function definition, as well as variables and references with automatic storage duration from an immediately enclosing function definition or lambda-expression, provided these entities are captured (as described below). Any other use (3.2) of a variable or reference with automatic storage duration declared outside the lambda-expression is ill-formed. [Example:

```c
void f1(int i) {
    int const N = 20;
    i=1
    int const M = 30;
    i=1
    int x[N][M]; // OK: N and X are not “used”
    x[0][0] = i; // error: i is not declared in the immediately enclosing lambda expression
    ++i;
}
```

— end example].

A lambda-expression whose smallest enclosing scope is a block scope (3.3.3) is a local lambda expression; any other lambda-expression shall not have a capture-list in its lambda-introducer. The reaching scope of a local lambda expression is the set of enclosing scopes up to and including the innermost enclosing function and its parameters. [Note: this reaching scope includes any intervening lambda-expressions. — end note]

The identifiers in a capture-list are looked up using the usual rules for unqualified name lookup (3.4.1); each such lookup shall find a variable or reference with automatic storage duration declared in the reaching scope of the local lambda expression. An entity (i.e. a variable, a reference, or this) is said to be explicitly captured if it appears in the lambda-expression’s capture-list. An explicitly captured entity is used (3.2).

If a lambda-expression has an associated capture-default and its compound-statement uses (3.2) this or a variable or reference with automatic storage duration declared in an enclosing function or lambda-expression—and the used entity is not explicitly captured, then the used entity is said to be implicitly captured; such entities shall be declared within the reaching scope of the lambda expression. [Note: the implicit capture of
an entity by a nested lambda-expression can cause its implicit capture by the containing lambda-expression (see below). Implicit uses of this can result in implicit capture. — end note]

If this is captured, either explicitly or implicitly, the lambda-expression shall appear directly in the definition of a non-static member function, i.e. not in another lambda-expression. [Note: This rule prevents access from a nested lambda expression to the members of the enclosing lambda expression’s closure object. — end note—]

12 An entity is captured if it is captured explicitly or implicitly. An entity captured by a lambda-expression is used in the scope containing the lambda-expression. If this is captured by a local lambda expression, its nearest enclosing function shall be a non-static member function. If a lambda-expression uses this or a variable or reference with automatic storage duration from its reaching scope, that entity shall be captured by the lambda-expression. If a lambda-expression captures an entity and that entity is not defined or captured in the immediately enclosing lambda expression or function, the program is ill-formed.

Example:

```c
void f1(int i) {
    int const N = 20;
    auto m1 = [=]{};
        int const M = 30;
        auto m2 = [i]{};
            int x[N][M];
            x[0][0] = i;
        };
    struct s1 {
        int f;
        int work(int n) {
            int m = n*n;
            int j = 40;
            auto m3 = [this,m] {
                auto m4 = [k,j] {
                    int x = n;
                    // OK: N and N are not "used"
                    x[0][0] = i;
                    // OK: i is explicitly captured by m2
                    // and implicitly captured by m1
                    }
                };
            }
        }
    }
}
```

—end example—

13 A lambda-expression appearing in a default argument shall not implicitly or explicitly capture any entity.

Example:

```c
void f2() {
    int i = 1;
    void g1(int = ([i]{} { return ++i; })()); // ill-formed
    void g2(int = ([i]{} { return 0; })()); // ill-formed
    void g3(int = ([i]{} { return i; })()); // ill-formed
    void g4(int = ([i]{} { return 0; })()); // OK
}
```
void g5(int = ([]{ return sizeof i; })()); // OK

— end example]

14 An entity is captured by copy if it is implicitly captured and the capture-default is = or if it is explicitly captured with a capture that does not include an &. For each entity captured by copy, an unnamed non-static data member is declared in the closure type. The declaration order of these members is unspecified. The type of such a data member is the type of the corresponding captured entity if the entity is not a reference to an object, or the referenced type otherwise. [Note: if the captured entity is a reference to a function, the corresponding data member is also a reference to a function. — end note]

15 An entity is captured by reference if it is implicitly or explicitly captured but not captured by copy. It is unspecified whether additional unnamed non-static data members are declared in the closure type for entities captured by reference.

16 If a lambda-expression m1 captures an entity and that entity is captured by an immediately enclosing lambda-expression m2, then m1’s capture is transformed as follows:

— if m2 captures the entity by copy, m1 captures the corresponding non-static data member of m2’s closure type;

— if m2 captures the entity by reference, m1 captures the same entity captured by m2.

[Example: the nested lambda expressions and invocations below will output 123234.]

```cpp
int a = 1, b = 1, c = 1;
auto m1 = [a, &b, &c]() mutable {
    auto m2 = [a, b, &c]() mutable {
        std::cout << a << b << c;
        a = 4; b = 4; c = 4;
    };
    a = 3; b = 3; c = 3;
    m2();
};
auto m2 = [a, &b, &c]() mutable {
    std::cout << a << b << c;
}:
auto m3 = [a, b, c]() mutable {
    std::cout << a << b << c;
}:

— end example]

17 Every id-expression that is a use (3.2) of an entity captured by copy is transformed into an access to the corresponding unnamed data member of the closure type. If this is captured, each use of this is transformed into an access to the corresponding unnamed data member of the closure type, cast (5.4) to the type of this. [Note: the cast ensures that the transformed expression is an rvalue. — end note]

18 Every occurrence of decltype((x)) where x is a possibly parenthesized id-expression that names an entity of automatic storage duration is treated as if x were transformed into an access to the corresponding data member of the closure type that would have been declared if x were a use of the denoted entity. [Example:]

```cpp
void f3() {
    float x, &r = x;
    [x] { // x and r are not captured (appearance in a decltype operand is not a “use”)
        decltype(x) y1; // y1 has type float
        decltype(x) y2 = y1; // y2 has type float const& because this lambda is not mutable and x is an lvalue
        decltype(r) r1 = y1; // r1 has type float& (transformation not considered)
    }
}
```
```cpp
decltype((r)) r2 = y2;    // r2 has type float const&
};
}

— end example ]

19 The closure type associated with a lambda-expression has a deleted default
constructor and a deleted copy assignment operator. It has an implicitly-declared
copy constructor (12.8). [ Note: the copy constructor is implicitly defined in the
same way as any other implicitly declared copy constructor would be implicitly
defined. — end note ]

20 The closure type C associated with a lambda-expression has an additional public inline constructor with a
single parameter of type C&&. Given an argument object x, this constructor initializes each non-static data
member m of *this as follows:

— if m is an array, each element of this->m is direct-initialized with an expression equivalent to std::move(e)
  where e is the corresponding element of x.m. Otherwise,
— if m is an lvalue reference, this->m is initialized with x.m. [ Note: m cannot be an rvalue reference.
  — end note ] Otherwise,
— this->m is direct-initialized with an expression equivalent to std::move(x.m).
[ Note: the notations are for exposition only; the members of a closure type are unnamed and std::move
need not be called. — end note ]

21 The closure type associated with a lambda-expression has an implicitly-declared destructor (12.4).

22 When the lambda-expression is evaluated, the entities that are captured by copy are used to direct-initialize
each corresponding non-static data member of the resulting closure object. (For array members, the array
elements are direct-initialized in increasing subscript order.) These initializations are performed in the (un-
specified) order in which the non-static data members are declared. [ Note: this ensures that the destructions
will occur in the reverse order of the constructions. — end note ]

23 [ Note: If an entity is implicitly or explicitly captured by reference, invoking the function call operator of
the corresponding lambda-expression after the lifetime of the entity has ended is likely to result in undefined
behavior. — end note ]

5.2 Postfix expressions [expr.post]

1 Postfix expressions group left-to-right.
postfix-expression:
  primary-expression
  postfix-expression [ expression ]
  postfix-expression [ braced-init-list ]
  postfix-expression ( expression-list opt )
  simple-type-specifier ( expression-list opt )
  typename-specifier ( expression-list opt )
  simple-type-specifier braced-init-list
  typename-specifier braced-init-list
  postfix-expression . template opt id-expression
  postfix-expression -> template opt id-expression
  postfix-expression . pseudo-destructor-name
  postfix-expression -> pseudo-destructor-name
  postfix-expression ++
  postfix-expression --
  dynamic_cast < type-id > ( expression )
  static_cast < type-id > ( expression )
  reinterpret_cast < type-id > ( expression )
  const_cast < type-id > ( expression )
  typeid ( expression )
  typeid ( type-id )

expression-list:
  initializer-list

pseudo-destructor-name:
  :: opt nested-name-specifier opt type-name :: ~ type-name
  :: opt nested-name-specifier template simple-template-id :: ~ type-name
  :: opt nested-name-specifier opt ~ type-name

2 [Note: The > token following the type-id in a dynamic_cast, static_cast, reinterpret_cast, or const_cast may be the product of replacing a >> token by two consecutive > tokens (14.3). — end note]

5.2.1 Subscripting [expr.sub]

1 A postfix expression followed by an expression in square brackets is a postfix expression. One of the expressions shall have the type “pointer to T” and the other shall have unscoped enumeration or integral type. The result is an lvalue of type “T.” The type “T” shall be a completely-defined object type. The expression E1[E2] is identical (by definition) to *(*(E1)+(E2)) [Note: see 5.3 and 5.7 for details of * and + and 8.3.4 for details of arrays. — end note]

2 A braced-init-list may appear as a subscript for a user-defined operator[]. In that case, the initializer list is treated as the initializer for the subscript argument of the operator[]. An initializer list shall not be used with the built-in subscript operator.

[Example:

```cpp
struct X {
  Z operator[](std::initializer_list<int>);  
};
X x;
x[{1,2,3}] = 7; // OK: meaning x.operator[](1,2,3)
int a[10];
a[{1,2,3}] = 7; // error: built-in subscript operator
```

61) This is true even if the subscript operator is used in the following common idiom: &x[0].

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There are two kinds of function call: ordinary function call and member function \((9.3)\) call. A function call is a postfix expression followed by parentheses containing a possibly empty, comma-separated list of expressions which constitute the arguments to the function. For an ordinary function call, the postfix expression shall be either an lvalue that refers to a function (in which case the function-to-pointer standard conversion \((4.3)\) is suppressed on the postfix expression), or it shall have pointer to function type. Calling a function through an expression whose function type has a language linkage that is different from the language linkage of the function type of the called function’s definition is undefined \((7.5)\). For a member function call, the postfix expression shall be an implicit \((9.3.1, 9.4)\) or explicit class member access \((5.2.5)\) whose id-expression is a function member name, or a pointer-to-member expression \((5.5)\) selecting a function member; the call is as a member of the object pointed to or referred to by the object expression \((5.2.5, 5.5)\).

In the case of an implicit class member access, the implied object is the one pointed to by this. \[Note: a member function call of the form \(f()\) is interpreted as \((\ast\text{this})\).\(f()\) (see 9.3.1). \end{note}\]

If a function or member function name is used, the name can be overloaded \((Clause 13)\), in which case the appropriate function shall be selected according to the rules in 13.3. If the selected function is non-virtual, or if the id-expression in the class member access expression is a qualified-id, that function is called. Otherwise, its final overrider \((10.3)\) in the dynamic type of the object expression is called. \[Note: the dynamic type is the type of the object pointed or referred to by the current value of the object expression. 12.7 describes the behavior of virtual function calls when the object-expression refers to an object under construction or destruction. \end{note}\]

The type of the function call expression is the return type of the statically chosen function (i.e., ignoring the virtual keyword), even if the type of the function actually called is different. This type shall be a complete object type, a reference type or the type \textit{void}.

When a function is called, each parameter \((8.3.5)\) shall be initialized \((8.5, 12.8, 12.1)\) with its corresponding argument. If the function is a non-static member function, the \textit{this} parameter of the function \((9.3.2)\) shall be initialized with a pointer to the object of the call, converted as if by an explicit type conversion \((5.4)\). \[Note: There is no access or ambiguity checking on this conversion; the access checking and disambiguation are done as part of the (possibly implicit) class member access operator. See \(10.2, 11.2,\) and 5.2.5. \end{note}\]

When a function is called, the parameters that have object type shall have completely-defined object type. \[Note: this still allows a parameter to be a pointer or reference to an incomplete class type. However, it prevents a passed-by-value parameter to have an incomplete class type. \end{note}\] During the initialization of a parameter, an implementation may avoid the construction of extra temporaries by combining the conversions on the associated argument and/or the construction of temporaries with the initialization of the parameter \((see \(12.2)\). The lifetime of a parameter ends when the function in which it is defined returns. The initialization and destruction of each parameter occurs within the context of the calling function. \[Example: the access of the constructor, conversion functions or destructor is checked at the point of call in the calling function. If a constructor or destructor for a function parameter throws an exception, the search for a handler starts in the scope of the calling function; in particular, if the function called has a function-try-block (\(Clause 15)\) with a handler that could handle the exception, this handler is not considered. \end{example}\] The value of a function call is the value returned by the called function except in a virtual function call if the return type of the final overrider is different from the return type of the statically chosen function, the value returned from the final overrider is converted to the return type of the statically chosen function.

\[62\) A static member function \((9.4)\) is an ordinary function.\]
5 [Note: a function can change the values of its non-const parameters, but these changes cannot affect the
values of the arguments except where a parameter is of a reference type (8.3.2); if the reference is to a
const-qualified type, const_cast is required to be used to cast away the constness in order to modify
the argument’s value. Where a parameter is of const reference type a temporary object is introduced if
needed (7.1.6, 2.14, 2.14.5, 8.3.4, 12.2). In addition, it is possible to modify the values of nonconstant objects
through pointer parameters. —end note]

6 A function can be declared to accept fewer arguments (by declaring default arguments (8.3.6)) or more
arguments (by using the ellipsis, ..., or a function parameter pack (8.3.5)) than the number of parameters
in the function definition (8.4). [Note: this implies that, except where the ellipsis (....) or a function
parameter pack is used, a parameter is available for each argument. —end note]

7 When there is no parameter for a given argument, the argument is passed in such a way that the receiving
function can obtain the value of the argument by invoking va_arg (18.10). [Note: This paragraph does not
apply to arguments passed to a function parameter pack. Function parameter packs are expanded during
template specialization (14.6.3), thus each such argument has a corresponding parameter when a function
template specialization is actually called. —end note] The lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2),
and function-to-pointer (4.3) standard conversions are performed on the argument expression. After these
conversions, if the argument does not have arithmetic, enumeration, pointer, pointer to member, or class
type, the program is ill-formed. Passing a potentially-evaluated argument of class type (Clause 9) with a
non-trivial copy constructor or a non-trivial destructor with no corresponding parameter is conditionally-
supported, with implementation-defined semantics. If the argument has integral or enumeration type that
is subject to the integral promotions (4.5), or a floating point type that is subject to the floating point
promotion (4.6), the value of the argument is converted to the promoted type before the call. These
promotions are referred to as the default argument promotions.

8 [Note: The evaluations of the postfix expression and of the argument expressions are all unsequenced
relative to one another. All side effects of argument expression evaluations are sequenced before the function
is entered (see 1.9). —end note]

9 Recursive calls are permitted, except to the function named main (3.6.1).

10 A function call is an lvalue if and only if the result type is an lvalue reference.

5.2.3 Explicit type conversion (functional notation) [expr.type.conv]

1 A simple-type-specifier (7.1.6.2) or typename-specifier (14.7) followed by a parenthesized expression-list
constructs a value of the specified type given the expression list. If the expression list is a single expression, the
type conversion expression is equivalent (in definedness, and if defined in meaning) to the corresponding cast
expression (5.4). If the type specified is a class type, the class type shall be complete. If the expression list
specifies more than a single value, the type shall be a class with a suitably declared constructor (8.5, 12.1),
and the expression T(x1, x2, ...) is equivalent in effect to the declaration T t(x1, x2, ...); for some
invented temporary variable t, with the result being the value of t as an rvalue.

2 The expression T(), where T is a simple-type-specifier or typename-specifier for a non-array complete object
type or the (possibly cv-qualified) void type, creates an rvalue of the specified type, which is value-
initialized (8.5; no initialization is done for the void() case). [Note: if T is a non-class type that is
cv-qualified, the cv-qualifiers are ignored when determining the type of the resulting rvalue (3.10). —end
note]

3 Similarly, a simple-type-specifier or typename-specifier followed by a braced-init-list creates a temporary
object of the specified type direct-list-initialized (8.5.4) with the specified braced-init-list, and its value is
that temporary object as an rvalue.

5.2.4 Pseudo destructor call

The use of a `pseudo-destructor-name` after a dot `.` or arrow `->` operator represents the destructor for the non-class type named by `type-name`. The result shall only be used as the operand for the function call operator `()`, and the result of such a call has type `void`. The only effect is the evaluation of the `postfix-expression` before the dot or arrow.

The left-hand side of the dot operator shall be of scalar type. The left-hand side of the arrow operator shall be of pointer to scalar type. This scalar type is the object type. The `cv`-unqualified versions of the object type and of the type designated by the `pseudo-destructor-name` shall be the same type. Furthermore, the two `type-names` in a `pseudo-destructor-name` of the form

```
::opt nested-name-specifieropt type-name :: ~ type-name
```

shall designate the same scalar type.

5.2.5 Class member access

A postfix expression followed by a dot `.` or an arrow `->`, optionally followed by the keyword `template` (14.9.1), and then followed by an `id-expression`, is a postfix expression. The postfix expression before the dot or arrow is evaluated; the result of that evaluation, together with the `id-expression`, determines the result of the entire postfix expression.

For the first option (dot) the type of the first expression (the `object expression`) shall be “class object” (of a complete type). For the second option (arrow) the type of the first expression (the `pointer expression`) shall be “pointer to class object” (of a complete type). In these cases, the `id-expression` shall name a member of the class or of one of its base classes. [Note: because the name of a class is inserted in its class scope (Clause 9), the name of a class is also considered a nested member of that class. — end note] [Note: 3.4.5 describes how names are looked up after the . and -> operators. — end note]

If `E1` has the type “pointer to class `X`,” then the expression `E1->E2` is converted to the equivalent form `(*(E1)).E2`; the remainder of 5.2.5 will address only the first option (dot)\(^\text{64}\). Abbreviating `object-expression.id-expression` as `E1.E2`, then the type and lvalue properties of this expression are determined as follows. In the remainder of 5.2.5, `cq` represents either `const` or the absence of `const` and `vq` represents either `volatile` or the absence of `volatile`. `cv` represents an arbitrary set of `cv`-qualifiers, as defined in 3.9.3.

If `E2` is declared to be a mutable member, then the type of `E1.E2` is `vq12 T`. If `E2` is not declared to be a mutable member, then the type of `E1.E2` is `cq12 vq12 T`.

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---

\(^{63}\) If the class member access expression is evaluated, the subexpression evaluation happens even if the result is unnecessary to determine the value of the entire postfix expression, for example if the `id-expression` denotes a static member.

\(^{64}\) Note that if `E1` has the type “pointer to class `X`,” then `*(E1)` is an lvalue.
— If \( E2 \) is a (possibly overloaded) member function, function overload resolution (13.3) is used to determine whether \( E1.E2 \) refers to a static or a non-static member function.

— If it refers to a static member function and the type of \( E2 \) is “function of parameter-type-list returning \( T \)”, then \( E1.E2 \) is an lvalue; the expression designates the static member function. The type of \( E1.E2 \) is the same type as that of \( E2 \), namely “function of parameter-type-list returning \( T \)”.

— Otherwise, if \( E1.E2 \) refers to a non-static member function and the type of \( E2 \) is “function of parameter-type-list \( cv \) ref-qualifier \( opt \) returning \( T \)”, then \( E1.E2 \) is an rvalue. The expression designates a non-static member function. The expression can be used only as the left-hand operand of a member function call (9.3). [Note: any redundant set of parentheses surrounding the expression is ignored (5.1). — end note] The type of \( E1.E2 \) is “function of parameter-type-list \( cv \) returning \( T \)”.

— If \( E2 \) is a nested type, the expression \( E1.E2 \) is ill-formed.

— If \( E2 \) is a member enumerator and the type of \( E2 \) is \( T \), the expression \( E1.E2 \) is an rvalue. The type of \( E1.E2 \) is \( T \).

5 If \( E2 \) is a non-static data member or a non-static member function, the program is ill-formed if the class of which \( E2 \) is directly a member is an ambiguous base (10.2) of the naming class (11.2) of \( E2 \).

### 5.2.6 Increment and decrement

[expr.post.incr]

1 The value of a postfix ++ expression is the value of its operand. [Note: the value obtained is a copy of the original value — end note] The operand shall be a modifiable lvalue. The type of the operand shall be an arithmetic type or a pointer to a complete object type. The value of the operand object is modified by adding 1 to it, unless the object is of type \( \text{bool} \), in which case it is set to \( \text{true} \). [Note: this use is deprecated, see Annex D. — end note] The value computation of the ++ expression is sequenced before the modification of the operand object. With respect to an indeterminately-sequenced function call, the operation of postfix ++ is a single evaluation. [Note: Therefore, a function call shall not intervene between the lvalue-to-rvalue conversion and the side effect associated with any single postfix ++ operator. — end note] The result is an rvalue. The type of the result is the cv-unqualified version of the type of the operand. See also 5.7 and 5.17.

2 The operand of postfix -- is decremented analogously to the postfix ++ operator, except that the operand shall not be of type \( \text{bool} \). [Note: For prefix increment and decrement, see 5.3.2. — end note]

### 5.2.7 Dynamic cast

[expr.dynamic.cast]

1 The result of the expression \( \text{dynamic\_cast}\langle T\rangle(v) \) is the result of converting the expression \( v \) to type \( T \). \( T \) shall be a pointer or reference to a complete class type, or “pointer to cv void.” The \( \text{dynamic\_cast} \) operator shall not cast away constness (5.2.11).

2 If \( T \) is a pointer type, \( v \) shall be an rvalue of a pointer to complete class type, and the result is an rvalue of type \( T \). If \( T \) is an lvalue reference type, \( v \) shall be an lvalue of a complete class type, and the result is an lvalue of the type referred to by \( T \). If \( T \) is an rvalue reference type, \( v \) shall be an expression having a complete class type, and the result is an rvalue of the type referred to by \( T \).

3 If the type of \( v \) is the same as \( T \), or it is the same as \( T \) except that the class object type in \( T \) is more cv-qualified than the class object type in \( v \), the result is \( v \) (converted if necessary).

4 If the value of \( v \) is a null pointer value in the pointer case, the result is the null pointer value of type \( T \).

5 If \( T \) is “pointer to cv1 B” and \( v \) has type “pointer to cv2 D” such that \( B \) is a base class of \( D \), the result is a pointer to the unique \( B \) subobject of the \( D \) object pointed to by \( v \). Similarly, if \( T \) is “reference to cv1 B” and
v has type \textit{cv2} D such that B is a base class of D, the result is the unique B subobject of the D object referred to by v. \footnote{The most derived object (1.8) pointed or referred to by v can contain other B objects as base classes, but these are ignored.} The result is an lvalue if T is an lvalue reference, or an rvalue if T is an rvalue reference. In both the pointer and reference cases, the program is ill-formed if \textit{cv2} has greater cv-qualification than \textit{cv1} or if B is an inaccessible or ambiguous base class of D. [\textit{Example:}

```c
struct B { };  
struct D : B { };  
void foo(D* dp) {  
  B* bp = dynamic_cast<B*>(dp); // equivalent to B* bp = dp;  
}
```

--- end example ---

6 Otherwise, v shall be a pointer to or an lvalue of a polymorphic type (10.3).

7 If T is “pointer to \textit{cv} void,” then the result is a pointer to the most derived object pointed to by v. Otherwise, a run-time check is applied to see if the object pointed or referred to by v can be converted to the type pointed or referred to by T.

8 If C is the class type to which T points or refers, the run-time check logically executes as follows:

- If, in the most derived object pointed (referred) to by v, v points (refers) to a public base class subobject of a C object, and if only one object of type C is derived from the subobject pointed (referred) to by v the result points (refers) to that C object.

- Otherwise, if v points (refers) to a public base class subobject of the most derived object, and the type of the most derived object has a base class, of type C, that is unambiguous and public, the result points (refers) to the C subobject of the most derived object.

- Otherwise, the run-time check fails.

9 The value of a failed cast to pointer type is the null pointer value of the required result type. A failed cast to reference type throws \texttt{std::bad_cast} (18.7.2).

[\textit{Example:}

```c
class A { virtual void f(); };  
class B { virtual void g(); };  
class D : public virtual A, private B { };  
void g() {  
  D  d;  
  B* bp = (B*)&d; // cast needed to break protection  
  A* ap = &d; // public derivation, no cast needed  
  D& dr = dynamic_cast<D&>(bp); // fails  
  ap = dynamic_cast<A*>(bp); // fails  
  bp = dynamic_cast<B*>(ap); // fails  
  ap = dynamic_cast<A*>(&d); // succeeds  
  bp = dynamic_cast<B*>(&d); // ill-formed (not a run-time check)
}
```

```c
class E : public D, public B { };  
class F : public E, public D { };  
void h() {  
  F  f;  
  A* ap = &f; // succeeds: finds unique A  
  D* dp = dynamic_cast<D*>(ap); // fails: yields 0
}
```
5.2.8 Type identification

1 The result of a typeid expression is an lvalue of static type const std::type_info (18.7.1) and dynamic type const std::type_info or const name where name is an implementation-defined class publicly derived from std::type_info which preserves the behavior described in 18.7.1. The lifetime of the object referred to by the lvalue extends to the end of the program. Whether or not the destructor is called for the std::type_info object at the end of the program is unspecified.

2 When typeid is applied to an lvalue expression whose type is a polymorphic class type (10.3), the result refers to a std::type_info object representing the type of the most derived object (1.8) (that is, the dynamic type) to which the lvalue refers. If the lvalue expression is obtained by applying the unary * operator to a pointer and the pointer is a null pointer value (4.10), the typeid expression throws the std::bad_typeid exception (18.7.3).

3 When typeid is applied to an expression other than an lvalue of a polymorphic class type, the result refers to a std::type_info object representing the static type of the expression. Lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), and function-to-pointer (4.3) conversions are not applied to the expression. If the type of the expression is a class type, the class shall be completely-defined. The expression is an unevaluated operand (Clause 5).

4 When typeid is applied to a type-id, the result refers to a std::type_info object representing the type of the type-id. If the type of the type-id is a reference to a possibly cv-qualified type, the result of the typeid expression refers to a std::type_info object representing the cv-unqualified referenced type. If the type of the type-id is a class type or a reference to a class type, the class shall be completely-defined.

5 The top-level cv-qualifiers of the lvalue expression or the type-id that is the operand of typeid are always ignored. [Example:

```cpp
class D { ... };
D d1;
const D d2;

typeid(d1) == typeid(d2); // yields true
typeid(D) == typeid(const D); // yields true
typeid(D) == typeid(d2); // yields true
typeid(D) == typeid(const D&); // yields true
```

— end example]

6 If the header <typeinfo> (18.7.1) is not included prior to a use of typeid, the program is ill-formed.

---

66) The recommended name for such a class is extended_type_info.
67) If p is an expression of pointer type, then *p, (p), ((p)), p, and so on all meet this requirement.
5.2.9 Static cast

The result of the expression \( \text{static\_cast<T>(v)} \) is the result of converting the expression \( v \) to type \( T \). If \( T \) is an lvalue reference type, the result is an lvalue; otherwise, the result is an rvalue. The \text{static\_cast} operator shall not cast away constness (5.2.11).

An lvalue of type "cv1 B," where \( B \) is a class type, can be cast to type "reference to cv2 D," where \( D \) is a class derived (Clause 10) from \( B \), if a valid standard conversion from "pointer to \( D \)" to "pointer to \( B \)" exists (4.10), \( cv2 \) is the same cv-qualification as, or greater cv-qualification than, \( cv1 \), and \( B \) is neither a virtual base class of \( D \) nor a base class of a virtual base class of \( D \). The result has type "cv2 D." An rvalue of type "cv1 B" may be cast to type "rvalue reference to cv2 D" with the same constraints as for an lvalue of type "cv1 B." If the object of type "cv1 B" is actually a subobject of an object of type \( D \), the result refers to the enclosing object of type \( D \). Otherwise, the result of the cast is undefined. [Example:

```cpp
struct B { }; struct D : public B { }; D d; B &br = d;
static_cast<D&>(br); // produces lvalue to the original d object
```
— end example]

An lvalue of type "cv1 T1" can be cast to type "rvalue reference to cv2 T2" if "cv2 T2" is reference-compatible with "cv1 T1" (8.5.3). The result refers to the object or the specified base class subobject thereof. If \( T2 \) is an inaccessible (Clause 11) or ambiguous (10.2) base class of \( T1 \), a program that necessitates such a cast is ill-formed.

Otherwise, an expression \( e \) can be explicitly converted to a type \( T \) using a \text{static\_cast} of the form \text{static\_cast<T>(e)} if the declaration \( T \ t(e); \) is well-formed, for some invented temporary variable \( t \) (8.5). The effect of such an explicit conversion is the same as performing the declaration and initialization and then using the temporary variable as the result of the conversion. The expression \( e \) is used as an lvalue if and only if the initialization uses it as an lvalue.

Otherwise, the \text{static\_cast} shall perform one of the conversions listed below. No other conversion shall be performed explicitly using a \text{static\_cast}.

Any expression can be explicitly converted to type \( cv \ void \). The expression value is discarded. [Note: however, if the value is in a temporary variable (12.2), the destructor for that variable is not executed until the usual time, and the value of the variable is preserved for the purpose of executing the destructor. — end note] The lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), and function-to-pointer (4.3) standard conversions are not applied to the expression.

The inverse of any standard conversion sequence (Clause 4), other than the lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), function-to-pointer (4.3), and boolean (4.12) conversions, can be performed explicitly using \text{static\_cast}. A program is ill-formed if it uses \text{static\_cast} to perform the inverse of an ill-formed standard conversion sequence. [Example:

```cpp
struct B { }; struct D : private B { }; void f() {
    static_cast<D*>(B*)0; // Error: B is a private base of D.
    static_cast<int B::*>(int D::*0); // Error: B is a private base of D.
}
```

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The lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), and function-to-pointer (4.3) conversions are applied to the operand. Such a `static_cast` is subject to the restriction that the explicit conversion does not cast away constness (5.2.11), and the following additional rules for specific cases:

A value of a scoped enumeration type (7.2) can be explicitly converted to an integral type. The value is unchanged if the original value can be represented by the specified type. Otherwise, the resulting value is unspecified. A value of a scoped enumeration type can also be explicitly converted to a floating-point type; the result is the same as that of converting from the original value to the floating-point type.

A value of integral or enumeration type can be explicitly converted to an enumeration type. The value is unchanged if the original value is within the range of the enumeration values (7.2). Otherwise, the resulting enumeration value is unspecified.

An rvalue of type “pointer to cv1 B,” where B is a class type, can be converted to an rvalue of type “pointer to cv2 D,” where D is a class derived (Clause 10) from B, if a valid standard conversion from “pointer to D” to “pointer to B” exists (4.10), cv2 is the same cv-qualification as, or greater cv-qualification than, cv1, and B is neither a virtual base class of D nor a base class of a virtual base class of D. The null pointer value (4.10) is converted to the null pointer value of the destination type. If the rvalue of type “pointer to cv1 B” points to a B that is actually a subobject of an object of type D, the resulting pointer points to the enclosing object of type D. Otherwise, the result of the cast is undefined.

An rvalue of type “pointer to member of D of type cv1 T” can be converted to an rvalue of type “pointer to member of B” of type cv2 T, where B is a base class (Clause 10) of D, if a valid standard conversion from “pointer to member of B of type T” to “pointer to member of D of type T” exists (4.11), and cv2 is the same cv-qualification as, or greater cv-qualification than, cv1. The null member pointer value (4.11) is converted to the null member pointer value of the destination type. If class B contains the original member, or is a base or derived class of the class containing the original member, the resulting pointer to member points to the original member. Otherwise, the result of the cast is undefined. [Note: although class B need not contain the original member, the dynamic type of the object on which the pointer to member is dereferenced must contain the original member; see 5.5. — end note]

An rvalue of type “pointer to cv1 void” can be converted to an rvalue of type “pointer to cv2 T,” where T is an object type and cv2 is the same cv-qualification as, or greater cv-qualification than, cv1. The null pointer value is converted to the null pointer value of the destination type. A value of type pointer to object converted to “pointer to cv void” and back, possibly with different cv-qualification, shall have its original value. [Example:

```cpp
T* p1 = new T;
const T* p2 = static_cast<const T*>(static_cast<void*>(p1));
bool b = p1 == p2; // b will have the value true.
```

— end example]

### 5.2.10 Reinterpret cast

The result of the expression `reinterpret_cast<T>(v)` is the result of converting the expression `v` to type T. If T is an lvalue reference type, the result is an lvalue; if T is an rvalue reference type, the result is an rvalue; otherwise, the result is an rvalue and the lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), and function-to-pointer (4.3) standard conversions are performed on the expression v. Conversions that can be performed explicitly using `reinterpret_cast` are listed below. No other conversion can be performed explicitly using `reinterpret_cast`.

---

68) Function types (including those used in pointer to member function types) are never cv-qualified; see 8.3.5.
The `reinterpret_cast` operator shall not cast away constness (5.2.11). [Note: Subject to the restrictions in this section, an expression may be cast to its own type using a `reinterpret_cast` operator. — end note]

[Note: The mapping performed by `reinterpret_cast` might, or might not, produce a representation different from the original value. — end note]

A pointer can be explicitly converted to any integral type large enough to hold it. The mapping function is implementation-defined. [Note: it is intended to be unsurprising to those who know the addressing structure of the underlying machine. — end note] A value of type `std::nullptr_t` can be converted to an integral type; the conversion has the same meaning and validity as a conversion of `(void*)0` to the integral type. [Note: a `reinterpret_cast` cannot be used to convert a value of any type to the type `std::nullptr_t`. — end note]

A value of integral type or enumeration type can be explicitly converted to a pointer. A pointer converted to an integer of sufficient size (if any such exists on the implementation) and back to the same pointer type will have its original value; mappings between pointers and integers are otherwise implementation-defined. [Note: Except as described in 3.7.4.3, the result of such a conversion will not be a safely-derived pointer value. — end note]

A pointer to a function can be explicitly converted to a pointer to a function of a different type. The effect of calling a function through a pointer to a function type (8.3.5) that is not the same as the type used in the definition of the function is undefined. Except that converting an rvalue of type “pointer to `T1`” to the type “pointer to `T2`” (where `T1` and `T2` are function types) and back to its original type yields the original pointer value, the result of such a pointer conversion is unspecified. [Note: see also 4.10 for more details of pointer conversions. — end note]

An rvalue to an object can be explicitly converted to a pointer to a different object type. When an rvalue `v` of type “pointer to `T1`” is converted to the type “pointer to `cv T2`”, the result is `static_cast<cv T2*>(static_cast<cv void*>(v))` if both `T1` and `T2` are standard-layout types (3.9) and the alignment requirements of `T2` are no stricter than those of `T1`. Converting an rvalue of type “pointer to `T1`” to the type “pointer to `T2`” (where `T1` and `T2` are object types and where the alignment requirements of `T2` are no stricter than those of `T1`) and back to its original type yields the original pointer value. The result of any other such pointer conversion is unspecified.

Converting a pointer to a function into a pointer to an object type or vice versa is conditionally-supported. The meaning of such a conversion is implementation-defined, except that if an implementation supports conversions in both directions, converting an rvalue of one type to the other type and back, possibly with different cv-qualification, shall yield the original pointer value.

The null pointer value (4.10) is converted to the null pointer value of the destination type. [Note: A null pointer constant of type `std::nullptr_t` cannot be converted to a pointer type, and a null pointer constant of integral type is not necessarily converted to a null pointer value. — end note]

An rvalue of type “pointer to member of `X` of type `T1`” can be explicitly converted to an rvalue of type “pointer to member of `Y` of type `T2`” if `T1` and `T2` are both function types or both object types. The null member pointer value (4.11) is converted to the null member pointer value of the destination type. The result of this conversion is unspecified, except in the following cases:

- converting an rvalue of type “pointer to member function” to a different pointer to member function type and back to its original type yields the original pointer to member value.

---

69) The types may have different cv-qualifiers, subject to the overall restriction that a `reinterpret_cast` cannot cast away constness.
70) `T1` and `T2` may have different cv-qualifiers, subject to the overall restriction that a `reinterpret_cast` cannot cast away constness.
— converting an rvalue of type “pointer to data member of \(X\) of type \(T_1\)” to the type “pointer to data member of \(Y\) of type \(T_2\)” (where the alignment requirements of \(T_2\) are no stricter than those of \(T_1\)) and back to its original type yields the original pointer to member value.

An lvalue expression of type \(T_1\) can be cast to the type “reference to \(T_2\)” if an expression of type “pointer to \(T_1\)” can be explicitly converted to the type “pointer to \(T_2\)” using a \texttt{reinterpret\_cast}. That is, a reference cast \texttt{reinterpret\_cast<T&>(x)} has the same effect as the conversion \texttt{*reinterpret\_cast<T*>(&x)} with the built-in \& and \* operators (and similarly for \texttt{reinterpret\_cast<T&&>(x)}). The result refers to the same object as the source lvalue, but with a different type. The result is an lvalue for lvalue references or an rvalue for rvalue references. No temporary is created, no copy is made, and constructors (12.1) or conversion functions (12.3) are not called.\(^7_1\)

\section*{5.2.11 Const cast \[expr.const.cast\]}

The result of the expression \texttt{const\_cast<T>(v)} is of type \(T\). If \(T\) is an lvalue reference type, the result is an lvalue; \texttt{if T is an rvalue reference type, the result is an rvalue}; otherwise, the result is an rvalue and the lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), and function-to-pointer (4.3) standard conversions are performed on the expression \(v\). Conversions that can be performed explicitly using \texttt{const\_cast} are listed below. No other conversion shall be performed explicitly using \texttt{const\_cast}.

\begin{itemize}
\item For two pointer types \(T_1\) and \(T_2\) where
\[ T_1 \text{ is } cv_{1.0} \text{ pointer to } cv_{1.1} \text{ pointer to } \cdots cv_{1.n-1} \text{ pointer to } cv_{1.n} \text{ } T \]
\[ \text{and} \]
\[ T_2 \text{ is } cv_{2.0} \text{ pointer to } cv_{2.1} \text{ pointer to } \cdots cv_{2.n-1} \text{ pointer to } cv_{2.n} \text{ } T \]
where \(T\) is any object type or the \texttt{void} type and where \(cv_{1,k}\) and \(cv_{2,k}\) may be different cv-qualifications, an rvalue of type \(T_1\) may be explicitly converted to the type \(T_2\) using a \texttt{const\_cast}. The result of a pointer \texttt{const\_cast} refers to the original object.
\item An lvalue of type \(T_1\) can be explicitly converted to an lvalue of type \(T_2\) using the cast \texttt{const\_cast<T2&>(\texttt{const\_cast<T1&>(x)})} (where \(T_1\) and \(T_2\) are object types) if a pointer to \(T_1\) can be explicitly converted to the type “pointer to \(T_2\)” using a \texttt{const\_cast}. Similarly, for two object types \(T_1\) and \(T_2\), an expression of type \(T_1\) can be explicitly converted to an rvalue of type \(T_2\) using the cast \texttt{const\_cast<T2&&>(\texttt{const\_cast<T1&&>(x)})} if a pointer to \(T_1\) can be explicitly converted to the type “pointer to \(T_2\)” using a \texttt{const\_cast}. The result of a reference \texttt{const\_cast} refers to the original object.
\item For a \texttt{const\_cast} involving pointers to data members, multi-level pointers to data members and multi-level mixed pointers and pointers to data members (4.4), the rules for \texttt{const\_cast} are the same as those used for pointers; the “member” aspect of a pointer to member is ignored when determining where the cv-qualifiers are added or removed by the \texttt{const\_cast}. The result of a pointer to data member \texttt{const\_cast} refers to the same member as the original (uncast) pointer to data member.
\item A null pointer value (4.10) is converted to the null pointer value of the destination type. The null member pointer value (4.11) is converted to the null member pointer value of the destination type.
\end{itemize}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textbf{Note:} Depending on the type of the object, a write operation through the pointer, lvalue or pointer to data member resulting from a \texttt{const\_cast} that casts away a const-qualifier\(^2_2\) may produce undefined behavior (7.1.6.1). \textit{— end note}\end{itemize}

\textit{71) This is sometimes referred to as a type pun.}

\textit{72) const\_cast is not limited to conversions that cast away a const-qualifier.}

\section*{§ 5.2.11}
The following rules define the process known as casting away constness. In these rules $T_n$ and $X_n$ represent types. For two pointer types:

- $X_1$ is $T_1cv_{1,1} \ast \cdots \ast cv_{1,N} \ast$ where $T_1$ is not a pointer type
- $X_2$ is $T_2cv_{2,1} \ast \cdots \ast cv_{2,M} \ast$ where $T_2$ is not a pointer type

$K$ is $\min(N, M)$

casting from $X_1$ to $X_2$ casts away constness if, for a non-pointer type $T$ there does not exist an implicit conversion (Clause 4) from:

$$Tcv_{1,(N-K+1)} \ast cv_{1,(N-K+2)} \ast \cdots \ast cv_{1,N} \ast$$

to

$$Tcv_{2,(M-K+1)} \ast cv_{2,(M-K+2)} \ast \cdots \ast cv_{2,M} \ast$$

Casting from an lvalue of type $T_1$ to an lvalue of type $T_2$ using a an lvalue reference cast or casting from an expression of type $T_1$ to an rvalue of type $T_2$ using an rvalue reference cast casts away constness if a cast from an rvalue of type “pointer to $T_1$” to the type “pointer to $T_2$” casts away constness.

Casting from an rvalue of type “pointer to data member of $X$ of type $T_1$” to the type “pointer to data member of $Y$ of type $T_2$” casts away constness if a cast from an rvalue of type “pointer to $T_1$” to the type “pointer to $T_2$” casts away constness.

For multi-level pointer to members and multi-level mixed pointers and pointer to members (4.4), the “member” aspect of a pointer to member level is ignored when determining if a $\text{const}$ cv-qualifier has been cast away.

[Note: some conversions which involve only changes in cv-qualification cannot be done using $\text{const} \_\text{cast}$. For instance, conversions between pointers to functions are not covered because such conversions lead to values whose use causes undefined behavior. For the same reasons, conversions between pointers to member functions, and in particular, the conversion from a pointer to a const member function to a pointer to a non-const member function, are not covered. — end note]

5.3 Unary expressions

Expressions with unary operators group right-to-left.

unary-expression:
  postfix-expression
  ++ cast-expression
  -- cast-expression
  unary-operator cast-expression
  sizeof unary-expression
  sizeof ( type-id )
  sizeof ... ( identifier )
  alignof ( type-id )
  new-expression
  delete-expression

unary-operator: one of
  * k + - ! ~

5.3.1 Unary operators

The unary $*$ operator performs indirection: the expression to which it is applied shall be a pointer to an object type, or a pointer to a function type and the result is an lvalue referring to the object or function
to which the expression points. If the type of the expression is “pointer to T,” the type of the result is “T.”

[Note: a pointer to an incomplete type (other than cv void) can be dereferenced. The lvalue thus obtained can be used in limited ways (to initialize a reference, for example); this lvalue must not be converted to an rvalue, see 4.1. — end note]

2 The result of each of the following unary operators is an rvalue.

3 The result of the unary & operator is a pointer to its operand. The operand shall be an lvalue or a qualified-id. In the first case, if the type of the expression is “T,” the type of the result is “pointer to T.” In particular, the address of an object of type “cv T” is “pointer to cv T,” with the same cv-qualifiers. For a qualified-id, if the member is a static member of type “T”, the type of the result is plain “pointer to T.” If the member is a non-static member of class C of type T, the type of the result is “pointer to member of class C of type T.” [Example:

```cpp
struct A { int i; };
struct B : A { };
... &B::i ... // has type int A::*
```

— end example] [Note: a pointer to member formed from a mutable non-static data member (7.1.1) does not reflect the mutable specifier associated with the non-static data member. — end note]

4 A pointer to member is only formed when an explicit & is used and its operand is a qualified-id not enclosed in parentheses. [Note: that is, the expression &qualified-id, where the qualified-id is enclosed in parentheses, does not form an expression of type “pointer to member.” Neither does qualified-id, because there is no implicit conversion from a qualified-id for a non-static member function to the type “pointer to member function” as there is from an lvalue of function type to the type “pointer to function” (4.3). Nor is &unqualified-id a pointer to member, even within the scope of the unqualified-id’s class. — end note]

5 The address of an object of incomplete type can be taken, but if the complete type of that object is a class type that declares operator&() as a member function, then the behavior is undefined (and no diagnostic is required). The operand of & shall not be a bit-field.

6 The address of an overloaded function (Clause 13) can be taken only in a context that uniquely determines which version of the overloaded function is referred to (see 13.4). [Note: since the context might determine whether the operand is a static or non-static member function, the context can also affect whether the expression has type “pointer to function” or “pointer to member function.” — end note]

7 The operand of the unary + operator shall have arithmetic, unscoped enumeration, or pointer type and the result is the value of the argument. Integral promotion is performed on integral or enumeration operands. The type of the result is the type of the promoted operand.

8 The operand of the unary - operator shall have arithmetic or unscoped enumeration type and the result is the negation of its operand. Integral promotion is performed on integral or enumeration operands. The negative of an unsigned quantity is computed by subtracting its value from $2^n$, where $n$ is the number of bits in the promoted operand. The type of the result is the type of the promoted operand.

9 The operand of the logical negation operator ! is contextually converted to bool (Clause 4); its value is true if the converted operand is false and false otherwise. The type of the result is bool.

10 The operand of ~ shall have integral or unscoped enumeration type; the result is the one’s complement of its operand. Integral promotions are performed. The type of the result is the type of the promoted operand. There is an ambiguity in the unary-expression ~X(), where X is a class-name. The ambiguity is resolved in favor of treating ~ as a unary complement rather than treating ~X as referring to a destructor.

### 5.3.2 Increment and decrement

1 The operand of prefix ++ is modified by adding 1, or set to true if it is bool (this use is deprecated). The
operand shall be a modifiable lvalue. The type of the operand shall be an arithmetic type or a pointer to a completely-defined object type. The result is the updated operand; it is an lvalue, and it is a bit-field if the operand is a bit-field. If \( x \) is not of type \( \text{bool} \), the expression \( ++x \) is equivalent to \( x+=1 \) [Note: see the discussions of addition (5.7) and assignment operators (5.17) for information on conversions. — end note]

2 The operand of prefix -- is modified by subtracting 1. The operand shall not be of type \( \text{bool} \). The requirements on the operand of prefix -- and the properties of its result are otherwise the same as those of prefix ++. [Note: For postfix increment and decrement, see 5.2.6. — end note]

5.3.3 Sizeof

1 The \( \text{sizeof} \) operator yields the number of bytes in the object representation of its operand. The operand is either an expression, which is an unevaluated operand (Clause 5), or a parenthesized \( \text{type-id} \). The \( \text{sizeof} \) operator shall not be applied to an expression that has function or incomplete type, or to an enumeration type whose underlying type is not fixed before all its enumerators have been declared, or to the parenthesized name of such types, or to an lvalue that designates a bit-field. \( \text{sizeof} \text{(char)} \), \( \text{sizeof} \text{(signed char)} \) and \( \text{sizeof} \text{(unsigned char)} \) are 1. The result of \( \text{sizeof} \) applied to any other fundamental type (3.9.1) is implementation-defined. [Note: in particular, \( \text{sizeof} \text{(bool)} \), \( \text{sizeof} \text{(char16_t)} \), \( \text{sizeof} \text{(char32_t)} \), and \( \text{sizeof} \text{(wchar_t)} \) are implementation-defined. — end note] [Note: See 1.7 for the definition of \textit{byte} and 3.9 for the definition of \textit{object representation}. — end note]

2 When applied to a reference or a reference type, the result is the size of the referenced type. When applied to a class, the result is the number of bytes in an object of that class including any padding required for placing objects of that type in an array. The size of a most derived class shall be greater than zero (1.8). The result of applying \( \text{sizeof} \) to a base class subobject is the size of the base class type. When applied to an array, the result is the total number of bytes in the array. This implies that the size of an array of \( n \) elements is \( n \) times the size of an element.

3 The \( \text{sizeof} \) operator can be applied to a pointer to a function, but shall not be applied directly to a function.

4 The lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), and function-to-pointer (4.3) standard conversions are not applied to the operand of \( \text{sizeof} \).

5 The identifier in a \( \text{sizeof}... \) expression shall name a parameter pack. The \( \text{sizeof}... \) operator yields the number of arguments provided for the parameter pack \textit{identifier}. The parameter pack is expanded (14.6.3) by the \( \text{sizeof}... \) operator. [Example:

\[
\text{template<class... Types>}
\text{struct count {}
\text{\quad static const std::size_t value = sizeof...(Types);}
\text{}}
\]

— end example]

6 The result of \( \text{sizeof} \) and \( \text{sizeof}... \) is a constant of type \texttt{std::size_t}. [Note: \texttt{std::size_t} is defined in the standard header <\texttt{cstddef}> (18.2). — end note]

5.3.4 New

1 The \( \text{new-expression} \) attempts to create an object of the \( \text{type-id} \) (8.1) or \( \text{new-type-id} \) to which it is applied. The type of that object is the \textit{allocated type}. This type shall be a complete object type, but not an abstract class type or array thereof (1.8, 3.9, 10.4). It is implementation-defined whether over-aligned types

73) \( \text{sizeof} \text{(bool)} \) is not required to be 1.
74) The actual size of a base class subobject may be less than the result of applying \( \text{sizeof} \) to the subobject, due to virtual base classes and less strict padding requirements on base class subobjects.
are supported (3.11).  [Note: because references are not objects, references cannot be created by new-expressions.  — end note] [Note: the type-id may be a cv-qualified type, in which case the object created by the new-expression has a cv-qualified type.  — end note]

```
new-expression:
   ::opt new new-placement_opt new-type-id new-initializer_opt
   ::opt new new-placement_opt ( type-id ) new-initializer_opt
```

```
new-placement:
   ( expression-list )
```

```
new-type-id:
   type-specifier-seq new-declarator_opt
```

```
new-declarator:
   ptr-operator new-declarator_opt
   noptr-new-declarator
```

```
noptr-new-declarator:
   [ expression ]
   noptr-new-declarator [ constant-expression ]
```

```
new-initializer:
   ( expression-list_opt )
   braced-init-list
```

Entities created by a new-expression have dynamic storage duration (3.7.4).  [Note: the lifetime of such an entity is not necessarily restricted to the scope in which it is created.  — end note] If the entity is a non-array object, the new-expression returns a pointer to the object created. If it is an array, the new-expression returns a pointer to the initial element of the array.

2 If the auto type-specifier appears in the type-specifier-seq of a new-type-id or type-id of a new-expression, the new-expression shall contain a new-initializer of the form

```
( assignment-expression )
```

The allocated type is deduced from the new-initializer as follows: Let \( e \) be the assignment-expression in the new-initializer and \( T \) be the new-type-id or type-id of the new-expression, then the allocated type is the type deduced for the variable \( x \) in the invented declaration (7.1.6.4):

```
T x = e;
T x(e);
```

[ Example:

```
new auto(1);
// allocated type is int
auto x = new auto('a');
// allocated type is char, x is of type char*
```

— end example]

3 The new-type-id in a new-expression is the longest possible sequence of new-declarators.  [Note: this prevents ambiguities between the declarator operators &\&, *, and [] and their expression counterparts.  — end note] [Example:

```
new int * i;
// syntax error: parsed as (new int*) i, not as (new int)*i
```

The * is the pointer declarator and not the multiplication operator.  — end example]  

4 [Note: parentheses in a new-type-id of a new-expression can have surprising effects.  [Example:

```
new int(*[10])();
// error
```

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is ill-formed because the binding is

\[
\text{(new int)}\ (\text{*[10]})();  \quad // \text{error}
\]

Instead, the explicitly parenthesized version of the \texttt{new} operator can be used to create objects of compound
types (3.9.2):

\[
\text{new} \ (\text{int}\ (\text{*[10]}))();
\]

allocates an array of 10 pointers to functions (taking no argument and returning \texttt{int}. — end example]

— end note]

5 When the allocated object is an array (that is, the \texttt{noptr-new-declarator} syntax is used or the \texttt{new-type-id} or
\texttt{type-id} denotes an array type), the \texttt{new-expression} yields a pointer to the initial element (if any) of the array.
[Note: both \texttt{new int} and \texttt{new int[10]} have type \texttt{int*} and the type of \texttt{new int[i][10]} is \texttt{int (**) [10]}
— end note]

6 Every \texttt{constant-expression} in a \texttt{noptr-new-declarator} shall be an integral constant expression (5.19) and
evaluate to a strictly positive value. The \texttt{expression} in a \texttt{noptr-new-declarator} shall be of integral type,
\texttt{unscoped} enumeration type, or a class type for which a single non-explicit conversion function to integral or
\texttt{unscoped} enumeration type exists (12.3). If the expression is of class type, the expression is converted by
calling that conversion function, and the result of the conversion is used in place of the original expression.
If the value of the expression is negative, the behavior is undefined. [Example: given the definition \texttt{int n = 42}, \texttt{new float[n][5]} is well-formed (because \texttt{n} is the \texttt{expression} of a \texttt{noptr-new-declarator}), but \texttt{new float[5][n]} is ill-formed (because \texttt{n} is not a constant expression). If \texttt{n} is negative, the effect of \texttt{new float[n][5]} is undefined. — end example]

7 When the value of the \texttt{expression} in a \texttt{noptr-new-declarator} is zero, the allocation function is called to
allocate an array with no elements. If the value of that \texttt{expression} is such that the size of the allocated object
would exceed the implementation-defined limit, no storage is obtained and the \texttt{new-expression} terminates
by throwing an exception of a type that would match a handler (15.3) of type \texttt{std::bad_array_new_length} (18.6.2.2).

8 A \texttt{new-expression} obtains storage for the object by calling an \texttt{allocation function} (3.7.4.1). If the \texttt{new-expression}
terminates by throwing an exception, it may release storage by calling a deallocation func-
tion (3.7.4.2). If the allocated type is a non-array type, the allocation function’s name is \texttt{operator new} and
the deallocation function’s name is \texttt{operator delete}. If the allocated type is an array type, the allocation
function’s name is \texttt{operator new[]} and the deallocation function’s name is \texttt{operator delete[]}. [Note: an
implementation shall provide default definitions for the global allocation functions (3.7.4, 18.6.1.1, 18.6.1.2).
A C++ program can provide alternative definitions of these functions (17.6.3.6) and/or class-specific ver-
sions (12.5). — end note]

9 If the \texttt{new-expression} begins with a unary :: \texttt{operator}, the allocation function’s name is looked up in the
global scope. Otherwise, if the allocated type is a class type \texttt{T} or array thereof, the allocation function’s
name is looked up in the scope of \texttt{T}. If this lookup fails to find the name, or if the allocated type is not a
class type, the allocation function’s name is looked up in the global scope.

10 A \texttt{new-expression} passes the amount of space requested to the allocation function as the first argument of
type \texttt{std::size_t}. That argument shall be no less than the size of the object being created; it may be
greater than the size of the object being created only if the object is an array. For arrays of \texttt{char} and
\texttt{unsigned char}, the difference between the result of the \texttt{new-expression} and the address returned by the
allocation function shall be an integral multiple of the strictest fundamental alignment requirement (3.11) of
any object type whose size is no greater than the size of the array being created. [Note: Because allocation
functions are assumed to return pointers to storage that is appropriately aligned for objects of any type with

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fundamental alignment, this constraint on array allocation overhead permits the common idiom of allocating character arrays into which objects of other types will later be placed. — end note]

11 The new-placement syntax is used to supply additional arguments to an allocation function. If used, overload resolution is performed on a function call created by assembling an argument list consisting of the amount of space requested (the first argument) and the expressions in the new-placement part of the new-expression (the second and succeeding arguments). The first of these arguments has type std::size_t and the remaining arguments have the corresponding types of the expressions in the new-placement.

12 [ Example:

— new T results in a call of operator new(sizeof(T)),
— new(2,f) T results in a call of operator new(sizeof(T),2,f),
— new T[5] results in a call of operator new[](sizeof(T)*5+x), and
— new(2,f) T[5] results in a call of operator new[](sizeof(T)*5+y,2,f).

Here, x and y are non-negative unspecified values representing array allocation overhead; the result of the new-expression will be offset by this amount from the value returned by operator new[]. This overhead may be applied in all array new-expressions, including those referencing the library function operator new[](std::size_t, void*) and other placement allocation functions. The amount of overhead may vary from one invocation of new to another. — end example]

13 [ Note: unless an allocation function is declared with an empty exception-specification (15.4), throw(), it indicates failure to allocate storage by throwing a std::bad_alloc exception (Clause 15, 18.6.2.1); it returns a non-null pointer otherwise. If the allocation function is declared with an empty exception-specification, throw(), it returns null to indicate failure to allocate storage and a non-null pointer otherwise. — end note] If the allocation function returns null, initialization shall not be done, the deallocation function shall not be called, and the value of the new-expression shall be null.

14 [ Note: when the allocation function returns a value other than null, it must be a pointer to a block of storage in which space for the object has been reserved. The block of storage is assumed to be appropriately aligned and of the requested size. The address of the created object will not necessarily be the same as that of the block if the object is an array. — end note]

15 A new-expression that creates an object of type T initializes that object as follows:

— If the new-initializer is omitted, the object is default-initialized (8.5); if no initialization is performed, the object has indeterminate value.
— Otherwise, the new-initializer is interpreted according to the initialization rules of 8.5 for direct-initialization.

16 Whether the allocation function is called before evaluating the constructor arguments or after evaluating the constructor arguments but before entering the constructor is unspecified. The invocation of the allocation function is indeterminately sequenced with respect to the evaluations of expressions in the new-initializer. Initialization of the allocated object is sequenced before the value computation of the new-expression. It is also unspecified whether the arguments to a constructor expressions in the new-initializer are evaluated if the allocation function returns the null pointer or exits using an exception.

17 If the new-expression creates an object or an array of objects of class type, access and ambiguity control are done for the allocation function, the deallocation function (12.5), and the constructor (12.1). If the new expression creates an array of objects of class type, access and ambiguity control are done for the destructor (12.4).
If any part of the object initialization described above terminates by throwing an exception and a suitable deallocation function can be found, the deallocation function is called to free the memory in which the object was being constructed, after which the exception continues to propagate in the context of the new-expression. If no unambiguous matching deallocation function can be found, propagating the exception does not cause the object’s memory to be freed. [Note: This is appropriate when the called allocation function does not allocate memory; otherwise, it is likely to result in a memory leak. — end note]

If the new-expression begins with a unary :: operator, the deallocation function’s name is looked up in the global scope. Otherwise, if the allocated type is a class type T or an array thereof, the deallocation function’s name is looked up in the scope of T. If this lookup fails to find the name, or if the allocated type is not a class type or array thereof, the deallocation function’s name is looked up in the global scope.

A declaration of a placement deallocation function matches the declaration of a placement allocation function if it has the same number of parameters and, after parameter transformations (8.3.5), all parameter types except the first are identical. Any non-placement deallocation function matches a non-placement allocation function. If the lookup finds a single matching deallocation function, that function will be called; otherwise, no deallocation function will be called. If the lookup finds the two-parameter form of a usual deallocation function (3.7.4.2) and that function, considered as a placement deallocation function, would have been selected as a match for the allocation function, the program is ill-formed. [Example:

```cpp
struct S {
  // Placement allocation function:
  static void* operator new(std::size_t, std::size_t);

  // Usual (non-placement) deallocation function:
  static void operator delete(void*, std::size_t);
};

S* p = new (0) S; // ill-formed: non-placement deallocation function matches placement allocation function
```
— end example]

If a new-expression calls a deallocation function, it passes the value returned from the allocation function call as the first argument of type void*. If a placement deallocation function is called, it is passed the same additional arguments as were passed to the placement allocation function, that is, the same arguments as those specified with the new-placement syntax. If the implementation is allowed to make a copy of any argument as part of the call to the allocation function, it is allowed to make a copy (of the same original value) as part of the call to the deallocation function or to reuse the copy made as part of the call to the allocation function. If the copy is elided in one place, it need not be elided in the other.

5.3.5 Delete [expr.delete]

The delete-expression operator destroys a most derived object (1.8) or array created by a new-expression.

```cpp
delete-expression:
  ::opt delete cast-expression
  ::opt delete [] cast-expression
```

The first alternative is for non-array objects, and the second is for arrays. Whenever the delete keyword is immediately followed by empty square brackets, it shall be interpreted as the second alternative.

---

75) This may include evaluating a new-initializer and/or calling a constructor.
76) A lambda expression with a lambda-introducer that consists of empty square brackets can follow the delete keyword if the lambda expression is enclosed in parentheses.
The operand shall have a pointer to object type, or a class type having a single non-explicit conversion function (12.3.2) to a pointer to object type. The result has type `void`.\textsuperscript{77}

If the operand has a class type, the operand is converted to a pointer type by calling the above-mentioned conversion function, and the converted operand is used in place of the original operand for the remainder of this section. In either alternative, the value of the operand of `delete` may be a null pointer value. If it is not a null pointer value, in the first alternative (`delete object`), the value of the operand of `delete` shall be a pointer to a non-array object or a pointer to a subobject (1.8) representing a base class of such an object (Clause 10). If not, the behavior is undefined. In the second alternative (`delete array`), the value of the operand of `delete` shall be the pointer value which resulted from a previous array `new-expression`.\textsuperscript{78} If not, the behavior is undefined. [Note: this means that the syntax of the `delete-expression` must match the type of the object allocated by `new`, not the syntax of the `new-expression`. — end note] [Note: a pointer to a `const` type can be the operand of a `delete-expression`; it is not necessary to cast away the constness (5.2.11) of the pointer expression before it is used as the operand of the `delete-expression`. — end note]

In the first alternative (`delete object`), if the static type of the object to be deleted is different from its dynamic type, the static type shall be a base class of the dynamic type of the object to be deleted and the static type shall have a virtual destructor or the behavior is undefined. In the second alternative (`delete array`) if the dynamic type of the object to be deleted differs from its static type, the behavior is undefined.

The `cast-expression` in a `delete-expression` shall be evaluated exactly once.

If the object being deleted has incomplete class type at the point of deletion and the complete class has a non-trivial destructor or a deallocation function, the behavior is undefined.

If the value of the operand of the `delete-expression` is not a null pointer value, the `delete-expression` will invoke the destructor (if any) for the object or the elements of the array being deleted. In the case of an array, the elements will be destroyed in order of decreasing address (that is, in reverse order of the completion of their constructor; see 12.6.2).

If the value of the operand of the `delete-expression` is not a null pointer value, the `delete-expression` will call a deallocation function (3.7.4.2). Otherwise, it is unspecified whether the deallocation function will be called. [Note: The deallocation function is called regardless of whether the destructor for the object or some element of the array throws an exception. — end note]

[Note: An implementation provides default definitions of the global deallocation functions `operator delete()` for non-arrays (18.6.1.1) and `operator delete[]( )` for arrays (18.6.1.2). A C++ program can provide alternative definitions of these functions (17.6.3.6), and/or class-specific versions (12.5). — end note]

When the keyword `delete` in a `delete-expression` is preceded by the unary `::` operator, the global deallocation function is used to deallocate the storage.

Access and ambiguity control are done for both the deallocation function and the destructor (12.4, 12.5).

### 5.3.6 Alignof

An `alignof` expression yields the alignment requirement of its operand type. The operand shall be a `type-id` representing a complete object type or an array thereof or a reference to a complete object type.

The result is an integral constant of type `std::size_t`.

\textsuperscript{77} This implies that an object cannot be deleted using a pointer of type `void*` because `void` is not an object type.

\textsuperscript{78} For non-zero-length arrays, this is the same as a pointer to the first element of the array created by that `new-expression`. Zero-length arrays do not have a first element.
3 When `alignof` is applied to a reference type, the result shall be the alignment of the referenced type. When `alignof` is applied to an array type, the result shall be the alignment of the element type.

5.4 Explicit type conversion (cast notation)  

The result of the expression `(T) cast-expression` is of type `T`. The result is an lvalue if `T` is an lvalue reference type, otherwise the result is an rvalue.  

[Note: if `T` is a non-class type that is `cv-qualified`, the `cv-qualifiers` are ignored when determining the type of the resulting rvalue; see 3.10. — end note]

An explicit type conversion can be expressed using functional notation (5.2.3), a type conversion operator (`dynamic_cast`, `static_cast`, `reinterpret_cast`, `const_cast`), or the `cast` notation.

```
cast-expression:
  unary-expression
  ( type-id ) cast-expression
```

3 Any type conversion not mentioned below and not explicitly defined by the user (12.3) is ill-formed.

4 The conversions performed by

— a `const_cast` (5.2.11),
— a `static_cast` (5.2.9),
— a `static_cast` followed by a `const_cast`,
— a `reinterpret_cast` (5.2.10), or
— a `reinterpret_cast` followed by a `const_cast`,

can be performed using the cast notation of explicit type conversion. The same semantic restrictions and behaviors apply, with the exception that in performing a `static_cast` in the following situations the conversion is valid even if the base class is inaccessible:

— a pointer to an object of derived class type or an lvalue or rvalue of derived class type may be explicitly converted to a pointer or reference to an unambiguous base class type, respectively;
— a pointer to member of derived class type may be explicitly converted to a pointer to member of an unambiguous non-virtual base class type;
— a pointer to an object of an unambiguous non-virtual base class type, an lvalue or rvalue of an unambiguous non-virtual base class type, or a pointer to member of an unambiguous non-virtual base class type may be explicitly converted to a pointer, a reference, or a pointer to member of a derived class type, respectively.

If a conversion can be interpreted in more than one of the ways listed above, the interpretation that appears first in the list is used, even if a cast resulting from that interpretation is ill-formed. If a conversion can be interpreted in more than one way as a `static_cast` followed by a `const_cast`, the conversion is ill-formed.  

[Example:
```
struct A { }
struct I1 : A { }
struct I2 : A { }
struct D : I1, I2 { }
A *foo( D *p ) {
  return (A*)( p ); // ill-formed static_cast interpretation
}
```
— end example]
5 The operand of a cast using the cast notation can be an rvalue of type “pointer to incomplete class type”. The destination type of a cast using the cast notation can be “pointer to incomplete class type”. If both the operand and destination types are class types and one or both are incomplete, it is unspecified whether the static_cast or the reinterpret_cast interpretation is used, even if there is an inheritance relationship between the two classes. [Note: For example, if the classes were defined later in the translation unit, a multi-pass compiler would be permitted to interpret a cast between pointers to the classes as if the class types were complete at the point of the cast. —end note]

5.5 Pointer-to-member operators [expr.mptr.oper]

1 The pointer-to-member operators -&gt;&gt; and * group left-to-right.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{pm-expression:} & \quad \text{cast-expression} \\
\text{pm-expression} & \quad * \quad \text{cast-expression} \\
\text{pm-expression} & \quad \text{-&gt;\text{\textit{\textbullet}}} \quad \text{cast-expression}
\end{align*}
\]

2 The binary operator * binds its second operand, which shall be of type “pointer to member of T” (where T is a completely-defined class type) to its first operand, which shall be of class T or of a class of which T is an unambiguous and accessible base class. The result is an object or a function of the type specified by the second operand.

3 The binary operator -&gt;&gt; binds its second operand, which shall be of type “pointer to member of T” (where T is a completely-defined class type) to its first operand, which shall be of type “pointer to T” or “pointer to a class of which T is an unambiguous and accessible base class.” The result is an object or a function of the type specified by the second operand.

4 The first operand is called the object expression. If the dynamic type of the object expression does not contain the member to which the pointer refers, the behavior is undefined.

5 The restrictions on cv-qualification, and the manner in which the cv-qualifiers of the operands are combined to produce the cv-qualifiers of the result, are the same as the rules for E1.E2 given in 5.2.5. [Note: it is not possible to use a pointer to member that refers to a mutable member to modify a const class object. For example,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{struct S} & \{ \\
\text{S()} : i(0) & \{ \\
\text{mutable int i;}
\}
\} \\
\text{void f()} \\
\{ \\
\text{const S cs;}
\}
\]
\]

—end note]

6 If the result of * or -&gt;&gt; is a function, then that result can be used only as the operand for the function call operator () . [Example:

\[
\text{(ptr_to_obj-&gt;&gt;ptr_to_mfct)(10);} \\
\]

calls the member function denoted by ptr_to_mfct for the object pointed to by ptr_to_obj. —end example] In a * expression whose object expression is an rvalue, the program is ill-formed if the second operand is a pointer to member function with ref-qualifier &. In a -&gt;&gt; expression or in a * expression

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whose object expression is an lvalue, the program is ill-formed if the second operand is a pointer to member function with ref-qualifier &. The result of a .* expression is an lvalue only if its first operand is an lvalue and its second operand is a pointer to data member. The result of an ->* expression is an lvalue only if its second operand is a pointer to data member. If the second operand is the null pointer to member value (4.11), the behavior is undefined.

5.6 Multiplicative operators

1 The multiplicative operators *, /, and % group left-to-right.

```
multiplicative-expression:
  pm-expression
  multiplicative-expression * pm-expression
  multiplicative-expression / pm-expression
  multiplicative-expression % pm-expression
```

2 The operands of * and / shall have arithmetic or unscoped enumeration type; the operands of % shall have integral or unscoped enumeration type. The usual arithmetic conversions are performed on the operands and determine the type of the result.

3 The binary * operator indicates multiplication.

4 The binary / operator yields the quotient, and the binary % operator yields the remainder from the division of the first expression by the second. If the second operand of / or % is zero the behavior is undefined. For integral operands the / operator yields the algebraic quotient with any fractional part discarded;\(^79\) if the quotient \(a/b\) is representable in the type of the result, \((a/b) \times b + a\%b\) is equal to \(a\).

5.7 Additive operators

1 The additive operators + and - group left-to-right. The usual arithmetic conversions are performed for operands of arithmetic or enumeration type.

```
additive-expression:
  multiplicative-expression
  additive-expression + multiplicative-expression
  additive-expression - multiplicative-expression
```

For addition, either both operands shall have arithmetic or unscoped enumeration type, or one operand shall be a pointer to a completely-defined object type and the other shall have integral or unscoped enumeration type.

2 For subtraction, one of the following shall hold:

- both operands have arithmetic or unscoped enumeration type; or
- both operands are pointers to cv-qualified or cv-unqualified versions of the same completely-defined object type; or
- the left operand is a pointer to a completely-defined object type and the right operand has integral or unscoped enumeration type.

3 The result of the binary + operator is the sum of the operands. The result of the binary - operator is the difference resulting from the subtraction of the second operand from the first.

4 For the purposes of these operators, a pointer to a nonarray object behaves the same as a pointer to the first element of an array of length one with the type of the object as its element type.

---

\(^79\) This is often called truncation towards zero.
When an expression that has integral type is added to or subtracted from a pointer, the result has the type of the pointer operand. If the pointer operand points to an element of an array object, and the array is large enough, the result points to an element offset from the original element such that the difference of the subscripts of the resulting and original array elements equals the integral expression. In other words, if the expression $P$ points to the $i$-th element of an array object, the expressions $(P)+N$ (equivalently, $N+(P)$) and $(P)-N$ (where $N$ has the value $n$) point to, respectively, the $i+n$-th and $i−n$-th elements of the array object, provided they exist. Moreover, if the expression $P$ points to the last element of an array object, the expression $(P)+1$ points one past the last element of the array object, and if the expression $Q$ points one past the last element of an array object, the expression $(Q)−1$ points to the last element of the array object. If both the pointer operand and the result point to elements of the same array object, or one past the last element of the array object, the evaluation shall not produce an overflow; otherwise, the behavior is undefined.

When two pointers to elements of the same array object are subtracted, the result is the difference of the subscripts of the two array elements. The type of the result is an implementation-defined signed integral type; this type shall be the same type that is defined as std::ptrdiff_t in the <cstdlib> header (18.2). As with any other arithmetic operation, if the result does not fit in the space provided, the behavior is undefined. In other words, if the expressions $P$ and $Q$ point to, respectively, the $i$-th and $j$-th elements of an array object, the expression $(P)-(Q)$ has the value $i−j$ provided the value fits in an object of type std::ptrdiff_t. Moreover, if the expression $P$ points either to an element of an array object or one past the last element of an array object, and the expression $Q$ points to the last element of the same array object, the expression $((Q)+1)-(P)$ has the same value as $((Q)-(P))+1$ and as $-((P)-((Q)+1))$, and has the value zero if the expression $P$ points one past the last element of the array object, even though the expression $(Q)+1$ does not point to an element of the array object. Unless both pointers point to elements of the same array object, or one past the last element of the array object, the behavior is undefined.  

If the value 0 is added to or subtracted from a pointer value, the result compares equal to the original pointer value. If two pointers point to the same object or both point one past the end of the same array or both are null, and the two pointers are subtracted, the result compares equal to the value 0 converted to the type std::ptrdiff_t.

### 5.8 Shift operators

The shift operators $<<$ and $>>$ group left-to-right.

```
shift-expression:  
  additive-expression  
  shift-expression $\ll$ additive-expression  
  shift-expression $\gg$ additive-expression
```

The operands shall be of integral or unscoped enumeration type and integral promotions are performed. The type of the result is that of the promoted left operand. The behavior is undefined if the right operand is negative, or greater than or equal to the length in bits of the promoted left operand.

The value of $E1 \ll E2$ (interpreted as a bit pattern) left-shifted $E2$ bit positions; vacated bits are zero-filled. If $E1$ has an unsigned type, the value of the result is $E1$ multiplied by the quantity $2^{E2}$, reduced modulo ULONG_MAX+1 if $E1$ has type unsigned long long int, ULONG_MAX+1 if $E1$ has type unsigned long int, UINT_MAX+1 otherwise. [Note: the constants ULONG_MAX, ULONG_MAX+

---

80) Another way to approach pointer arithmetic is first to convert the pointer(s) to character pointer(s): In this scheme the integral value of the expression added to or subtracted from the converted pointer is first multiplied by the size of the object originally pointed to, and the resulting pointer is converted back to the original type. For pointer subtraction, the result of the difference between the character pointers is similarly divided by the size of the object originally pointed to.

When viewed in this way, an implementation need only provide one extra byte (which might overlap another object in the program) just after the end of the object in order to satisfy the “one past the last element” requirements.
and UINT_MAX are defined in the header `<climits>`. one more than the maximum value representable in the result type. Otherwise, if E1 has a signed type and non-negative value, and E1 × 2\(^{E2}\) is representable in the result type, then that is the resulting value; otherwise, the behavior is undefined.

3 The value of E1 >> E2 is E1 right-shifted E2 bit positions. If E1 has an unsigned type or if E1 has a signed type and a non-negative value, the value of the result is the integral part of the quotient of E1 divided by the quantity 2 raised to the power E2 E1/2\(^{E2}\). If E1 has a signed type and a negative value, the resulting value is implementation-defined.

5.9 Relational operators

1 The relational operators group left-to-right. [Example: a<b<c means (a<b)<c and not (a<b)&&(b<c). — end example]

```
relational-expression:
   shift-expression
   relational-expression < shift-expression
   relational-expression > shift-expression
   relational-expression <= shift-expression
   relational-expression >= shift-expression
```

The operands shall have arithmetic, enumeration, or pointer type, or type `std::nullptr_t`. The operators < (less than), > (greater than), <= (less than or equal to), and >= (greater than or equal to) all yield `false` or `true`. The type of the result is `bool`.

2 The usual arithmetic conversions are performed on operands of arithmetic or enumeration type. Pointer conversions (4.10) and qualification conversions (4.4) are performed on pointer operands (or on a pointer operand and a null pointer constant) to bring them to their composite pointer type. If one operand is a null pointer constant, the composite pointer type is the type of the other operand. Otherwise, if one of the operands has type “pointer to cv1 void,” then the other has type “pointer to cv2 T” and the composite pointer type is “pointer to cv12 void,” where cv12 is the union of cv1 and cv2. Otherwise, the composite pointer type is a pointer type similar (4.4) to the type of one of the operands, with a cv-qualification signature (4.4) that is the union of the cv-qualification signatures of the operand types. [Note: this implies that any pointer can be compared to a null pointer constant and that any object pointer can be compared to a pointer to (possibly cv-qualified) void. — end note] [Example:

```c
void *p;
const int *q;
int **pi;
const int *const *pci;
void ct() {
   p <= q; // Both converted to const void* before comparison
   pi <= pci; // Both converted to const int *const * before comparison
}
```

— end example] Pointers to objects or functions of the same type (after pointer conversions) can be compared, with a result defined as follows:

— If two pointers p and q of the same type point to the same object or function, or both point one past the end of the same array, or are both null, then p<=q and p>=q both yield `true` and p<q and p>q both yield `false`.

— If two pointers p and q of the same type point to different objects that are not members of the same object or elements of the same array or to different functions, or if only one of them is null, the results of p<q, p>q, p<=q, and p>=q are unspecified.
— If two pointers point to non-static data members of the same object, or to subobjects or array elements of such members, recursively, the pointer to the later declared member compares greater provided the two members have the same access control (Clause 11) and provided their class is not a union.

— If two pointers point to non-static data members of the same object with different access control (Clause 11) the result is unspecified.

— If two pointers point to non-static data members of the same union object, they compare equal (after conversion to `void*`, if necessary). If two pointers point to elements of the same array or one beyond the end of the array, the pointer to the object with the higher subscript compares higher.

— Other pointer comparisons are unspecified.

3 Pointers to `void` (after pointer conversions) can be compared, with a result defined as follows: If both pointers represent the same address or are both the null pointer value, the result is `true` if the operator is `<=` or `>=` and `false` otherwise; otherwise the result is unspecified.

4 If two operands of type `std::nullptr_t` are compared, the result is `true` if the operator is `<=` or `>=`, and `false` otherwise.

5 If both operands (after conversions) are of arithmetic or enumeration type, each of the operators shall yield `true` if the specified relationship is true and `false` if it is false.

### 5.10 Equality operators

```
equality-expression:
  relational-expression
  equality-expression == relational-expression
  equality-expression != relational-expression
```

1 The `==` (equal to) and the `!=` (not equal to) operators have the same semantic restrictions, conversions, and result type as the relational operators except for their lower precedence and truth-value result. [Note: `a<b == c<d` is `true` whenever `a<b` and `c<d` have the same truth-value. — end note] Pointers to objects or functions of the same type (after pointer conversions) can be compared for equality. Two pointers of the same type compare equal if and only if they are both null, both point to the same function, or both represent the same address (3.9.2).

2 In addition, pointers to members can be compared, or a pointer to member and a null pointer constant. Pointer to member conversions (4.11) and qualification conversions (4.4) are performed to bring them to a common type. If one operand is a null pointer constant, the common type is the type of the other operand. Otherwise, the common type is a pointer to member type similar (4.4) to the type of one of the operands, with a cv-qualification signature (4.4) that is the union of the cv-qualification signatures of the operand types. [Note: this implies that any pointer to member can be compared to a null pointer constant. — end note] If both operands are null, they compare equal. Otherwise if only one is null, they compare unequal. Otherwise if either is a pointer to a virtual member function, the result is unspecified. Otherwise they compare equal if and only if they would refer to the same member of the same most derived object (1.8) or the same subobject if they were dereferenced with a hypothetical object of the associated class type. [Example:

```cpp
struct B {
    int f();
};
struct L : B {
};
struct R : B {
};
struct D : L, R {
};
```
int *(B::*pb)() = &B::f;
int *(L::*pl)() = pb;
int *(R::*pr)() = pb;
int *(D::*pdl)() = pl;
int *(D::*pdr)() = pr;
bool x = (pdl == pdr); // false

— end example ]

3 If two operands of type std::nullptr_t are compared, the result is true if the operator is ==, and false otherwise.

4 Each of the operators shall yield true if the specified relationship is true and false if it is false.

5.11 Bitwise AND operator [expr.bit.and]

      and-expression:
      equality-expression
      and-expression & equality-expression

1 The usual arithmetic conversions are performed; the result is the bitwise AND function of the operands. The operator applies only to integral or unscoped enumeration operands.

5.12 Bitwise exclusive OR operator [expr.xor]

      exclusive-or-expression:
      and-expression
      exclusive-or-expression ^ and-expression

1 The usual arithmetic conversions are performed; the result is the bitwise exclusive OR function of the operands. The operator applies only to integral or unscoped enumeration operands.

5.13 Bitwise inclusive OR operator [expr.or]

      inclusive-or-expression:
      exclusive-or-expression
      inclusive-or-expression | exclusive-or-expression

1 The usual arithmetic conversions are performed; the result is the bitwise inclusive OR function of its operands. The operator applies only to integral or unscoped enumeration operands.

5.14 Logical AND operator [expr.log.and]

      logical-and-expression:
      inclusive-or-expression
      logical-and-expression && inclusive-or-expression

1 The && operator groups left-to-right. The operands are both contextually converted to type bool (Clause 4). The result is true if both operands are true and false otherwise. Unlike &, && guarantees left-to-right evaluation: the second operand is not evaluated if the first operand is false.

2 The result is a bool. If the second expression is evaluated, every value computation and side effect associated with the first expression is sequenced before every value computation and side effect associated with the second expression.

5.15 Logical OR operator [expr.log.or]

      logical-or-expression:
      logical-and-expression
      logical-or-expression || logical-and-expression

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The || operator groups left-to-right. The operands are both contextually converted to \texttt{bool} (Clause 4). It returns \texttt{true} if either of its operands is \texttt{true}, and \texttt{false} otherwise. Unlike \texttt{|}, || guarantees left-to-right evaluation; moreover, the second operand is not evaluated if the first operand evaluates to \texttt{true}.

The result is a \texttt{bool}. If the second expression is evaluated, every value computation and side effect associated with the first expression is sequenced before every value computation and side effect associated with the second expression.

5.16 Conditional operator

\texttt{conditional-expression:  
logical-or-expression  
logical-or-expression ? expression : assignment-expression}

Conditional expressions group right-to-left. The first expression is contextually converted to \texttt{bool} (Clause 4). It is evaluated and if it is \texttt{true}, the result of the conditional expression is the value of the second expression, otherwise that of the third expression. Only one of the second and third expressions is evaluated. Every value computation and side effect associated with the first expression is sequenced before every value computation and side effect associated with the second or third expression.

If either the second or the third operand has type (possibly cv-qualified) \texttt{void}, then the lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), and function-to-pointer (4.3) standard conversions are performed on the second and third operands, and one of the following shall hold:

- The second or the third operand (but not both) is a \texttt{throw-expression} (15.1); the result is of the type of the other and is an rvalue.

- Both the second and the third operands have type \texttt{void}; the result is of type \texttt{void} and is an rvalue.  
  \[\text{Note: this includes the case where both operands are throw-expressions. — end note}\]

Otherwise, if the second and third operand have different types and either has (possibly cv-qualified) class type or if both are lvalues of the same type except for cv-qualification, an attempt is made to convert each of those operands to the type of the other. The process for determining whether an operand expression \texttt{E1} of type \texttt{T1} can be converted to match an operand expression \texttt{E2} of type \texttt{T2} is defined as follows:

- If \texttt{E2} is an lvalue: \texttt{E1} can be converted to match \texttt{E2} if \texttt{E1} can be implicitly converted (Clause 4) to the type “lvalue reference to \texttt{T2}”, subject to the constraint that in the conversion the reference must bind directly (8.5.3) to an \texttt{lvalue}.

- If \texttt{E2} is an rvalue or if the conversion above cannot be done and at least one of the operands has (possibly cv-qualified) class type:
  - if \texttt{E1} and \texttt{E2} have class type, and the underlying class types are the same or one is a base class of the other: \texttt{E1} can be converted to match \texttt{E2} if the class of \texttt{T2} is the same type as, or a base class of, the class of \texttt{T1}, and the cv-qualification of \texttt{T2} is the same cv-qualification as, or a greater cv-qualification than, the cv-qualification of \texttt{T1}. If the conversion is applied, \texttt{E1} is changed to an rvalue of type \texttt{T2} by copy-initializing a temporary of type \texttt{T2} from \texttt{E1} and using that temporary as the converted operand.
  - Otherwise (i.e., if \texttt{E1} or \texttt{E2} has a nonclass type, or if they both have class types but the underlying classes are not either the same or one a base class of the other): \texttt{E1} can be converted to match \texttt{E2} if \texttt{E1} can be implicitly converted to the type that expression \texttt{E2} would have if \texttt{E2} were converted to an rvalue (or the type it has, if \texttt{E2} is an rvalue).

Using this process, it is determined whether the second operand can be converted to match the third operand, and whether the third operand can be converted to match the second operand. If both can be converted, or one can be converted but the conversion is ambiguous, the program is ill-formed.
If neither can be converted, the operands are left unchanged and further checking is performed as described below. If exactly one conversion is possible, that conversion is applied to the chosen operand and the converted operand is used in place of the original operand for the remainder of this section.

4 If the second and third operands are lvalues and have the same type, the result is of that type and is an lvalue and it is a bit-field if the second or the third operand is a bit-field, or if both are bit-fields.

5 Otherwise, the result is an rvalue. If the second and third operands do not have the same type, and either has (possibly cv-qualified) class type, overload resolution is used to determine the conversions (if any) to be applied to the operands (13.3.1.2, 13.6). If the overload resolution fails, the program is ill-formed. Otherwise, the conversions thus determined are applied, and the converted operands are used in place of the original operands for the remainder of this section.

6 Lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), and function-to-pointer (4.3) standard conversions are performed on the second and third operands. After those conversions, one of the following shall hold:

— The second and third operands have the same type; the result is of that type. If the operands have class type, the result is an rvalue temporary of the result type, which is copy-initialized from either the second operand or the third operand depending on the value of the first operand.

— The second and third operands have arithmetic or enumeration type; the usual arithmetic conversions are performed to bring them to a common type, and the result is of that type.

— The second and third operands have pointer type, or one has pointer type and the other is a null pointer constant; pointer conversions (4.10) and qualification conversions (4.4) are performed to bring them to their composite pointer type (5.9). The result is of the composite pointer type.

— The second and third operands have pointer to member type, or one has pointer to member type and the other is a null pointer constant; pointer to member conversions (4.11) and qualification conversions (4.4) are performed to bring them to a common type, whose cv-qualification shall match the cv-qualification of either the second or the third operand. The result is of the common type.

5.17 Assignment and compound assignment operators

The assignment operator (\(=\)) and the compound assignment operators all group right-to-left. All require a modifiable lvalue as their left operand and return an lvalue referring to the left operand. The result in all cases is a bit-field if the left operand is a bit-field. In all cases, the assignment is sequenced after the value computation of the right and left operands, and before the value computation of the assignment expression. With respect to an indeterminately-sequenced function call, the operation of a compound assignment is a single evaluation. \([\text{Note: Therefore, a function call shall not intervene between the lvalue-to-rvalue conversion and the side effect associated with any single compound assignment operator. }\) — end note]

assignment-expression:
conditional-expression
logical-or-expression assignment-operator initializer-clause
throw-expression

assignment-operator: one of
\(=\), \(\ast=\), \(/=\), \(\%=\), \(+=\), \(-=\), \(\geq=\), \(\leq=\), \(\&=\), \(\^=\), \(|=\)

2 In simple assignment (\(\ast\)), the value of the expression replaces that of the object referred to by the left operand.

3 If the left operand is not of class type, the expression is implicitly converted (Clause 4) to the cv-unqualified type of the left operand.
If the left operand is of class type, the class shall be complete. Assignment to objects of a class is defined by the copy assignment operator (12.8, 13.5.3).

[Note: For class objects, assignment is not in general the same as initialization (8.5, 12.1, 12.6, 12.8). — end note]

When the left operand of an assignment operator denotes a reference to `T`, the operation assigns to the object of type `T` denoted by the reference.

The behavior of an expression of the form `E1 op = E2` is equivalent to `E1 = E1 op E2` except that `E1` is evaluated only once. In `+=` and `-=`, `E1` shall either have arithmetic type or be a pointer to a possibly cv-qualified completely-defined object type. In all other cases, `E1` shall have arithmetic type.

If the value being stored in an object is accessed from another object that overlaps in any way the storage of the first object, then the overlap shall be exact and the two objects shall have the same type, otherwise the behavior is undefined. [Note: This restriction applies to the relationship between the left and right sides of the assignment operation; it is not a statement about how the target of the assignment may be aliased in general. See 3.10. — end note]

A `braced-init-list` may appear on the right-hand side of

— an assignment to a scalar, in which case the initializer list shall have at most a single element. The meaning of `x={v}`, where `T` is the scalar type of the expression `x`, is that of `x=T(v)` except that no narrowing conversion (8.5.4) is allowed. The meaning of `x={}` is `x=T()`.  

— an assignment defined by a user-defined assignment operator, in which case the initializer list is passed as the argument to the operator function.

[Example:

```cpp
complex<double> z;
z = { 1,2 }; // meaning z.operator={1,2})
z += { 1, 2 }; // meaning z.operator+=({1,2})
int a, b;
a = b = { 1 }; // meaning a=b=1;
a = { 1 } = b; // syntax error
```

— end example]

### 5.18 Comma operator [expr.comma]

The comma operator groups left-to-right.

```
expression:
  assignment-expression
expression , assignment-expression
```

A pair of expressions separated by a comma is evaluated left-to-right and the value of the left expression is discarded.\(^1\) The lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), and function-to-pointer (4.3) standard conversions are not applied to the left expression. Every value computation and side effect associated with the left expression is sequenced before every value computation and side effect associated with the right expression. The type and value of the result are the type and value of the right operand; the result is an lvalue if its right operand is an lvalue, and is a bit-field if its right operand is an lvalue and a bit-field.

---

\(^1\) However, an invocation of an overloaded comma operator is an ordinary function call; hence, the evaluations of its argument expressions are unsequenced relative to one another (see 1.9).
In contexts where comma is given a special meaning, [Example: in lists of arguments to functions (5.2.2) and lists of initializers (8.5) — end example] the comma operator as described in Clause 5 can appear only in parentheses. [Example:

\[ f(a, (t=3, t+2), c); \]

has three arguments, the second of which has the value 5. — end example]

### 5.19 Constant expressions

Certain contexts require expressions that satisfy additional requirements as detailed in this sub-clause. Such expressions are called constant expressions. [Note: Those expressions can be evaluated during translation. — end note]

\[
\text{constant-expression}:
\]

\[
\text{conditional-expression}
\]

A conditional-expression is a constant expression unless it involves one of the following as a potentially evaluated subexpression (3.2), but subexpressions of logical AND (5.14), logical OR (5.15), and conditional (5.16) operations that are not evaluated are not considered [Note: an overloaded operator invokes a function. — end note]:

- this (5.1) unless it appears as the postfix-expression in a class member access expression, including the result of the implicit transformation in the body of a non-static member function (9.3.1);
- an invocation of a function other than a constexpr function or a constexpr constructor [Note: overload resolution (13.3) is applied as usual — end note];
- a direct or indirect invocation of an undefined constexpr function or an undefined constexpr constructor outside the definition of a constexpr function or a constexpr constructor;
- a result that is not mathematically defined or not in the range of representable values for its type;
- a lambda-expression (5.1.2);
- an lvalue-to-rvalue conversion (4.1) unless it is applied to
  - an lvalue of integral or enumeration type that refers to a non-volatile const variable or static data member with a preceding initialization, initialized with a constant expression, or
  - an lvalue of literal type that refers to a non-volatile object defined with constexpr, or that refers to a sub-object of such an object;
- an array-to-pointer conversion (4.2) that is applied to an lvalue that designates an object with thread or automatic storage duration;
- a unary operator & (5.3.1) that is applied to an lvalue that designates an object with thread or automatic storage duration;
- an id-expression that refers to a variable or data member of reference type;
- a dynamic cast (5.2.7);
- a type conversion from a pointer or pointer-to-member type to a literal type [Note: a user-defined conversion invokes a function — end note];
- a pseudo-destructor call (5.2.4);
- a class member access (5.2.5) unless its postfix expression is of literal type or of pointer to literal type;
- increment or decrement operations (5.2.6, 5.3.2);
— a `typeid` expression (5.2.8) whose operand is of a polymorphic class type;
— a `new-expression` (5.3.4);
— a `delete-expression` (5.3.5);
— a subtraction (5.7) where both operands are pointers;
— a relational (5.9) or equality (5.10) operator where at least one of the operands is a pointer;
— an assignment or a compound assignment (5.17); or
— a `throw-expression` (15.1).

3 A constant expression is an integral constant expression if it is of integral or enumeration type. [Note: such expressions may be used as array bounds (8.3.4, 5.3.4), as case expressions (6.4.2), as bit-field lengths (9.6), as enumerator initializers (7.2), and as integral or enumeration non-type template arguments (14.4). — end note]

4 [Note: Although in some contexts constant expressions must be evaluated during program translation, others may be evaluated during program execution. Since this International Standard imposes no restrictions on the accuracy of floating-point operations, it is unspecified whether the evaluation of a floating-point expression during translation yields the same result as the evaluation of the same expression (or the same operations on the same values) during program execution.]

Example:

```c
bool f() {
  char array[1 + int(1 + 0.2 - 0.1 - 0.1)]; // Must be evaluated during translation
  int size = 1 + int(1 + 0.2 - 0.1 - 0.1); // May be evaluated at runtime
  return sizeof(array) == size;
}
```

It is unspecified whether the value of `f()` will be `true` or `false`. — end example] — end note]

5 If an expression of literal class type is used in a context where an integral constant expression is required, then that class type shall have a single non-explicit conversion function to an integral or enumeration type and that conversion function shall be constexpr. [Example:

```c
struct A {
  constexpr A(int i) : val(i) { }
  constexpr operator int() { return val; }
  constexpr operator long() { return 43; }
private:
  int val;
};
template<int> struct X { }; constexpr A a = 42;
X<A> x; // OK: unique conversion to int
int ary[a]; // error: ambiguous conversion
```

— end example]

6 An expression is a potential constant expression if it is a constant expression when all occurrences of function parameters are replaced by arbitrary constant expressions of the appropriate type.

82 Nonetheless, implementations are encouraged to provide consistent results, irrespective of whether the evaluation was actually performed during translation or during program execution.
6 Statements

1. Except as indicated, statements are executed in sequence.

\[
\text{statement:} \\
\text{\quad labeled-statement} \\
\text{\quad attribute-specifier_{opt} expression-statement} \\
\text{\quad attribute-specifier_{opt} compound-statement} \\
\text{\quad attribute-specifier_{opt} selection-statement} \\
\text{\quad attribute-specifier_{opt} iteration-statement} \\
\text{\quad attribute-specifier_{opt} jump-statement} \\
\text{\quad declaration-statement} \\
\text{\quad attribute-specifier_{opt} try-block}
\]

The optional attribute-specifier appertains to the respective statement.

6.1 Labeled statement

1. A statement can be labeled.

\[
\text{labeled-statement:} \\
\text{\quad attribute-specifier_{opt} identifier : statement} \\
\text{\quad attribute-specifier_{opt} case constant-expression : statement} \\
\text{\quad attribute-specifier_{opt} default : statement}
\]

The optional attribute-specifier appertains to the label. An identifier label declares the identifier. The only use of an identifier label is as the target of a goto. The scope of a label is the function in which it appears. Labels shall not be redeclared within a function. A label can be used in a goto statement before its definition. Labels have their own name space and do not interfere with other identifiers.

2. Case labels and default labels shall occur only in switch statements.

6.2 Expression statement

1. Expression statements have the form

\[
\text{expression-statement:} \\
\text{\quad expression_{opt} ;}
\]

The expression is evaluated and its value is discarded. The lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), and function-to-pointer (4.3) standard conversions are not applied to the expression. All side effects from an expression statement are completed before the next statement is executed. An expression statement with the expression missing is called a null statement. [Note: Most statements are expression statements — usually assignments or function calls. A null statement is useful to carry a label just before the } of a compound statement and to supply a null body to an iteration statement such as a while statement (6.5.1). — end note]

6.3 Compound statement or block

1. So that several statements can be used where one is expected, the compound statement (also, and equivalently, called “block”) is provided.

\[
\text{compound-statement:} \\
\{ \text{statement-seq}_{opt} \}
\]
A compound statement defines a local scope (3.3). [Note: a declaration is a statement (6.7). — end note]

6.4 Selection statements

1 Selection statements choose one of several flows of control.

\[
\text{selection-statement:}
\]

\[
\text{if ( condition ) statement}
\]

\[
\text{if ( condition ) statement else statement}
\]

\[
\text{switch ( condition ) statement}
\]

\[
\text{condition:}
\]

\[
\text{expression}
\]

\[
\text{type-specifier-seq attribute-specifier\_opt declarator = initializer-clause}
\]

\[
\text{type-specifier-seq attribute-specifier\_opt declarator braced-init-list}
\]

See 8.3 for the optional attribute-specifier in a condition. In Clause 6, the term substatement refers to the contained statement or statements that appear in the syntax notation. The substatement in a selection-statement (each substatement, in the else form of the if statement) implicitly defines a local scope (3.3). If the substatement in a selection-statement is a single statement and not a compound-statement, it is as if it was rewritten to be a compound-statement containing the original substatement. [Example:

\[
\text{if (x)}
\]

\[
\text{int i;}
\]

\[
\text{can be equivalently rewritten as}
\]

\[
\text{if (x) }
\]

\[
\text{int i;}
\]

\[
\text{)}
\]

Thus after the if statement, i is no longer in scope. — end example]

2 The rules for conditions apply both to selection-statements and to the for and while statements (6.5). The declarator shall not specify a function or an array. If the auto type-specifier appears in the type-specifier-seq, the type of the identifier being declared is deduced from the initializer as described in 7.1.6.4.

3 A name introduced by a declaration in a condition (either introduced by the type-specifier-seq or the declarator of the condition) is in scope from its point of declaration until the end of the substatements controlled by the condition. If the name is re-declared in the outermost block of a substatement controlled by the condition, the declaration that re-declares the name is ill-formed. [Example:

\[
\text{if (int x = f()) }
\]

\[
\text{int x; // ill-formed, redeclaration of x}
\]

\[
\text{)}
\]

\[
\text{else }
\]

\[
\text{int x; // ill-formed, redeclaration of x}
\]

\[
\text{)}
\]

— end example]

4 The value of a condition that is an initialized declaration in a statement other than a switch statement is the value of the declared variable contextually converted to bool (Clause 4). If that conversion is ill-formed, the program is ill-formed. The value of a condition that is an initialized declaration in a switch statement is the value of the declared variable if it has integral or enumeration type, or of that variable implicitly converted
to integral or enumeration type otherwise. The value of a condition that is an expression is the value of the
expression, contextually converted to bool for statements other than switch; if that conversion is ill-formed,
the program is ill-formed. The value of the condition will be referred to as simply “the condition” where the
usage is unambiguous.

5 If a condition can be syntactically resolved as either an expression or the declaration of a local name, it is
interpreted as a declaration.

6.4.1 The if statement

1 If the condition (6.4) yields true the first substatement is executed. If the else part of the selection
statement is present and the condition yields false, the second substatement is executed. In the second
form of if statement (the one including else), if the first substatement is also an if statement then that
inner if statement shall contain an else part.83

6.4.2 The switch statement

1 The switch statement causes control to be transferred to one of several statements depending on the value
of a condition.

2 The condition shall be of integral type, enumeration type, or of a class type for which a single non-explicit
conversion function to integral or enumeration type exists (12.3). If the condition is of class type, the
condition is converted by calling that conversion function, and the result of the conversion is used in place of
the original condition for the remainder of this section. Integral promotions are performed. Any statement
within the switch statement can be labeled with one or more case labels as follows:

   case constant-expression :

where the constant-expression shall be an integral constant expression (5.19). The integral constant expres-
sion is implicitly converted to the promoted type of the switch condition. No two of the case constants in
the same switch shall have the same value after conversion to the promoted type of the switch condition.

3 There shall be at most one label of the form

   default :

within a switch statement.

4 Switch statements can be nested; a case or default label is associated with the smallest switch enclosing
it.

5 When the switch statement is executed, its condition is evaluated and compared with each case constant. If
one of the case constants is equal to the value of the condition, control is passed to the statement following
the matched case label. If no case constant matches the condition, control is passed to the statement labeled by the default label. If no case matches and if there is no default then none of the statements in the switch is executed.

6 case and default labels in themselves do not alter the flow of control, which continues unimpeded across
such labels. To exit from a switch, see break, 6.6.1. [Note: usually, the substatement that is the subject
of a switch is compound and case and default labels appear on the top-level statements contained within

83) In other words, the else is associated with the nearest un-elsed if.
the (compound) substatement, but this is not required. Declarations can appear in the substatement of a
switch-statement. — end note

6.5 Iteration statements

1 Iteration statements specify looping.

    iteration-statement:
        while ( condition ) statement
        do statement while ( expression ) ;
        for ( for-init-statement conditionopt ; expressionopt ) statement
        for ( for-range-declaration : expression ) statement

    for-init-statement:
        expression-statement
        simple-declaration

    for-range-declaration:
        type-specifier-seq attribute-specifieropt declarator

[ Note: a for-init-statement ends with a semicolon. — end note ]

2 The substatement in an iteration-statement implicitly defines a local scope (3.3) which is entered and exited
each time through the loop.

If the substatement in an iteration-statement is a single statement and not a compound-statement,
it is as if it was rewritten to be a compound-statement containing the original statement. [Example:

    while (--x >= 0)
    int i;

    can be equivalently rewritten as

    while (--x >= 0) {
        int i;
    }

3 Thus after the while statement, i is no longer in scope. — end example]

4 [ Note: The requirements on conditions in iteration statements are described in 6.4. — end note ]

5 A loop that, outside of the for-init-statement in the case of a for statement,
    — makes no calls to library I/O functions, and
    — does not access or modify volatile objects, and
    — performs no synchronization operations (1.10) or atomic operations (Clause 29)
may be assumed by the implementation to terminate. [ Note: This is intended to allow compiler transfor-
mations, such as removal of empty loops, even when termination cannot be proven. — end note ]

6.5.1 The while statement

1 In the while statement the substatement is executed repeatedly until the value of the condition (6.4) becomes
false. The test takes place before each execution of the substatement.

2 When the condition of a while statement is a declaration, the scope of the variable that is declared extends
from its point of declaration (3.3.2) to the end of the while statement. A while statement of the form

    while (T t = x) statement
is equivalent to

```c
label:
{
    // start of condition scope
    T t = x;
    if (t) {
        statement
        goto label;
    }
}
    // end of condition scope
```

The object created in a condition is destroyed and created with each iteration of the loop. [Example:

```c
struct A {
    int val;
    A(int i) : val(i) {}  
    ~A() {} 
    operator bool() { return val != 0; }
};
int i = 1;
while (A a = i) {
    // ...
    i = 0;
}
```

In the while-loop, the constructor and destructor are each called twice, once for the condition that succeeds and once for the condition that fails. —end example]

6.5.2 The do statement [stmt.do]

1 The expression is contextually converted to bool (Clause 4); if that conversion is ill-formed, the program is ill-formed.

2 In the do statement the substatement is executed repeatedly until the value of the expression becomes false. The test takes place after each execution of the statement.

6.5.3 The for statement [stmt.for]

1 The for statement

```c
for ( for-init-statement condition_opt ; expression_opt ) statement
```

is equivalent to

```c
{
    for-init-statement
    while ( condition ) {
        statement
        expression ;
    }
}
```

except that names declared in the for-init-statement are in the same declarative-region as those declared in the condition, and except that a continue in statement (not enclosed in another iteration statement) will execute expression before re-evaluating condition. [Note: Thus the first statement specifies initialization for the loop; the condition (6.4) specifies a test, made before each iteration, such that the loop is exited when the condition becomes false; the expression often specifies incrementing that is done after each iteration. —end note]
Either or both of the condition and the expression can be omitted. A missing condition makes the implied
while Clause equivalent to while(true).

If the for-init-statement is a declaration, the scope of the name(s) declared extends to the end of the for-
statement. [Example:

```c
int i = 42;
int a[10];

for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
  a[i] = i;

int j = i;    // j = 42
```
— end example]

6.5.4 The range-based for statement

The range-based for statement

```c
for ( for-range-declaration : expression ) statement
```

is equivalent to

```c
{
  auto && __range = ( expression );
  for ( auto __begin = begin-expr,
        __end = end-expr;
        __begin != __end;
        ++__begin ) { 
    for-range-declaration = *__begin;
    statement
  }
}
```

where __range, __begin, and __end are variables defined for exposition only, and _RangeT is the type of
the expression, and begin-expr and end-expr are determined as follows:

— if _RangeT is an array type, begin-expr and end-expr are __range and __range + __bound, respec-
tively, where __bound is the array bound. If _RangeT is an array of unknown size or an array of
incomplete type, the program is ill-formed.

— otherwise, begin-expr and end-expr are begin(__range) and end(__range), respectively, where begin
and end are looked up with argument-dependent lookup (3.4.2). For the purposes of this name lookup,
namespace std is an associated namespace.

[Example:

```c
int array[5] = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
for (int& x : array)
  x *= 2;
```
— end example]
6.6 Jump statements

Jump statements unconditionally transfer control.

jump-statement:
break ;
continue ;
return expression_opt ;
return braced-init-list ;
goto identifier ;

On exit from a scope (however accomplished), variables with automatic storage duration (3.7.3) that have been constructed in that scope are destroyed in the reverse order of their construction. [Note: For temporaries, see 12.2. — end note] Transfer out of a loop, out of a block, or back past an initialized variable with automatic storage duration involves the destruction of variables with automatic storage duration that are in scope at the point transferred from but not at the point transferred to. (See 6.7 for transfers into blocks). [Note: However, the program can be terminated (by calling std::exit() or std::abort() (18.5), for example) without destroying class objects with automatic storage duration. — end note]

6.6.1 The break statement

The break statement shall occur only in an iteration-statement or a switch statement and causes termination of the smallest enclosing iteration-statement or switch statement; control passes to the statement following the terminated statement, if any.

6.6.2 The continue statement

The continue statement shall occur only in an iteration-statement and causes control to pass to the loop-continuation portion of the smallest enclosing iteration-statement, that is, to the end of the loop. More precisely, in each of the statements

```c
while (foo) {
} while (foo);
```

```c
do {
} while (foo);
```

```c
for (;;) {
} for (;;)
```

a continue not contained in an enclosed iteration statement is equivalent to goto contin.

6.6.3 The return statement

A function returns to its caller by the return statement.

A return statement without an expression can be used only in functions that do not return a value, that is, a function with the return type void, a constructor (12.1), or a destructor (12.4). A return statement with an expression of non-void type can be used only in functions returning a value; the value of the expression is returned to the caller of the function. The value of the expression is implicitly converted to the return type of the function in which it appears. A return statement can involve the construction and copy of a temporary object (12.2). [Note: A copy operation associated with a return statement may be elided or considered as an rvalue for the purpose of overload resolution in selecting a constructor (12.8). — end note]

A return statement with a braced-init-list initializes the object or reference to be returned from the function by copy-list-initialization (8.5.4) from the specified initializer list. [Example:

```c
std::pair<std::string, int> f(const char* p, int x) {
    return {p, x};
}
```
Flowing off the end of a function is equivalent to a `return` with no value; this results in undefined behavior in a value-returning function.

A return statement with an expression of type "cv void" can be used only in functions with a return type of cv void; the expression is evaluated just before the function returns to its caller.

6.6.4 The `goto` statement

The `goto` statement unconditionally transfers control to the statement labeled by the identifier. The identifier shall be a label (6.1) located in the current function.

6.7 Declaration statement

A declaration statement introduces one or more new identifiers into a block; it has the form

```
declaration-statement:
  block-declaration
```

If an identifier introduced by a declaration was previously declared in an outer block, the outer declaration is hidden for the remainder of the block, after which it resumes its force.

Variables with automatic storage duration (3.7.3) are initialized each time their `declaration-statement` is executed. Variables with automatic storage duration declared in the block are destroyed on exit from the block (6.6).

It is possible to transfer into a block, but not in a way that bypasses declarations with initialization. A program that jumps\(^{84}\) from a point where a local variable with automatic storage duration is not in scope to a point where it is in scope is ill-formed unless the variable has scalar type, class type with a trivial default constructor and a trivial destructor, a cv-qualified version of one of these types, or an array of one of the preceding types and is declared without an initializer (8.5). [Example:

```c
void f() {
  // ...
  goto lx; // ill-formed: jump into scope of a
  // ...
  ly:
  X a = 1;
  // ...
  lx:
  goto ly; // OK, jump implies destructor
          // call for a followed by construction
          // again immediately following label ly
}
```

— end example]

The zero-initialization (8.5) of all local objects with static storage duration (3.7.1) or thread storage duration (3.7.2) is performed before any other initialization takes place. Constant initialization (3.6.2) of a local entity with static storage duration, if applicable, is performed before its block is first entered. An implementation is permitted to perform early initialization of other local objects with static or thread storage duration under the same conditions that an implementation is permitted to statically initialize an object with static or thread storage duration in namespace scope (3.6.2). Otherwise such an object is initialized the first time

---

\(^{84}\) The transfer from the condition of a `switch` statement to a `case` label is considered a jump in this respect.
control passes through its declaration; such an object is considered initialized upon the completion of its initialization. If the initialization exits by throwing an exception, the initialization is not complete, so it will be tried again the next time control enters the declaration. If control enters the declaration concurrently while the object is being initialized, the concurrent execution shall wait for completion of the initialization.\(^{85}\) If control re-enters the declaration recursively while the object is being initialized, the behavior is undefined.

\[\text{Example:}\]

```c
int foo(int i) {
    static int s = foo(2*i);  // recursive call - undefined
    return i+1;
}
```

— end example]

The destructor for a local object with static or thread storage duration will be executed if and only if the variable was constructed. [Note: 3.6.3 describes the order in which local objects with static and thread storage duration are destroyed. — end note]

6.8 Ambiguity resolution

1 There is an ambiguity in the grammar involving expression-statements and declarations: An expression-statement with a function-style explicit type conversion (5.2.3) as its leftmost subexpression can be indistinguishable from a declaration where the first declarator starts with a `(In those cases the statement is a declaration. [Note: To disambiguate, the whole statement might have to be examined to determine if it is an expression-statement or a declaration. This disambiguates many examples. [Example: assuming T is a simple-type-specifier (7.1.6),

```c
T(a)->m = 7;  // expression-statement
T(a)++;     // expression-statement
T(a,5)<<c;  // expression-statement
T(*d)(int);  // declaration
T(e)[5];    // declaration
T(f) = { 1, 2 };  // declaration
T(*g)(double(3)); // declaration
```

In the last example above, g, which is a pointer to T, is initialized to double(3). This is of course ill-formed for semantic reasons, but that does not affect the syntactic analysis. — end example]

2 The remaining cases are declarations. [Example:

```c
class T {
    // ...
    public:
    T();
    T(int);
    T(int, int);
};
T(a);  // declaration
T(*b)();  // declaration
T(c)=7;  // declaration
T(d),e,f=3;  // declaration
extern int h;
T(g)(h,2);  // declaration
```

85) The implementation must not introduce any deadlock around execution of the initializer.

§ 6.8
3 The disambiguation is purely syntactic; that is, the meaning of the names occurring in such a statement, beyond whether they are type-names or not, is not generally used in or changed by the disambiguation. Class templates are instantiated as necessary to determine if a qualified name is a type-name. Disambiguation precedes parsing, and a statement disambiguated as a declaration may be an ill-formed declaration. If, during parsing, a name in a template parameter is bound differently than it would be bound during a trial parse, the program is ill-formed. No diagnostic is required. [Note: This can occur only when the name is declared earlier in the declaration. — end note] [Example:

```c
struct T1 {
    T1 operator()(int x) { return T1(x); }
    int operator=(int x) { return x; }
    T1(int) { }
};
struct T2 { T2(int){ };
int a, (**(b)(T2))(int), c, d;

void f() {
    // disambiguation requires this to be parsed as a declaration:
    T1(a) = 3,
    T2(4),
    (**(b)(T2(c)))(int(d));
    // T2 will be declared as
    // a variable of type T1
    // but this will not allow
    // the last part of the
    // declaration to parse
    // properly since it depends
    // on T2 being a type-name
}
```

— end example]
7 Declarations

Declarations generally specify how names are to be interpreted. Declarations have the form

\[
\text{declaration-seq:}
\]

\[
\text{declaration}
\]

\[
\text{declaration-seq declaration}
\]

\[
\text{declaration:}
\]

\[
\text{block-declaration}
\]

\[
\text{function-definition}
\]

\[
\text{template-declaration}
\]

\[
\text{explicit-instantiation}
\]

\[
\text{explicit-specialization}
\]

\[
\text{linkage-specification}
\]

\[
\text{namespace-definition}
\]

\[
\text{empty-declaration}
\]

\[
\text{attribute-declaration}
\]

\[
\text{block-declaration:}
\]

\[
\text{simple-declaration}
\]

\[
\text{asm-definition}
\]

\[
\text{namespace-alias-definition}
\]

\[
\text{using-declaration}
\]

\[
\text{using-directive}
\]

\[
\text{static_assert-declaration}
\]

\[
\text{alias-declaration}
\]

\[
\text{opaque-enum-declaration}
\]

\[
\text{alias-declaration:}
\]

\[
\text{using identifier = type-id ;}
\]

\[
\text{simple-declaration:}
\]

\[
\text{attribute-specifier}_{\text{opt}} \text{ decl-specifier-seq}_{\text{opt}} \text{ attribute-specifier}_{\text{opt}} \text{ init-declarator-list}_{\text{opt}} ;
\]

\[
\text{static_assert-declaration:}
\]

\[
\text{static_assert ( constant-expression , string-literal ) ;}
\]

\[
\text{empty-declaration:}
\]

\[
;
\]

\[
\text{attribute-declaration:}
\]

\[
\text{attribute-specifier ;}
\]

[Note: \textit{asm-defin}itions are described in 7.4, and \textit{linkage-specifications} are described in 7.5. \textit{Function-def}initions are described in 8.4 and \textit{template-declarations} are described in Clause 14. \textit{Namespace-def}initions are described in 7.3.1, \textit{using-declarations} are described in 7.3.3 and \textit{using-directives} are described in 7.3.4. — end note]

The \textit{simple-declaration}

\[
\text{attribute-specifier}_{\text{opt}} \text{ decl-specifier-seq}_{\text{opt}} \text{ attribute-specifier}_{\text{opt}} \text{ init-declarator-list}_{\text{opt}} ;
\]

is divided into four parts. \textit{decl-specifiers}, the components of a \textit{decl-specifier-seq}, are described in 7.1. The two optional \textit{attribute-specifiers} and \textit{declarators}, the components of an \textit{init-declarator-list}, are described in Clause 8.
Except where otherwise specified, the meaning of an attribute-declaration is implementation-defined.

A declaration occurs in a scope (3.3); the scope rules are summarized in 3.4. A declaration that declares a function or defines a class, namespace, template, or function also has one or more scopes nested within it. These nested scopes, in turn, can have declarations nested within them. Unless otherwise stated, utterances in Clause 7 about components in, of, or contained by a declaration or subcomponent thereof refer only to those components of the declaration that are not nested within scopes nested within the declaration.

In a simple-declaration, the optional init-declarator-list can be omitted only when declaring a class (Clause 9) or enumeration (7.2), that is, when the decl-specifier-seq contains either a class-specifier, an elaborated-type-specifier with a class-key (9.1), or an enum-specifier. In these cases and whenever a class-specifier or enum-specifier is present in the decl-specifier-seq, the identifiers in these specifiers are among the names being declared by the declaration (as class-names, enum-names, or enumerators, depending on the syntax). In such cases, and except for the declaration of an unnamed bit-field (9.6), the decl-specifier-seq shall introduce one or more names into the program, or shall redeclare a name introduced by a previous declaration. [Example:

```c
enum { }; // ill-formed
typedef class { }; // ill-formed
```
— end example]

In a static_assert-declaration the constant-expression shall be a constant expression (5.19) that can be contextually converted to bool (Clause 4). If the value of the expression when so converted is true, the declaration has no effect. Otherwise, the program is ill-formed, and the resulting diagnostic message (1.4) shall include the text of the string-literal, except that characters not in the basic source character set (2.3) are not required to appear in the diagnostic message. [Example:

```c
static_assert(sizeof(long) >= 8, "64-bit code generation required for this library.");
```
— end example]

An empty-declaration has no effect.

Each init-declarator in the init-declarator-list contains exactly one declarator-id, which is the name declared by that init-declarator and hence one of the names declared by the declaration. The type-specifiers (7.1.6) in the decl-specifier-seq and the recursive declarator structure of the init-declarator describe a type (8.3), which is then associated with the name being declared by the init-declarator.

If the decl-specifier-seq contains the typedef specifier, the declaration is called a typedef declaration and the name of each init-declarator is declared to be a typedef-name, synonymous with its associated type (7.1.3). If the decl-specifier-seq contains no typedef specifier, the declaration is called a function declaration if the type associated with the name is a function type (8.3.5) and an object declaration otherwise.

Syntactic components beyond those found in the general form of declaration are added to a function declaration to make a function-definition. An object declaration, however, is also a definition unless it contains the extern specifier and has no initializer (3.1). A definition causes the appropriate amount of storage to be reserved and any appropriate initialization (8.5) to be done.

Only in function declarations for constructors, destructors, and type conversions can the decl-specifier-seq be omitted. If it is omitted, an attribute-specifier shall not appear.

### 7.1 Specifiers

The specifiers that can be used in a declaration are

---

86) The “implicit int” rule of C is no longer supported.
The longest sequence of *decl-specifiers* that could possibly be a type name is taken as the *decl-specifier-seq* of a *declaration*. The sequence shall be self-consistent as described below. 

```plaintext
typedef char* Pc;
static Pc; // error: name missing
```

Here, the declaration `static Pc` is ill-formed because no name was specified for the static variable of type `Pc`. To get a variable called `Pc`, a *type-specifier* (other than `const` or `volatile`) has to be present to indicate that the typedef-name `Pc` is the name being (re)declared, rather than being part of the *decl-specifier* sequence.

For another example,

```plaintext
void f(const Pc); // void f(char* const) (not const char*)
void g(const int Pc); // void g(const int)
```

— *end example*

---

[Note: since `signed`, `unsigned`, `long`, and `short` by default imply `int`, a *type-name* appearing after one of those specifiers is treated as the name being (re)declared. 

```plaintext
void h(unsigned Pc);
void k(unsigned int Pc); // void k(unsigned int)
```

— *end example*] — *end note*]

### 7.1.1 Storage class specifiers

The storage class specifiers are

```
storage-class-specifier:
    register
    static
    thread_local
    extern
    mutable
```

At most one *storage-class-specifier* shall appear in a given *decl-specifier-seq*, except that `thread_local` may appear with `static` or `extern`. If `thread_local` appears in any declaration of an object or reference it shall be present in all declarations of that object or reference. If a *storage-class-specifier* appears in a *decl-specifier-seq*, there can be no `typedef` specifier in the same *decl-specifier-seq* and the *init-declarator-list* of the declaration shall not be empty (except for *global anon* anonymous unions *declared in a named namespace* or in the *global namespace*, which shall be declared `static` (9.5)). The *storage-class-specifier* applies to the name declared by each *init-declarator* in the list and not to any names declared by other specifiers. A *storage-class-specifier* shall not be specified in an explicit specialization (14.8.3) or an explicit instantiation (14.8.2) directive.

The `register` specifier shall be applied only to names of objects declared in a block (6.3) or to function parameters (8.4). It specifies that the named object has automatic storage duration (3.7.3). An object
declared without a `storage-class-specifier` at block scope or declared as a function parameter has automatic storage duration by default.

3 A `register` specifier is a hint to the implementation that the object so declared will be heavily used. [Note: the hint can be ignored and in most implementations it will be ignored if the address of the object is taken. This use is deprecated (see D.5). — end note]

4 The `thread_local` specifier shall be applied only to the names of objects or references of namespace scope, and to the names of objects or references of block scope that also specify `extern` or `static`, and to the names of static data members. It specifies that the named object or reference has thread storage duration (3.7.2).

5 The `static` specifier can be applied only to names of objects and functions and to anonymous unions (9.5). There can be no `static` function declarations within a block, nor any `static` function parameters. A `static` specifier used in the declaration of an object declares the object to have static storage duration (3.7.1), unless accompanied by the `thread_local` specifier, which declares the object to have thread storage duration (3.7.2). A `static` specifier can be used in declarations of class members; 9.4 describes its effect. For the linkage of a name declared with a `static` specifier, see 3.5.

6 The `extern` specifier can be applied only to the names of objects and functions. The `extern` specifier cannot be used in the declaration of class members or function parameters. For the linkage of a name declared with an `extern` specifier, see 3.5. [Note: The `extern` keyword can also be used in `explicit-instantiations` and `linkage-specifications`, but it is not a `storage-class-specifier` in such contexts. — end note]

7 A name declared in a namespace scope without a `storage-class-specifier` has external linkage unless it has internal linkage because of a previous declaration and provided it is not declared `const`. Objects declared `const` and not explicitly declared `extern` have internal linkage.

8 The linkages implied by successive declarations for a given entity shall agree. That is, within a given scope, each declaration declaring the same object name or the same overloading of a function name shall imply the same linkage. Each function in a given set of overloaded functions can have a different linkage, however. [Example:

```c
static char* f(); // f() has internal linkage
char* f() // f() still has internal linkage
{ /* ... */ }

char* g(); // g() has external linkage
static char* g() // error: inconsistent linkage
{ /* ... */ }

void h();
inline void h(); // external linkage

inline void l();
void l(); // external linkage

inline void m();
extern void m(); // external linkage

static void n();
inline void n(); // internal linkage

static int a; // a has internal linkage
int a; // error: two definitions

static int b; // b has internal linkage
```

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extern int b;       // b still has internal linkage
int c;             // c has external linkage
static int c;      // error: inconsistent linkage
extern int d;      // d has external linkage
static int d;      // error: inconsistent linkage

— end example ]

9 The name of a declared but undefined class can be used in an `extern` declaration. Such a declaration can only be used in ways that do not require a complete class type. [Example:

```c
struct S;
extern S a;
extern S f();
extern void g(S);

void h() {
  g(a);                           // error: S is incomplete
  f();                            // error: S is incomplete
}

— end example]

10 The `mutable` specifier can be applied only to names of class data members (9.2) and cannot be applied to names declared `const` or `static`, and cannot be applied to reference members. [Example:

```c
class X {
  mutable const int* p;        // OK
  mutable int* const q;        // ill-formed
};
```

— end example]

11 The `mutable` specifier on a class data member nullifies a `const` specifier applied to the containing class object and permits modification of the mutable class member even though the rest of the object is `const` (7.1.6.1).

7.1.2 Function specifiers [dcl.fct.spec]

1 Function-specifiers can be used only in function declarations.

```
function-specifier:
  inline
  virtual
  explicit
```

2 A function declaration (8.3.5, 9.3, 11.4) with an `inline` specifier declares an `inline function`. The inline specifier indicates to the implementation that inline substitution of the function body at the point of call is to be preferred to the usual function call mechanism. An implementation is not required to perform this inline substitution at the point of call; however, even if this inline substitution is omitted, the other rules for inline functions defined by 7.1.2 shall still be respected.

3 A function defined within a class definition is an inline function. The `inline` specifier shall not appear on a block scope function declaration.\(^{87}\) If the `inline` specifier is used in a friend declaration, that declaration shall be a definition or the function shall have previously been declared inline.

\(^{87}\) The inline keyword has no effect on the linkage of a function.
An inline function shall be defined in every translation unit in which it is used and shall have exactly the same definition in every case (3.2). [\textit{Note:} a call to the inline function may be encountered before its definition appears in the translation unit. \textit{— end note}] If the definition of a function appears in a translation unit before its first declaration as inline, the program is ill-formed. If a function with external linkage is declared inline in one translation unit, it shall be declared inline in all translation units in which it appears; no diagnostic is required. An inline function with external linkage shall have the same address in all translation units. A \textit{static} local variable in an \textit{extern inline} function always refers to the same object.

A string literal in the body of an \textit{extern inline} function is the same object in different translation units. [\textit{Note:} A string literal appearing in a default argument expression is not in the body of an inline function merely because the expression is used in a function call from that inline function. \textit{— end note}] The \textit{virtual} specifier shall be used only in the initial declaration of a non-static class member function; see 10.3.

The \textit{explicit} specifier shall be used only in the declaration of a constructor or conversion function within its class definition; see 12.3.1 and 12.3.2.

7.1.3 The \texttt{typedef} specifier

Declarations containing the \texttt{decl-specifier typedef} declare identifiers that can be used later for naming fundamental (3.9.1) or compound (3.9.2) types. The \texttt{typedef} specifier shall not be combined in a \texttt{decl-specifier-seq} with any other kind of specifier except a \texttt{type-specifier}, and it shall not be used in the \texttt{decl-specifier-seq} of a \texttt{parameter-declaration} (8.3.5) nor in the \texttt{decl-specifier-seq} of a \texttt{function-definition} (8.4).

\begin{verbatim}
typedef-name:
  identifier
\end{verbatim}

A name declared with the \texttt{typedef} specifier becomes a \texttt{typedef-name}. Within the scope of its declaration, a \texttt{typedef-name} is syntactically equivalent to a keyword and names the type associated with the identifier in the way described in Clause 8. A \texttt{typedef-name} is thus a synonym for another type. A \texttt{typedef-name} does not introduce a new type the way a class declaration (9.1) or enum declaration does. [\textit{Example:} after

\begin{verbatim}
typedef int MILES, *KLICKSP;
\end{verbatim}

the constructions

\begin{verbatim}
MILES distance;
extern KLICKSP metricp;
\end{verbatim}

are all correct declarations; the type of \texttt{distance} is \texttt{int} and that of \texttt{metricp} is “pointer to \texttt{int}.” \textit{— end example}]

2 A \texttt{typedef-name} can also be introduced by an \texttt{alias-declaration}. The \texttt{identifier} following the \texttt{using} keyword becomes a \texttt{typedef-name}. It has the same semantics as if it were introduced by the \texttt{typedef} specifier. In particular, it does not define a new type and it shall not appear in the \texttt{type-id}. [\textit{Example:}

\begin{verbatim}
using handler_t = void (*)(int);
using handler_t ignore;
using void (*ignore)(int);  // redeclare ignore
using cell = pair<void*, cell*>;  // ill-formed
\end{verbatim}

\textit{— end example}]

3 In a given non-class scope, a \texttt{typedef} specifier can be used to redefine the name of any type declared in that scope to refer to the type to which it already refers. [\textit{Example:}
typedef struct s { /* ... */ } s;
typedef int I;
typedef int I;
typedef I I;

— end example —

4 In a given class scope, a typedef specifier can be used to redefine any class-name declared in that scope that is not also a typedef-name to refer to the type to which it already refers. [Example:

```c
struct S {
    typedef struct A { } A;    // OK
    typedef struct B B;        // OK
    typedef A A;               // error
};
```

— end example —

5 In a given scope, a typedef specifier shall not be used to redefine the name of any type declared in that scope to refer to a different type. [Example:

```c
class complex { /* ... */ };
typedef int complex;               // error: redefinition
```

— end example —

6 Similarly, in a given scope, a class or enumeration shall not be declared with the same name as a typedef-name that is declared in that scope and refers to a type other than the class or enumeration itself. [Example:

```c
typedef int complex;
class complex { /* ... */ };        // error: redefinition
```

— end example —

7 [Note: A typedef-name that names a class type, or a cv-qualified version thereof, is also a class-name (9.1). If a typedef-name is used to identify the subject of an elaborated-type-specifier (7.1.6.3), a class definition (Clause 9), a constructor declaration (12.1), or a destructor declaration (12.4), the program is ill-formed. — end note] [Example:

```c
struct S {
    S();
    ~S();
};
typedef struct S T;
S a = T();       // OK
struct T * p;   // error
```

— end example —

8 If the typedef declaration defines an unnamed class (or enum), the first typedef-name declared by the declaration to be that class type (or enum type) is used to denote the class type (or enum type) for linkage purposes only (3.5). [Example:

```c
typedef struct {} *ps, S;       // S is the class name for linkage purposes
```
If a typedef TD names a type that is a reference to a type T, an attempt to create the type “lvalue reference to cv TD” creates the type “lvalue reference to T,” while an attempt to create the type “rvalue reference to cv TD” creates the type TD. [Example:

```c
int i;
typedef int& LRI;
typedef int&& RRI;

LRI& r1 = i; // r1 has the type int&
const LRI& r2 = i; // r2 has the type int&
const LRI&& r3 = i; // r3 has the type int&&

RRI& r4 = i; // r4 has the type int&
RRI&& r5 = i; // r5 has the type int&&
```

— end example]

## 7.1.4 The friend specifier

The friend specifier is used to specify access to class members; see 11.4.

## 7.1.5 The constexpr specifier

The constexpr specifier shall be applied only to the definition of an object, the declaration of a function, or function template, or the declaration of a static data member of a literal type (3.9). If any declaration of a function or function template has constexpr specifier, then all its declarations shall contain the constexpr specifier. [Note: an explicit specialization can differ from the template declaration with respect to the constexpr specifier. — end note] [Note: function parameters cannot be declared constexpr. — end note]

[Example:

```c
constexpr int square(int x); // OK: declaration
constexpr int square(int x) { // OK
    return x * x;
}
constexpr int bufsz = 1024; // OK: definition
constexpr struct pixel {
    int x;
    int y;
} pixel; // error: pixel is a type
constexpr pixel::pixel(int); // OK: declaration
constexpr pixel::pixel(int a) : x(square(a)), y(square(a)) { } // OK: definition
constexpr pixel small(2); // error: square not defined, so small(2)
    // not constant (5.19) so constexpr not satisfied
constexpr int square(int x) { // OK: definition
    return x * x;
}
constexpr pixel large(4); // OK: square defined
int next(constexpr int x) { // error: not for parameters
    return x + 1;
}
extern constexpr int memsz; // error: not a definition
```

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2 A constexpr specifier used in the declaration of a function that is not a constructor declares that function to be a constexpr function. Similarly, a constexpr specifier used in a constructor declaration declares that constructor to be a constexpr constructor. Constexpr functions and constexpr constructors are implicitly inline (7.1.2).

3 The definition of a constexpr function shall satisfy the following constraints:
   — it shall not be virtual (10.3)
   — its return type shall be a literal type
   — each of its parameter types shall be a literal type
   — its function-body shall be a compound-statement of the form
     
     ```
     { return expression ; }  
     ```
     
     where expression is a potential constant expression (5.19)
   — every implicit conversion used in converting expression to the function return type (8.5) shall be one of those allowed in a constant expression (5.19).

[Example:

```cpp
constexpr int square(int x)  
{ return x * x; }  // OK
constexpr long long_max()  
{ return 2147483647; }  // OK
constexpr int abs(int x)  
{ return x < 0 ? -x : x; }  // OK
constexpr void f(int x)  // error: return type is void
{ /* ... */ }
constexpr int prev(int x)  
{ return --x; }  // error: use of decrement
constexpr int g(int x, int n)  // error: body not just “return expr”
{ int r = 1;
  while (--n > 0) r *= x;
  return r;
}
```

— end example]

4 The definition of a constexpr constructor shall satisfy the following constraints:
   — each of its parameter types shall be a literal type
   — its function-body shall not be a function-try-block
   — the compound-statement of its function-body shall be empty
   — every non-static data member and base class sub-object shall be initialized (12.6.2)
   — every constructor involved in initializing non-static data members and base class sub-objects invoked by a mem-initializer shall be a constexpr constructor.
   — every constructor argument and full-expression in a mem-initializer shall be a potential constant expression

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every implicit conversion used in converting a constructor argument to the corresponding parameter
type and converting a full-expression to the corresponding member type shall be one of those allowed
in a constant expression.

A trivial copy constructor is also a constexpr constructor.

[Example:

```cpp
struct Length {
    explicit constexpr Length(int i = 0) : val(i) { }
private:
    int val;
};
```

— end example]

If the instantiated template specialization of a constexpr function template would fail to satisfy the require-
ments for a constexpr function or constexpr constructor, the constexpr specifier is ignored.

A constexpr specifier for a non-static member function that is not a constructor declares that member
function to be const (9.3.1). [Note: the constexpr specifier has no other effect on the function type. — end
note] The class of which that function is a member shall be a literal type (3.9). [Example:

```cpp
class debug_flag {
public:
    explicit debug_flag(bool);
    constexpr bool is_on();  // error: debug_flag not
    // literal type
private:
    bool flag;
};
```

```cpp
constexpr int bar(int x, int y)  // OK
{ return x + y + x*y; }
// ...
int bar(int x, int y)  // error: redefinition of bar
{ return x * 2 + 3 * y; }
```

— end example]

A constexpr specifier used in an object declaration declares the object as const. Such an object shall be
initialized. If it is initialized by a constructor call, the constructor shall be a constexpr constructor and every
argument to the constructor shall be a constant expression. Otherwise, every full-expression that appears
in its initializer shall be a constant expression. Each implicit conversion used in converting the initializer
expressions and each constructor call used for the initialization shall be one of those allowed in a constant
expression (5.19). [Example:

```cpp
struct pixel {
    int x, y;
};
constexpr pixel ur = { 1294, 1024 }; // OK
constexpr pixel origin;  // error: initializer missing
```

— end example]
7.1.6 Type specifiers

1 The type-specifiers are

\[
\text{type-specifier:} \\
\quad \text{trailing-type-specifier} \\
\quad \text{class-specifier} \\
\quad \text{enum-specifier}
\]

\[
\text{trailing-type-specifier:} \\
\quad \text{simple-type-specifier} \\
\quad \text{elaborated-type-specifier} \\
\quad \text{typename-specifier} \\
\quad \text{cv-qualifier}
\]

\[
\text{type-specifier-seq:} \\
\quad \text{type-specifier type-specifier-seq}_{\text{opt}}
\]

\[
\text{trailing-type-specifier-seq:} \\
\quad \text{trailing-type-specifier trailing-type-specifier-seq}_{\text{opt}}
\]

2 As a general rule, at most one type-specifier is allowed in the complete decl-specifier-seq of a declaration or in a type-specifier-seq or trailing-type-specifier-seq. The only exceptions to this rule are the following:

- const can be combined with any type specifier except itself.
- volatile can be combined with any type specifier except itself.
- signed or unsigned can be combined with char, long, short, or int.
- short or long can be combined with int.
- long can be combined with double.
- long can be combined with long.

3 At least one type-specifier that is not a cv-qualifier is required in a declaration unless it declares a constructor, destructor or conversion function.\(^{88}\) A type-specifier-seq shall not define a class or enumeration unless it appears in the type-id of an alias-declaration (7.1.3).

4 [Note: class-specifiers and enum-specifiers are discussed in Clause 9 and 7.2, respectively. The remaining type-specifiers are discussed in the rest of this section. — end note]

7.1.6.1 The cv-qualifiers

1 There are two cv-qualifiers, const and volatile. If a cv-qualifier appears in a decl-specifier-seq, the init-declarator-list of the declaration shall not be empty. [Note: 3.9.3 and 8.3.5 describe how cv-qualifiers affect object and function types. — end note] Redundant cv-qualifications are ignored. [Note: for example, these could be introduced by typedefs. — end note]

2 An object declared in namespace scope with a const-qualified type has internal linkage unless it is explicitly declared extern or unless it was previously declared to have external linkage. A variable of non-volatile const-qualified integral or enumeration type initialized by an integral constant expression can be used in integral constant expressions (5.19). [Note: as described in 8.5, the definition of an object or subobject of const-qualified type must specify an initializer or be subject to default-initialization. — end note]

3 A pointer or reference to a cv-qualified type need not actually point or refer to a cv-qualified object, but it is treated as if it does; a const-qualified access path cannot be used to modify an object even if the object

---

\(^{88}\) There is no special provision for a decl-specifier-seq that lacks a type-specifier or that has a type-specifier that only specifies cv-qualifiers. The “implicit int” rule of C is no longer supported.
referenced is a non-const object and can be modified through some other access path. [Note: cv-qualifiers are supported by the type system so that they cannot be subverted without casting (5.2.11). — end note]

4 Except that any class member declared mutable (7.1.1) can be modified, any attempt to modify a const object during its lifetime (3.8) results in undefined behavior. [Example:

```c
const int ci = 3; // cv-qualified (initialized as required)
ci = 4; // ill-formed: attempt to modify const

int i = 2;
const int* cip; // pointer to const int
cip = &i; // OK: cv-qualified access path to unqualified
*cip = 4; // ill-formed: attempt to modify through ptr to const

int* ip;
ip = const_cast<int*>(cip); // cast needed to convert const int* to int*
*ip = 4; // defined: *ip points to i, a non-const object

const int* ciq = new const int (3); // initialized as required
int* iq = const_cast<int*>(ciq); // cast required
*iq = 4; // undefined: modifies a const object
```

5 For another example

```c
struct X {
    mutable int i;
    int j;
};
struct Y {
    X x;
    Y();
};

const Y y;
y.x.i++; // well-formed: mutable member can be modified
y.x.j++; // ill-formed: const-qualified member modified
Y* p = const_cast<Y*>(&y); // cast away const-ness of y
p->x.i = 99; // well-formed: mutable member can be modified
p->x.j = 99; // undefined: modifies a const member
```

— end example]

6 If an attempt is made to refer to an object defined with a volatile-qualified type through the use of an lvalue with a non-volatile-qualified type, the program behavior is undefined.

7 [Note: volatile is a hint to the implementation to avoid aggressive optimization involving the object because the value of the object might be changed by means undetectable by an implementation. See 1.9 for detailed semantics. In general, the semantics of volatile are intended to be the same in C++ as they are in C. — end note]

### 7.1.6.2 Simple type specifiers

The simple type specifiers are

§ 7.1.6.2
The **auto** specifier is a placeholder for a type to be deduced (7.1.6.4). The other **simple-type-specifiers** specify either a previously-declared user-defined type or one of the fundamental types (3.9.1). Table 9 summarizes the valid combinations of **simple-type-specifiers** and the types they specify.

Table 9 — **simple-type-specifiers** and the types they specify

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specifier(s)</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>type-name</code></td>
<td>the type named</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>simple-template-id</code></td>
<td>the type as defined in 14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char</td>
<td>“char”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned char</td>
<td>“unsigned char”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>signed char</td>
<td>“signed char”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char16_t</td>
<td>“char16_t”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char32_t</td>
<td>“char32_t”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bool</td>
<td>“bool”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned</td>
<td>“unsigned int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>signed</td>
<td>“int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>“int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned short int</td>
<td>“unsigned short int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned short</td>
<td>“unsigned short int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned long int</td>
<td>“unsigned long int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned long</td>
<td>“unsigned long int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned long long int</td>
<td>“unsigned long long int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned long long</td>
<td>“unsigned long long int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>signed long int</td>
<td>“long int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>signed long</td>
<td>“long int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>signed long long int</td>
<td>“long long int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>signed long long</td>
<td>“long long int”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

§ 7.1.6.2
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specifier(s)</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>long long int</td>
<td>“long long int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long long</td>
<td>“long long int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long int</td>
<td>“long int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>“long int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>signed short int</td>
<td>“short int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>signed short</td>
<td>“short int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short int</td>
<td>“short int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>“short int”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wchar_t</td>
<td>“wchar_t”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float</td>
<td>“float”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>double</td>
<td>“double”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long double</td>
<td>“long double”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>void</td>
<td>“void”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auto</td>
<td>placeholder for a type to be deduced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decltype(expression)</td>
<td>the type as defined below</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 When multiple *simple-type-specifiers* are allowed, they can be freely intermixed with other *decl-specifiers* in any order. [Note: It is implementation-defined whether objects of *char* type and certain bit-fields (9.6) are represented as signed or unsigned quantities. The *signed* specifier forces *char* objects and bit-fields to be signed; it is redundant in other contexts. — end note]

4 The type denoted by *decltype(e)* is defined as follows:

- if *e* is an unparenthesized *id-expression* or a class member access (5.2.5), *decltype(e)* is the type of the entity named by *e*. If there is no such entity, or if *e* names a set of overloaded functions, the program is ill-formed;
- otherwise, if *e* is a function call (5.2.2) or an invocation of an overloaded operator (parentheses around *e* are ignored), *decltype(e)* is the return type of the statically chosen function;
- otherwise, if *e* is an lvalue, *decltype(e)* is *T&*, where *T* is the type of *e*;
- otherwise, *decltype(e)* is the type of *e*.

The operand of the *decltype* specifier is an unevaluated operand (Clause 5).

[Example:]

```c
const int&& foo();
int i;
struct A { double x; };
const A* a = new A();
decltype(foo()) x1; // type is const int&
decltype(i) x2; // type is int
decltype(a->x) x3; // type is double
decltype((a->x)) x4; // type is const double&
```

— end example]
7.1.6.3 Elaborated type specifiers

elaborated-type-specifier:
  class-key :: opt nested-name-specifier opt identifier
  class-key :: opt nested-name-specifier opt template opt simple-template-id
  enum :: opt nested-name-specifier opt identifier

1 If an elaborated-type-specifier is the sole constituent of a declaration, the declaration is ill-formed unless it is an explicit specialization (14.8.3), an explicit instantiation (14.8.2) or it has one of the following forms:

   class-key identifier attribute-specifier opt ;
   friend class-key :: opt identifier ;
   friend class-key :: opt simple-template-id ;
   friend class-key :: opt nested-name-specifier identifier ;
   friend class-key :: opt nested-name-specifier template opt simple-template-id ;

In the first case, the attribute-specifier, if any, appertains to the class being declared; the attributes in the attribute-specifier are thereafter considered attributes of the class whenever it is named.

2 3.4.4 describes how name lookup proceeds for the identifier in an elaborated-type-specifier. If the identifier resolves to a class-name or enum-name, the elaborated-type-specifier introduces it into the declaration the same way a simple-type-specifier introduces its type-name. If the identifier resolves to a typedef-name, the elaborated-type-specifier is ill-formed. [Note: this implies that, within a class template with a template type-parameter T, the declaration

   friend class T;

is ill-formed. However, the similar declaration friend T; is allowed (11.4). — end note]

3 The class-key or enum keyword present in the elaborated-type-specifier shall agree in kind with the declaration to which the name in the elaborated-type-specifier refers. This rule also applies to the form of elaborated-type-specifier that declares a class-name or friend class since it can be construed as referring to the definition of the class. Thus, in any elaborated-type-specifier, the enum keyword shall be used to refer to an enumeration (7.2), the union class-key shall be used to refer to a union (Clause 9), and either the class or struct class-key shall be used to refer to a class (Clause 9) declared using the class or struct class-key. [Example:

   enum class E { a, b ;
   enum E x = E::a; // OK

— end example]

7.1.6.4 auto specifier

1 The auto type-specifier signifies that the type of a variable or reference being declared shall be deduced from its initializer or that a function declarator shall include a trailing-return-type.

2 The auto type-specifier may appear with a function declarator with a trailing-return-type (8.3.5) in any context where such a declarator is valid, and the use of auto is replaced by the type specified at the end of the declarator.

3 Otherwise, the type of the object is deduced from its initializer. The name of the object being declared shall not appear in the initializer expression. This use of auto is allowed when declaring objects in a block (6.3), in namespace scope (3.3.6), and in a for-init-statement (6.5.3). The decl-specifier-seq shall be followed by one or more init-declarators, each of which shall have a non-empty initializer. [Example:
The `auto` type-specifier can also be used in declaring an object in the condition of a selection statement (6.4) or an iteration statement (6.5), in the type-specifier-seq in the new-type-id or type-id of a new-expression (5.3.4), in a for-range-declaration, and in declaring a static data member with a brace-or-equal-initializer that appears within the member-specification of a class definition (9.4.2).

A program that uses `auto` in a context not explicitly allowed in this section is ill-formed.

Once the type of a declarator-id has been determined according to 8.3, the type of the declared variable using the declarator-id is determined from the type of its initializer using the rules for template argument deduction. Let T be the type that has been determined for a variable identifier d. Obtain P from T by replacing the occurrences of `auto` with either a new invented type template parameter U or, if the initializer is a braced-init-list (8.5.4), with `std::initializer_list<U>`. The type deduced for the variable d is then the deduced type determined using the rules of template argument deduction from a function call (14.9.2.1), where P is a function template parameter type and the initializer for d is the corresponding argument. If the deduction fails, the declaration is ill-formed. [Example:

```cpp
auto x1 = { 1, 2 }; // decltype(x1) is std::initializer_list<int>
auto x2 = { 1, 2.0 }; // error: cannot deduce element type
```

— end example]

If the list of declarators contains more than one declarator, the type of each declared variable is determined as described above. If the type deduced for the template parameter U is not the same in each deduction, the program is ill-formed. [Example:

```cpp
const auto &i = expr;
```

The type of i is the deduced type of the parameter u in the call f(expr) of the following invented function template:

```cpp
template <class U> void f(const U& u);
```

— end example]

### 7.2 Enumeration declarations  [dcl.enum]

An enumeration is a distinct type (3.9.1) with named constants. Its name becomes an `enum-name`, within its scope.

- `enum-name: identifier`
- `enum-specifier:
  - enum-head { enumerator-list_opt }
  - enum-head { enumerator-list , }
- `enum-head:
  - enum-key identifier_opt attribute-specifier_opt enum-base_opt attribute-specifier_opt
  - enum-key nested-name-specifier identifier
  - attribute-specifier_opt enum-base_opt attribute-specifier_opt

§ 7.2 149
opaque-enum-declaration:
  enum-key identifier attribute-specifier\_opt enum-base\_opt attribute-specifier\_opt ;

enum-key:
  enum
  enum class
  enum struct

enum-base:
  : type-specifier-seq

enumerator-list:
  enumerator-definition
  enumerator-list , enumerator-definition

enumerator-definition:
  enumerator
  enumerator = constant-expression

denotes the first optional attribute-specifier in the enum-head and the opaque-enum-declaration appertains to the enumeration; the attributes in that attribute-specifier are thereafter considered attributes of the enumeration whenever it is named. The second optional attribute-specifier in the enum-head and the opaque-enum-declaration shall appear only if the enum-base is present; it appertains to the enum-base.

The enumeration type declared with an enum-key of only enum is an unscoped enumeration, and its enumerators are unscoped enumerators. The enum-keys enum class and enum struct are semantically equivalent; an enumeration type declared with one of these is a scoped enumeration, and its enumerators are scoped enumerators. The optional identifier shall not be omitted in the declaration of a scoped enumeration. The type-specifier-seq of an enum-base shall name an integral type; any cv-qualification is ignored. An opaque-enum-declaration declaring an unscoped enumeration shall not omit the enum-base. The identifiers in an enumerator-list are declared as constants, and can appear wherever constants are required. An enumerator-definition with = gives the associated enumerator the value indicated by the constant-expression. The constant-expression shall be an integral constant expression (5.19). If the first enumerator has no initializer, the value of the corresponding constant is zero. An enumerator-definition without an initializer gives the enumerator the value obtained by increasing the value of the previous enumerator by one.

[ Example:
  enum { a, b, c=0 };
  enum { d, e, f=e+2 };

defines a, c, and d to be zero, b and e to be 1, and f to be 3. — end example]

An opaque-enum-declaration is either a redeclaration of an enumeration in the current scope or a declaration of a new enumeration. [Note: an enumeration declared by an opaque-enum-declaration has fixed underlying type and is a complete type. The list of enumerators can be provided in a later redeclaration with an enum-specifier. — end note] A scoped enumeration shall not be later redeclared as unscoped or with a different underlying type. An unscoped enumeration shall not be later redeclared as scoped and each redeclaration shall include an enum-base specifying the same underlying type as in the original declaration.

If the enum-key is followed by a nested-name-specifier, the enum-specifier shall refer to an enumeration that was previously declared directly in the class or namespace to which the nested-name-specifier refers (i.e., neither inherited nor introduced by a using-declaration), and the enum-specifier shall appear in a namespace enclosing the previous declaration.

Each enumeration defines a type that is different from all other types. Each enumeration also has an underlying type. The underlying type can be explicitly specified using enum-base; if not explicitly specified,
the underlying type of a scoped enumeration type is int. In these cases, the underlying type is said to be fixed. Following the closing brace of an enum-specifier, each enumerator has the type of its enumeration. If the underlying type is fixed, the type of each enumerator prior to the closing brace is the underlying type; if the initializing value of an enumerator cannot be represented by the underlying type, the program is ill-formed. If the underlying type is not fixed, the type of each enumerator is the type of its initializing value:

- If an initializer is specified for an enumerator, the initializing value has the same type as the expression.
- If no initializer is specified for the first enumerator, the initializing value has an unspecified integral type.
- Otherwise the type of the initializing value is the same as the type of the initializing value of the preceding enumerator unless the incremented value is not representable in that type, in which case the type is an unspecified integral type sufficient to contain the incremented value. If no such type exists, the program is ill-formed.

For an enumeration whose underlying type is not fixed, the underlying type is an integral type that can represent all the enumerator values defined in the enumeration. If no integral type can represent all the enumerator values, the enumeration is ill-formed. It is implementation-defined which integral type is used as the underlying type except that the underlying type shall not be larger than int unless the value of an enumerator cannot fit in an int or unsigned int. If the enumerator-list is empty, the underlying type is as if the enumeration had a single enumerator with value 0.

For an enumeration whose underlying type is fixed, the values of the enumeration are the values of the underlying type. Otherwise, for an enumeration where \( e_{\text{min}} \) is the smallest enumerator and \( e_{\text{max}} \) is the largest, the values of the enumeration are the values in the range \( b_{\text{min}} \) to \( b_{\text{max}} \), defined as follows: Let \( K \) be 1 for a two's complement representation and 0 for a one's complement or sign-magnitude representation. \( b_{\text{max}} \) is the smallest value greater than or equal to \( \max(|e_{\text{min}}| - K, |e_{\text{max}}|) \) and equal to \( 2^M - 1 \), where \( M \) is a non-negative integer. \( b_{\text{min}} \) is zero if \( e_{\text{min}} \) is non-negative and \(- (b_{\text{max}} + K)\) otherwise. The size of the smallest bit-field large enough to hold all the values of the enumeration type is \( \max(M, 1) \) if \( b_{\text{min}} \) is zero and \( M + 1 \) otherwise. It is possible to define an enumeration that has values not defined by any of its enumerators. If the enumerator-list is empty, the values of the enumeration are as if the enumeration had a single enumerator with value 0.

Two enumeration types are layout-compatible if they have the same underlying type.

The value of an enumerator or an object of an unscoped enumeration type is converted to an integer by integral promotion (4.5). [Example:

```c
enum color { red, yellow, green=20, blue };  
color col = red;  
color* cp = &col;  
if (*cp == blue)     // ...
```

makes color a type describing various colors, and then declares col as an object of that type, and cp as a pointer to an object of that type. The possible values of an object of type color are red, yellow, green, blue; these values can be converted to the integral values 0, 1, 20, and 21. Since enumerations are distinct types, objects of type color can be assigned only values of type color.

```c
color c = 1;   // error: type mismatch,  
               // no conversion from int to color

int i = yellow;  // OK: yellow converted to integral value 1  
                 // integral promotion
```

§ 7.2
Note that this implicit `enum` to `int` conversion is not provided for a scoped enumeration:

```cpp
typedef enum class Col { red, yellow, green }; // error: no Col to int conversion
int x = Col::red;
Col y = Col::red;
if (y) {} // error: no Col to bool conversion

— end example |
```

An expression of arithmetic or enumeration type can be converted to an enumeration type explicitly. The value is unchanged if it is in the range of enumeration values of the enumeration type; otherwise the resulting enumeration value is unspecified.

```
Each `enum-name` and each unscoped `enumerator` is declared in the scope that immediately contains the `enum-specifier`. Each scoped `enumerator` is declared in the scope of the enumeration. These names obey the scope rules defined for all names in (3.3) and (3.4). [Example:

```cpp
typedef enum direction { left='l', right='r' };
void g() {
    direction d; // OK
d = left; // OK
d = direction::right; // OK
}
typedef enum class altitude { high='h', low='l' };
void h() {
    altitude a; // OK
    a = high; // error: high not in scope
    a = altitude::low; // OK
}
— end example |
```

An enumerator declared in class scope can be referred to using the class member access operators (::, . (dot) and -> (arrow)), see 5.2.5. [Example:

```cpp
typedef struct X {
    enum direction { left='l', right='r' };
    int f(int i) { return i==left ? 0 : i==right ? 1 : 2; }
};
void g(X* p) {
    direction d; // error: direction not in scope
    int i;
i = p->f(left); // error: left not in scope
    i = p->f(X::right); // OK
    i = p->f(p->left); // OK
    // ...
}
— end example |
```

### 7.3 Namespaces [basic.namespace]

A namespace is an optionally-named declarative region. The name of a namespace can be used to access entities declared in that namespace; that is, the members of the namespace. Unlike other declarative regions, the definition of a namespace can be split over several parts of one or more translation units.

§ 7.3
The outermost declarative region of a translation unit is a namespace; see 3.3.6.

### 7.3.1 Namespace definition

The grammar for a `namespace-definition` is

```plaintext
namespace-name:
  original-namespace-name
  namespace-alias

original-namespace-name:
  identifier

namespace-definition:
  named-namespace-definition
  unnamed-namespace-definition

named-namespace-definition:
  original-namespace-definition
  extension-namespace-definition

original-namespace-definition:
  inline_opt namespace identifier { namespace-body }

extension-namespace-definition:
  inline_opt namespace original-namespace-name { namespace-body }

unnamed-namespace-definition:
  inline_opt namespace { namespace-body }

namespace-body:
  declaration-seq_opt
```

1 The `identifier` in an `original-namespace-definition` shall not have been previously defined in the declarative region in which the `original-namespace-definition` appears. The `identifier` in an `original-namespace-definition` is the name of the namespace. Subsequently in that declarative region, it is treated as an `original-namespace-name`.

2 Every `namespace-definition` shall appear in the global scope or in a namespace scope (3.3.6).

3 Because a `namespace-definition` contains declarations in its `namespace-body` and a `namespace-definition` is itself a declaration, it follows that `namespace-definitions` can be nested.

4 The `enclosing namespaces` of a declaration are those namespaces in which the declaration lexically appears, except for a redeclaration of a namespace member outside its original namespace (e.g., a definition as specified in 7.3.1.2). Such a redeclaration has the same `enclosing namespaces` as the original declaration.

§ 7.3.1
namespace Q {
    namespace V {
        void f(); // enclosing namespaces are the global namespace, Q, and Q::V
        class C { void m(); }
    }
    void V::f() { // enclosing namespaces are the global namespace, Q, and Q::V
        extern void h(); // ... so this declares Q::V::h
    }
    void V::C::m() { // enclosing namespaces are the global namespace, Q, and Q::V
    }
}

— end example —

7 If the optional initial inline keyword appears in a namespace-definition for a particular namespace, that namespace is declared to be an inline namespace. The inline keyword may be used on an extension namespace-definition only if it was previously used on the original namespace-definition for that namespace.

8 Members of an inline namespace can be used in most respects as though they were members of the enclosing namespace. Specifically, the inline namespace and its enclosing namespace are considered to be associated namespaces (3.4.2) of one another, both added to the set of associated namespaces used in argument-dependent lookup (3.4.2) whenever one of them is, and a using-directive (7.3.4) that names the inline namespace is implicitly inserted into the enclosing namespace as for an unnamed namespace (7.3.1.1). Furthermore, each member of the inline namespace can subsequently be explicitly instantiated (14.8.2) or explicitly specialized (14.8.3) as though it were a member of the enclosing namespace. Finally, looking up a name in the enclosing namespace via explicit qualification (3.4.3.2) will include members of the inline namespace brought in by the using-directive even if there are declarations of that name in the enclosing namespace.

9 These properties are transitive: if a namespace N contains an inline namespace M, which in turn contains an inline namespace O, then the members of O can be used as though they were members of M or N. The set of namespaces consisting of the innermost non-inline namespace enclosing an inline namespace O, together with any intervening inline namespaces, is the enclosing namespace set of O.

7.3.1.1 Unnamed namespaces

An unnamed namespace-definition behaves as if it were replaced by

    inline opt namespace unique { /* empty body */ }
    using namespace unique;
    namespace unique { namespace-body }

where inline appears if and only if it appears in the unnamed namespace-definition, all occurrences of unique in a translation unit are replaced by the same identifier, and this identifier differs from all other identifiers in the entire program.²⁹ [Example:

```
namespace { int i; } // unique :: i
void f() { i++; } // unique :: i++
```

```
namespace A {
    namespace { int i; } // unique :: i
    int j; // unique :: j
}
```

²⁹ Although entities in an unnamed namespace might have external linkage, they are effectively qualified by a name unique to their translation unit and therefore can never be seen from any other translation unit.
void g() { i++; } // A:: unique :: i++
}

using namespace A;
void h() {
  i++;                // error: unique :: i or A:: unique :: i
  A::i++;            // A:: unique :: i
  j++;               // A:: unique :: j
}

— end example]

2 The use of the static keyword is deprecated when declaring objects in a namespace scope (see annex D); the unnamed-namespace provides a superior alternative.

7.3.1.2 Namespace member definitions [namespace.memdef]

1 Members (including explicit specializations of templates (14.8.3)) of a namespace can be defined within that namespace. [Example:

    namespace X {
        void f() { /* ... */ }
    }

— end example]

2 Members (including explicit specializations of templates (14.8.3)) of a named namespace can also be defined outside that namespace by explicit qualification (3.4.3.2) of the name being defined, provided that the entity being defined was already declared in the namespace and the definition appears after the point of declaration in a namespace that encloses the declaration’s namespace. [Example:

    namespace Q {
        namespace V {
            void f();
        }
        void V::f() { /* ... */ } // OK
        void V::g() { /* ... */ } // error: g() is not yet a member of V
        namespace V {
            void g();
        }
    }

    namespace R {
        void Q::V::g() { /* ... */ } // error: R doesn’t enclose Q
    }

— end example]

3 Every name first declared in a namespace is a member of that namespace. If a friend declaration in a non-local class first declares a class or function the friend class or function is a member of the innermost enclosing namespace. The name of the friend is not found by unqualified lookup (3.4.1) or by qualified lookup (3.4.3) until a matching declaration is provided in that namespace scope (either before or after the class definition granting friendship). If a friend function is called, its name may be found by the name lookup that considers functions from namespaces and classes associated with the types of the function arguments (3.4.2). If the

90) this implies that the name of the class or function is unqualified.
name in a friend declaration is neither qualified nor a template-id and the declaration is a function or an elaborated-type-specifier, the lookup to determine whether the entity has been previously declared shall not consider any scopes outside the innermost enclosing namespace. [Note: the other forms of friend declarations cannot declare a new member of the innermost enclosing namespace and thus follow the usual lookup rules. — end note] [Example:

```cpp
// Assume f and g have not yet been defined.
void h(int);
template <class T> void f2(T);
namespace A {
  class X {
    friend void f(X);    // A::f(X) is a friend
  };
  class Y {
    friend void g();    // A::g is a friend
    friend void h(int); // A::h is a friend
    friend void f2<(int)>; // ::f2<(int)> is a friend
  };

  // A::f, A::g and A::h are not visible here
  X x;
  void g() { f(x); }    // definition of A::g
  void f(X) { /* ... */} // definition of A::f
  void h(int) { /* ... */} // definition of A::h
  // A::f, A::g and A::h are visible here and known to be friends
};

using A::x;

void h() {
  A::f(x);
  A::X::f(x);    // error: f is not a member of A::X
  A::X::Y::g(); // error: g is not a member of A::X::Y
}

— end example]

7.3.2 Namespace alias

A namespace-alias-definition declares an alternate name for a namespace according to the following grammar:

```cpp
namespace-alias-definition:
  identifier

namespace-alias-definition:
  namespace identifier = qualified-namespace-specifier;

qualified-namespace-specifier:
  ::opt nested-name-specifier opt namespace-name
```

1 The identifier in a namespace-alias-definition is a synonym for the name of the namespace denoted by the qualified-namespace-specifier and becomes a namespace-alias. [Note: when looking up a namespace-name in a namespace-alias-definition, only namespace names are considered, see 3.4.6. — end note]

2 In a declarative region, a namespace-alias-definition can be used to redefine a namespace-alias declared in that declarative region to refer only to the namespace to which it already refers. [Example: the following declarations are well-formed:
namespace Company_with_very_long_name { /* ... */ }
namespace CWVLN = Company_with_very_long_name;
namespace CWVLN = Company_with_very_long_name; // OK: duplicate
namespace CWVLN = CWVLN;

/* end example */

4 A namespace-name or namespace-alias shall not be declared as the name of any other entity in the same declarative region. A namespace-name defined at global scope shall not be declared as the name of any other entity in any global scope of the program. No diagnostic is required for a violation of this rule by declarations in different translation units.

7.3.3 The using declaration [namespace.udecl]

1 A using-declaration introduces a name into the declarative region in which the using-declaration appears.

```
using-declaration:
    using typename_opt ::opt nested-name-specifier unqualified-id ;
    using :: unqualified-id ;
```

The member name specified in a using-declaration is declared in the declarative region in which the using-declaration appears. [Note: only the specified name is so declared; specifying an enumeration name in a using-declaration does not declare its enumerators in the using-declaration’s declarative region. — end note]

If a using-declaration names a constructor (3.4.3.1), it implicitly declares a set of constructors in the class in which the using-declaration appears (12.9); otherwise the name specified in a using-declaration is a synonym for the name of some entity declared elsewhere.

2 Every using-declaration is a declaration and a member-declaration and so can be used in a class definition. [Example:

```
struct B {
    void f(char);
    void g(char);
    enum E { e };
    union { int x; };
};

struct D : B {
    using B::f;
    void f(int) { f('c'); } // calls B::f(char)
    void g(int) { g('c'); } // recursively calls D::g(int)
};

— end example ]
```

3 In a using-declaration used as a member-declaration, the nested-name-specifier shall name a base class of the class being defined. If such a using-declaration names a constructor, the nested-name-specifier shall name a direct base class of the class being defined; otherwise it introduces the set of declarations found by member name lookup (10.2, 3.4.3.1). [Example:

```
class C {
    int g();
};

class D2 : public B {
    using B::f; // OK: B is a base of D2
    using B::e; // OK: e is an enumerator of base B
```
using B::x;  // OK: x is a union member of base B
using C::g;  // error: C isn't a base of D2
};

— end example]

4 [ Note: Since destructors do not have names, a using-declaration cannot refer to a destructor for a base class. Since specializations of member templates for conversion functions are not found by name lookup, they are not considered when a using-declaration specifies a conversion function (14.6.2). — end note] If an assignment operator brought from a base class into a derived class scope has the signature of a copy-assignment operator for the derived class (12.8), the using-declaration does not by itself suppress the implicit declaration of the derived class copy-assignment operator; the copy-assignment operator from the base class is hidden or overridden by the implicitly-declared copy-assignment operator of the derived class, as described below.

5 A using-declaration shall not name a template-id. [Example:

struct A {
    template <class T> void f(T);
    template <class T> struct X { };  
};
struct B : A {
    using A::f<double>;  // ill-formed
    using A::X<int>;  // ill-formed
};

— end example]

6 A using-declaration shall not name a namespace.

7 A using-declaration shall not name a scoped enumerator.

8 A using-declaration for a class member shall be a member-declaration. [Example:

struct X {
    int i;
    static int s;
};

void f() {
    using X::i;  // error: X::i is a class member
    // and this is not a member declaration.
    using X::s;  // error: X::s is a class member
    // and this is not a member declaration.
}

— end example]

9 Members declared by a using-declaration can be referred to by explicit qualification just like other member names (3.4.3.2). In a using-declaration, a prefix :: refers to the global namespace. [Example:

void f();

namespace A {
    void g();
}

namespace X {

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using ::f; // global f
using A::g; // A's g
}

void h()
{
    X::f(); // calls ::f
    X::g(); // calls A::g
}

— end example]

10 A using-declaration is a declaration and can therefore be used repeatedly where (and only where) multiple declarations are allowed. [Example:

namespace A {
    int i;
}

namespace A1 {
    using A::i;
    using A::i; // OK: double declaration
}

void f() {
    using A::i;
    using A::i; // error: double declaration
}

struct B {
    int i;
};

struct X : B {
    using B::i;
    using B::i; // error: double member declaration
};

— end example]

11 The entity declared by a using-declaration shall be known in the context using it according to its definition at the point of the using-declaration. Definitions added to the namespace after the using-declaration are not considered when a use of the name is made. [Example:

namespace A {
    void f(int);
}

using A::f; // f is a synonym for A::f;
// that is, for A::f(int).

namespace A {
    void f(char);
}

void foo() {
    f('a'); // calls f(int),

§ 7.3.3
void bar() { // even though f(char) exists.
    using A::f;  // f is a synonym for A::f;
    // that is, for A::f(int) and A::f(char).
    f('a');     // calls f(char)
}

— end example ]

12 [ Note: partial specializations of class templates are found by looking up the primary class template and then considering all partial specializations of that template. If a using-declaration names a class template, partial specializations introduced after the using-declaration are effectively visible because the primary template is visible (14.6.5). — end note ]

13 Since a using-declaration is a declaration, the restrictions on declarations of the same name in the same declarative region (3.3) also apply to using-declarations. [ Example:

```cpp
namespace A {
    int x;
}

namespace B {
    int i;
    struct g { };
    struct x { };
    void f(int);
    void f(double);
    void g(char);   // OK: hides struct g
}

void func() {
    int i;
    using B::i;      // error: i declared twice
    void f(char);
    using B::f;      // OK: each f is a function
    f(3.5);         // calls B::f(double)
    using B::g;
    g('a');         // calls B::g(char)
    struct g g1;   // g1 has class type B::g
    using B::x;
    using A::x;     // OK: hides struct B::x
    x = 99;        // assigns to A::x
    struct x x1;   // x1 has class type B::x
}

— end example ]

14 If a function declaration in namespace scope or block scope has the same name and the same parameter types as a function introduced by a using-declaration, and the declarations do not declare the same function, the program is ill-formed. [ Note: two using-declarations may introduce functions with the same name and the same parameter types. If, for a call to an unqualified function name, function overload resolution selects the functions introduced by such using-declarations, the function call is ill-formed. [ Example:

```cpp
namespace B {
    void f(int);
```
void f(double);
}
namespace C {
    void f(int);
    void f(double);
    void f(char);
}

void h() {
    using B::f;
    // B::f(int) and B::f(double)
    using C::f;
    // C::f(int), C::f(double), and C::f(char)
    f('h');
    // calls C::f(char)
    f(1);
    // error: ambiguous: B::f(int) or C::f(int) ?
    void f(int);  // error: f(int) conflicts with C::f(int) and B::f(int)
}

— end example — end note]

When a using-declaration brings names from a base class into a derived class scope, member functions and
member function templates in the derived class override and/or hide member functions and member function
templates with the same name, parameter-type-list (8.3.5), and cv-qualification, and ref-qualifier (if any)
in a base class (rather than conflicting). [Note: For using-declarations that name a constructor, see 12.9.
— end note] [Example:

struct B {  
    virtual void f(int);
    virtual void f(char);
    void g(int);
    void h(int);
};

struct D : B {
    using B::f;
    void f(int);  // OK: D::f(int) overrides B::f(int);

    using B::g;
    void g(char);  // OK

    using B::h;
    void h(int);  // OK: D::h(int) hides B::h(int)
};

void k(D* p) {
    p->f(1);  // calls D::f(int)
    p->f('a');  // calls B::f(char)
    p->g(1);  // calls B::g(int)
    p->g('a');  // calls D::g(char)
}

— end example]

For the purpose of overload resolution, the functions which are introduced by a using-declaration into a
derived class will be treated as though they were members of the derived class. In particular, the implicit
this parameter shall be treated as if it were a pointer to the derived class rather than to the base class.

§ 7.3.3
This has no effect on the type of the function, and in all other respects the function remains a member of the base class.

17 The access rules for inheriting constructors are specified in 12.9; otherwise all instances of the name mentioned in a using-declaration shall be accessible. In particular, if a derived class uses a using-declaration to access a member of a base class, the member name shall be accessible. If the name is that of an overloaded member function, then all functions named shall be accessible. The base class members mentioned by a using-declaration shall be visible in the scope of at least one of the direct base classes of the class where the using-declaration is specified. [Note: because a using-declaration designates a base class member (and not a member subobject or a member function of a base class subobject), a using-declaration cannot be used to resolve inherited member ambiguities. For example,

```c
struct A { int x(); };  
struct B : A { };  
struct C : A {    
  using A::x;    
  int x(int);};  

struct D : B, C {    
  using C::x;    
  int x(double);};  
int f(D* d) {    
  return d->x();  // ambiguous: B::x or C::x}
```

—end note]

18 The alias created by the using-declaration has the usual accessibility for a member-declaration. [Note: A using-declaration that names a constructor does not create aliases; see 12.9 for the pertinent accessibility rules. —end note] [Example:

```c
class A {    
  private:    
    void f(char);    
  public:    
    void f(int);    
  protected:    
    void g();    
};

class B : public A {    
  using A::f;  // error: A::f(char) is inaccessible
  public:    
    using A::g;  // B::g is a public synonym for A::g
};

—end example]

19 [Note: use of access-declarations (11.3) is deprecated; member using-declarations provide a better alternative. —end note]
If a using-declaration uses the keyword typename and specifies a dependent name (14.7.2), the name introduced by the using-declaration is treated as a typedef-name (7.1.3).

7.3.4 Using directive

using-directive:
  attribute-specifier\opt using namespace ::\opt nested-name-specifier\opt namespace-name ;

1 A using-directive shall not appear in class scope, but may appear in namespace scope or in block scope. [Note: when looking up a namespace-name in a using-directive, only namespace names are considered, see 3.4.6. — end note] The optional attribute-specifier appertains to the using-directive.

2 A using-directive specifies that the names in the nominated namespace can be used in the scope in which the using-directive appears after the using-directive. During unqualified name lookup (3.4.1), the names appear as if they were declared in the nearest enclosing namespace which contains both the using-directive and the nominated namespace. [Note: in this context, “contains” means “contains directly or indirectly”. — end note]

3 A using-directive does not add any members to the declarative region in which it appears. [Example:

```cpp
namespace A {
  int i;
 namespace B {
    namespace C {
      int i;
    }
    using namespace A::B::C;
    void f1() {
      i = 5; // OK, C::i visible in B and hides A::i
    }
  }
}
namespace D {
  using namespace B;
  using namespace C;
  void f2() {
    i = 5; // ambiguous, B::C::i or A::i?
  }
  void f3() {
    i = 5; // uses A::i
  }
  void f4() {
    i = 5; // ill-formed; neither i is visible
  }

  // end example]
```

4 The using-directive is transitive: if a scope contains a using-directive that nominates a second namespace that itself contains using-directives, the effect is as if the using-directives from the second namespace also appeared in the first. [Example:

```cpp
namespace M {
  int i;
}
namespace N {

  // end example]
```

§ 7.3.4
int i;
using namespace M;
}

void f() {
using namespace N;
i = 7;  // error: both M::i and N::i are visible
}

For another example,
namespace A {
int i;
}
namespace B {
int i;
int j;
namespace C {
namespace D {
using namespace A;
int j;
int k;
int a = i;  // B::i hides A::i
}
using namespace D;
int k = 89;  // no problem yet
int l = k;  // ambiguous: C::k or D::k
int m = i;  // B::i hides A::i
int n = j;  // D::j hides B::j
}
}

— end example]

5 If a namespace is extended by an extension-namespace-definition after a using-directive for that namespace is given, the additional members of the extended namespace and the members of namespaces nominated by using-directives in the extension-namespace-definition can be used after the extension-namespace-definition.

6 If name lookup finds a declaration for a name in two different namespaces, and the declarations do not declare the same entity and do not declare functions, the use of the name is ill-formed. [Note: in particular, the name of an object, function or enumerator does not hide the name of a class or enumeration declared in a different namespace. For example,

namespace A {
class X { };  
extern "C" int g();  
extern "C++" int h();  
}
namespace B {
void X(int);  
extern "C" int g();  
extern "C++" int h(int);  
}
using namespace A;
using namespace B;

§ 7.3.4
void f() {
    X(1);  // error: name X found in two namespaces
    g();   // okay: name g refers to the same entity
    h();   // okay: overload resolution selects A::h
}

— end note

7 During overload resolution, all functions from the transitive search are considered for argument matching. The set of declarations found by the transitive search is unordered. [Note: in particular, the order in which namespaces were considered and the relationships among the namespaces implied by the using-directives do not cause preference to be given to any of the declarations found by the search. — end note] An ambiguity exists if the best match finds two functions with the same signature, even if one is in a namespace reachable through using-directives in the namespace of the other.\footnote{During name lookup in a class hierarchy, some ambiguities may be resolved by considering whether one member hides the other along some paths (10.2). There is no such disambiguation when considering the set of names found as a result of following using-directives.} [Example:

```cpp
namespace D {
    int d1;
    void f(char);
}
using namespace D;

int d1; // OK: no conflict with D::d1

namespace E {
    int e;
    void f(int);
}

namespace D { // namespace extension
    int d2;
    using namespace E;
    void f(int);
}

void f() {
    d1++;      // error: ambiguous ::d1 or D::d1?
    ::d1++;    // OK
    D::d1++;   // OK
    d2++;      // OK: D::d2
    e++;       // OK: E::e
    f(1);      // error: ambiguous: D::f(int) or E::f(int)?
    f('a');   // OK: D::f(char)
}

— end example]

7.4 The asm declaration

1 An asm declaration has the form

```
asm-definition:
    asm ( string-literal ) ;
```

\footnote{During name lookup in a class hierarchy, some ambiguities may be resolved by considering whether one member hides the other along some paths (10.2). There is no such disambiguation when considering the set of names found as a result of following using-directives.}
The `asm` declaration is conditionally-supported; its meaning is implementation-defined. 

*Note: Typically it is used to pass information through the implementation to an assembler. — end note*

## 7.5 Linkage specifications

1. All function types, function names with external linkage, and variable names with external linkage have a *language linkage*. 

```
[Note: Some of the properties associated with an entity with language linkage are specific to each implementation and are not described here. For example, a particular language linkage may be associated with a particular form of representing names of objects and functions with external linkage, or with a particular calling convention, etc. — end note]
```

The default language linkage of all function types, function names, and variable names is C++ language linkage. Two function types with different language linkages are distinct types even if they are otherwise identical.

2. Linkage (3.5) between C++ and non-C++ code fragments can be achieved using a *linkage-specification*:

```
linkage-specification:
   extern string-literal { declaration-seq_opt }
   extern string-literal declaration
```

The *string-literal* indicates the required language linkage. This International Standard specifies the semantics for the *string-literals* "C" and "C++". Use of a *string-literal* other than "C" or "C++" is conditionally-supported, with implementation-defined semantics. 

```
[Note: Therefore, a linkage-specification with a string-literal that is unknown to the implementation requires a diagnostic. — end note]

[Note: It is recommended that the spelling of the string-literal be taken from the document defining that language. For example, Ada (not ADA) and Fortran or FORTRAN, depending on the vintage. — end note]
```

3. Every implementation shall provide for linkage to functions written in the C programming language, "C", and linkage to C++ functions, "C++". 

```
complex sqrt(complex); // C++ linkage by default
extern "C" {
   double sqrt(double); // C linkage
}
```

— end example

4. Linkage specifications nest. When linkage specifications nest, the innermost one determines the language linkage. A linkage specification does not establish a scope. A *linkage-specification* shall occur only in namespace scope (3.3). In a *linkage-specification*, the specified language linkage applies to the function types of all function declarators, function names with external linkage, and variable names with external linkage declared within the *linkage-specification*. 

```
extern "C" void f1(void(*pf)(int));
   // the name f1 and its function type have C language
   // linkage; pf is a pointer to a C function
extern "C" typedef void FUNC();
   // the name f2 has C++ language linkage and the
   // function’s type has C language linkage
FUNC f2;

extern "C" FUNC f3;
   // the name of function f3 and the function’s type
   // have C language linkage
void (*pf2)(FUNC*);
   // the name of the variable pf2 has C++ linkage and
   // the type of pf2 is pointer to C++ function that
   // takes one parameter of type pointer to C function

extern "C" {
   static void f4();
      // the name of the function f4 has
      // internal linkage (not C language
      // linkage) and the function’s type
```

§ 7.5
// has C language linkage.

extern "C" void f5() {
    extern void f4(); // OK: Name linkage (internal)
    // and function type linkage (C
    // language linkage) gotten from
    // previous declaration.
}

extern void f4(); // OK: Name linkage (internal)
// and function type linkage (C
// language linkage) gotten from
// previous declaration.

void f6() {
    extern void f4(); // OK: Name linkage (internal)
    // and function type linkage (C
    // language linkage) gotten from
    // previous declaration.
}

— end example —

A C language linkage is ignored for the names of class members and the member function type of class member functions. [Example:

extern "C" typedef void FUNC_c();
class C {
    void mf1(FUNC_c*);
    // the name of the function mf1 and the member
    // function's type have C++ language linkage; the
    // parameter has type pointer to C function
    FUNC_c mf2;
    // the name of the function mf2 and the member
    // function's type have C++ language linkage
    static FUNC_c* q;
    // the name of the data member q has C++ language
    // linkage and the data member’s type is pointer to
    // C function
};

extern "C" {
    class X {
    void mf();
    // the name of the function mf and the member
    // function's type have C++ language linkage
    void mf2(void(*)());
    // the name of the function mf2 has C++ language
    // linkage; the parameter has type pointer to
    // C function
    }
};

— end example —

5 If two declarations declare functions with the same name and parameter-type-list (8.3.5) to be members of
the same namespace or declare objects with the same name to be members of the same namespace and the
declarations give the names different language linkages, the program is ill-formed; no diagnostic is required
if the declarations appear in different translation units. Except for functions with C++ linkage, a function
declaration without a linkage specification shall not precede the first linkage specification for that function.
A function can be declared without a linkage specification after an explicit linkage specification has been seen; the linkage explicitly specified in the earlier declaration is not affected by such a function declaration.

At most one function with a particular name can have C language linkage. Two declarations for a function with C language linkage with the same function name (ignoring the namespace names that qualify it) that appear in different namespace scopes refer to the same function. Two declarations for an object with C language linkage with the same name (ignoring the namespace names that qualify it) that appear in different namespace scopes refer to the same object. [Note: because of the one definition rule (3.2), only one definition for a function or object with C linkage may appear in the program; that is, such a function or object must not be defined in more than one namespace scope. For example,

```cpp
namespace A {
    extern "C" int f();
    extern "C" int g() { return 1; }
    extern "C" int h();
}

namespace B {
    extern "C" int f(); // A::f and B::f refer
                         // to the same function
    extern "C" int g() { return 1; } // ill-formed, the function g
                                    // with C language linkage
                                     // has two definitions
}

int A::f() { return 98; } //definition for the function f
                         // with C language linkage
extern "C" int h() { return 97; } // definition for the function h
                                 // with C language linkage
                                 // A::h and ::h refer to the same function

— end note]

A declaration directly contained in a linkage-specification is treated as if it contains the `extern` specifier (7.1.1) for the purpose of determining the linkage of the declared name and whether it is a definition. Such a declaration shall not specify a storage class. [Example:

```cpp
extern "C" double f();
static double f(); // error
extern "C" int i; // declaration
extern "C" {
    int i;          // definition
}
extern "C" static void g(); // error

— end example]

[Note: because the language linkage is part of a function type, when a pointer to C function (for example) is dereferenced, the function to which it refers is considered a C function. — end note]

Linkage from C++ to objects defined in other languages and to objects defined in C++ from other languages is implementation-defined and language-dependent. Only where the object layout strategies of two language
implementations are similar enough can such linkage be achieved.

7.6 Attributes

7.6.1 Attribute syntax and semantics

Attributes specify additional information for various source constructs such as types, variables, names, blocks, or translation units.

```plaintext
attribute-specifier:
  [ [ attribute-list ] ]
attribute-list:
  attribute_opt
  attribute-list , attribute_opt
  attribute ...
  attribute-list , attribute ...
attribute:
  attribute-token attribute-argument-clause_opt
attribute-token:
  identifier
  attribute-scoped-token
attribute-scoped-token:
  attribute-namespace :: identifier
attribute-namespace:
  identifier
attribute-argument-clause:
  ( balanced-token-seq )
balanced-token-seq:
  balanced-token
  balanced-token-seq balanced-token
balanced-token:
  ( balanced-token-seq )
  [ balanced-token-seq ]
  { balanced-token-seq }
  any token other than a parenthesis, a bracket, or a brace
```

Note: For each individual attribute, the form of the balanced-token-seq will be specified. — end note]

In an attribute-list, an ellipsis may appear only if that attribute’s specification permits it. An attribute followed by an ellipsis is a pack expansion (14.6.3). An attribute-specifier that contains no attributes has no effect. The order in which the attribute-tokens appear in an attribute-list is not significant. A keyword (2.12) contained in an attribute-token is considered an identifier. No name lookup (3.4) is performed on any of the identifiers contained in an attribute-token. The attribute-token determines additional requirements on the attribute-argument-clause (if any). The use of an attribute-scoped-token is conditionally-supported, with implementation-defined behavior. [ Note: Each implementation should choose a distinctive name for the attribute-namespace in an attribute-scoped-token. — end note ]

Each attribute-specifier is said to appertain to some entity or statement, identified by the syntactic context where it appears (clause 7, clause 8). If an attribute-specifier that appertains to some entity or statement contains an attribute that does not apply to that entity or statement, the program is ill-formed. If an attribute-specifier appertains to a friend declaration (11.4), that declaration shall be a definition. No attribute-specifier shall appertain to an explicit instantiation (14.8.2).
5 For an attribute-token not specified in this International Standard, the behavior is implementation-defined.

7.6.2 Alignment attribute

1 The attribute-token align specifies alignment (3.11). The attribute shall have one of the following forms:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{align (type-id)} \\
&\text{align (assignment-expression)}
\end{align*}
\]

The attribute may be followed by an ellipsis. The attribute can be applied to a variable that is neither a function parameter nor declared with the register storage class specifier and to a class data member that is not a bit-field.

2 When the alignment attribute is of the form \text{align(assignment-expression)}:

\begin{itemize}
\item the assignment-expression shall be an integral constant expression
\item if the constant expression evaluates to a fundamental alignment, the alignment requirement of the declared object shall be the specified fundamental alignment
\item if the constant expression evaluates to an extended alignment and the implementation supports that alignment in the context of the declaration, the alignment of the declared object shall be that alignment
\item if the constant expression evaluates to an extended alignment and the implementation does not support that alignment in the context of the declaration, the program is ill-formed
\item if the constant expression evaluates to zero, the alignment specifier shall have no effect
\item otherwise, the program is ill-formed.
\end{itemize}

3 When the alignment attribute is of the form \text{align(type-id)}, it shall have the same effect as \text{align(\text{alignof(type-id)})} (5.3.6).

4 When multiple alignment attributes are specified for an object, the alignment requirement shall be set to the strictest specified alignment.

5 The combined effect of all alignment attributes in a declaration shall not specify an alignment that is less strict than the alignment that would otherwise be required for the object being declared.

6 If the defining declaration of an object has an alignment attribute, any non-defining declaration of that object shall either specify equivalent alignment or have no alignment attribute. No diagnostic is required if declarations of an object have different alignment attributes in different translation units.

7 [Example: An aligned buffer with an alignment requirement of \text{A} and holding \text{N} elements of type \text{T} other than \text{char}, \text{signed char}, or \text{unsigned char} can be declared as:

\[
\text{T buffer [[ align(T), align(A) ]] [N];}
\]

Specifying align(T) in the attribute-list ensures that the final requested alignment will not be weaker than alignof(T), and therefore the program will not be ill-formed. — end example]

8 [Note: the alignment of a union type can be strengthened by applying the alignment attribute to any non-static data member of the union. — end note]

9 [Example:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{void f [[ align(double) ]] ();} & &\text{// error: alignment applied to function} \\
&\text{unsigned char c} \\
&\text{[[ align(double) ]] [sizeof(double)];} & &\text{// array of characters, suitably aligned for a double} \\
&\text{extern unsigned char c[sizeof(double)];} & &\text{// no align necessary} \\
&\text{extern unsigned char c}
\end{align*}
\]

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7.6.3 Noreturn attribute

The attribute-token noreturn specifies that a function does not return. It shall appear at most once in each attribute-list and no attribute-argument-clause shall be present. The attribute applies to the declarator-id in a function declaration. The first declaration of a function shall specify the noreturn attribute if any declaration of that function specifies the noreturn attribute. If a function is declared with the noreturn attribute in one translation unit and the same function is declared without the noreturn attribute in another translation unit, the program is ill-formed; no diagnostic required.

If a function \( f \) is called where \( f \) was previously declared with the noreturn attribute and \( f \) eventually returns, the behavior is undefined. [Note: The function may terminate by throwing an exception. — end note] [Note: Implementations are encouraged to issue a warning if a function marked [[noreturn]] might return. — end note]

Example:

```c
void f [[ noreturn ]] () {
  throw "error";  // OK
}

void q [[ noreturn ]] (int i) {  // behavior is undefined if called with an argument <= 0
  if (i > 0)
    throw "positive";
}
```

7.6.4 Final attribute

The attribute-token final specifies overriding semantics for a virtual function. It shall appear at most once in each attribute-list and no attribute-argument-clause shall be present. The attribute applies to class definitions and to virtual member functions being declared in a class definition. If the attribute is specified for a class definition, it is equivalent to being specified for each virtual member function of that class, including inherited member functions.

If a virtual member function \( f \) in some class \( B \) is marked final and in a class \( D \) derived from \( B \) a function \( D::f \) overrides \( B::f \), the program is ill-formed.

Example:

```c
struct B {
  virtual void f [[ final ]] ();
};

struct D : B {
  void f();  // ill-formed
};
```
7.6.5 Class member name checking attributes [dcl.attr.override]

1 The attribute-token override asserts that a virtual member function overrides a function in a base class. It shall appear at most once in each attribute-list and no attribute-argument-clause shall be present. The attribute applies to virtual member functions being declared in a class definition.

2 If a virtual member function f is marked override and does not override (10.3) a member function of a base class the program is ill-formed.

3 The attribute-token hiding asserts that a class member name hides a name in a base class. It shall appear at most once in each attribute-list and no attribute-argument-clause shall be present. The attribute applies to class members being declared in a class definition.

4 If a class member is marked hiding and its name does not hide (3.3.10, 10.2) a class member name in a base class the program is ill-formed.

5 The attribute-token base_check specifies that overriding and hiding of base members is strictly checked within a class. It shall appear at most once in each attribute-list and no attribute-argument-clause shall be present. The attribute applies to a class definition.

6 In a class definition marked base_check, if a virtual member function that is neither implicitly-declared nor a destructor overrides (10.3) a member function of a base class and it is not marked override, the program is ill-formed. Similarly, in such a class definition, if a class member name other than that of an implicitly-declared special member function hides (3.3.10, 10.2) a class member name in a base class and it is not marked hiding, the program is ill-formed. [Note: a using-declaration makes the potentially hidden name visible, avoiding the need for the hiding attribute. — end note]

[Example:

```cpp
class B {
    virtual void some_func();
    virtual void f(int);
    virtual void h(int);
    void j(int);
    void k();
    typedef B self;
};

class D [[base_check]] : public B {
    void some_func [[override]] (); // error: misspelled name
    void f [[override]] (int); // OK: f implicitly virtual, overrides B::f
    virtual void f [[override]] (long); // error: non-matching argument type
    virtual void f [[override]] (int) const; // error: non-matching cv-qualification
    virtual void f [[override]] (int); // error: non-matching return type
    virtual void g(long); // OK: new virtual function introduced
    void h(int); // error: h implicitly virtual, but overriding without marker
    virtual void h(double);
    virtual void h [[hiding]] (char *); // OK
    using B::j;
    int j(double); // OK: not hiding due to “using”
};
```
void j(int);  // OK, despite ‘obscuring’ B::j(int)
virtual int j [[hiding]] (void);  // error: not hiding due to “using”

int k;  // error: hides B::k without marker

int m [[hiding]] ( int );  // error: no hiding despite marker
typedef D self;  // error: hides B::self without marker
};

— end example]

7.6.6 Carries dependency attribute
[dlc.attr.depend]

1 The attribute-token carries_dependency specifies dependency propagation into and out of functions. It shall appear at most once in each attribute-list and no attribute-argument-clause shall be present. The attribute applies to the declarator-id of a parameter-declaration, in which case it specifies that the initialization of the parameter carries a dependency to (1.10) each lvalue-to-rvalue conversion (4.1) of that object. The attribute also applies to the declarator-id of a function declaration, in which case it specifies that the return value carries a dependency to the evaluation of the function call expression.

2 The first declaration of a function shall specify the carries_dependency attribute for its declarator-id if any declaration of the function specifies the carries_dependency attribute. Furthermore, the first declaration of a function shall specify the carries_dependency attribute for a parameter if any declaration of that function specifies the carries_dependency attribute for that parameter. If a function or one of its parameters is declared with the carries_dependency attribute in its first declaration in one translation unit and the same function or one of its parameters is declared without the carries_dependency attribute in its first declaration in another translation unit, the program is ill-formed; no diagnostic required.

3 [Note: the carries_dependency attribute does not change the meaning of the program, but may result in generation of more efficient code. — end note]

4 [Example:
/* Translation unit A. */

struct foo { int* a; int* b; };
std::atomic<struct foo *> foo_head[10];
int foo_array[10][10];

struct foo* f [[carries_dependency]] (int i) {
  return foo_head[i].load(memory_order_consume);
}

int g(int* x, int* y [[carries_dependency]]) {
  return kill_dependency(foo_array[*x][*y]);
}

/* Translation unit B. */

struct foo* f [[carries_dependency]] (int i);
int* g(int* x, int* y [[carries_dependency]]);

int c = 3;

void h(int i) {
  struct foo* p;
p = f(i);
  do_something_with(g(&c, p->a));
  do_something_with(g(p->a, &c));
}

The `carries_dependency` attribute on function `f` means that the return value carries a dependency out of `f`, so that the implementation need not constrain ordering upon return from `f`. Implementations of `f` and its caller may choose to preserve dependencies instead of emitting hardware memory ordering instructions (a.k.a. fences).

Function `g`'s second argument has a `carries_dependency` attribute, but its first argument does not. Therefore, function `h`'s first call to `g` carries a dependency into `g`, but its second call does not. The implementation might need to insert a fence prior to the second call to `g`.

— end example ]
8 Declarators

A declarator declares a single object, function, or type, within a declaration. The `init-declarator-list` appearing in a declaration is a comma-separated sequence of declarators, each of which can have an initializer.

```
init-declarator-list:
  init-declarator
  init-declarator-list , init-declarator

init-declarator:
  declarator initializer_opt
```

The two components of a declaration are the specifiers (`decl-specifier-seq; 7.1`) and the declarators (`init-declarator-list`). The specifiers indicate the type, storage class or other properties of the objects, functions or typedefs being declared. The declarators specify the names of these objects, functions or typedefs, and (optionally) modify the type of the specifiers with operators such as `*` (pointer to) and `()` (function returning). Initial values can also be specified in a declarator; initializers are discussed in 8.5 and 12.6.

Each `init-declarator` in a declaration is analyzed separately as if it was in a declaration by itself.92

Declarators have the syntax

```
declarator:
  ptr-declarator
  noptr-declarator parameters-and-qualifiers trailing-return-type

ptr-declarator:
  noptr-declarator
  ptr-operator ptr-declarator

noptr-declarator:
  declarator-id attribute-specifier_opt
  noptr-declarator parameters-and-qualifiers
  noptr-declarator [ constant-expression_opt ] attribute-specifier_opt
  ( ptr-declarator )

parameters-and-qualifiers:
  ( parameter-declaration-clause ) attribute-specifier_opt cv-qualifier-seq_opt
  ref-qualifier_opt exception-specification_opt

trailing-return-type:
  -> attribute-specifier_opt trailing-type-specifier-seq
  -> attribute-specifier_opt abstract-declarator_opt
```

92) A declaration with several declarators is usually equivalent to the corresponding sequence of declarations each with a single declarator. That is

```
T D1, D2, ... Dn;
```

is usually equivalent to

```
T D1; T D2; ... T Dn;
```

where T is a `decl-specifier-seq` and each Di is an `init-declarator`. The exception occurs when a name introduced by one of the declarators hides a type name used by the decl-specifiers, so that when the same decl-specifiers are used in a subsequent declaration, they do not have the same meaning, as in

```
struct S ... ;
S S, T; // declare two instances of struct S
```

which is not equivalent to

```
struct S ... ;
S S;
S T; // error
```
ptr-operator:
  * attribute-specifier\textsubscript{opt} cv-qualifier-seq\textsubscript{opt}
  &
  &&
  ::\textsubscript{opt} nested-name-specifier * attribute-specifier\textsubscript{opt} cv-qualifier-seq\textsubscript{opt}

cv-qualifier-seq:
  cv-qualifier cv-qualifier-seq\textsubscript{opt}

cv-qualifier:
  const
  volatile

ref-qualifier:
  &
  &&

declarator-id:
  ... opt id-expression
  :: opt nested-name-specifier\textsubscript{opt} class-name

A class-name has special meaning in a declaration of the class of that name and when qualified by that name using the scope resolution operator `::` (5.1, 12.1, 12.4).

5 The optional attribute-specifier in a trailing-return-type appertains to the indicated return type. The type-id in a trailing-return-type includes the longest possible sequence of abstract-declarators. [Note: This resolves the ambiguous binding of array and function declarators. [Example:

auto f() -> int(*)[4]; // function returning a pointer to array[4] of int
// not function returning array[4] of pointer to int

— end example] — end note]

8.1 Type names [dcl.name]

1 To specify type conversions explicitly, and as an argument of `sizeof`, `alignof`, `new`, or `typeid`, the name of a type shall be specified. This can be done with a type-id, which is syntactically a declaration for an object or function of that type that omits the name of the object or function.

type-id:
  type-specifier-seq attribute-specifier\textsubscript{opt} abstract-declarator\textsubscript{opt}

abstract-declarator:
  ptr-abstract-declarator
  noptr-abstract-declarator\textsubscript{opt} parameters-and-qualifiers trailing-return-type

ptr-abstract-declarator:
  noptr-abstract-declarator
  ptr-operator ptr-abstract-declarator\textsubscript{opt}

noptr-abstract-declarator:
  noptr-abstract-declarator\textsubscript{opt} parameters-and-qualifiers
  noptr-abstract-declarator\textsubscript{opt} [ constant-expression ] attribute-specifier\textsubscript{opt}
  ( ptr-abstract-declarator )

It is possible to identify uniquely the location in the abstract-declarator where the identifier would appear if the construction were a declarator in a declaration. The named type is then the same as the type of the hypothetical identifier. [Example:

int // int i
int * // int *pi
int *[3] // int *p[3]

§ 8.1
int (*)[3]  // int (*p3i)[3]
int *()   // int *f()
int (*)(double)  // int (*pf)(double)

name respectively the types “int,” “pointer to int,” “array of 3 pointers to int,” “pointer to array of 3 int,” “function of (no parameters) returning pointer to int,” and “pointer to a function of (double) returning int.” — end example]

2 A type can also be named (often more easily) by using a typedef (7.1.3).

### 8.2 Ambiguity resolution

1 The ambiguity arising from the similarity between a function-style cast and a declaration mentioned in 6.8 can also occur in the context of a declaration. In that context, the choice is between a function declaration with a redundant set of parentheses around a parameter name and an object declaration with a function-style cast as the initializer. Just as for the ambiguities mentioned in 6.8, the resolution is to consider any construct that could possibly be a declaration a declaration. [Note: a declaration can be explicitly disambiguated by a nonfunction-style cast, by an = to indicate initialization or by removing the redundant parentheses around the parameter name. — end note] [Example:

```c
struct S {
    S(int);
};

void foo(double a) {
    S w(int(a));   // function declaration
    S x(int());   // function declaration
    S y(int(a));   // object declaration
    S z = int(a);  // object declaration
}

— end example]
```

2 The ambiguity arising from the similarity between a function-style cast and a type-id can occur in different contexts. The ambiguity appears as a choice between a function-style cast expression and a declaration of a type. The resolution is that any construct that could possibly be a type-id in its syntactic context shall be considered a type-id.

3 [Example:

```c
#include <cstddef>
char *p;
void *operator new(std::size_t, int);
void foo() {
    const int x = 63;
    new (int(*p)) int;        // new-placement expression
    new (int[*x]);            // new type-id
}
```

4 For another example,

```c
template <class T>
struct S {
    T *p;
};
S<int>()> x;                  // type-id
S<int(1)>()> y;               // expression (ill-formed)
```

§ 8.2
For another example,

```c
void foo() {
    sizeof(int(1));        // expression
    sizeof(int());         // type-id (ill-formed)
}
```

For another example,

```c
void foo() {
    (int(1));            // expression
    (int())1;            // type-id (ill-formed)
}
```

— end example —

Another ambiguity arises in a parameter-declaration-clause of a function declaration, or in a type-id that is the operand of a sizeof or typeid operator, when a type-name is nested in parentheses. In this case, the choice is between the declaration of a parameter of type pointer to function and the declaration of a parameter with redundant parentheses around the declarator-id. The resolution is to consider the type-name as a simple-type-specifier rather than a declarator-id. [Example:

```c
class C { }
void f(int(C)) { }                  // void f(int(*fp)(C c)) { }
                                  // not: void f(int C);
int g(C);

void foo() {
    f(1);                         // error: cannot convert 1 to function pointer
    f(g);                         // OK
}
```

For another example,

```c
class C { }
void h(int *(C[10]));             // void h(int *(fp)(C_parm[10]));
                                  // not: void h(int *C[10]);
```

— end example —

### 8.3 Meaning of declarators

A list of declarators appears after an optional (Clause 7) decl-specifier-seq (7.1). Each declarator contains exactly one declarator-id; it names the identifier that is declared. An unqualified-id occurring in a declarator-id shall be a simple identifier except for the declaration of some special functions (12.3, 12.4, 13.5) and for the declaration of template specializations or partial specializations (14.8). A declarator-id shall not be qualified except for the definition of a member function (9.3) or static data member (9.4) outside of its class, the definition or explicit instantiation of a function or variable member of a namespace outside of its namespace, or the definition of a previously declared explicit specialization outside of its namespace, or the declaration of a friend function that is a member of another class or namespace (11.4). When the declarator-id is qualified, the declaration shall refer to a previously declared member of the class or namespace to which the qualifier refers (or of an inline namespace within that scope (7.3.1)), and the member shall not have been introduced by a using-declaration in the scope of the class or namespace nominated by the nested-name-specifier of the declarator-id. [Note: if the qualifier is the global :: scope resolution operator, the declarator-id refers to
a name declared in the global namespace scope. — end note] The optional attribute-specifier following a declarator-id appertains to the entity that is declared.

2 A static, thread_local, extern, register, mutable, friend, inline, virtual, or typedef specifier applies directly to each declarator-id in an init-declarator-list; the type specified for each declarator-id depends on both the decl-specifier-seq and its declarator.

3 Thus, a declaration of a particular identifier has the form

\[ T D \]

where T is of the form attribute-specifier_opt decl-specifier-seq attribute-specifier_opt and D is a declarator. Following is a recursive procedure for determining the type specified for the contained declarator-id by such a declaration.

4 First, the decl-specifier-seq determines a type. In a declaration

\[ T D \]

the decl-specifier-seq T determines the type T. [Example: in the declaration

\[ int unsigned i; \]

the type specifiers int unsigned determine the type “unsigned int” (7.1.6.2). — end example]

5 In a declaration attribute-specifier_opt T attribute-specifier_opt D where D is an unadorned identifier the type of this identifier is “T”. The first optional attribute-specifier appertains to the entity being declared. The second optional attribute-specifier appertains to the type T, but not to the class or enumeration declared in the decl-specifier-seq, if any.

6 In a declaration T D where D has the form

\[ ( D1 ) \]

the type of the contained declarator-id is the same as that of the contained declarator-id in the declaration

\[ T D1 \]

Parentheses do not alter the type of the embedded declarator-id, but they can alter the binding of complex declarators.

8.3.1 Pointers [dcl.ptr]

1 In a declaration T D where D has the form

\[ * attribute-specifier_opt cv-qualifier-seq_opt D1 \]

and the type of the identifier in the declaration T D1 is “derived-declarator-type-list T,” then the type of the identifier of D is “derived-declarator-type-list cv-qualifier-seq pointer to T.” The cv-qualifiers apply to the pointer and not to the object pointed to. Similarly, the optional attribute-specifier (7.6.1) appertains to the pointer and not to the object pointed to.

2 [Example: the declarations

\[ \text{const int } ci = 10, *pc = &ci, \text{ const } cpc = pc, **ppc; \]
\[ \text{int } i, *p, \text{ const } cp = &i; \]

declare ci, a constant integer; pc, a pointer to a constant integer; cpc, a constant pointer to a constant integer; ppc, a pointer to a pointer to a constant integer; i, an integer; p, a pointer to integer; and cp, a
constant pointer to integer. The value of \( ci, \) \( cpc, \) and \( cp \) cannot be changed after initialization. The value of \( pc \) can be changed, and so can the object pointed to by \( cp \). Examples of some correct operations are

\[
i = ci; \\
*cp = ci; \\
\text{pc}++; \\
\text{pc} = \text{cpc}; \\
\text{pc} = p; \\
\text{ppc} = &\text{pc};
\]

Examples of ill-formed operations are

\[
\text{ci} = 1; \quad // \text{error} \\
\text{ci}++; \quad // \text{error} \\
*\text{pc} = 2; \quad // \text{error} \\
\text{cp} = &\text{ci}; \quad // \text{error} \\
\text{cpc}++; \quad // \text{error} \\
\text{p} = \text{pc}; \quad // \text{error} \\
\text{ppc} = &p; \quad // \text{error}
\]

Each is unacceptable because it would either change the value of an object declared \texttt{const} or allow it to be changed through a cv-unqualified pointer later, for example:

\[
*\text{ppc} = &\text{ci}; \quad // \text{OK, but would make p point to ci ...} \\
\quad // \ldots \text{because of previous error} \\
*\text{p} = 5; \quad // \text{clobber ci}
\]

— end example]

3 See also 5.17 and 8.5.

4 [Note: there are no pointers to references; see 8.3.2. Since the address of a bit-field (9.6) cannot be taken, a pointer can never point to a bit-field. — end note]

8.3.2 References [dcl.ref]

1 In a declaration \( T \ \text{D} \) where \( \text{D} \) has either of the forms

\[
& \text{D}1 \\
\&\& \text{D}1
\]

and the type of the identifier in the declaration \( T \ \text{D1} \) is “\texttt{derived-declarator-type-list} \ T,” then the type of the identifier of \( \text{D} \) is “\texttt{derived-declarator-type-list} reference to \text{D}.” Cv-qualified references are ill-formed except when the cv-qualifiers are introduced through the use of a typedef (7.1.3) or of a template type argument (14.4), in which case the cv-qualifiers are ignored. [Example:

\[
\text{typedef int} & \text{A}; \\
\text{const A aref} = 3; \quad // \text{ill-formed; non-const reference initialized with rvalue}
\]

The type of \texttt{aref} is “reference to int”, not “\texttt{const} reference to int”. — end example] [Note: a reference can be thought of as a name of an object. — end note] A declarator that specifies the type “reference to cv void” is ill-formed.

2 A reference type that is declared using \& is called an \textit{lvalue reference}, and a reference type that is declared using \&\& is called an \textit{rvalue reference}. Lvalue references and rvalue references are distinct types. Except where explicitly noted, they are semantically equivalent and commonly referred to as references.

3 [Example:
void f(double& a) { a += 3.14; }
// ...
double d = 0;
f(d);

declares a to be a reference parameter of f so the call f(d) will add 3.14 to d.

int v[20];
// ...
int& g(int i) { return v[i]; }
// ...
g(3) = 7;

declares the function g() to return a reference to an integer so g(3) = 7 will assign 7 to the fourth element of the array v. For another example,

struct link {
    link* next;
};

link* first;

void h(link*& p) {
    // p is a reference to pointer
    p->next = first;
    first = p;
    p = 0;
}

void k() {
    link* q = new link;
    h(q);
}

declares p to be a reference to a pointer to link so h(q) will leave q with the value zero. See also 8.5.3.
— end example]

4 It is unspecified whether or not a reference requires storage (3.7).

5 There shall be no references to references, no arrays of references, and no pointers to references. The declaration of a reference shall contain an initializer (8.5.3) except when the declaration contains an explicit extern specifier (7.1.1), is a class member (9.2) declaration within a class definition, or is the declaration of a parameter or a return type (8.3.5); see 3.1. A reference shall be initialized to refer to a valid object or function. [Note: in particular, a null reference cannot exist in a well-defined program, because the only way to create such a reference would be to bind it to the “object” obtained by dereferencing a null pointer, which causes undefined behavior. As described in 9.6, a reference cannot be bound directly to a bit-field. — end note]

8.3.3 Pointers to members [dcl.mptr]

In a declaration T D where D has the form

::opt nested-name-specifier opt attribute-specifier seq opt cv-qualifier-seq opt D

and the nested-name-specifier names a class, and the type of the identifier in the declaration T D1 is “derived-declarator-type-list T”, then the type of the identifier of D is “derived-declarator-type-list cv-qualifier-seq opt pointer to member of class nested-name-specifier of type T”. The optional attribute-specifier (7.6.1) appertains to the pointer-to-member.

§ 8.3.3
Example:

```c
struct X {
    void f(int);
    int a;
};
struct Y;
int X::* pmi = &X::a;
void (X::* pmf)(int) = &X::f;
double X::* pmd;
char Y::* pmc;
```

declares pmi, pmf, pmd and pmc to be a pointer to a member of X of type int, a pointer to a member of X of type void(int), a pointer to a member of X of type double and a pointer to a member of Y of type char respectively. The declaration of pmd is well-formed even though X has no members of type double. Similarly, the declaration of pmc is well-formed even though Y is an incomplete type. pmi and pmf can be used like this:

```c
X obj;
// ...
obj.*pmi = 7;  // assign 7 to an integer
                // member of obj
(obj.*pmf)(7); // call a function member of obj
                // with the argument 7
```

— end example

A pointer to member shall not point to a static member of a class (9.4), a member with reference type, or "cv void." [Note: see also 5.3 and 5.5. The type “pointer to member” is distinct from the type “pointer”, that is, a pointer to member is declared only by the pointer to member declarator syntax, and never by the pointer declarator syntax. There is no “reference-to-member” type in C++. — end note]

8.3.4 Arrays [decl.array]

In a declaration T D where D has the form

```
D1 [ constant-expression_opt ] attribute-specifier_opt
```

and the type of the identifier in the declaration T D1 is “derived-declarator-type-list T”, then the type of the identifier of D is an array type; if the type of the identifier of D contains the auto type-specifier, the program is ill-formed. T is called the array element type; this type shall not be a reference type, the (possibly cv-qualified) type void, a function type or an abstract class type. If the constant expression (5.19) is present, it shall be an integral constant expression and its value shall be greater than zero. The constant expression specifies the bound of (number of elements in) the array. If the value of the constant expression is N, the array has N elements numbered 0 to N-1, and the type of the identifier of D is “derived-declarator-type-list array of N T”. An object of array type contains a continguously allocated non-empty set of N subobjects of type T. If the constant expression is omitted, the type of the identifier of D is “derived-declarator-type-list array of unknown bound of T”, an incomplete object type. The type “derived-declarator-type-list array of N T” is a different type from the type “derived-declarator-type-list array of unknown bound of T”, see 3.9. Any type of the form “cv-qualifier-seq array of N T” is adjusted to “array of N cv-qualifier-seq T”, and similarly for “array of unknown bound of T”. The optional attribute-specifier appertains to the array. [Example:

```c
typedef int A[5], AA[2][3];
```
typedef const A CA;  // type is “array of 5 const int"
typedef const AA CAA;  // type is “array of 2 array of 3 const int”

— end example] [ Note: an “array of N cv-qualifier-seq T” has cv-qualified type; see 3.9.3. — end note ]

2 An array can be constructed from one of the fundamental types (except void), from a pointer, from a pointer
to member, from a class, from an enumeration type, or from another array.

3 When several “array of” specifications are adjacent, a multidimensional array is created; the constant
expressions that specify the bounds of the arrays can be omitted only for the first member of the sequence.
[ Note: this elision is useful for function parameters of array types, and when the array is external and the
definition, which allocates storage, is given elsewhere. — end note ] The first constant-expression can also
be omitted when the declarator is followed by an initializer (8.5). In this case the bound is calculated from
the number of initial elements (say, N) supplied (8.5.1), and the type of the identifier of D is “array of N T.”

4 [ Example:
    float fa[17], *afp[17];
declares an array of float numbers and an array of pointers to float numbers. For another example,
    static int x3d[3][5][7];
declares a static three-dimensional array of integers, with rank 3 × 5 × 7. In complete detail, x3d is an array
of three items; each item is an array of five arrays; each of the latter arrays is an array of seven integers. Any
of the expressions x3d, x3d[i], x3d[i][j], x3d[i][j][k] can reasonably appear in an expression. — end
example ]

5 [ Note: conversions affecting lvalues of array type are described in 4.2. Objects of array types cannot be
modified, see 3.10. — end note ]

6 Except where it has been declared for a class (13.5.5), the subscript operator [] is interpreted in such a
way that E1[E2] is identical to *((E1)+(E2)). Because of the conversion rules that apply to *, if E1 is an
array and E2 an integer, then E1[E2] refers to the E2-th member of E1. Therefore, despite its asymmetric
appearance, subscripting is a commutative operation.

7 A consistent rule is followed for multidimensional arrays. If E is an n-dimensional array of rank i×j×...×k,
then E appearing in an expression is converted to a pointer to an (n–1)-dimensional array with rank j×...×k.
If the * operator, either explicitly or implicitly as a result of subscripting, is applied to this pointer, the
result is the pointed-to (n–1)-dimensional array, which itself is immediately converted into a pointer.

8 [ Example: consider
    int x[3][5];
Here x is a 3 × 5 array of integers. When x appears in an expression, it is converted to a pointer to (the
first of three) five-membered arrays of integers. In the expression x[i] which is equivalent to *(x+i), x is
first converted to a pointer as described; then x+i is converted to the type of x, which involves multiplying
i by the length of the object to which the pointer points, namely five integer objects. The results are added
and indirection applied to yield an array (of five integers), which in turn is converted to a pointer to the
first of the integers. If there is another subscript the same argument applies again; this time the result is an
integer. — end example ]
9  [Note: it follows from all this that arrays in C++ are stored row-wise (last subscript varies fastest) and that the first subscript in the declaration helps determine the amount of storage consumed by an array but plays no other part in subscript calculations. — end note]

8.3.5 Functions

1  In a declaration \( T \ D \) where \( D \) has the form

\[
D_1 ( \text{parameter-declaration-clause} ) \text{attribute-specifier_{opt} cv-qualifier-seq_{opt} ref-qualifier_{opt} exception-specification_{opt}}
\]

and the type of the contained declarator-id in the declaration \( T \ D_1 \) is “derived-declarator-type-list \( T \)”, the type of the declarator-id in \( D \) is “derived-declarator-type-list function of (parameter-declaration-clause) cv-qualifier-seq_{opt} ref-qualifier_{opt} returning \( T \)”. The optional attribute-specifier appertains to the function type.

2  In a declaration \( T \ D \) where \( D \) has the form

\[
D_1 ( \text{parameter-declaration-clause} ) \text{attribute-specifier_{opt} cv-qualifier-seq_{opt} ref-qualifier_{opt} exception-specification_{opt}} \text{trailing-return-type}
\]

and the type of the contained declarator-id in the declaration \( T \ D_1 \) is “derived-declarator-type-list \( T \)”, \( T \) shall be the single type-specifier auto. The type of the declarator-id in \( D \) is “function of (parameter-declaration-clause) cv-qualifier-seq_{opt} ref-qualifier_{opt} returning type-id”. The optional attribute-specifier appertains to the function type.

3  A type of either form is a function type.\(^93\)

\[
\text{parameter-declaration-clause:}
\text{parameter-declaration-list_{opt} }..._{opt}
\text{parameter-declaration-list }...$
\]

\[
\text{parameter-declaration-list:}
\text{parameter-declaration}
\text{parameter-declaration-list }\text{parameter-declaration}
\]

\[
\text{parameter-declaration:}
\text{decl-specifier-seq attribute-specifier_{opt} declarator}
\text{decl-specifier-seq attribute-specifier_{opt} declarator = assignment-expression}
\text{decl-specifier-seq attribute-specifier_{opt} abstract-declarator_{opt}}
\text{decl-specifier-seq attribute-specifier_{opt} abstract-declarator_{opt} = assignment-expression}
\]

4  The parameter-declaration-clause determines the arguments that can be specified, and their processing, when the function is called. [Note: the parameter-declaration-clause is used to convert the arguments specified on the function call; see 5.2.2. — end note] If the parameter-declaration-clause is empty, the function takes no arguments. The parameter list (void) is equivalent to the empty parameter list. Except for this special case, void shall not be a parameter type (though types derived from void, such as void*, can). If the parameter-declaration-clause terminates with an ellipsis or a function parameter pack (14.6.3), the number of arguments shall be equal to or greater than the number of parameters that do not have a default argument and are not function parameter packs. Where syntactically correct and where “...” is not part of an abstract-declarator, “,...” is synonymous with “...”. [Example: the declaration

\[
\text{int printf(const char*, }...\text{);
}\]

declares a function that can be called with varying numbers and types of arguments.

\[
\text{printf("hello world");}
\text{printf("a=%d b=%d", a, b);
}\]

\(^93\) As indicated by syntax, cv-qualifiers are a significant component in function return types.
However, the first argument must be of a type that can be converted to a `const char*` — end example

[Note: the standard header `<cstdarg>` contains a mechanism for accessing arguments passed using the ellipsis (see 5.2.2 and 18.10). — end note]

5 A single name can be used for several different functions in a single scope; this is function overloading (Clause 13). All declarations for a function shall agree exactly in both the return type and the parameter-type-list. The type of a function is determined using the following rules. The type of each parameter (including function parameter packs) is determined from its own `decl-specifier-seq` and `declarator`. After determining the type of each parameter, any parameter of type “array of T” or “function returning T” is adjusted to be “pointer to T” or “pointer to function returning T,” respectively. After producing the list of parameter types, several transformations take place upon these types to determine the function type. Any `cv-qualifier` modifying a parameter type is deleted. [Example: the type `void(*)(const int)` becomes `void(*)(int)` — end example] Such `cv-qualifiers` affect only the definition of the parameter within the body of the function; they do not affect the function type. If a `storage-class-specifier` modifies a parameter type, the specifier is deleted. [Example: `register char*` becomes `char*` — end example] Such `storage-class-specifiers` affect only the definition of the parameter within the body of the function; they do not affect the function type. The resulting list of transformed parameter types and the presence or absence of the ellipsis or a function parameter pack is the function’s `parameter-type-list`.

6 A `cv-qualifier-seq` shall only be part of the function type for a non-static member function, the function type to which a pointer to member refers, or the top-level function type of a function typedef declaration. [Note: a function type that has a `cv-qualifier-seq` is not a `cv-qualified type; there are no `cv-qualified function types. — end note] The effect of a `cv-qualifier-seq` in a function declarator is not the same as adding cv-qualification on top of the function type. In the latter case, the `cv-qualifiers` are ignored. [Example:]

```c
typedef void F();
struct S {
    const F f;  // OK: equivalent to: void f();
};
```

— end example] A `ref-qualifier` shall only be part of the function type for a non-static member function, the function type to which a pointer to member refers, or the top-level function type of a function typedef declaration. The return type, the parameter-type-list, the `ref-qualifier`, and the `cv-qualifier-seq`, but not the default arguments (8.3.6) or the exception specification (15.4), are part of the function type. [Note: function types are checked during the assignments and initializations of pointer-to-functions, reference-to-functions, and pointer-to-member-functions. — end note]

7 [Example: the declaration]

```c
int fseek(FILE*, long, int);
```

declares a function taking three arguments of the specified types, and returning `int` (7.1.6). — end example]

8 If the type of a parameter includes a type of the form “pointer to array of unknown bound of T” or “reference to array of unknown bound of T,” the program is ill-formed.\(^{94}\) Functions shall not have a return type of type array or function, although they may have a return type of type pointer or reference to such things. There shall be no arrays of functions, although there can be arrays of pointers to functions.

Types shall not be defined in return or parameter types. The type of a parameter or the return type for a function definition shall not be an incomplete class type (possibly `cv-qualified`) unless the function definition is nested within the `member-specification` for that class (including definitions in nested classes defined within the class).

\(^{94}\) This excludes parameters of type “ptr-arr-seq T2" where T2 is “pointer to array of unknown bound of T" and where `ptr-arr-seq` means any sequence of “pointer to" and “array of" derived declarator types. This exclusion applies to the parameters of the function, and if a parameter is a pointer to function or pointer to member function then to its parameters also, etc.
A typedef of function type may be used to declare a function but shall not be used to define a function (8.4).

Example:

```c
typedef void F();
F fv;  // OK: equivalent to void fv();
F fv { }  // ill-formed
void fv() { }  // OK: definition of fv
```

A typedef of a function type whose declarator includes a `cv-qualifier-seq` shall be used only to declare the function type for a non-static member function, to declare the function type to which a pointer to member refers, or to declare the top-level function type of another function typedef declaration.

Example:

```c
typedef int FIC(int) const;
FIC f;
struct S {
    FIC f;  // ill-formed: does not declare a member function
};
FIC S::*pm = &S::f;  // OK
```

An identifier can optionally be provided as a parameter name; if present in a function definition (8.4), it names a parameter (sometimes called “formal argument”).  [Note: in particular, parameter names are also optional in function definitions and names used for a parameter in different declarations and the definition of a function need not be the same. If a parameter name is present in a function declaration that is not a definition, it cannot be used outside of the `parameter-declaration-clause` since it goes out of scope at the end of the function declarator (3.3). — end note]

Example: the declaration

```c
int i,
    *pi,
    f(),
    *fpi(int),
    (**fpi)(const char*, const char*),
    (*fpi(int))(int);
```

declares an integer `i`, a pointer `pi` to an integer, a function `f` taking no arguments and returning an integer, a function `fpi` taking an integer argument and returning a pointer to an integer, a pointer `pif` to a function which takes two pointers to constant characters and returns an integer, a function `fpif` taking an integer argument and returning a pointer to a function that takes an integer argument and returns an integer. It is especially useful to compare `fpi` and `pif`. The binding of `*fpi(int)` is `*(fpi(int))`, so the declaration suggests, and the same construction in an expression requires, the calling of a function `fpi`, and then using indirection through the (pointer) result to yield an integer. In the declarator `(*pif)(const char*, const char*)`, the extra parentheses are necessary to indicate that indirection through a pointer to a function yields a function, which is then called. — end example] [Note: typedefs and `trailing-return-types` are sometimes convenient when the return type of a function is complex. For example, the function `fpif` above could have been declared

```c
typedef int IFUNC(int);
IFUNC* fpif(int);
```

or

```c
auto fpif(int)->int(*)(int)
```
A trailing-return-type is most useful for a type that would be more complicated to specify before the declarator-id:

```cpp
template <class T, class U> auto add(T t, U u) -> decltype(t + u);
```
rather than

```cpp
template <class T, class U> decltype((*(T*)0) + (*(U*)0)) add(T t, U u);
```

— end note

A declarator-id or abstract-declarator containing an ellipsis shall only be used in a parameter-declaration. Such a parameter-declaration is a parameter pack (14.6.3). When it is part of a parameter-declaration-clause, the parameter pack is a function parameter pack (14.6.3). [Note: Otherwise, the parameter-declaration is part of a template-parameter-list and the parameter pack is a template parameter pack; see 14.2. — end note] A function parameter pack, if present, shall occur at the end of the parameter-declaration-list. The type T of the declarator-id of the function parameter pack shall contain a template parameter pack; each template parameter pack in T is expanded by the function parameter pack. [Example:

```cpp
template<typename... T> void f(T (* ...t)(int, int));
```

```cpp
int add(int, int);
float subtract(int, int);

void g() {
    f(add, subtract);
}
```

— end example]

There is a syntactic ambiguity when an ellipsis occurs at the end of a parameter-declaration-clause without a preceding comma. In this case, the ellipsis is parsed as part of the abstract-declarator if the type of the parameter names a template parameter pack that has not been expanded; otherwise, it is parsed as part of the parameter-declaration-clause.95

8.3.6 Default arguments [dcl.fct.default]

1 If an expression is specified in a parameter declaration this expression is used as a default argument. Default arguments will be used in calls where trailing arguments are missing.

2 [Example: the declaration

```cpp
void point(int = 3, int = 4);
```

declares a function that can be called with zero, one, or two arguments of type int. It can be called in any of these ways:

```cpp
point(1,2); point(1); point();
```

The last two calls are equivalent to `point(1,4)` and `point(3,4)`, respectively. — end example]

3 A default argument expression shall be specified only in the parameter-declaration-clause of a function declaration or in a template-parameter (14.2). It shall not be specified for a parameter pack. If it is

— end note

95 One can explicitly disambiguate the parse either by introducing a comma (so the ellipsis will be parsed as part of the parameter-declaration-clause) or by introducing a name for the parameter (so the ellipsis will be parsed as part of the declarator-id).
specified in a parameter-declaration-clause, it shall not occur within a declarator or abstract-declarator of a parameter-declaration.\footnote{This means that default arguments cannot appear, for example, in declarations of pointers to functions, references to functions, or \texttt{typedef} declarations.}

For non-template functions, default arguments can be added in later declarations of a function in the same scope. Declarations in different scopes have completely distinct sets of default arguments. That is, declarations in inner scopes do not acquire default arguments from declarations in outer scopes, and vice versa. In a given function declaration, all parameters subsequent to a parameter with a default argument shall have default arguments supplied in this or previous declarations. A default argument shall not be redefined by a later declaration (not even to the same value). [Example:

```c
void g(int = 0, ...);
// OK, ellipsis is not a parameter so it can follow
// a parameter with a default argument

void f(int, int);
void f(int, int = 7);
void h() {
  f(3);
  // OK, calls f(3, 7)
  void f(int = 1, int);
  // error: does not use default
  // from surrounding scope
}
void m() {
  void f(int, int);
  // has no defaults
  f(4);
  // error: wrong number of arguments
  void f(int, int = 5);
  // OK
  f(4);
  // OK, calls f(4, 5);
  void f(int, int = 5);
  // error: cannot redefine, even to
  // same value
}
void n() {
  f(6);
  // OK, calls f(6, 7)
}
```

— end example] For a given inline function defined in different translation units, the accumulated sets of default arguments at the end of the translation units shall be the same; see 3.2. If a friend declaration specifies a default argument expression, that declaration shall be a definition and shall be the only declaration of the function or function template in the translation unit.

A default argument expression is implicitly converted (Clause 4) to the parameter type. The default argument expression has the same semantic constraints as the initializer expression in a declaration of a variable of the parameter type, using the copy-initialization semantics (8.5). The names in the expression are bound, and the semantic constraints are checked, at the point where the default argument expression appears. Name lookup and checking of semantic constraints for default arguments in function templates and in member functions of class templates are performed as described in 14.8.1. [Example: in the following code, \texttt{g} will be called with the value \texttt{f(2)}:

```c
int a = 1;
int f(int);
int g(int x = f(a));
// default argument: \texttt{f(a)}

void h() {
  a = 2;
  {
    int a = 3;
    g();
    // \texttt{g(a)}
```
Except for member functions of class templates, the default arguments in a member function definition that appears outside of the class definition are added to the set of default arguments provided by the member function declaration in the class definition. Default arguments for a member function of a class template shall be specified on the initial declaration of the member function within the class template. [Example:

class C {
    void f(int i = 3);
    void g(int i, int j = 99);
};

void C::f(int i = 3) { // error: default argument already specified in class scope
}
void C::g(int i = 88, int j) { // in this translation unit,
    // C::g can be called with no argument
}

— end example]

Local variables shall not be used in default argument expressions. [Example:

void f() {
    int i;
    extern void g(int x = i); // error
    // ...
}

— end example]

The keyword this shall not be used in a default argument of a member function. [Example:

class A {
    void f(A* p = this) { } // error
};

— end example]

Default arguments are evaluated each time the function is called. The order of evaluation of function arguments is unspecified. Consequently, parameters of a function shall not be used in default argument expressions, even if they are not evaluated. Parameters of a function declared before a default argument expression are in scope and can hide namespace and class member names. [Example:

int a;
int f(int a, int b = a); // error: parameter a
// used as default argument
typedef int I;
int g(float I, int b = I(2)); // error: parameter I found
int h(int a, int b = sizeof(a)); // error, parameter a used
// in default argument

— end example] Similarly, a non-static member shall not be used in a default argument expression, even if it is not evaluated, unless it appears as the id-expression of a class member access expression (5.2.5) or unless

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it is used to form a pointer to member (5.3.1). [Example: the declaration of X::mem1() in the following example is ill-formed because no object is supplied for the non-static member X::a used as an initializer.

```c
int b;
class X {
  int a;
  int mem1(int i = a); // error: non-static member a
  // used as default argument
  int mem2(int i = b); // OK; use X::b
  static int b;
};
```

The declaration of X::mem2() is meaningful, however, since no object is needed to access the static member X::b. Classes, objects, and members are described in Clause 9. — end example] A default argument is not part of the type of a function. [Example:

```c
int f(int = 0);
void h() {
  int j = f(1);
  int k = f(); // OK, means f(0)
}

int (*p1)(int) = &f;
int (*p2)() = &f; // error: type mismatch
```

— end example] When a declaration of a function is introduced by way of a using-declaration (7.3.3), any default argument information associated with the declaration is made known as well. If the function is redeclared thereafter in the namespace with additional default arguments, the additional arguments are also known at any point following the redeclaration where the using-declaration is in scope.

10 A virtual function call (10.3) uses the default arguments in the declaration of the virtual function determined by the static type of the pointer or reference denoting the object. An overriding function in a derived class does not acquire default arguments from the function it overrides. [Example:

```c
struct A {
  virtual void f(int a = 7);
};
struct B : public A {
  virtual void f(int a);
};
void m() {
  B* pb = new B;
  A* pa = pb;
  pa->f(); // OK, calls pa->B::f(7)
  pb->f(); // error: wrong number of arguments for B::f()
}
```
8.4 Function definitions

Function definitions have the form

```
function-definition:
  decl-specifier-seq opt attribute-specifier opt declarator function-body
  decl-specifier-seq opt attribute-specifier opt declarator = default ;
  decl-specifier-seq opt attribute-specifier opt declarator = delete ;

function-body:
  ctor-initializer opt compound-statement
  function-try-block
```

Any informal reference to the body of a function should be interpreted as a reference to the non-terminal `function-body`.

2 The `declarator` in a `function-definition` shall have the form

```
D1 ( parameter-declaration-clause ) cv-qualifier-seq
  ref-qualifier opt exception-specification opt trailing-return-type opt
```

as described in 8.3.5. A function shall be defined only in namespace or class scope.

3 [Example: a simple example of a complete function definition is]

```
int max(int a, int b, int c) {
  int m = (a > b) ? a : b;
  return (m > c) ? m : c;
}
```

Here `int` is the `decl-specifier-seq`; `max(int a, int b, int c)` is the `declarator`; `{ /* ... */ }` is the `function-body`. [end example]

4 A `ctor-initializer` is used only in a constructor; see 12.1 and 12.6.

5 A `cv-qualifier-seq` or a `ref-qualifier` (or both) can be part of a non-static member function declaration, non-static member function definition, or pointer to member function only (8.3.5); see 9.3.2.

6 [Note: unused parameters need not be named. For example,]

```
void print(int a, int) {
  std::printf("a = %d\n", a);
}
```

[ end note]

7 In the `function-body`, a `function-local predefined variable` denotes a local object of static storage duration that is implicitly defined (see 3.3.3).

8 The function-local predefined variable `__func__` is defined as if a definition of the form

```
static const char __func__[] = "function-name ";
```

had been provided, where `function-name` is an implementation-defined string. It is unspecified whether such a variable has an address distinct from that of any other object in the program.\footnote{permitted to provide additional predefined variables with names that are reserved to the implementation (17.6.3.3.2). If a predefined variable is not used (3.2), its string value need not be present in the program image.}

[Example:]

\footnote{permitted to provide additional predefined variables with names that are reserved to the implementation (17.6.3.3.2). If a predefined variable is not used (3.2), its string value need not be present in the program image.}
struct S {
    S() : s(__func__) { } // OK
    const char *s;
};
void f(const char * s = __func__); // error: __func__ is undeclared

— end example

9 A function definition of the form:

    decl-specifier-seq opt attribute-specifier opt declarator = default ;

is called an *explicitly-defaulted* definition. Only special member functions may be explicitly defaulted, and
the implementation shall define them as if they had implicit definitions (12.1, 12.4, 12.8). A special member
function that would be implicitly defined as deleted shall not be explicitly defaulted. A special member
function that would be implicitly defined as deleted may be explicitly defaulted only on its first declaration,
in which case it is defined as deleted. A special member function is *user-provided* if it is user-declared and
not explicitly defaulted on its first declaration. A user-provided explicitly-defaulted function is defined at the
point where it is explicitly defaulted. [Note: while an implicitly-declared special member function is inline
(Claude 12), an explicitly-defaulted definition may be non-inline. Non-inline definitions are user-provided,
and hence non-trivial (12.1, 12.4, 12.8). This rule enables efficient execution and concise definition while
enabling a stable binary interface to an evolving code base. — end note] [Example:

    struct trivial {
        trivial() = default;
        trivial(const trivial&) = default;
        trivial& operator =(const trivial&) = default;
        ~trivial() = default;
    };

    struct nontrivial1 {
        nontrivial1();
    };
    nontrivial1::nontrivial1() = default; // not inline

    struct nontrivial2 {
        nontrivial2();
    };
    inline nontrivial2::nontrivial2() = default; // not first declaration

    struct nontrivial3 {
        virtual ~nontrivial3() = 0; // virtual
    };
    inline nontrivial3::~nontrivial3() = default; // not first declaration

    — end example]

10 A function definition of the form:

    decl-specifier-seq opt attribute-specifier opt declarator = delete ;

is called a *deleted definition*. A function with a deleted definition is also called a *deleted function*. A deleted
definition of a function shall be the first declaration of the function. An implicitly declared allocation or
deallocation function (3.7.4) shall not be defined as deleted. [Example:

    struct sometype {
        sometype();

    };

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A deleted function is implicitly inline. [Note: the one-definition rule (3.2) applies to deleted definitions. — end note] A program that refers to a deleted function implicitly or explicitly, other than to declare it, is ill-formed. [Note: this includes calling the function implicitly or explicitly and forming a pointer or pointer-to-member to the function. It applies even for references in expressions that are not potentially-evaluated. If a function is overloaded, it is referenced only if the function is selected by overload resolution. — end note] [Example: One can enforce non-default initialization and non-integral initialization with

```cpp
struct sometype {
    sometype() = delete; // redundant, but legal
    sometype(std::intmax_t) = delete;
    sometype(double);
};
```

— end example] [Example: One can prevent use of a class in certain `new` expressions by using deleted definitions of a user-declared `operator new` for that class.

```cpp
struct sometype {
    void *operator new(std::size_t) = delete;
    void *operator new[](std::size_t) = delete;
};
sometype *p = new sometype; // error, deleted class operator new
sometype *p = new sometype[3]; // error, deleted class operator new[]
```

— end example] [Example: One can enforce non-default initialization and non-integral initialization with

```cpp
initializer: 
    brace-or-equal-initializer
      ( expression-list )
brace-or-equal-initializer: 
    = initializer-clause
braced-init-list
initializer-clause:
    assignment-expression
    braced-init-list
initializer-list:
    initializer-clause ...opt
    initializer-list , initializer-clause ...opt
braced-init-list:
    { initializer-list ,opt }
    { }
```

Automatic, register, thread_local, static, and namespace-scoped external variables can be initialized by arbitrary expressions involving literals and previously declared variables and functions. [Example:
int f(int);
int a = 2;
int b = f(a);
int c(b);

— end example

[Note: default argument expressions are more restricted; see 8.3.6.]

The order of initialization of static objects is described in 3.6 and 6.7. — end note]

To zero-initialize an object or reference of type T means:

— if T is a scalar type (3.9), the object is set to the value 0 (zero), taken as an integral constant expression, converted to T;98
— if T is a (possibly cv-qualified) non-union class type, each non-static data member and each base-class subobject is zero-initialized;
— if T is a (possibly cv-qualified) union type, the object’s first non-static named data member is zero-initialized;
— if T is an array type, each element is zero-initialized;
— if T is a reference type, no initialization is performed.

To default-initialize an object of type T means:

— if T is a (possibly cv-qualified) class type (Clause 9), the default constructor for T is called (and the initialization is ill-formed if T has no accessible default constructor);
— if T is an array type, each element is default-initialized;
— otherwise, no initialization is performed.

If a program calls for the default initialization of an object of a const-qualified type T, T shall be a class type with a user-provided default constructor.

To value-initialize an object of type T means:

— if T is a (possibly cv-qualified) class type (Clause 9) with a user-provided constructor (12.1), then the default constructor for T is called (and the initialization is ill-formed if T has no accessible default constructor):
— if T is a (possibly cv-qualified) non-union class type without a user-provided constructor, then the object is zero-initialized and, if T’s implicitly-declared default constructor is non-trivial, that constructor is called.
— if T is an array type, then each element is value-initialized;
— otherwise, the object is zero-initialized.

A program that calls for default-initialization or value-initialization of an entity of reference type is ill-formed.

[Note: Every object of static storage duration is zero-initialized at program startup before any other initialization takes place. In some cases, additional initialization is done later. — end note]

An object whose initializer is an empty set of parentheses, i.e., (), shall be value-initialized.

[Note: since () is not permitted by the syntax for initializer,

98] As specified in 4.10, converting an integral constant expression whose value is 0 to a pointer type results in a null pointer value.
is not the declaration of an object of class $X$, but the declaration of a function taking no argument and returning an $X$. The form () is permitted in certain other initialization contexts (5.3.4, 5.2.3, 12.6.2). — end note]

11 If no initializer is specified for an object, the object is default-initialized; if no initialization is performed, a non-static object has indeterminate value. [Note: objects with static storage duration are zero-initialized, see 3.6.2 — end note].

12 An initializer for a static member is in the scope of the member’s class. [Example:

```c
int a;

struct X {
  static int a;
  static int b;
};

int X::a = 1;
int X::b = a; // X::b = X::a
```

— end example]

13 The form of initialization (using parentheses or =) is generally insignificant, but does matter when the initializer or the entity being initialized has a class type; see below. A parenthesized initializer can be a list of expressions only when the entity being initialized has a class type.

14 The initialization that occurs in the form

```c
T x = a;
```

as well as in argument passing, function return, throwing an exception (15.1), handling an exception (15.3), and aggregate member initialization (8.5.1) is called copy-initialization.

15 The initialization that occurs in the forms

```c
T x(a);
T x{a};
```

as well as in `new` expressions (5.3.4), `static_cast` expressions (5.2.9), functional notation type conversions (5.2.3), and base and member initializers (12.6.2) is called direct-initialization.

16 The semantics of initializers are as follows. The destination type is the type of the object or reference being initialized and the source type is the type of the initializer expression. The source type is not defined when the initializer is a braced-init-list or when it is a parenthesized list of expressions.

— If the initializer is a braced-init-list, the object is list-initialized (8.5.4).
— If the destination type is a reference type, see 8.5.3.
— If the destination type is an array of characters, an array of `char16_t`, an array of `char32_t`, or an array of `wchar_t`, and the initializer is a string literal, see 8.5.2.
— If the initializer is a braced-init-list, the object is list-initialized (8.5.4).
— If the initializer is (), the object is value-initialized.
— Otherwise, if the destination type is an array, the program is ill-formed.

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— If the destination type is a (possibly cv-qualified) class type:

— If the initialization is direct-initialization, or if it is copy-initialization where the cv-unqualified version of the source type is the same class as, or a derived class of, the class of the destination, constructors are considered. The applicable constructors are enumerated (13.3.1.3), and the best one is chosen through overload resolution (13.3). The constructor so selected is called to initialize the object, with the initializer expression(s) as its argument(s). If no constructor applies, or the overload resolution is ambiguous, the initialization is ill-formed.

— Otherwise (i.e., for the remaining copy-initialization cases), user-defined conversion sequences that can convert from the source type to the destination type or (when a conversion function is used) to a derived class thereof are enumerated as described in 13.3.1.4, and the best one is chosen through overload resolution (13.3). If the conversion cannot be done or is ambiguous, the initialization is ill-formed. The function selected is called with the initializer expression as its argument; if the function is a constructor, the call initializes a temporary of the cv-unqualified version of the destination type. The temporary is an rvalue. The result of the call (which is the temporary for the constructor case) is then used to direct-initialize, according to the rules above, the object that is the destination of the copy-initialization. In certain cases, an implementation is permitted to eliminate the copying inherent in this direct-initialization by constructing the intermediate result directly into the object being initialized; see 12.2, 12.8.

— Otherwise, if the source type is a (possibly cv-qualified) class type, conversion functions are considered. The applicable conversion functions are enumerated (13.3.1.5), and the best one is chosen through overload resolution (13.3). The user-defined conversion so selected is called to convert the initializer expression into the object being initialized. If the conversion cannot be done or is ambiguous, the initialization is ill-formed.

— Otherwise, the initial value of the object being initialized is the (possibly converted) value of the initializer expression. Standard conversions (Clause 4) will be used, if necessary, to convert the initializer expression to the cv-unqualified version of the destination type; no user-defined conversions are considered. If the conversion cannot be done, the initialization is ill-formed. [Note: an expression of type “cv1 T” can initialize an object of type “cv2 T” independently of the cv-qualifiers cv1 and cv2.]

    int a;
    const int b = a;
    int c = b;

    — end note]

17 An initializer-clause followed by an ellipsis is a pack expansion (14.6.3).

8.5.1 Aggregates [dcl.init.aggr]

1 An aggregate is an array or a class (Clause 9) with no user-provided constructors (12.1), no private or protected non-static data members (Clause 11), no base classes (Clause 10), and no virtual functions (10.3).

2 When an aggregate is initialized by an initializer list, as specified in 8.5.4, the elements of the initializer list are taken as initializers for the members of the aggregate, in increasing subscript or member order. Each member is copy-initialized from the corresponding initializer-clause. If the initializer-clause is an expression and a narrowing conversion (8.5.4) is required to convert the expression, the program is ill-formed. [Note: If an initializer-clause is itself an initializer list, the member is list-initialized, which will result in a recursive application of the rules in this section if the member is an aggregate. — end note] [Example:

    struct A {
    int x;
    }
```
struct B {
    int i;
    int j;
} b;

} a = { 1, { 2, 3 } }; 
```

initializes a.x with 1, a.b.i with 2, a.b.j with 3. — end example]

3 An aggregate that is a class can also be initialized with a single expression not enclosed in braces, as described in 8.5.

4 An array of unknown size initialized with a brace-enclosed initializer-list containing n initializer-clauses, where n shall be greater than zero, is defined as having n elements (8.3.4). [Example:

```
int x[] = { 1, 3, 5 };
```

] declares and initializes x as a one-dimensional array that has three elements since no size was specified and there are three initializers. — end example] An empty initializer list {} shall not be used as the initializer-clause for an array of unknown bound.99

5 Static data members and anonymous bit fields are not considered members of the class for purposes of aggregate initialization. [Example:

```
struct A {
    int i;
    static int s;
    int j;
    int :17;
    int k;
} a = { 1, 2, 3 };
```

] Here, the second initializer 2 initializes a.j and not the static data member A::s, and the third initializer 3 initializes a.k and not the anonymous bit field before it. — end example]

6 An initializer-list is ill-formed if the number of initializer-clauses exceeds the number of members or elements to initialize. [Example:

```
char cv[4] = { 'a', 's', 'd', 'f', 0 }; // error
```

] is ill-formed. — end example]

7 If there are fewer initializer-clauses in the list than there are members in the aggregate, then each member not explicitly initialized shall be value-initialized (8.5). [Example:

```
struct S { int a; char* b; int c; }
S ss = { 1, "asdf" };
```

] initializes ss.a with 1, ss.b with "asdf", and ss.c with the value of an expression of the form int(), that is, 0. — end example]

8 If an aggregate class C contains a subaggregate member m that has no members for purposes of aggregate initialization, the initializer-clause for m shall not be omitted from an initializer-list for an object of type C unless the initializer-clauses for all members of C following m are also omitted. [Example:

```
99) The syntax provides for empty initializer-lists, but nonetheless C++ does not have zero length arrays.

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```
struct S {} s;
struct A {
    S s1;
    int i1;
    S s2;
    int i2;
    S s3;
    int i3;
} a = {
    { }, // Required initialization
    0,
    s, // Required initialization
    0
}; // Initialization not required for A::s3 because A::i3 is also not initialized

— end example]

If an incomplete or empty initializer-list leaves a member of reference type uninitialized, the program is ill-formed.

When initializing a multi-dimensional array, the initializer-clauses initialize the elements with the last (rightmost) index of the array varying the fastest (8.3.4). [Example:

```c
int x[2][2] = { 3, 1, 4, 2 };
```
initializes `x[0][0]` to 3, `x[0][1]` to 1, `x[1][0]` to 4, and `x[1][1]` to 2. On the other hand,

```c
float y[4][3] = {
    { 1 }, { 2 }, { 3 }, { 4 }
};
```
initializes the first column of `y` (regarded as a two-dimensional array) and leaves the rest zero. — end example]

In a declaration of the form

```c
T x = { a };
```

braces can be elided in an initializer-list as follows. If the initializer-list begins with a left brace, then the succeeding comma-separated list of initializer-clauses initializes the members of a subaggregate; it is erroneous for there to be more initializer-clauses than members. If, however, the initializer-list for a subaggregate does not begin with a left brace, then only enough initializer-clauses from the list are taken to initialize the members of the subaggregate; any remaining initializer-clauses are left to initialize the next member of the aggregate of which the current subaggregate is a member. [Example:

```c
float y[4][3] = {
    { 1, 3, 5 },
    { 2, 4, 6 },
    { 3, 5, 7 },
};
```
is a completely-braced initialization: 1, 3, and 5 initialize the first row of the array `y[0]`, namely `y[0][0]`, `y[0][1]`, and `y[0][2]`. Likewise the next two lines initialize `y[1]` and `y[2]`. The initializer ends early and therefore `y[3]`'s elements are initialized as if explicitly initialized with an expression of the form `float()`, that is, are initialized with 0.0. In the following example, braces in the initializer-list are elided; however the initializer-list has the same effect as the completely-braced initializer-list of the above example,

100) Braces cannot be elided in other uses of list-initialization.
float y[4][3] = {
    1, 3, 5, 2, 4, 6, 3, 5, 7
};

The initializer for y begins with a left brace, but the one for y[0] does not, therefore three elements from the list are used. Likewise the next three are taken successively for y[1] and y[2]. — end example]

All implicit type conversions (Clause 4) are considered when initializing the aggregate member with an *assignment-expression*. If the *assignment-expression* can initialize a member, the member is initialized. Otherwise, if the member is itself a subaggregate, brace elision is assumed and the *assignment-expression* is considered for the initialization of the first member of the subaggregate. [Note: As specified above, brace elision cannot apply to subaggregates with no members for purposes of aggregate initialization; an *initializer-clause* for the entire subobject is required. — end note]

**Example:**
```c
struct A {
    int i;
    operator int();
};
struct B {
    A a1, a2;
    int z;
};
A a;
B b = { 4, a, a };
```

Braces are elided around the *initializer-clause* for b.a1.i. b.a1.i is initialized with 4, b.a2 is initialized with a, b.z is initialized with whatever a.operator int() returns. — end example]

[Note: An aggregate array or an aggregate class may contain members of a class type with a user-provided constructor (12.1). Initialization of these aggregate objects is described in 12.6.1. — end note]

[Note: Whether the initialization of aggregates with static storage duration is static or dynamic is specified in 3.6.2 and 6.7. — end note]

When a union is initialized with a brace-enclosed initializer, the braces shall only contain an *initializer-clause* for the first non-static data member of the union. [Example:
```c
union u { int a; char* b; };
u a = { 1 };
u b = a;
u c = 1; // error
u d = { 0, "asdf" }; // error
u e = { "asdf" }; // error
```

— end example]

[Note: As described above, the braces around the *initializer-clause* for a union member can be omitted if the union is a member of another aggregate. — end note]

The full-expressions in an *initializer-clause* are evaluated in the order in which they appear.

### 8.5.2 Character arrays

A char array (whether plain char, signed char, or unsigned char), char16_t array, char32_t array, or wchar_t array can be initialized by a *string literal* (optionally enclosed in braces) with no prefix, with a
u-prefix, with a U-prefix, or with an L-prefix, narrow character literal, char16_t string literal, char32_t string literal, or wide string literal, respectively, or by an appropriately-typed string literal enclosed in braces. successive Successive characters of the string-literal value of the string literal initialize the members elements of the array. [Example:

```c
char msg[] = "Syntax error on line %s\n";
```

shows a character array whose members are initialized with a string-literal. Note that because \n is a single character and because a trailing \n is appended, sizeof(msg) is 25. — end example]

2 There shall not be more initializers than there are array elements. [Example:

```c
char cv[4] = "asdf"; // error
```

is ill-formed since there is no space for the implied trailing \0. — end example]

3 If there are fewer initializers than there are array elements, each element not explicitly initialized shall be zero-initialized (8.5).

8.5.3 References

1 A variable declared to be a T& or T&&, that is, “reference to type T” (8.3.2), shall be initialized by an object, or function, of type T or by an object that can be converted into a T. [Example:

```c
int g(int);
void f() {
    int i;
    int& r = i; // r refers to i
    r = 1; // the value of i becomes 1
    int* p = &r; // p points to i
    int& rr = r; // rr refers to what r refers to, that is, to i
    int (&rg)(int) = g; // rg refers to the function g
    rg(i); // calls function g
    int a[3];
    int (&ra)[3] = a; // ra refers to the array a
    ra[1] = i; // modifies a[1]
}
```

— end example]

2 A reference cannot be changed to refer to another object after initialization. Note that initialization of a reference is treated very differently from assignment to it. Argument passing (5.2.2) and function value return (6.6.3) are initializations.

3 The initializer can be omitted for a reference only in a parameter declaration (8.3.5), in the declaration of a function return type, in the declaration of a class member within its class definition (9.2), and where the extern specifier is explicitly used. [Example:

```c
int r1; // error: initializer missing
extern int& r2; // OK
```

— end example]

4 Given types “cv1 T1” and “cv2 T2,” “cv1 T1” is reference-related to “cv2 T2” if T1 is the same type as T2, or T1 is a base class of T2. “cv1 T1” is reference-compatible with “cv2 T2” if T1 is reference-related to T2 and cv1 is the same cv-qualification as, or greater cv-qualification than, cv2. For purposes of overload resolution, cases for which cv1 is greater cv-qualification than cv2 are identified as reference-compatible with added

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qualification (see 13.3.3.2). In all cases where the reference-related or reference-compatible relationship of two types is used to establish the validity of a reference binding, and T1 is a base class of T2, a program that necessitates such a binding is ill-formed if T1 is an inaccessible (Clause 11) or ambiguous (10.2) base class of T2.

A reference to type “cv1 T1” is initialized by an expression of type “cv2 T2” as follows:

— If the reference is an lvalue reference and the initializer expression
— is an lvalue (but is not a bit-field), and “cv1 T1” is reference-compatible with “cv2 T2,” or
— has a class type (i.e., T2 is a class type), where T1 is not reference-related to T2, and can be implicitly converted to an lvalue of type “cv3 T3,” where “cv1 T1” is reference-compatible with “cv3 T3” (this conversion is selected by enumerating the applicable conversion functions (13.3.1.6) and choosing the best one through overload resolution (13.3)),

then the reference is bound directly to the initializer expression lvalue in the first case, and the reference is bound and to the lvalue result of the conversion in the second case (or, in either case, to the appropriate base class subobject of the object). In these cases the reference is said to bind directly to the initializer expression. [Note: the usual lvalue-to-rvalue (4.1), array-to-pointer (4.2), and function-to-pointer (4.3) standard conversions are not needed, and therefore are suppressed, when such direct bindings to lvalues are done. — end note]

[Example:

double d = 2.0;
double& rd = d; // rd refers to d
const double& rcd = d; // rcd refers to d

struct A { };  
struct B : A { } b;  
A& ra = b; // ra refers to A subobject in b  
const A& rca = b; // rca refers to A subobject in b

— end example]

— Otherwise, the reference shall be an lvalue reference to a non-volatile const type (i.e., cv1 shall be const), or the reference shall be an rvalue reference and the initializer expression shall be an rvalue. [Example:

double& rd2 = 2.0; // error: not an lvalue and reference not const
int i = 2;
double& rd3 = i; // error: type mismatch and reference not const
double& rd4 = i; // error: rvalue reference cannot bind to lvalue

— end example]

— If the initializer expression is an rvalue, with T2 a class type, and “cv1 T1” is reference-compatible with “cv2 T2,” the reference is bound to the object represented by the rvalue (see 3.10) or to a subobject within that object. If T1 and T2 are class types and

— the initializer expression is an rvalue and “cv1 T1” is reference-compatible with “cv2 T2,” or
— T1 is not reference-related to T2 and the initializer expression can be implicitly converted to an rvalue of type “cv3 T3” (this conversion is selected by enumerating the applicable conversion functions (13.3.1.6) and choosing the best one through overload resolution (13.3)),

101) This requires a conversion function (12.3.2) returning a reference type.

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then the reference is bound to the initializer expression rvalue in the first case and to the object that is the result of the conversion in the second case (or, in either case, to the appropriate base class subobject of the object).

[Example:

```c
struct A {
    struct B : A {
        extern B f();
        const A& rca = f();
    } b;
}

// bound to the A subobject of the B value.
const A& rca = f();
// same as above
A&& rcb = f();

struct X {
    operator B() {
    }
}
const A& r = X();

// bound to the A subobject of the result of the conversion
```

— end example]

— If the initializer expression is an rvalue, with T2 an array type, and “cv1 T1” is reference-compatible with “cv2 T2,” the reference is bound to the object represented by the rvalue (see 3.10).

— Otherwise, a temporary of type “cv1 T1” is created and initialized from the initializer expression using the rules for a non-reference copy initialization (8.5). The reference is then bound to the temporary. If T1 is reference-related to T2, cv1 must be the same cv-qualification as, or greater cv-qualification than, cv2; otherwise, the program is ill-formed. [Example:

```c
const double& rcd2 = 2; // rcd2 refers to temporary with value 2.0
double&& rcd3 = 2; // rcd3 refers to temporary with value 2.0
const volatile int cvi = 1;
const int& r = cvi; // error: type qualifiers dropped
```

— end example]

In all cases except the last (i.e., creating and initializing a temporary from the initializer expression), the reference is said to bind directly to the initializer expression.

6 [Note: 12.2 describes the lifetime of temporaries bound to references. — end note]

### 8.5.4 List-initialization

**List-initialization** is initialization of an object or reference from a *braced-init-list*. Such an initializer is called an *initializer list*, and the comma-separated *initializer-clauses* of the list are called the *elements* of the initializer list. An initializer list may be empty. List-initialization can occur in direct-initialization or copy-initialization contexts; list-initialization in a direct-initialization context is called *direct-list-initialization* and list-initialization in a copy-initialization context is called *copy-list-initialization*. [Note: List-initialization can be used

— as the initializer in a variable definition (8.5)
— as the initializer in a new expression (5.3.4)
— in a return statement (6.6.3)
— as a function argument (5.2.2)
— as a subscript (5.2.1)
— as an argument to a constructor invocation (8.5, 5.2.3)
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— as an initializer for a non-static data member (9.2)
— as a base-or-member initializer (12.6.2)
— on the right-hand side of an assignment (5.17)
[ Example:
int a = {1};
std::complex<double> z{1,2};
new std::vector<std::string>{"once", "upon", "a", "time"}; // 4 string elements
f( {"Nicholas","Annemarie"} ); // pass list of two elements
return { "Norah" };
// return list of one element
int* e {};
// initialization to zero / null pointer
x = double{1};
// explicitly construct a double
std::map<std::string,int> anim = { {"bear",4}, {"cassowary",2}, {"tiger",7} };

— end example ] — end note ]
2

A constructor is an initializer-list constructor if its first parameter is of type std::initializer_list<E>
or reference to possibly cv-qualified std::initializer_list<E> for some type E, and either there are
no other parameters or else all other parameters have default arguments (8.3.6). [ Note: Initializer-list
constructors are favored over other constructors in list-initialization (13.3.1.7). — end note ] The template
std::initializer_list is not predefined; if the header <initializer_list> is not included prior to a use
of std::initializer_list — even an implicit use in which the type is not named (7.1.6.4) — the program
is ill-formed.

3

List-initialization of an object or reference of type T is defined as follows:
— If T is an aggregate, aggregate initialization is performed (8.5.1).
[ Example:
double ad[] = { 1, 2.0 };
int ai[] = { 1, 2.0 };

// OK
// error: narrowing

— end example ]
— Otherwise, if T is a specialization of std::initializer_list<E>, an initializer_list object is
constructed as described below and used to initialize the object according to the rules for initialization
of an object from a class of the same type (8.5).
— Otherwise, if T is a class type, constructors are considered. If T has an initializer-list constructor, the
argument list consists of the initializer list as a single argument; otherwise, the argument list consists
of the elements of the initializer list. The applicable constructors are enumerated (13.3.1.7) and the
best one is chosen through overload resolution (13.3). If a narrowing conversion (see below) is required
to convert any of the arguments, the program is ill-formed.
[ Example:
struct S {
S(std::initializer_list<double>);
S(std::initializer_list<int>);
// ...
};
S s1 = { 1.0, 2.0, 3.0 };
S s2 = { 1, 2, 3 };

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// #1
// #2

// invoke #1
// invoke #2

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Example:

```cpp
class Map {
    Map(std::initializer_list<std::pair<std::string, int>>);
};
Map ship = {"Sophie", 14}, {"Surprise", 28};
```

Example:

```cpp
class S {
    S(int, double, double); // #1
    S(); // #2
    // ...
};
S s1 = {1, 2, 3.0}; // OK: invoke #1
S s2 {1.0, 2, 3}; // error: narrowing
S s3 {} // OK: invoke #2
```

```cpp
class S2 {
    int m1;
    double m2, m3;
};
S2 s21 = {1, 2, 3.0}; // OK
S2 s22 {1.0, 2, 3}; // error: narrowing
S2 s23 {}; // OK: default to 0, 0, 0
```

Example:

```cpp
class S {
    S(std::initializer_list<double>); // #1
    S(const std::string&); // #2
    // ...
};
const S& r1 = {1, 2, 3.0}; // OK: invoke #1
const S& r2 {"Spinach"}; // OK: invoke #2
S& r3 = {1, 2, 3}; // error: initializer is not an lvalue
```

Example:

```cpp
int x1 {2}; // OK
int x2 {2.0}; // error: narrowing
```
— Otherwise, if the initializer list has no elements, the object is value-initialized.

[Example:

```cpp
int** pp {}; // initialized to null pointer
```
— end example]

— Otherwise, the program is ill-formed.

[Example:

```cpp
struct A { int i; int j; };
A a1 { 1, 2 }; // aggregate initialization
A a2 { 1.2 }; // error: narrowing
struct B {
    B(std::initializer_list<int>); // creates initializer_list<int> and calls constructor
};
B b1 { 1, 2 }; // error: narrowing
B b2 { 1, 2.0 }; // error: narrowing
struct C {
    C(int i, double j); // calls constructor with arguments (1, 2.2)
};
C c1 = { 1, 2.2 }; // error: narrowing
C c2 = { 1.1, 2 }; // initialize to 1
int j { 1 }; // initialize to 0
int k { }; // initialize to 0
```
— end example]

4 When an initializer list is implicitly converted to a \texttt{std::initializer_list\langle E\rangle} is constructed from an initializer list, the object passed is constructed as if the implementation allocated an array of \( N \) elements of type \( E \), where \( N \) is the number of elements in the initializer list. Each element of that array is \texttt{copy}-initialized with the corresponding element of the initializer list \texttt{converted to E}, and the \texttt{std::initializer_list\langle E\rangle} object is constructed to refer to that array. If a narrowing conversion is required to \texttt{convert the element to E} initialize any of the elements, the program is ill-formed. [Example:

```cpp
struct X {
    X(std::initializer_list<double> v);
};
X x{ 1,2,3 };
```

The initialization will be implemented in a way roughly equivalent to this:

```cpp
double __a[3] = {double{1}, double{2}, double{3}};
X x(std::initializer_list<double>(__a, __a+3));
```

assuming that the implementation can construct an \texttt{initializer_list} object with a pair of pointers. — end example]

5 The lifetime of the array is the same as that of the \texttt{initializer_list} object. [Example:

```cpp
typedef std::complex<double> cmplx;
std::vector<cmplx> v1 = { 1, 2, 3 };
void f() {
```

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std::vector<cmplx> v2{ 1, 2, 3 };  
std::initializer_list<int> i3 = { 1, 2, 3 };  
}

For v1 and v2, the initializer_list object and array created for { 1, 2, 3 } have full-expression lifetime. For i3, the initializer_list object and array have automatic lifetime. — end example] [Note: The implementation is free to allocate the array in read-only memory if an explicit array with the same initializer could be so allocated. — end note]

6 A narrowing conversion is an implicit conversion

— from a floating-point type to an integer type, or

— from long double to double or float, or from double to float, except where the source is a constant expression and the actual value after conversion will fit into the target type and will produce the original value when converted back to the original type, is within the range of values that can be represented (even if it cannot be represented exactly), or

— from an integer type or unscoped enumeration type to a floating-point type, except where the source is a constant expression and the actual value after conversion will fit into the target type and will produce the original value when converted back to the original type, or

— from an integer type or unscoped enumeration type to an integer type that cannot represent all the values of the original type, except where the source is a constant expression and the actual value after conversion will fit into the target type and will produce the original value when converted back to the original type.

[Note: As indicated above, such conversions are not allowed at the top level in list-initializations. [Example:

int x = 999;  // x is not a constant expression
const int y = 999;
const int z = 99;
char c1 = x;  // OK, though it might narrow (in this case, it does narrow)
char c2(x);  // error, might narrow
char c3(y);  // error: narrows
char c4(x);  // OK, no narrowing needed
unsigned char uc1 = 5; // OK: no narrowing needed
unsigned char uc2 = -1; // error: narrows
unsigned int ui1 = -1; // error: narrows
signed int si1 =
{ (unsigned int)-1 };  // error: narrows
int ii = {2.0};  // error: narrows
float f1 { x };  // error: narrows
float f2 { 7 };  // OK: 7 can be exactly represented as a float
int f(int);
int a[] =
{ 2, f(2), f(2.0) };  // OK: the double-to-int conversion is not at the top level

— end example]
9 Classes

1 A class is a type. Its name becomes a class-name (9.1) within its scope.

   class-name:
   identifier
   simple-template-id

Class-specifiers and elaborated-type-specifiers (7.1.6.3) are used to make class-names. An object of a class consists of a (possibly empty) sequence of members and base class objects.

   class-specifier:
   class-head { member-specification_opt }

   class-head:
   class-key identifier_opt attribute-specifier_opt base-clause_opt
   class-key nested-name-specifier identifier attribute-specifier_opt base-clause_opt
   class-key nested-name-specifier_opt simple-template-id attribute-specifier_opt base-clause_opt

   class-key:
   class
   struct
   union

A class-specifier where the class-head omits the optional identifier defines an unnamed class.

2 A class-name is inserted into the scope in which it is declared immediately after the class-name is seen. The class-name is also inserted into the scope of the class itself; this is known as the injected-class-name. For purposes of access checking, the injected-class-name is treated as if it were a public member name. A class-specifier is commonly referred to as a class definition. A class is considered defined after the closing brace of its class-specifier has been seen even though its member functions are in general not yet defined. The optional attribute-specifier appertains to the class; the attributes in the attribute-specifier are thereafter considered attributes of the class whenever it is named.

3 Complete objects and member subobjects of class type shall have nonzero size.\textsuperscript{102} [Note: class objects can be assigned, passed as arguments to functions, and returned by functions (except objects of classes for which copying has been restricted; see 12.8). Other plausible operators, such as equality comparison, can be defined by the user; see 13.5. — end note]

4 A union is a class defined with the class-key union; it holds only one data member at a time (9.5). [Note: aggregates of class type are described in 8.5.1. — end note]

5 A trivially copyable class is a class that:
   — has no non-trivial copy constructors (12.8),
   — has no non-trivial copy assignment operators (13.5.3, 12.8), and
   — has a trivial destructor (12.4).

A trivial class is a class that has a trivial default constructor (12.1) and is trivially copyable. [Note: in particular, a trivially copyable or trivial class does not have virtual functions or virtual base classes. — end note]

\textsuperscript{102} Base class subobjects are not so constrained.
6 A standard-layout class is a class that:
   — has no non-static data members of type non-standard-layout class (or array of such types) or reference,
   — has no virtual functions (10.3) and no virtual base classes (10.1),
   — has the same access control (Clause 11) for all non-static data members,
   — has no non-standard-layout base classes,
   — either has no non-static data members in the most-derived class and at most one base class with
     non-static data members, or has no base classes with non-static data members, and
   — has no base classes of the same type as the first non-static data member.\textsuperscript{103}

7 A standard-layout struct is a standard-layout class defined with the class-key \texttt{struct} or the class-key \texttt{class}. A standard-layout union is a standard-layout class defined with the class-key \texttt{union}.

8 [ Note: standard-layout classes are useful for communicating with code written in other programming languages. Their layout is specified in 9.2. — end note ]

9 A POD struct is a class that is both a trivial class and a standard-layout class, and has no non-static data members of type non-POD struct, non-POD union (or array of such types). Similarly, a POD union is a union that is both a trivial class and a standard-layout class, and has no non-static data members of type non-POD struct, non-POD union (or array of such types). A POD class is a class that is either a POD struct or a POD union.

   [ Example:
   
   \begin{verbatim}
   struct N { // neither trivial nor standard-layout
     int i;
     int j;
     virtual ~N();
   };
   
   struct T { // trivial but not standard-layout
     int i;
     private:
       int j;
   };
   
   struct SL { // standard-layout but not trivial
     int i;
     int j;
     ~SL();
   };
   
   struct POD { // both trivial and standard-layout
     int i;
     int j;
   };
   \end{verbatim}

   — end example ]

10 If a class-head contains a nested-name-specifier, the class-specifier shall refer to a class that was previously declared directly in the class or namespace to which the nested-name-specifier refers (i.e., neither inherited

\textsuperscript{103} This ensures that two subobjects that have the same class type and that belong to the same most-derived object are not allocated at the same address (5.10).
nor introduced by a using-declaration), and the class-specifier shall appear in a namespace enclosing the previous declaration.

9.1 Class names

1 A class definition introduces a new type. [Example:

```c
struct X { int a; };
struct Y { int a; };
X a1;
Y a2;
int a3;
```

declares three variables of three different types. This implies that

```c
a1 = a2; // error: Y assigned to X
a1 = a3; // error: int assigned to X
```

are type mismatches, and that

```c
int f(X);
int f(Y);
```

declare an overloaded (Clause 13) function f() and not simply a single function f() twice. For the same reason,

```c
struct S { int a; };
struct S { int a; }; // error, double definition
```

is ill-formed because it defines S twice. — end example]

2 A class declaration introduces the class name into the scope where it is declared and hides any class, object, function, or other declaration of that name in an enclosing scope (3.3). If a class name is declared in a scope where an object, function, or enumerator of the same name is also declared, then when both declarations are in scope, the class can be referred to only using an elaborated-type-specifier (3.4.4). [Example:

```c
struct stat {
    // ...
};

stat gstat; // use plain stat to
            // define variable

int stat(struct stat*); // redeclare stat as function

void f() {
    struct stat* ps; // struct prefix needed
                      // to name struct stat
    stat(ps); // call stat()
}
```

— end example] A declaration consisting solely of class-key identifier; is either a redeclaration of the name in the current scope or a forward declaration of the identifier as a class name. It introduces the class name into the current scope. [Example:
struct s { int a; };

void g() {
    struct s; // hide global struct s
    // with a local declaration
    s* p;
    // refer to local struct s
    struct s { char* p; }; // define local struct s
    struct s; // redeclaration, has no effect
}

— end example] [ Note: Such declarations allow definition of classes that refer to each other. [Example:

class Vector;

class Matrix {
    // ...
    friend Vector operator*(const Matrix&, const Vector&);
};

class Vector {
    // ...
    friend Vector operator*(const Matrix&, const Vector&);
};

Declaration of friends is described in 11.4, operator functions in 13.5. — end example] — end note]

3 [ Note: An elaborated-type-specifier (7.1.6.3) can also be used as a type-specifier as part of a declaration. It differs from a class declaration in that if a class of the elaborated name is in scope the elaborated name will refer to it. — end note] [Example:

struct s { int a; };

void g(int s) {
    struct s* p = new struct s; // global s
    p->a = s; // local s
}

— end example]

4 [ Note: The declaration of a class name takes effect immediately after the identifier is seen in the class definition or elaborated-type-specifier. For example,

class A * A;

first specifies A to be the name of a class and then redefines it as the name of a pointer to an object of that class. This means that the elaborated form class A must be used to refer to the class. Such artistry with names can be confusing and is best avoided. — end note]

5 A typedef-name (7.1.3) that names a class type, or a cv-qualified version thereof, is also a class-name. If a typedef-name that names a cv-qualified class type is used where a class-name is required, the cv-qualifiers
are ignored. A *typedef-name* shall not be used as the *identifier* in a *class-head*.

### 9.2 Class members

**member-specification:**
- member-declaration member-specification<sub>opt</sub>
- access-specifier : member-specification<sub>opt</sub>

**member-declaration:**
- decl-specifier-seq<sub>opt</sub>
  - attribute-specifier<sub>opt</sub> member-declarator-list<sub>opt</sub>
- function-definition ;<sub>opt</sub>
  ::<sub>opt</sub> nested-name-specifier template<sub>opt</sub> unqualified-id ;
- using-declaration
- static_assert-declaration
- template-declaration

**member-declarator-list:**
- member-declarator
- member-declarator-list , member-declarator

**member-declarator:**
- declarator pure-specifier<sub>opt</sub>
- declarator brace-or-equal-initializer<sub>opt</sub>
- identifier<sub>opt</sub> attribute-specifier<sub>opt</sub> : constant-expression

pure-specifier:
= 0

1 The *member-specification* in a class definition declares the full set of members of the class; no member can be added elsewhere. Members of a class are data members, member functions (9.3), nested types, and enumerators. Data members and member functions are static or non-static; see 9.4. Nested types are classes (9.1, 9.7) and enumerations (7.2) defined in the class, and arbitrary types declared as members by use of a typedef declaration (7.1.3). The enumerators of an unscoped enumeration (7.2) defined in the class are members of the class. Except when used to declare friends (11.4) or to introduce the name of a member of a base class into a derived class (7.3.3, 11.3), *member-declarations* declare members of the class, and each such *member-declaration* shall declare at least one member name of the class. A member shall not be declared twice in the *member-specification*, except that a nested class or member class template can be declared and then later defined, and except that an enumeration can be introduced with an opaque-enum-declaration and later redeclared with an *enum-specifier*.

A class is considered a completely-defined object type (3.9) (or complete type) at the closing } of the *class-specifier*. Within the class *member-specification*, the class is regarded as complete within function bodies, default arguments, *exception-specifications*, and brace-or-equal-initializers for non-static data members (including such things in nested classes). Otherwise it is regarded as incomplete within its own class *member-specification*.

2 [Note: a single name can denote several function members provided their types are sufficiently different (Clause 13). — end note]

3 A member can be initialized using a constructor; see 12.1. [Note: see Clause 12 for a description of constructors and other special member functions. — end note]

4 A member can be initialized using a *brace-or-equal-initializer*. (For static data members, see 9.4.2; for non-static data members, see 12.6.2).

5 A member shall not be declared with the *extern* or *register* *storage-class-specifier*. Within a class definition, a member shall not be declared with the *thread_local* *storage-class-specifier* unless also declared *static*. 

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The `decl-specifier-seq` is omitted in constructor, destructor, and conversion function declarations only. The `member-declarator-list` can be omitted only after a `class-specifier` or an `enum-specifier` or in a `friend` declaration (11.4). A `pure-specifier` shall be used only in the declaration of a virtual function (10.3).

Non-static (9.4) data members shall not have incomplete types. In particular, a class `C` shall not contain a non-static member of class `C`, but it can contain a pointer or reference to an object of class `C`.

[ Note: See 5.1 for restrictions on the use of non-static data members and non-static member functions. — end note ]

[ Note: the type of a non-static member function is an ordinary function type, and the type of a non-static data member is an ordinary object type. There are no special member function types or data member types. — end note ]

Example: A simple example of a class definition is

```cpp
struct tnode {  
  char tword[20];  
  int count;  
  tnode *left;  
  tnode *right;  
};
```

which contains an array of twenty characters, an integer, and two pointers to objects of the same type. Once this definition has been given, the declaration

```cpp
tnode s, *sp;
```

declares `s` to be a `tnode` and `sp` to be a pointer to a `tnode`. With these declarations, `sp->count` refers to the `count` member of the object to which `sp` points; `s.left` refers to the `left` subtree pointer of the object `s`; and `s.right->tword[0]` refers to the initial character of the `tword` member of the `right` subtree of `s`. — end example]

Nonstatic data members of a (non-union) class with the same access control (Clause 11) are allocated so that later members have higher addresses within a class object. The order of allocation of non-static data members with different access control is unspecified (11). Implementation alignment requirements might cause two adjacent members not to be allocated immediately after each other; so might requirements for space for managing virtual functions (10.3) and virtual base classes (10.1).

If `T` is the name of a class, then each of the following shall have a name different from `T`:

— every static data member of class `T`;

— every member function of class `T` [ Note: this restriction does not apply to constructors, which do not have names (12.1) — end note ];

— every member of class `T` that is itself a type;

— every enumerator of every member of class `T` that is an enumerated type; and

— every member of every anonymous union that is a member of class `T`.

In addition, if class `T` has a user-declared constructor (12.1), every non-static data member of class `T` shall have a name different from `T`.

Two standard-layout struct (Clause 9) types are layout-compatible if they have the same number of non-static data members and corresponding non-static data members (in declaration order) have layout-compatible types (3.9).
Two standard-layout union (Clause 9) types are layout-compatible if they have the same number of non-static data members and corresponding non-static data members (in any order) have layout-compatible types (3.9).

If a standard-layout union contains two or more standard-layout structs that share a common initial sequence, and if the standard-layout union object currently contains one of these standard-layout structs, it is permitted to inspect the common initial part of any of them. Two standard-layout structs share a common initial sequence if corresponding members have layout-compatible types and either neither member is a bit-field or both are bit-fields with the same width for a sequence of one or more initial members.

A pointer to a standard-layout struct object, suitably converted using a reinterpret_cast, points to its initial member (or if that member is a bit-field, then to the unit in which it resides) and vice versa. [Note: There might therefore be unnamed padding within a standard-layout struct object, but not at its beginning, as necessary to achieve appropriate alignment. — end note]

9.3 Member functions

Functions declared in the definition of a class, excluding those declared with a friend specifier (11.4), are called member functions of that class. A member function may be declared static in which case it is a static member function of its class (9.4); otherwise it is a non-static member function of its class (9.3.1, 9.3.2).

A member function may be defined (8.4) in its class definition, in which case it is an inline member function (7.1.2), or it may be defined outside of its class definition if it has already been declared but not defined in its class definition. A member function definition that appears outside of the class definition shall appear in a namespace scope enclosing the class definition. Except for member function definitions that appear outside of a class definition, and except for explicit specializations of member functions of class templates and member function templates (14.8) appearing outside of the class definition, a member function shall not be redeclared.

An inline member function (whether static or non-static) may also be defined outside of its class definition provided either its declaration in the class definition or its definition outside of the class definition declares the function as inline. [Note: member functions of a class in namespace scope have external linkage. Member functions of a local class (9.8) have no linkage. See 3.5. — end note]

There shall be at most one definition of a non-inline member function in a program; no diagnostic is required. There may be more than one inline member function definition in a program. See 3.2 and 7.1.2.

If the definition of a member function is lexically outside its class definition, the member function name shall be qualified by its class name using the :: operator. [Note: a name used in a member function definition (that is, in the parameter-declaration-clause including the default arguments (8.3.6) or in the member function body) is looked up as described in 3.4. — end note] [Example:

```
struct X {
    typedef int T;
    static T count;
    void f(T);
};
void X::f(T t = count) { }
```

The member function f of class X is defined in global scope; the notation X::f specifies that the function f is a member of class X and in the scope of class X. In the function definition, the parameter type T refers to the typedef member T declared in class X and the default argument count refers to the static data member count declared in class X. — end example]
6 A static local variable in a member function always refers to the same object, whether or not the member function is inline.

7 Member functions may be mentioned in friend declarations after their class has been defined.

8 Member functions of a local class shall be defined inline in their class definition, if they are defined at all.

9 [Note: a member function can be declared (but not defined) using a typedef for a function type. The resulting member function has exactly the same type as it would have if the function declarator were provided explicitly, see 8.3.5. For example,

```c
typedef void fv(void);
typedef void fvc(void) const;
struct S {
    fv memfunc1; // equivalent to: void memfunc1(void);
    void memfunc2();
    fvc memfunc3; // equivalent to: void memfunc3(void) const;
};
fv S::* pmfv1 = &S::memfunc1;
fv S::* pmfv2 = &S::memfunc2;
fvc S::* pmfv3 = &S::memfunc3;
```

Also see 14.4. — end note]

9.3.1 Nonstatic member functions

[class.mfct.non-static]

1 A non-static member function may be called for an object of its class type, or for an object of a class derived (Clause 10) from its class type, using the class member access syntax (5.2.5, 13.3.1.1). A non-static member function may also be called directly using the function call syntax (5.2.2, 13.3.1.1) from within the body of a member function of its class or of a class derived from its class.

2 If a non-static member function of a class X is called for an object that is not of type X, or of a type derived from X, the behavior is undefined.

3 When an id-expression (5.1) that is not part of a class member access syntax (5.2.5) and not used to form a pointer to member (5.3.1) is used in the body of a non-static member function of class X, if name lookup (3.4.1) resolves the name in the id-expression to a non-static non-type member of some class C, the id-expression is transformed into a class member access expression (5.2.5) using (*this) (9.3.2) as the postfix-expression to the left of the . operator. [Note: if C is not X or a base class of X, the class member access expression is ill-formed. — end note] Similarly during name lookup, when an unqualified-id (5.1) used in the definition of a member function for class X resolves to a static member, an enumerator or a nested type of class X or of a base class of X, the unqualified-id is transformed into a qualified-id (5.1) in which the nested-name-specifier names the class of the member function. [Example:

```c
struct tnode {
    char tword[20];
    int count;
    tnode *left;
    tnode *right;
    void set(char*, tnode* l, tnode* r);
};

void tnode::set(char* w, tnode* l, tnode* r) {
    count = strlen(w)+1;
    if (sizeof(tword)<=count)
        perror("tnode string too long");
    strcpy(tword,w);
}
```

§ 9.3.1
left = l;
right = r;
}

void f(tnode n1, tnode n2) {
    n1.set("abc", &n2, 0);
    n2.set("def", 0, 0);
}

In the body of the member function tnode::set, the member names tword, count, left, and right refer to members of the object for which the function is called. Thus, in the call n1.set("abc", &n2, 0), tword refers to n1.tword, and in the call n2.set("def", 0, 0), it refers to n2.tword. The functions strlen, perror, and strcpy are not members of the class tnode and should be declared elsewhere. — end example

A non-static member function may be declared const, volatile, or const volatile. These cv-qualifiers affect the type of the this pointer (9.3.2). They also affect the function type (8.3.5) of the member function; a member function declared const is a const member function, a member function declared volatile is a volatile member function and a member function declared const volatile is a const volatile member function. [Example:

    struct X {
        void g() const;
        void h() const volatile;
    };

    X::g is a const member function and X::h is a const volatile member function. — end example]

A non-static member function may be declared with a ref-qualifier (8.3.5); see 13.3.1.

A non-static member function may be declared virtual (10.3) or pure virtual (10.4).

9.3.2 The this pointer [class.this]

In the body of a non-static (9.3) member function, the keyword this is an rvalue expression whose value is the address of the object for which the function is called. The type of this in a member function of a class X is X*. If the member function is declared const, the type of this is const X*, if the member function is declared volatile, the type of this is volatile X*, and if the member function is declared const volatile, the type of this is const volatile X*.

In a const member function, the object for which the function is called is accessed through a const access path; therefore, a const member function shall not modify the object and its non-static data members. [Example:

    struct s {
        int a;
        int f() const;
        int g() { return a++; } // error
    };

    int s::f() const { return a; }

The a++ in the body of s::f is ill-formed because it tries to modify (a part of) the object for which s::f() is called. This is not allowed in a const member function because this is a pointer to const; that is, *this has const type. — end example]

104 See, for example, <cstring> (21.6).
Similarly, volatile semantics (7.1.6.1) apply in volatile member functions when accessing the object and its non-static data members.

A cv-qualified member function can be called on an object-expression (5.2.5) only if the object-expression is as cv-qualified or less-cv-qualified than the member function. [Example:

```c
void k(s& x, const s& y) {
    x.f();
    x.g();
    y.f();
    y.g(); // error
}
```

The call `y.g()` is ill-formed because `y` is `const` and `s::g()` is a non-`const` member function, that is, `s::g()` is less-qualified than the object-expression `y`. — end example]

Constructors (12.1) and destructors (12.4) shall not be declared `const`, `volatile` or `const volatile`. [Note: However, these functions can be invoked to create and destroy objects with cv-qualified types, see (12.1) and (12.4). — end note]

### 9.4 Static members

1. A data or function member of a class may be declared `static` in a class definition, in which case it is a static member of the class.

2. A static member `s` of class `X` may be referred to using the qualified-id expression `X::s`; it is not necessary to use the class member access syntax (5.2.5) to refer to a static member. A static member may be referred to using the class member access syntax, in which case the object-expression is evaluated. [Example:

```c
struct process {
    static void reschedule();
};
process& g();

void f() {
    process::reschedule(); // OK: no object necessary
    g().reschedule(); // g() is called
}
```

— end example]

3. A static member may be referred to directly in the scope of its class or in the scope of a class derived (Clause 10) from its class; in this case, the static member is referred to as if a qualified-id expression was used, with the nested-name-specifier of the qualified-id naming the class scope from which the static member is referenced. [Example:

```c
int g();
struct X {
    static int g();
};
struct Y : X {
    static int i;
};
int Y::i = g(); // equivalent to Y::g();
```

— end example]
If an unqualified-id (5.1) is used in the definition of a static member following the member’s declarator-id, and name lookup (3.4.1) finds that the unqualified-id refers to a static member, enumerator, or nested type of the member’s class (or of a base class of the member’s class), the unqualified-id is transformed into a qualified-id expression in which the nested-name-specifier names the class scope from which the member is referenced. [Note: See 5.1 for restrictions on the use of non-static data members and non-static member functions. — end note]

Static members obey the usual class member access rules (Clause 11). When used in the declaration of a class member, the static specifier shall only be used in the member declarations that appear within the member-specification of the class definition. [Note: it cannot be specified in member declarations that appear in namespace scope. — end note]

### 9.4.1 Static member functions

[class.static.mfct]

[Note: the rules described in 9.3 apply to static member functions. — end note]

A static member function does not have a this pointer (9.3.2). — end note] A static member function shall not be virtual. There shall not be a static and a non-static member function with the same name and the same parameter types (13.1). A static member function shall not be declared const, volatile, or const volatile.

### 9.4.2 Static data members

[class.static.data]

A static data member is not part of the subobjects of a class. If a static data member is declared thread_local there is one copy of the member per thread. If a static data member is not declared thread_local there is one copy of the data member that is shared by all the objects of the class.

The declaration of a static data member in its class definition is not a definition and may be of an incomplete type other than cv-qualified void. The definition for a static data member shall appear in a namespace scope enclosing the member’s class definition. In the definition at namespace scope, the name of the static data member shall be qualified by its class name using the :: operator. The initializer expression in the definition of a static data member is in the scope of its class (3.3.7).

Example:

```cpp
class process {
  static process* run_chain;
  static process* running;
};

process* process::running = get_main();
process* process::run_chain = running;
```

The static data member `run_chain` of class `process` is defined in global scope; the notation `process::run_chain` specifies that the member `run_chain` is a member of class `process` and in the scope of class `process`. In the static data member definition, the `initializer` expression refers to the static data member `running` of class `process`. — end example]

[Note: once the static data member has been defined, it exists even if no objects of its class have been created. [Example: in the example above, `run_chain` and `running` exist even if no objects of class `process` are created by the program. — end example] — end note]

If a static data member is of const literal type, its declaration in the class definition can specify a brace-or-equal-initializer in which every initializer-clause that is an assignment-expression is a constant expression. A static data member of literal type can be declared in the class definition with the constexpr specifier; if so, its declaration shall specify a brace-or-equal-initializer in which every initializer-clause that is an assignment-expression is a constant expression. [Note: In both these cases, the member may appear in

§ 9.4.2
constant expressions. — end note] The member shall still be defined in a namespace scope if it is used in
the program and the namespace scope definition shall not contain an initializer.

4 There shall be exactly one definition of a static data member that is used in a program; no diagnostic is
required; see 3.2. Unnamed classes and classes contained directly or indirectly within unnamed classes shall
not contain static data members.

5 Static data members of a class in namespace scope have external linkage (3.5). A local class shall not have
static data members.

6 Static data members are initialized and destroyed exactly like non-local objects (3.6.2, 3.6.3).

7 A static data member shall not be mutable (7.1.1).

9.5 Unions

1 In a union, at most one of the non-static data members can be active at any time, that is, the value of at
most one of the non-static data members can be stored in a union at any time. [Note: one special guarantee
is made in order to simplify the use of unions: If a standard-layout union contains several standard-layout
structs that share a common initial sequence (9.2), and if an object of this standard-layout union type
contains one of the standard-layout structs, it is permitted to inspect the common initial sequence of any of
standard-layout struct members; see 9.2. — end note] The size of a union is sufficient to contain the largest
of its non-static data members. Each non-static data member is allocated as if it were the sole member of a
struct. A union can have member functions (including constructors and destructors), but not virtual (10.3)
functions. A union shall not have base classes. A union shall not be used as a base class. If a union
contains a non-static data member of reference type the program is ill-formed. At most one non-static
data member of a union may have a brace-or-equal-initializer. [Note: if any non-static data member of a
union has a non-trivial default constructor (12.1), copy constructor (12.8), copy assignment operator (12.8),
or destructor (12.4), the corresponding member function of the union must be user-provided or it will be
implicitly deleted (8.4) for the union. — end note]

[Example: Consider the following union:

```cpp
union U {
    int i;
    float f;
    std::string s;
};
```

Since std::string (21.3) declares non-trivial versions of all of the special member functions, U will have an
implicitly deleted default constructor, copy constructor, copy assignment operator, and destructor. To use
U, some or all of these member functions must be user-declared.

Consider an object u of a union type U having non-static data members m of type M and n of type N. If M has
a non-trivial destructor and N has a non-trivial constructor (for instance, if they declare or inherit virtual
functions), the active member of u can be safely switched from m to n using the destructor and placement
new operator as follows:

```cpp
u.m~M();
new (&u.n) N;
```

— end example]

2 A union of the form

```cpp
union { member-specification };
```

§ 9.5
is called an anonymous union; it defines an unnamed object of unnamed type. The member-specification of an anonymous union shall only define non-static data members. [Note: nested types and functions cannot be declared within an anonymous union. — end note] The names of the members of an anonymous union shall be distinct from the names of any other entity in the scope in which the anonymous union is declared. For the purpose of name lookup, after the anonymous union definition, the members of the anonymous union are considered to have been defined in the scope in which the anonymous union is declared. [Example:

```c
void f() {
    union { int a; char* p; };
    a = 1;
    p = "Jennifer";
}
```

Here `a` and `p` are used like ordinary (nonmember) variables, but since they are union members they have the same address. — end example]

Anonymous unions declared in a named namespace or in the global namespace shall be declared static. Anonymous unions declared at block scope shall be declared with any storage class allowed for a block-scope variable, or with no storage class. A storage class is not allowed in a declaration of an anonymous union in a class scope. An anonymous union shall not have private or protected members (Clause 11). An anonymous union shall not have function members.

A union for which objects or pointers are declared is not an anonymous union. [Example:

```c
union { int aa; char* p; } obj, *ptr = &obj;
    aa = 1; // error
    ptr->aa = 1; // OK
```

The assignment to plain `aa` is ill-formed since the member name is not visible outside the union, and even if it were visible, it is not associated with any particular object. — end example] [Note: Initialization of unions with no user-declared constructors is described in (8.5.1). — end note]

A union-like class is a union or a class that has an anonymous union as a direct member. A union-like class `X` has a set of variant members. If `X` is a union its variant members are the non-static data members; otherwise, its variant members are the non-static data members of all anonymous unions that are members of `X`.

### 9.6 Bit-fields

A member-declarator of the form

```
identifier_opt attribute-specifier_opt : constant-expression
```

specifies a bit-field; its length is set off from the bit-field name by a colon. The optional attribute-specifier appertains to the entity being declared. The bit-field attribute is not part of the type of the class member. The constant-expression shall be an integral constant expression with a value greater than or equal to zero. The value of the integral constant expression may be larger than the number of bits in the object representation (3.9) of the bit-field’s type; in such cases the extra bits are used as padding bits and do not participate in the value representation (3.9) of the bit-field. Allocation of bit-fields within a class object is implementation-defined. Alignment of bit-fields is implementation-defined. Bit-fields are packed into some addressable allocation unit. [Note: bit-fields straddle allocation units on some machines and not on others. Bit-fields are assigned right-to-left on some machines, left-to-right on others. — end note]

A declaration for a bit-field that omits the identifier declares an unnamed bit-field. Unnamed bit-fields are not members and cannot be initialized. [Note: an unnamed bit-field is useful for padding to conform to externally-imposed layouts. — end note] As a special case, an unnamed bit-field with a width of zero
specifies alignment of the next bit-field at an allocation unit boundary. Only when declaring an unnamed bit-field may the value of the constant-expression be equal to zero.

A bit-field shall not be a static member. A bit-field shall have integral or enumeration type (3.9.1). It is implementation-defined whether a plain (neither explicitly signed nor unsigned) char, short, int or long bit-field is signed or unsigned. A bool value can successfully be stored in a bit-field of any nonzero size. The address-of operator & shall not be applied to a bit-field, so there are no pointers to bit-fields. A non-const reference shall not be bound to a bit-field (8.5.3). [Note: if the initializer for a reference of type const T& is an lvalue that refers to a bit-field, the reference is bound to a temporary initialized to hold the value of the bit-field; the reference is not bound to the bit-field directly. See 8.5.3. — end note]

If the value true or false is stored into a bit-field of type bool of any size (including a one bit bit-field), the original bool value and the value of the bit-field shall compare equal. If the value of an enumerator is stored into a bit-field of the same enumeration type and the number of bits in the bit-field is large enough to hold all the values of that enumeration type (7.2), the original enumerator value and the value of the bit-field shall compare equal. [Example:]

```c
enum BOOL { FALSE=0, TRUE=1 };  
struct A {  
    BOOL b:1;  
};  
A a;  
void f() {  
    a.b = TRUE;  
    if (a.b == TRUE) // yields true  
        { /* ... */ }  
}
```

— end example]

9.7 Nested class declarations

A class can be declared within another class. A class declared within another is called a nested class. The name of a nested class is local to its enclosing class. The nested class is in the scope of its enclosing class. [Note: see 5.1 for restrictions on the use of non-static data members and non-static member functions. — end note]

[Example:

```c
int x;  
int y;  

struct enclose {  
    int x;  
    static int s;  

    struct inner {  
        void f(int i) {  
            int a = sizeof(x); // OK: operand of sizeof is an unevaluated operand  
            x = i; // error: assign to enclose::x  
            s = i; // OK: assign to enclose::s  
            ::x = i; // OK: assign to global x  
            y = i; // OK: assign to global y  
        }  
        void g(enclose* p, int i) {  
            p->x = i; // OK: assign to enclose::x  
        }  
    }  

...  

struct s {  
    static int s;  

    void g(int i) {  
        static int x = i; // OK: assign to static global x  
...  
```
1 A class can be declared within a function definition; such a class is called a *local* class. The name of a local class is local to its enclosing scope. The local class is in the scope of the enclosing scope, and has the same access to names outside the function as does the enclosing function. Declarations in a local class can use only type names, static variables, *extern* variables and functions, and enumerators from the enclosing scope. [Example:

```c
int x;
void f() {
    static int s;
    int x;
    extern int g();
    struct local {
        int g() { return x; }  // error: x has automatic storage duration
        int h() { return s; }  // OK
    };
}
```
```cpp
int k() { return ::x; }  // OK
int l() { return g(); }  // OK
}

local* p = 0;  // error: local not in scope

— end example ]

2 An enclosing function has no special access to members of the local class; it obeys the usual access rules (Clause 11). Member functions of a local class shall be defined within their class definition, if they are defined at all.

3 If class X is a local class a nested class Y may be declared in class X and later defined in the definition of class X or be later defined in the same scope as the definition of class X. A class nested within a local class is a local class.

4 A local class shall not have static data members.

9.9 Nested type names

Type names obey exactly the same scope rules as other names. In particular, type names defined within a class definition cannot be used outside their class without qualification. [ Example:

```cpp
struct X {
    typedef int I;
    class Y { /* ... */);
    I a;
};

I b;  // error
Y c;  // error
X::Y d;  // OK
X::I e;  // OK

— end example ]
```
10 Derived classes

A list of base classes can be specified in a class definition using the notation:

```
base-clause:
  :  base-specifier-list

base-specifier-list:
  base-specifier  ...opt
  base-specifier-list , base-specifier  ...opt

base-specifier:
  ::opt  nested-name-specifieropt class-name attribute-specifieropt
  virtual access-specifieropt ::opt  nested-name-specifieropt class-name attribute-specifieropt
  access-specifier virtualopt ::opt  nested-name-specifieropt class-name attribute-specifieropt
```

The optional attribute-specifier appertains to the base-specifier.

The class-name in a base-specifier shall not be an incompletely defined class (Clause 9); this class is called a direct base class for the class being defined. During the lookup for a base class name, non-type names are ignored (3.3.10). If the name found is not a class-name, the program is ill-formed. A class B is a base class of a class D if it is a direct base class of D or a direct base class of one of D’s base classes. A class is an indirect base class of another if it is a base class but not a direct base class. A class is said to be (directly or indirectly) derived from its (direct or indirect) base classes. [Note: see Clause 11 for the meaning of access-specifier. — end note] Unless redeclared in the derived class, members of a base class are also considered to be members of the derived class. The base class members are said to be inherited by the derived class. Inherited members can be referred to in expressions in the same manner as other members of the derived class, unless their names are hidden or ambiguous (10.2). [Note: the scope resolution operator :: (5.1) can be used to refer to a direct or indirect base member explicitly. This allows access to a name that has been redeclared in the derived class. A derived class can itself serve as a base class subject to access control; see 11.2. A pointer to a derived class can be implicitly converted to a pointer to an accessible unambiguous base class (4.10). An lvalue of a derived class type can be bound to a reference to an accessible unambiguous base class (8.5.3). — end note]

The base-specifier-list specifies the type of the base class subobjects contained in an object of the derived class type. [Example:

```c
struct Base {
  int a, b, c;
};

struct Derived : Base {
  int b;
};

struct Derived2 : Derived {
  int c;
};
```
Here, an object of class `Derived2` will have a subobject of class `Derived` which in turn will have a subobject of class `Base`. — *end example*

4 A *base-specifier* followed by an ellipsis is a pack expansion (14.6.3).

5 The order in which the base class subobjects are allocated in the most derived object (1.8) is unspecified. [Note: a derived class and its base class subobjects can be represented by a directed acyclic graph (DAG) where an arrow means “directly derived from.” A DAG of subobjects is often referred to as a “subobject lattice.”]

```
Base
    ▲
   /   \\
 Derived1
   /     \\
 Derived2
```

Figure 1 — Directed acyclic graph

6 The arrows need not have a physical representation in memory. — *end note*

7 [Note: initialization of objects representing base classes can be specified in constructors; see 12.6.2. — *end note*]

8 [Note: A base class subobject might have a layout (3.7) different from the layout of a most derived object of the same type. A base class subobject might have a polymorphic behavior (12.7) different from the polymorphic behavior of a most derived object of the same type. A base class subobject may be of zero size (Clause 9); however, two subobjects that have the same class type and that belong to the same most derived object must not be allocated at the same address (5.10). — *end note*]

### 10.1 Multiple base classes

[class.mi]

1 A class can be derived from any number of base classes. [Note: the use of more than one direct base class is often called multiple inheritance. — *end note*] [Example:

```c
class A { /* ... */ };  
class B { /* ... */ };  
class C { /* ... */ };  
class D : public A, public B, public C { /* ... */ };  
```

— *end example*]

2 [Note: the order of derivation is not significant except as specified by the semantics of initialization by constructor (12.6.2), cleanup (12.4), and storage layout (9.2, 11.1). — *end note*]

3 A class shall not be specified as a direct base class of a derived class more than once. [Note: a class can be an indirect base class more than once and can be a direct and an indirect base class. There are limited things that can be done with such a class. The non-static data members and member functions of the direct base class cannot be referred to in the scope of the derived class. However, the static members, enumerations and types can be unambiguously referred to. — *end note*] [Example:

```c
class X { /* ... */ };  
class Y : public X, public X { /* ... */ };  // ill-formed
```

§ 10.1
A base class specifier that does not contain the keyword `virtual`, specifies a non-virtual base class. A base class specifier that contains the keyword `virtual`, specifies a virtual base class. For each distinct occurrence of a non-virtual base class in the class lattice of the most derived class, the most derived object (1.8) shall contain a corresponding distinct base class subobject of that type. For each distinct base class that is specified virtual, the most derived object shall contain a single base class subobject of that type. [Example: for an object of class type `C`, each distinct occurrence of a (non-virtual) base class `L` in the class lattice of `C` corresponds one-to-one with a distinct `L` subobject within the object of type `C`. Given the class `C` defined above, an object of class `C` will have two subobjects of class `L` as shown below.

![Non-virtual base diagram](image)

For another example,

```c
class V { /* ... */};
class A : virtual public V { /* ... */};
class B : virtual public V { /* ... */};
class C : public A, public B { /* ... */};
```

for an object `c` of class type `C`, a single subobject of type `V` is shared by every base subobject of `c` that has a virtual base class of type `V`. Given the class `C` defined above, an object of class `C` will have one subobject of class `V`, as shown below.

A class can have both virtual and non-virtual base classes of a given type.

```c
class B { /* ... */};
class X : virtual public B { /* ... */};
class Y : virtual public B { /* ... */};
class Z : public B { /* ... */};
class AA : public X, public Y, public Z { /* ... */};
```

For an object of class `AA`, all virtual occurrences of base class `B` in the class lattice of `AA` correspond to a single `B` subobject within the object of type `AA`, and every other occurrence of a (non-virtual) base class `B`
in the class lattice of AA corresponds one-to-one with a distinct B subobject within the object of type AA. Given the class AA defined above, class AA has two subobjects of class B: Z’s B and the virtual B shared by X and Y, as shown below.

--- end example ---

10.2 Member name lookup

Member name lookup determines the meaning of a name (id-expression) in a class scope (3.3.7). Name lookup can result in an ambiguity, in which case the program is ill-formed. For an id-expression, name lookup begins in the class scope of this; for a qualified-id, name lookup begins in the scope of the nested-name-specifier. Name lookup takes place before access control (3.4, Clause 11).

The following steps define the result of name lookup for a member name f in a class scope C.

1. The lookup set for f in C, called S(f, C), consists of two component sets: the declaration set, a set of members named f; and the subobject set, a set of subobjects where declarations of these members (possibly including using-declarations) were found. In the declaration set, using-declarations are replaced by the members they designate, and type declarations (including injected-class-names) are replaced by the types they designate. S(f, C) is calculated as follows:

2. If C contains a declaration of the name f, the declaration set contains every declaration of f declared in C that satisfies the requirements of the language construct in which the lookup occurs. [Note: Looking up a name in an elaborated-type-specifier (3.4.4) or base-specifier (Clause 10), for instance, ignores all non-type declarations, while looking up a name in a nested-name-specifier (3.4.3) ignores function, object, and enumerator declarations. As another example, looking up a name in a using-declaration (7.3.3) includes the declaration of a class or enumeration that would ordinarily be hidden by another declaration of that name in the same scope. — end note] If the resulting declaration set is not empty, the subobject set contains C itself, and calculation is complete.

5. Otherwise (i.e., C does not contain a declaration of f or the resulting declaration set is empty), S(f, C) is initially empty. If C has base classes, calculate the lookup set for f in each direct base class subobject Bi, and merge each such lookup set S(f, Bi) in turn into S(f, C).
The following steps define the result of merging lookup set \( S(f, B_i) \) into the intermediate \( S(f, C) \):

- If each of the subobject members of \( S(f, B_i) \) is a base class subobject of at least one of the subobject members of \( S(f, C) \), or if \( S(f, B_i) \) is empty, \( S(f, C) \) is unchanged and the merge is complete. Conversely, if each of the subobject members of \( S(f, C) \) is a base class subobject of at least one of the subobject members of \( S(f, B_i) \), or if \( S(f, C) \) is empty, the new \( S(f, C) \) is a copy of \( S(f, B_i) \).

- Otherwise, if the declaration sets of \( S(f, B_i) \) and \( S(f, C) \) differ, the merge is ambiguous: the new \( S(f, C) \) is a lookup set with an invalid declaration set and the union of the subobject sets. In subsequent merges, an invalid declaration set is considered different from any other.

- Otherwise, the new \( S(f, C) \) is a lookup set with the shared set of declarations and the union of the subobject sets.

The result of name lookup for \( f \) in \( C \) is the declaration set of \( S(f, C) \). If it is an invalid set, the program is ill-formed. [Example:

```
struct A { int x; }; // S(x,A) = { { A::x }, { A } }
struct B { float x; }; // S(x,B) = { { B::x }, { B } }
struct C: public A, public B { }; // S(x,C) = { invalid, { A in C, B in C } }
struct D: public virtual C { }; // S(x,D) = S(x,C)
struct E: public virtual C { char x; }; // S(x,E) = { { E::x }, { E } }
struct F: public D, public E { }; // S(x,F) = S(x,E)
int main() {
    F f;
    f.x = 0; // OK, lookup finds E::x
}
```

\( S(x, F) \) is unambiguous because the \( A \) and \( B \) base subobjects of \( D \) are also base subobjects of \( E \), so \( S(x, D) \) is discarded in the first merge step. — end example]

If the name of an overloaded function is unambiguously found, overloading resolution (13.3) also takes place before access control. Ambiguities can often be resolved by qualifying a name with its class name. [Example:

```
struct A {
    int f();
};

struct B {
    int f();
};

struct C : A, B {
    int f() { return A::f() + B::f(); }
};
```

— end example]

[Note: A static member, a nested type or an enumerator defined in a base class \( T \) can unambiguously be found even if an object has more than one base class subobject of type \( T \). Two base class subobjects share the non-static member subobjects of their common virtual base classes. — end note] [Example:

```
struct V {
    int v;
};
struct A {
```
int a;
static int s;
enum { e };
);
struct B : A, virtual V {
};
struct C : A, virtual V {
};
struct D : B, C {
};

void f(D* pd) {
pd->v++; // OK: only one v (virtual)
pd->s++; // OK: only one s (static)
int i = pd->e; // OK: only one e (enumerator)
pd->a++; // error, ambiguous: two as in D
}

— end example]

10 [Note: When virtual base classes are used, a hidden declaration can be reached along a path through the
subobject lattice that does not pass through the hiding declaration. This is not an ambiguity. The identical
use with non-virtual base classes is an ambiguity; in that case there is no unique instance of the name that
hides all the others. — end note] [Example:

struct V { int f(); int x; };
struct W { int g(); int y; };
struct B : virtual V, W {
    int f(); int x;
    int g(); int y;
};
struct C : virtual V, W {
};

struct D : B, C { void glorp(); };

void D::glorp() {
x++;
    // OK: B::x hides V::x
f();
    // OK: B::f() hides V::f()
y++;
    // error: B::y and C's W::y
g();
    // error: B::g() and C's W::g()
}

— end example]
An explicit or implicit conversion from a pointer to or an lvalue of a derived class to a pointer or reference to one of its base classes shall unambiguously refer to a unique object representing the base class. [Example:

```c
struct V { };  
struct A { };  
struct B : A, virtual V { };  
struct C : A, virtual V { };  
struct D : B, C { };  

void g() {  
  D d;  
  B* pb = &d;  
  A* pa = &d; // error, ambiguous: C's A or B's A?  
  V* pv = &d; // OK: only one V subobject  
}
```
— end example]

[Note: Even if the result of name lookup is unambiguous, use of a name found in multiple subobjects might still be ambiguous (4.11, 5.2.5, 11.2). — end note] [Example:

```c
struct B1 {  
  void f();  
  static void f(int);  
  int i;  
};
struct B2 {  
  void f(double);  
};
struct I1: B1 { };  
struct I2: B1 { };  
struct D: I1, I2, B2 {  
  using B1::f;  
  using B2::f;  
  void g() {  
    f(); // Ambiguous conversion of this  
    f(0); // Unambiguous (static)  
    f(0.0); // Unambiguous (only one B2)  
    int B1::* mpB1 = &D::i; // Unambiguous  
    int D::* mpD = &D::i; // Ambiguous conversion  
  }
}
```
— end example]

### 10.3 Virtual functions

Virtual functions support dynamic binding and object-oriented programming. A class that declares or inherits a virtual function is called a **polymorphic class**.

1. Virtual functions support dynamic binding and object-oriented programming. A class that declares or inherits a virtual function is called a **polymorphic class**.

2. If a virtual member function `vf` is declared in a class `Base` and in a class `Derived`, derived directly or indirectly from `Base`, a member function `vf` with the same name, parameter-type-list (8.3.5), cv-qualification, and ref-qualifier (or absence of same) as `Base::vf` is declared, then `Derived::vf` is also virtual (whether or not
it is so declared) and it overrides Base::vf. For convenience we say that any virtual function overrides itself. Then in any well-formed class, for each virtual function declared in that class or any of its direct or indirect base classes there is a unique final overrider that overrides that function and every other overrider of that function. The rules for member lookup (10.2) are used to determine the final overrider for a virtual function in the scope of a derived class but ignoring names introduced by using-declarations. A virtual member function C::vf of a class object S is a final overrider unless the most derived class (1.8) of which S is a base class subobject (if any) declares or inherits another member function that overrides vf. In a derived class, if a virtual member function of a base class subobject has more than one final overrider the program is ill-formed.

Example:

```c
struct A {
   virtual void f();
};
struct B : virtual A {
   virtual void f();
};
struct C : B, virtual A {
   using A::f;
};

void foo() {
   C c;
   c.f(); // calls B::f, the final overrider
   c.C::f(); // calls A::f because of the using-declaration
}
```

Example:

```c
struct A { virtual void f(); }; struct B : A { }; struct C : A { void f(); }; struct D : B, C { }; // OK: A::f and C::f are the final overriders
```

Note: A function with the same name but a different parameter list (Clause 13) as a virtual function is not necessarily virtual and does not override. The use of the virtual specifier in the declaration of an overriding function is legal but redundant (has empty semantics). Access control (Clause 11) is not considered in determining overriding.

Example:

```c
struct B {
   virtual void f();
};
struct D : B {
   void f(int);
};
struct D2 : D {
   void f();
};
```

the function f(int) in class D hides the virtual function f() in its base class B; D::f(int) is not a virtual function. However, f() declared in class D2 has the same name and the same parameter list as B::f(), and

---

105) A function with the same name but a different parameter list (Clause 13) as a virtual function is not necessarily virtual and does not override. The use of the virtual specifier in the declaration of an overriding function is legal but redundant (has empty semantics). Access control (Clause 11) is not considered in determining overriding.
therefore is a virtual function that overrides the function \( B::f() \) even though \( B::f() \) is not visible in class \( D2 \). — end note]

4 Even though destructors are not inherited, a destructor in a derived class overrides a base class destructor declared virtual; see 12.4 and 12.5.

5 The return type of an overriding function shall be either identical to the return type of the overridden function or **covariant** with the classes of the functions. If a function \( D::f \) overrides a function \( B::f \), the return types of the functions are covariant if they satisfy the following criteria:

— both are pointers to classes or references to classes\(^{106}\)
— the class in the return type of \( B::f \) is the same class as the class in the return type of \( D::f \), or is an unambiguous and accessible direct or indirect base class of the class in the return type of \( D::f \)
— both pointers or references have the same cv-qualification and the class type in the return type of \( D::f \) has the same cv-qualification as or less cv-qualification than the class type in the return type of \( B::f \).

6 If the return type of \( D::f \) differs from the return type of \( B::f \), the class type in the return type of \( D::f \) shall be complete at the point of declaration of \( D::f \) or shall be the class type \( D \). When the overriding function is called as the final overrider of the overridden function, its result is converted to the type returned by the (statically chosen) overridden function (5.2.2). [Example:

```cpp
class B { }
class D : private B { friend class Derived; }
struct Base {
    virtual void vf1();
    virtual void vf2();
    virtual void vf3();
    virtual B* vf4();
    virtual B* vf5();
    void f();
};

struct No_good : public Base {
    D* vf4(); // error: B (base class of D) inaccessible
};

class A;
struct Derived : public Base {
    void vf1(); // virtual and overrides Base::vf1()
    void vf2(int); // not virtual, hides Base::vf2()
    char vf3(); // error: invalid difference in return type only
    D* vf4(); // OK: returns pointer to derived class
    A* vf5(); // error: returns pointer to incomplete class
    void f();
};

void g() {
    Derived d;
    Base* bp = &d; // standard conversion:
    // Derived* to Base*
    bp->vf1(); // calls Derived::vf1()
    bp->vf2(); // calls Base::vf2()
    bp->f(); // calls Base::f() (not virtual)
}
```

\(^{106}\) Multi-level pointers to classes or references to multi-level pointers to classes are not allowed.
B* p = bp->vf4(); // calls Derived::pf() and converts the
    // result to B*
Derived* dp = &d;
D* q = dp->vf4(); // calls Derived::pf() and does not
    // convert the result to B*
dp->vf2(); // ill-formed: argument mismatch
}

— end example]

7 [ Note: the interpretation of the call of a virtual function depends on the type of the object for which it is
called (the dynamic type), whereas the interpretation of a call of a non-virtual member function depends
only on the type of the pointer or reference denoting that object (the static type) (5.2.2). — end note]

8 [ Note: the virtual specifier implies membership, so a virtual function cannot be a nonmember (7.1.2)
function. Nor can a virtual function be a static member, since a virtual function call relies on a specific
object for determining which function to invoke. A virtual function declared in one class can be declared a
friend in another class. — end note]

9 A virtual function declared in a class shall be defined, or declared pure (10.4) in that class, or both; but no
diagnostic is required (3.2).

10 [ Example: here are some uses of virtual functions with multiple base classes:

```cpp
struct A {
    virtual void f();
};

struct B1 : A { // note non-virtual derivation
    void f();
};

struct B2 : A {
    void f();
};

struct D : B1, B2 { // D has two separate A subobjects
};

void foo() {
    D d;
    // A* ap = &d; // would be ill-formed: ambiguous
    B1* b1p = &d;
    A* ap = b1p;
    D* dp = &d;
    ap->f(); // calls D::B1::f
    dp->f(); // ill-formed: ambiguous
}
```

In class D above there are two occurrences of class A and hence two occurrences of the virtual member
function A::f. The final overrider of B1::A::f is B1::f and the final overrider of B2::A::f is B2::f.

11 The following example shows a function that does not have a unique final overrider:

```cpp
struct A {
    virtual void f();
};
```

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struct VB1 : virtual A {  // note virtual derivation
    void f();
};

struct VB2 : virtual A {
    void f();
};

struct Error : VB1, VB2 {  // ill-formed
};

struct Okay : VB1, VB2 {
    void f();
};

Both VB1::f and VB2::f override A::f but there is no overrider of both of them in class Error. This example is therefore ill-formed. Class Okay is well formed, however, because Okay::f is a final overrider.

The following example uses the well-formed classes from above.

struct VB1a : virtual A {  // does not declare f
};

struct Da : VB1a, VB2 {
};

void foe() {
    VB1a* vblap = new Da;
    vblap->f();  // calls VB2::f
}

— end example]

13 Explicit qualification with the scope operator (5.1) suppresses the virtual call mechanism. [Example:

class B { public: virtual void f(); };  
class D : public B { public: void f(); };  
void D::f() { /* ... */ B::f(); }

Here, the function call in D::f really does call B::f and not D::f. — end example]

14 A function with a deleted definition (8.4) shall not override a function that does not have a deleted definition. Likewise, a function that does not have a deleted definition shall not override a function with a deleted definition.

10.4 Abstract classes [class.abstract]

1 The abstract class mechanism supports the notion of a general concept, such as a shape, of which only more concrete variants, such as circle and square, can actually be used. An abstract class can also be used to define an interface for which derived classes provide a variety of implementations.

2 An abstract class is a class that can be used only as a base class of some other class; no objects of an abstract class can be created except as subobjects of a class derived from it. A class is abstract if it has at least one pure virtual function. [Note: such a function might be inherited: see below. — end note] A virtual
function is specified pure by using a pure-specifier (9.2) in the function declaration in the class definition. A pure virtual function need be defined only if called with, or as if with (12.4), the qualified-id syntax (5.1).

Example:

class point { /* ... */
    class shape { // abstract class
        point center;
        public:
            point where() { return center; }
            void move(point p) { center=p; draw(); }
            virtual void rotate(int) = 0; // pure virtual
            virtual void draw() = 0; // pure virtual
    }

    // end example

    Note: a function declaration cannot provide both a pure-specifier and a definition — end note

Example:

    struct C {
        virtual void f() = 0 { } // ill-formed
    }

    // end example

3 An abstract class shall not be used as a parameter type, as a function return type, or as the type of an explicit conversion. Pointers and references to an abstract class can be declared. [Example:

    shape x; // error: object of abstract class
    shape* p; // OK
    shape f(); // error
    void g(shape); // error
    shape& h(shape&); // OK

    // end example]

4 A class is abstract if it contains or inherits at least one pure virtual function for which the final overrider is pure virtual. [Example:

    class ab_circle : public shape {
        int radius;
        public:
            void rotate(int) { }
            // ab_circle::draw() is a pure virtual
    }

    Since shape::draw() is a pure virtual function ab_circle::draw() is a pure virtual by default. The alternative declaration,

    class circle : public shape {
        int radius;
        public:
            void rotate(int) { }
            void draw(); // a definition is required somewhere
    }

    would make class circle nonabstract and a definition of circle::draw() must be provided. — end example]
[Note: an abstract class can be derived from a class that is not abstract, and a pure virtual function may override a virtual function which is not pure. — end note]

Member functions can be called from a constructor (or destructor) of an abstract class; the effect of making a virtual call (10.3) to a pure virtual function directly or indirectly for the object being created (or destroyed) from such a constructor (or destructor) is undefined.
11 Member access control  

1 A member of a class can be

   — private; that is, its name can be used only by members and friends of the class in which it is declared.

   — protected; that is, its name can be used only by members and friends of the class in which it is declared, by classes derived from that class, and by their friends (see 11.5).

   — public; that is, its name can be used anywhere without access restriction.

2 A member of a class can also access all the names to which the class has access. A local class of a member function may access the same names that the member function itself may access.\(^{107}\)

3 Members of a class defined with the keyword class are private by default. Members of a class defined with the keywords struct or union are public by default. [Example:

   ```cpp
   class X {
   int a;  // X::a is private by default
   }
   
   struct S {
   int a;  // S::a is public by default
   }
   ```

   — end example]

4 Access control is applied uniformly to all names, whether the names are referred to from declarations or expressions. [Note: access control applies to names nominated by friend declarations (11.4) and using-declarations (7.3.3). — end note] In the case of overloaded function names, access control is applied to the function selected by overload resolution. [Note: because access control applies to names, if access control is applied to a typedef name, only the accessibility of the typedef name itself is considered. The accessibility of the entity referred to by the typedef is not considered. For example,

   ```cpp
   class A {
   class B { };  
   public:
   typedef B BB;
   }
   
   void f() {
   A::BB x;  // OK, typedef name A::BB is public
   A::B y;   // access error, A::B is private
   }
   ```

   — end note]

5 It should be noted that it is access to members and base classes that is controlled, not their visibility. Names of members are still visible, and implicit conversions to base classes are still considered, when those members and base classes are inaccessible. The interpretation of a given construct is established without regard to

\(^{107}\) Access permissions are thus transitive and cumulative to nested and local classes.
access control. If the interpretation established makes use of inaccessible member names or base classes, the construct is ill-formed.

All access controls in Clause 11 affect the ability to access a class member name from a particular scope. For purposes of access control, the base-specifiers of a class and the definitions of class members that appear outside of the class definition are considered to be within the scope of that class. In particular, access controls apply as usual to member names accessed as part of a function return type, even though it is not possible to determine the access privileges of that use without first parsing the rest of the function declarator. Similarly, access control for implicit calls to the constructors, the conversion functions, or the destructor called to create and destroy a static data member is performed as if these calls appeared in the scope of the member’s class. [Example:

```c
class A {
    typedef int I; // private member
    I f();
    friend I g(I);
    static I x;
    protected:
        struct B { }
    ;
}

A::I A::f() { return 0; }
A::I g(A::I p = A::x);
A::I g(A::I p) { return 0; }
A::I A::x = 0;

struct D: A::B, A { }
```

Here, all the uses of A::I are well-formed because A::f and A::x are members of class A and g is a friend of class A. This implies, for example, that access checking on the first use of A::I must be deferred until it is determined that this use of A::I is as the return type of a member of class A. Similarly, the use of A::B as a base-specifier is well-formed because D is derived from A, so checking of base-specifiers must be deferred until the entire base-specifier-list has been seen. — end example]

The names in a default argument expression (8.3.6) are bound at the point of declaration, and access is checked at that point rather than at any points of use of the default argument expression. Access checking for default arguments in function templates and in member functions of class templates is performed as described in 14.8.1.

The names in a default template-argument (14.2) have their access checked in the context in which they appear rather than at any points of use of the default template-argument. [Example:

```c
class B { }
template <class T> class C {
    protected:
        typedef T TT;
    ;
}

template <class U, class V = typename U::TT>
class D : public U { }

D <C<B> >* d; // access error, C::TT is protected
```

— end example]
11.1 Access specifiers

Member declarations can be labeled by an access-specifier (Clause 10):

```
access-specifier : member-specification opt
```

An access-specifier specifies the access rules for members following it until the end of the class or until another access-specifier is encountered. [Example:

```c
class X {
    int a; // X::a is private by default: class used
public:
    int b; // X::b is public
    int c; // X::c is public
};
```
— end example]

Any number of access specifiers is allowed and no particular order is required. [Example:

```c
struct S {
    int a; // S::a is public by default: struct used
protected:
    int b; // S::b is protected
private:
    int c; // S::c is private
public:
    int d; // S::d is public
};
```
— end example]

[Note: the effect of access control on the order of allocation of data members is described in 9.2. — end note]

When a member is redeclared within its class definition, the access specified at its redeclaration shall be the same as at its initial declaration. [Example:

```c
struct S {
    class A;
    enum E : int;
private:
    class A { }; // error: cannot change access
    enum E: int { e0 }; // error: cannot change access
};
```
— end example]

[Note: In a derived class, the lookup of a base class name will find the injected-class-name instead of the name of the base class in the scope in which it was declared. The injected-class-name might be less accessible than the name of the base class in the scope in which it was declared. — end note]

[Example:

```c
class A { };adena
class B: private A { };
class C: public B {
    A *p; // error: injected-class-name A is inaccessible
    ::A *q; // OK
};
```
11.2 Accessibility of base classes and base class members

If a class is declared to be a base class (Clause 10) for another class using the public access specifier, the public members of the base class are accessible as public members of the derived class and protected members of the base class are accessible as protected members of the derived class. If a class is declared to be a base class for another class using the protected access specifier, the public and protected members of the base class are accessible as protected members of the derived class. If a class is declared to be a base class for another class using the private access specifier, the public and protected members of the base class are accessible as private members of the derived class.

In the absence of an access-specifier for a base class, public is assumed when the derived class is defined with the class-key struct and private is assumed when the class is defined with the class-key class. [Example:

```cpp
class B { /* ... */};
class D1 : private B { /* ... */};
class D2 : public B { /* ... */};
class D3 : B { /* ... */};  // B private by default
struct D4 : public B { /* ... */};
struct D5 : private B { /* ... */};
struct D6 : B { /* ... */};   // B public by default
class D7 : protected B { /* ... */};
struct D8 : protected B { /* ... */};
```

Here B is a public base of D2, D4, and D6, a private base of D1, D3, and D5, and a protected base of D7 and D8. — end example]

3 [Note: A member of a private base class might be inaccessible as an inherited member name, but accessible directly. Because of the rules on pointer conversions (4.10) and explicit casts (5.4), a conversion from a pointer to a derived class to a pointer to an inaccessible base class might be ill-formed if an implicit conversion is used, but well-formed if an explicit cast is used. For example,

```cpp
class B {
public:
  int mi;        // non-static member
  static int si; // static member
};
class D : private B {
};
class DD : public D {
  void f();
};

void DD::f() {
  mi = 3;        // error: mi is private in D
  si = 3;        // error: si is private in D
  ::B b;
b.mi = 3;       // OK (b.mi is different from this->mi)
b.si = 3;       // OK (b.si is different from this->si)
  ::B::si = 3;   // OK
  ::B* bp1 = this; // error: B is a private base class
  ::B* bp2 = (::B*)this; // OK with cast
```

As specified previously in Clause 11, private members of a base class remain inaccessible even to derived classes unless friend declarations within the base class definition are used to grant access explicitly.]

§ 11.2
A base class \( B \) of \( N \) is accessible at \( R \), if

- an invented public member of \( B \) would be a public member of \( N \), or
- \( R \) occurs in a member or friend of class \( N \), and an invented public member of \( B \) would be a private or protected member of \( N \), or
- \( R \) occurs in a member or friend of a class \( P \) derived from \( N \), and an invented public member of \( B \) would be a private or protected member of \( P \), or
- there exists a class \( S \) such that \( B \) is a base class of \( S \) accessible at \( R \) and \( S \) is a base class of \( N \) accessible at \( R \).

**Example:**

```cpp
class B {
public:
    int m;
};
class S: private B {
    friend class N;
};
class N: private S {
    void f() {
        B* p = this; // OK because class S satisfies the fourth condition
        // above: B is an accessible base class of N accessible in f() because
        // B is an accessible base class of S and S is an accessible
        // base class of N.
    }
};
```

- **end example**

If a base class is accessible, one can implicitly convert a pointer to a derived class to a pointer to that base class (4.10, 4.11). [Note: it follows that members and friends of a class \( X \) can implicitly convert an \( X* \) to a pointer to a private or protected immediate base class of \( X \). — end note] The access to a member is affected by the class in which the member is named. This naming class is the class in which the member name was looked up and found. [Note: this class can be explicit, e.g., when a qualified-id is used, or implicit, e.g., when a class member access operator (5.2.5) is used (including cases where an implicit “this->” is added). If both a class member access operator and a qualified-id are used to name the member (as in \( p->T::m \)), the class naming the member is the class named by the nested-name-specifier of the qualified-id (that is, \( T \). — end note] A member \( m \) is accessible at the point \( R \) when named in class \( N \) if

- \( m \) as a member of \( N \) is public, or
- \( m \) as a member of \( N \) is private, and \( R \) occurs in a member or friend of class \( N \), or
- \( m \) as a member of \( N \) is protected, and \( R \) occurs in a member or friend of class \( N \), or in a member or friend of a class \( P \) derived from \( N \), where \( m \) as a member of \( P \) is public, private, or protected, or

§ 11.2
— there exists a base class B of N that is accessible at R, and m is accessible at R when named in class B.

[Example:

class B;
class A {
  private:
    int i;
    friend void f(B*);
};
class B : public A {
};
void f(B* p) {
  p->i = 1;
  // OK: B* can be implicitly converted to A*,
  // and f has access to i in A
}

— end example]

6 If a class member access operator, including an implicit “this->,” is used to access a non-static data member or non-static member function, the reference is ill-formed if the left operand (considered as a pointer in the “.” operator case) cannot be implicitly converted to a pointer to the naming class of the right operand.

[Note: this requirement is in addition to the requirement that the member be accessible as named. — end note]

11.3 Access declarations

1 The access of a member of a base class can be changed in the derived class by mentioning its qualified-id in the derived class definition. Such mention is called an access declaration. The effect of an access declaration qualified-id ; is defined to be equivalent to the declaration using qualified-id ;.

[Example:

class A {
  public:
    int z;
    int zi;
};

class B : public A {
  int a;
  public:
    int b, c;
    int bf();
  protected:
    int x;
    int y;
};

class D : private B {
  int d;
  public:
    B::c;  // adjust access to B::c
}

109] Access declarations are deprecated; member using-declarations (7.3.3) provide a better means of doing the same things. In earlier versions of the C++ language, access declarations were more limited; they were generalized and made equivalent to using-declarations in the interest of simplicity. Programmers are encouraged to use using-declarations, rather than the new capabilities of access declarations, in new code.
The external function \texttt{ef} can use only the names \texttt{c}, \texttt{z}, \texttt{z1}, \texttt{e}, and \texttt{df}. Being a member of \texttt{D}, the function \texttt{df} can use the names \texttt{b}, \texttt{c}, \texttt{z}, \texttt{z1}, \texttt{bf}, \texttt{x}, \texttt{y}, \texttt{d}, \texttt{e}, \texttt{df}, and \texttt{g}, but not \texttt{a}. Being a member of \texttt{B}, the function \texttt{bf} can use the members \texttt{a}, \texttt{b}, \texttt{c}, \texttt{z}, \texttt{z1}, \texttt{bf}, \texttt{x}, and \texttt{y}. The function \texttt{xf} can use the public and protected names from \texttt{D}, that is, \texttt{c}, \texttt{z}, \texttt{z1}, \texttt{e}, and \texttt{df} (public), and \texttt{x}, and \texttt{g} (protected). Thus the external function \texttt{ff} has access only to \texttt{c}, \texttt{z}, \texttt{z1}, \texttt{e}, and \texttt{df}. If \texttt{D} were a protected or private base class of \texttt{X}, \texttt{xf} would have the same privileges as before, but \texttt{ff} would have no access at all. — end example


11.4 Friends [class.friend]

1 A friend of a class is a function or class that is given permission to use the private and protected member names from the class. A class specifies its friends, if any, by way of friend declarations. Such declarations give special access rights to the friends, but they do not make the nominated friends members of the befriending class. [Example: the following example illustrates the differences between members and friends:

```cpp
class X {
  int a;
  friend void friend_set(X*, int);
public:
  void member_set(int);
};

void friend_set(X* p, int i) { p->a = i; }
void X::member_set(int i) { a = i; }

void f() {
  X obj;
  friend_set(&obj,10);
  obj.member_set(10);
}

— end example]

2 Declaring a class to be a friend implies that the names of private and protected members from the class granting friendship can be accessed in the \texttt{base-specifiers} and member declarations of the befriended class. [Example:

```cpp
class A {
  class B { };  // adjust access to A::z1
int e;
int df();
protected:
B::x; // adjust access to B::x
int g;
};

class X : public D {
  int xf();
};

int ef(D&);
int ff(X&);
```
struct X : A::B {   // OK: A::B accessible to friend
  A::B mx;       // OK: A::B accessible to member of friend
  class Y {
    A::B my;     // OK: A::B accessible to nested member of friend
  }
};

— end example] A class shall not be defined in a friend declaration. [Example:

class X {
  enum { a=100 };  
  friend class Y;
};

class Y {
  int v[X::a]; // OK, Y is a friend of X
};

class Z {
  int v[X::a]; // error: X::a is private
};

— end example]

3 A friend declaration that does not declare a function shall have one of the following forms:

    friend elaborated-type-specifier;
    friend simple-type-specifier;
    friend typename-specifier;

[Note: a friend declaration may be the declaration in a template-declaration (Clause 14, 14.6.4). — end note] If the type specifier in a friend declaration designates a (possibly cv-qualified) class type, that class is declared as a friend; otherwise, the friend declaration is ignored. [Example:

class C;
typedef C Ct;

class X1 {
  friend C;       // OK: class C is a friend
};

class X2 {
  friend Ct;      // OK: class C is a friend
  friend D;       // error: no type-name D in scope
  friend class D;  // OK: elaborated-type-specifier declares new class
};

template <typename T> class R {
  friend T;
};

R<C> rc;       // class C is a friend of R<C>
R<int> Ri;     // OK: "friend int;" is ignored

— end example]
A function first declared in a friend declaration has external linkage (3.5). Otherwise, the function retains its previous linkage (7.1.1).

When a friend declaration refers to an overloaded name or operator, only the function specified by the parameter types becomes a friend. A member function of a class \(X\) can be a friend of a class \(Y\). [Example:

```cpp
class Y {
    friend char* X::foo(int);
    friend X::X(char);  // constructors can be friends
    friend X::~X();    // destructors can be friends
};
```

— end example]

A function can be defined in a friend declaration of a class if and only if the class is a non-local class (9.8), the function name is unqualified, and the function has namespace scope. [Example:

```cpp
class M {
    friend void f() { }        // definition of global f, a friend of M,
    // not the definition of a member function
};
```

— end example]

Such a function is implicitly inline. A friend function defined in a class is in the (lexical) scope of the class in which it is defined. A friend function defined outside the class is not (3.4.1).

No storage-class-specifier shall appear in the decl-specifier-seq of a friend declaration.

A name nominated by a friend declaration shall be accessible in the scope of the class containing the friend declaration. The meaning of the friend declaration is the same whether the friend declaration appears in the private, protected or public (9.2) portion of the class member-specification.

Friendship is neither inherited nor transitive. [Example:

```cpp
class A {
    friend class B;
    int a;
};

class B {
    friend class C;
};

class C {
    void f(A* p) {
        p->a++;
    }            // error: C is not a friend of A
    // despite being a friend
};

class D : public B {
    void f(A* p) {
        p->a++;
    }            // error: D is not a friend of A
    // despite being derived from a friend
};
```
11 If a friend declaration appears in a local class (9.8) and the name specified is an unqualified name, a prior declaration is looked up without considering scopes that are outside the innermost enclosing non-class scope. For a friend function declaration, if there is no prior declaration, the program is ill-formed. For a friend class declaration, if there is no prior declaration, the class that is specified belongs to the innermost enclosing non-class scope, but if it is subsequently referenced, its name is not found by name lookup until a matching declaration is provided in the innermost enclosing nonclass scope.  

Example:

```cpp
class X;
void a();
void f() {
  class Y;
  extern void b();
  class A {
    friend class X; // OK, but X is a local class, not ::X
    friend class Y; // OK
    friend class Z; // OK, introduces local class Z
    friend void a(); // error, ::a is not considered
    friend void b(); // OK
    friend void c(); // error
  };
  X *px; // OK, but ::X is found
  Z *pz; // error, no Z is found
}
```

— end example ]

11.5 Protected member access [class.protected]  

An additional access check beyond those described earlier in Clause 11 is applied when a non-static data member or non-static member function is a protected member of its naming class (11.2)\(^{110}\) As described earlier, access to a protected member is granted because the reference occurs in a friend or member of some class C. If the access is to form a pointer to member (5.3.1), the nested-name-specifier shall name C or a class derived from C. All other accesses involve a (possibly implicit) object expression (5.2.5). In this case, the class of the object expression shall be C or a class derived from C. [Example:

```cpp
class B {
  protected:
  int i;
  static int j;
};

class D1 : public B {
};

class D2 : public B {
  friend void fr(B*, D1*, D2*);
  void mem(B*, D1*);
};

void fr(B* pb, D1* p1, D2* p2) {
  pb->i = 1; // ill-formed
  p1->i = 2; // ill-formed
}
```

\(^{110}\) This additional check does not apply to other members, e.g., static data members or enumerator member constants.


```c
p2->i = 3;         // OK (access through a D2)
p2->B::i = 4;      // OK (access through a D2, even though
                   // naming class is B)
int B::* pmi_B = &B::i;  // ill-formed
int B::* pmi_B2 = &D2::i; // OK (type of &D2::i is int B::*
B::j = 5;           // OK (because refers to static member)
D2::j = 6;          // OK (because refers to static member)
}

void D2::mem(B* pb, D1* p1) {
pb->i = 1;         // ill-formed
p1->i = 2;         // ill-formed
i = 3;             // OK (access through this)
B::i = 4;          // OK (access through this, qualification ignored)
int B::* pmi_B = &B::i;  // ill-formed
int B::* pmi_B2 = &D2::i; // OK
j = 5;             // OK (because j refers to static member)
B::j = 6;          // OK (because B::j refers to static member)
}

void g(B* pb, D1* p1, D2* p2) {
pb->i = 1;         // ill-formed
p1->i = 2;         // ill-formed
p2->i = 3;         // ill-formed
}

— end example]

11.6 Access to virtual functions [class.access.virt]

The access rules (Clause 11) for a virtual function are determined by its declaration and are not affected by
the rules for a function that later overrides it. [Example:

```c
class B {
public:
  virtual int f();
};

class D : public B {
private:
  int f();
};

void f() {
  D d;
  B* pb = &d;
  D* pd = &d;

  pb->f();         // OK: B::f() is public,
                   // D::f() is invoked
  pd->f();         // error: D::f() is private
}

— end example]

§ 11.6
Access is checked at the call point using the type of the expression used to denote the object for which the member function is called (B* in the example above). The access of the member function in the class in which it was defined (D in the example above) is in general not known.

11.7 Multiple access [class.paths]

If a name can be reached by several paths through a multiple inheritance graph, the access is that of the path that gives most access. [Example:

```cpp
class W { public: void f(); }
class A : private virtual W { }
class B : public virtual W { }
class C : public A, public B {
  void f() { W::f(); } // OK
};
```

Since W::f() is available to C::f() along the public path through B, access is allowed. — end example]

11.8 Nested classes [class.access.nest]

A nested class is a member and as such has the same access rights as any other member. The members of an enclosing class have no special access to members of a nested class; the usual access rules (Clause 11) shall be obeyed. [Example:

```cpp
class E {
  int x;
  class B { };

class I {
  B b; // OK: E::I can access E::B
  int y;
  void f(E* p, int i) {
    p->x = i; // OK: E::I can access E::x
  }
};

int g(I* p) {
  return p->y; // error: I::y is private
}
};
```

— end example]
12 Special member functions [special]

1 The default constructor (12.1), copy constructor and copy assignment operator (12.8), and destructor (12.4) are special member functions. [Note: The implementation will implicitly declare these member functions for some class types when the program does not explicitly declare them. The implementation will implicitly define them if they are used. See 12.1, 12.4 and 12.8. — end note] Programs shall not define implicitly-declared special member functions. Programs may explicitly refer to implicitly-declared special member functions. [Example: a program may explicitly call, take the address of or form a pointer to member to an implicitly-declared special member function.

    struct A { };       // implicitly-declared A::operator=
    struct B : A {
      B& operator=(const B &);
    };
    B& B::operator=(const B & s) {
      this->A::operator=(s);     // well-formed
      return *this;
    }

   — end example]

2 [Note: the special member functions affect the way objects of class type are created, copied, and destroyed, and how values can be converted to values of other types. Often such special member functions are called implicitly. — end note]

3 Special member functions obey the usual access rules (Clause 11). [Example: declaring a constructor protected ensures that only derived classes and friends can create objects using it. — end example]

12.1 Constructors [class.ctor]

1 Constructors do not have names. A special declarator syntax using an optional sequence of function-specifiers (7.1.2) followed by the constructor’s class name followed by a parameter list is used to declare or define the constructor. In such a declaration, optional parentheses around the constructor class name are ignored. [Example:

    struct S {
      S();          // declares the constructor
    };
    S::S() { }    // defines the constructor

   — end example]

2 A constructor is used to initialize objects of its class type. Because constructors do not have names, they are never found during name lookup; however an explicit type conversion using the functional notation (5.2.3) will cause a constructor to be called to initialize an object. [Note: for initialization of objects of class type see 12.6. — end note]

3 A typedef-name shall not be used as the class-name in the declarator-id for a constructor declaration.

4 A constructor shall not be virtual (10.3) or static (9.4). A constructor can be invoked for a const, volatile or const volatile object. A constructor shall not be declared const, volatile, or const.
volatile (9.3.2). const and volatile semantics (7.1.6.1) are not applied on an object under construction. They come into effect when the constructor for the most derived object (1.8) ends. A constructor shall not be declared with a ref-qualifier.

5 A default constructor for a class X is a constructor of class X that can be called without an argument. If there is no user-declared constructor for class X, a constructor having no parameters is implicitly declared. An implicitly-declared default constructor is an inline public member of its class. A default constructor is trivial if it is not user-provided (8.4) and if:

—— its class has no virtual functions (10.3) and no virtual base classes (10.1), and
—— no non-static data member of its class has a brace-or-equal-initializer, and
—— all the direct base classes of its class have trivial default constructors, and
—— for all the non-static data members of its class that are of class type (or array thereof), each such class has a trivial default constructor.

An implicitly-declared default constructor for class X is defined as deleted if:

—— X is a union-like class that has a variant member with a non-trivial default constructor,
—— any non-static data member is of reference type,
—— any non-static data member of const-qualified type (or array thereof) does not have a user-provided default constructor, or
—— any non-static data member or direct or virtual base class has class type M (or array thereof) and M has no default constructor, or if overload resolution (13.3) as applied to M’s default constructor, results in an ambiguity or a function that is deleted or inaccessible from the implicitly-declared default constructor.

Otherwise, the default constructor is non-trivial.

6 A non-user-provided default constructor for a class is implicitly defined when it is used (3.2) to create an object of its class type (1.8). If the implicitly-defined default constructor is explicitly defaulted but the corresponding implicit declaration would have been deleted, the program is ill-formed. The implicitly-defined or explicitly-defaulted default constructor performs the set of initializations of the class that would be performed by a user-written default constructor for that class with no ctor-initializer (12.6.2) and an empty compound-statement. If that user-written default constructor would be ill-formed, the program is ill-formed. If that user-written default constructor would satisfy the requirements of a constexpr constructor (7.1.5), the implicitly-defined default constructor is constexpr. Before the non-user-provided default constructor for a class is implicitly defined, all the non-user-provided default constructors for its base classes and its non-static data members shall have been implicitly defined. [Note: an implicitly-declared default constructor has an exception-specification (15.4). An explicitly-defaulted definition has no implicit exception-specification. — end note]

7 Default constructors are called implicitly to create class objects of static, thread, or automatic storage duration (3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.7.3) defined without an initializer (8.5), are called to create class objects of dynamic storage duration (3.7.4) created by a new-expression in which the new-initializer is omitted (5.3.4), or are called when the explicit type conversion syntax (5.2.3) is used. A program is ill-formed if the default constructor for an object is implicitly used and the constructor is not accessible (Clause 11).

8 [Note: 12.6.2 describes the order in which constructors for base classes and non-static data members are called and describes how arguments can be specified for the calls to these constructors. — end note]

9 A copy constructor (12.8) is used to copy objects of class type.
No return type (not even `void`) shall be specified for a constructor. A `return` statement in the body of a constructor shall not specify a return value. The address of a constructor shall not be taken.

A functional notation type conversion (5.2.3) can be used to create new objects of its type. *Note: The syntax looks like an explicit call of the constructor. — end note* [Example:

```cpp
complex zz = complex(1,2.3);
cprint( complex(7.8,1.2) );
```
— end example]

An object created in this way is unnamed. *Note: 12.2 describes the lifetime of temporary objects. — end note* [Note: explicit constructor calls do not yield lvalues, see 3.10. — end note]

*Note: some language constructs have special semantics when used during construction; see 12.6.2 and 12.7. — end note*

During the construction of a `const` object, if the value of the object or any of its subobjects is accessed through an lvalue that is not obtained, directly or indirectly, from the constructor’s `this` pointer, the value of the object or subobject thus obtained is unspecified. *Example:

```cpp
struct C;
void no_opt(C*);

struct C {
    int c;
    C() : c(0) { no_opt(this); }
};

const C cobj;

void no_opt(C* cptr) {
    int i = cobj.c * 100;  // value of cobj.c is unspecified
    cptr->c = 1;
    cout << cobj.c * 100  // value of cobj.c is unspecified
        << 'n';
}
— end example*

12.2 Temporary objects [class.temporary]

Temporary objects of class type are created in various contexts: binding an rvalue to a reference (8.5.3), returning an rvalue (6.6.3), a conversion that creates an rvalue (4.1, 5.2.9, 5.2.11, 5.4), throwing an exception (15.1), entering a `handler` (15.3), and in some initializations (8.5). *Note: the lifetime of exception objects is described in 15.1. — end note* Even when the creation of the temporary object is avoided (12.8), all the semantic restrictions shall be respected as if the temporary object had been created. *Example: even if the copy constructor is not called, all the semantic restrictions, such as accessibility (Clause 11), shall be satisfied. — end example*

*Example:

```cpp
class X {
    public:
        X(int);
        X(const X&);
        X();
```
void g() {
    X a(1);
    X b = f(X(2));
    a = f(a);
}

2 Here, an implementation might use a temporary in which to construct X(2) before passing it to f() using X’s copy-constructor; alternatively, X(2) might be constructed in the space used to hold the argument. Also, a temporary might be used to hold the result of f(X(2)) before copying it to b using X’s copy-constructor; alternatively, f()’s result might be constructed in b. On the other hand, the expression a = f(a) requires a temporary for the result of f(a), which is then assigned to a. — end example

3 When an implementation introduces a temporary object of a class that has a non-trivial constructor (12.1, 12.8), it shall ensure that a constructor is called for the temporary object. Similarly, the destructor shall be called for a temporary with a non-trivial destructor (12.4). Temporary objects are destroyed as the last step in evaluating the full-expression (1.9) that (lexically) contains the point where they were created. This is true even if that evaluation ends in throwing an exception. The value computations and side effects of destroying a temporary object are associated only with the full-expression, not with any specific subexpression.

4 There are two contexts in which temporaries are destroyed at a different point than the end of the full-expression. The first context is when a default constructor is called to initialize an element of an array. If the constructor has one or more default arguments, the destruction of every temporary created in a default argument expression is sequenced before the construction of the next array element, if any.

5 The second context is when a reference is bound to a temporary. The temporary to which the reference is bound or the temporary that is the complete object of a subobject to which the reference is bound persists for the lifetime of the reference except:

   — A temporary bound to a reference member in a constructor’s ctor-initializer (12.6.2) persists until the constructor exits.
   
   — A temporary bound to a reference parameter in a function call (5.2.2) persists until the completion of the full-expression containing the call.
   
   — The lifetime of a temporary bound to the returned value in a function return statement (6.6.3) is not extended; the temporary is destroyed at the end of the full-expression in the return statement.
   
   — A temporary bound to a reference in a new-initializer (5.3.4) persists until the completion of the full-expression containing the new-initializer. [Example:

   struct S { int mi; const std::pair<int, int>& mp; };
   S a { 1, {2,3} }; // Creates dangling reference
   S* p = new S { 1, {2,3} }; // Creates dangling reference

   — end example] [Note: This may introduce a dangling reference, and implementations are encouraged to issue a warning in such a case. — end note]

The destruction of a temporary whose lifetime is not extended by being bound to a reference is sequenced before the destruction of every temporary which is constructed earlier in the same full-expression. If the lifetime of two or more temporaries to which references are bound ends at the same point, these temporaries are destroyed at that point in the reverse order of the completion of their construction. In addition, the destruction of temporaries bound to references shall take into account the ordering of destruction of objects.
with static, thread, or automatic storage duration (3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.7.3); that is, if \texttt{obj1} is an object with the same storage duration as the temporary and created before the temporary is created the temporary shall be destroyed before \texttt{obj1} is destroyed; if \texttt{obj2} is an object with the same storage duration as the temporary and created after the temporary is created the temporary shall be destroyed after \texttt{obj2} is destroyed. [\textit{Example:}

```c
struct S {
    S();
    S(int);
    friend S operator+(const S&, const S&);
    ~S();
};
S obj1;
const S& cr = S(16)+S(23);
S obj2;
```

the expression \texttt{S(16) + S(23)} creates three temporaries: a first temporary \texttt{T1} to hold the result of the expression \texttt{S(16)}, a second temporary \texttt{T2} to hold the result of the expression \texttt{S(23)}, and a third temporary \texttt{T3} to hold the result of the addition of these two expressions. The temporary \texttt{T3} is then bound to the reference \texttt{cr}. It is unspecified whether \texttt{T1} or \texttt{T2} is created first. On an implementation where \texttt{T1} is created before \texttt{T2}, it is guaranteed that \texttt{T2} is destroyed before \texttt{T1}. The temporaries \texttt{T1} and \texttt{T2} are bound to the reference parameters of \texttt{operator+}; these temporaries are destroyed at the end of the full-expression containing the call to \texttt{operator+}. The temporary \texttt{T3} bound to the reference \texttt{cr} is destroyed at the end of \texttt{cr}'s lifetime, that is, at the end of the program. In addition, the order in which \texttt{T3} is destroyed takes into account the destruction order of other objects with static storage duration. That is, because \texttt{obj1} is constructed before \texttt{T3}, and \texttt{T3} is constructed before \texttt{obj2}, it is guaranteed that \texttt{obj2} is destroyed before \texttt{T3}, and that \texttt{T3} is destroyed before \texttt{obj1}. — end example]

12.3 Conversions

Type conversions of class objects can be specified by constructors and by conversion functions. These conversions are called \textit{user-defined conversions} and are used for implicit type conversions (Clause 4), for initialization (8.5), and for explicit type conversions (5.4, 5.2.9).

User-defined conversions are applied only where they are unambiguous (10.2, 12.3.2). Conversions obey the access control rules (Clause 11). Access control is applied after ambiguity resolution (3.4).

[\textit{Note:} See 13.3 for a discussion of the use of conversions in function calls as well as examples below. — end note]

At most one user-defined conversion (constructor or conversion function) is implicitly applied to a single value.

[\textit{Example:}

```c
struct X {
    operator int();
};

struct Y {
    operator X();
};

Y a;
int b = a;     // error
// a.operator X().operator int() not tried
int c = X(a);  // OK: a.operator X().operator int()
```
User-defined conversions are used implicitly only if they are unambiguous. A conversion function in a derived class does not hide a conversion function in a base class unless the two functions convert to the same type. Function overload resolution (13.3.3) selects the best conversion function to perform the conversion. [Example:

```cpp
struct X {
    operator int();
};

struct Y : X {
    operator char();
};

void f(Y& a) {
    if (a) {
        // ill-formed:
        // X::operator int() or Y::operator char()
    }
}
```
— end example]

12.3.1 Conversion by constructor [class.convctor]

1 A constructor declared without the function-specifier explicit specifies a conversion from the types of its parameters to the type of its class. Such a constructor is called a converting constructor. [Example:

```cpp
struct X {
    X(int);
    X(const char*, int = 0);
};

void f(X arg) {
    X a = 1; // a = X(1)
    X b = "Jessie"; // b = X("Jessie", 0)
    a = 2; // a = X(2)
    f(3); // f(X(3))
}
```
— end example]

2 An explicit constructor constructs objects just like non-explicit constructors, but does so only where the direct-initialization syntax (8.5) or where casts (5.2.9, 5.4) are explicitly used. A default constructor may be an explicit constructor; such a constructor will be used to perform default-initialization or value-initialization (8.5). [Example:

```cpp
struct Z {
    explicit Z();
    explicit Z(int);
};

Z a; // OK: default-initialization performed
Z a1 = 1; // error: no implicit conversion
Z a3 = Z(1); // OK: direct initialization syntax used
Z a2(1); // OK: direct initialization syntax used
Z* p = new Z(1); // OK: direct initialization syntax used
```
Z a4 = (Z)1; // OK: explicit cast used
Z a5 = static_cast<Z>(1); // OK: explicit cast used

— end example ]

3 A non-explicit copy-constructor (12.8) is a converting constructor. An implicitly-declared copy constructor is not an explicit constructor; it may be called for implicit type conversions.

12.3.2 Conversion functions

A member function of a class X having no parameters with a name of the form

    conversion-function-id:
      operator conversion-type-id
    conversion-type-id:
      type-specifier-seq attribute-specifier opt conversion-declarator opt
    conversion-declarator:
      ptr-operator conversion-declarator opt

specifies a conversion from X to the type specified by the conversion-type-id. Such functions are called conversion functions. No return type can be specified. If a conversion function is a member function, the type of the conversion function (8.3.5) is “function taking no parameter returning conversion-type-id”. A conversion function is never used to convert a (possibly cv-qualified) object to the (possibly cv-qualified) same object type (or a reference to it), to a (possibly cv-qualified) base class of that type (or a reference to it), or to (possibly cv-qualified) void.111

[ Example:

    struct X {
      operator int();
    };

    void f(X a) {
      int i = int(a);
      i = (int)a;
      i = a;
    }

    In all three cases the value assigned will be converted by X::operator int(). — end example ]

2 A conversion function may be explicit (7.1.2), in which case it is only considered as a user-defined conversion for direct-initialization (8.5). Otherwise, user-defined conversions are not restricted to use in assignments and initializations. [ Example:

    class Y { };
    struct Z {
      explicit operator Y() const;
    };

    void h(Z z) {
      Y y1(z);  // OK: direct-initialization
      Y y2 = z; // ill-formed: copy-initialization

111) These conversions are considered as standard conversions for the purposes of overload resolution (13.3.3.1, 13.3.3.1.4) and therefore initialization (8.5) and explicit casts (5.2.9). A conversion to void does not invoke any conversion function (5.2.9). Even though never directly called to perform a conversion, such conversion functions can be declared and can potentially be reached through a call to a virtual conversion function in a base class.
Y y3 = (Y)z;       // OK: cast notation
}

void g(X a, X b) {
    int i = (a) ? 1+a : 0;
    int j = (a&&b) ? a+b : i;
    if (a) {
    }
}

— end example —

3 The conversion-type-id shall not represent a function type nor an array type. The conversion-type-id in a conversion-function-id is the longest possible sequence of conversion-declarators. [Note: this prevents ambiguities between the declarator operator * and its expression counterparts. [Example:

    &ac.operator int*i; // syntax error:
    // parsed as: &ac.operator int *i
    // not as: &ac.operator int) *i

    The * is the pointer declarator and not the multiplication operator. — end example] — end note]
4 Conversion functions are inherited.
5 Conversion functions can be virtual.
6 Conversion functions cannot be declared static.

12.4 Destructors

1 A special declarator syntax using an optional function-specifier (7.1.2) followed by ~ followed by the destructor's class name followed by an empty parameter list is used to declare the destructor in a class definition. In such a declaration, the ~ followed by the destructor's class name can be enclosed in optional parentheses; such parentheses are ignored. A typedef-name shall not be used as the class-name following the ~ in the declarator for a destructor declaration.

2 A destructor is used to destroy objects of its class type. A destructor takes no parameters, and no return type can be specified for it (not even void). The address of a destructor shall not be taken. A destructor shall not be static. A destructor can be invoked for a const, volatile or const volatile object. A destructor shall not be declared const, volatile or const volatile (9.3.2). const and volatile semantics (7.1.6.1) are not applied on an object under destruction. They stop being in effect when the destructor for the most derived object (1.8) starts. A destructor shall not be declared with a ref-qualifier.

3 If a class has no user-declared destructor, a destructor is declared implicitly. An implicitly-declared destructor is an inline public member of its class. If the class is a union-like class that has a variant member with a non-trivial destructor, an implicitly-declared destructor is defined as deleted (8.4). A destructor is trivial if it is not user-provided and if:
   — the destructor is not virtual,
   — all of the direct base classes of its class have trivial destructors, and
   — for all of the non-static data members of its class that are of class type (or array thereof), each such class has a trivial destructor.

An implicitly-declared destructor for a class X is defined as deleted if:
   — X is a union-like class that has a variant member with a non-trivial destructor,
— any of the non-static data members has class type $M$ (or array thereof) and $M$ has an deleted destructor or a destructor that is inaccessible from the implicitly-declared destructor, or

— any direct or virtual base class has a deleted destructor or a destructor that is inaccessible from the implicitly-declared destructor.

Otherwise, the destructor is non-trivial.

4 A non-user-provided destructor is implicitly defined when it is used to destroy an object of its class type (3.7). A program is ill-formed if the class for which a destructor is implicitly defined or explicitly defaulted has:

— a non-static data member of class type (or array thereof) with an inaccessible destructor, or

— a base class with an inaccessible destructor.

A program is ill-formed if the implicitly-defined destructor is explicitly defaulted but the corresponding implicit declaration would have been deleted. Before the non-user-provided destructor for a class is implicitly defined, all the non-user-defined destructors for its base classes and its non-static data members shall have been implicitly defined. [Note: an implicitly-declared destructor has an exception-specification (15.4). An explicitly defaulted definition has no implicit exception-specification. — end note]

5 After executing the body of the destructor and destroying any automatic objects allocated within the body, a destructor for class $X$ calls the destructors for $X$’s direct non-variant members, the destructors for $X$’s direct base classes and, if $X$ is the type of the most derived class (12.6.2), its destructor calls the destructors for $X$’s virtual base classes. All destructors are called as if they were referenced with a qualified name, that is, ignoring any possible virtual overriding destructors in more derived classes. Bases and members are destroyed in the reverse order of the completion of their constructor (see 12.6.2). A return statement (6.6.3) in a destructor might not directly return to the caller; before transferring control to the caller, the destructors for the members and bases are called. Destructors for elements of an array are called in reverse order of their construction (see 12.6).

6 A destructor can be declared virtual (10.3) or pure virtual (10.4); if any objects of that class or any derived class are created in the program, the destructor shall be defined. If a class has a base class with a virtual destructor, its destructor (whether user- or implicitly-declared) is virtual.

[Note: some language constructs have special semantics when used during destruction; see 12.7. — end note]

8 Destructors are invoked implicitly

— for constructed objects with static storage duration (3.7.1) at program termination (3.6.3),

— for constructed objects with thread storage duration (3.7.2) at thread exit,

— for constructed objects with automatic storage duration (3.7.3) when the block in which an object is created exits (6.7),

— for constructed temporary objects when the lifetime of a temporary object ends (12.2),

— for constructed objects allocated by a new-expression (5.3.4), through use of a delete-expression (5.3.5),

— in several situations due to the handling of exceptions (15.3).

A program is ill-formed if an object of class type or array thereof is declared and the destructor for the class is not accessible at the point of the declaration. Destructors can also be invoked explicitly.

9 At the point of definition of a virtual destructor (including an implicit definition (12.8)), the non-array deallocation function is looked up in the scope of the destructor’s class (10.2), and, if no declaration is found, the function is looked up in the global scope. If the result of this lookup is ambiguous or inaccessible, or if the lookup selects a placement deallocation function or a function with a deleted definition (8.4), the
program is ill-formed. [Note: this assures that a deallocation function corresponding to the dynamic type of an object is available for the delete-expression (12.5). — end note]

In an explicit destructor call, the destructor name appears as a ~ followed by a type-name that names the destructor’s class type. The invocation of a destructor is subject to the usual rules for member functions (9.3), that is, if the object is not of the destructor’s class type and not of a class derived from the destructor’s class type, the program has undefined behavior (except that invoking delete on a null pointer has no effect).

[Example:

```c
struct B {
    virtual ~B() {}
};
struct D : B {
    ~D() {}
};

D D_object;
typedef B B_alias;
B* B_ptr = &D_object;

void f() {
    D_object.B::B();   // calls B’s destructor
    B_ptr->B();        // calls D’s destructor
    B_ptr->B_alias();  // calls D’s destructor
    B_ptr->B_alias::B(); // calls B’s destructor
    B_ptr->B_alias::B_alias(); // calls B’s destructor
}
```
— end example] [Note: an explicit destructor call must always be written using a member access operator (5.2.5) or a qualified-id (5.1); in particular, the unary-expression ~X() in a member function is not an explicit destructor call (5.3.1 ). — end note]

[Note: explicit calls of destructors are rarely needed. One use of such calls is for objects placed at specific addresses using a new-expression with the placement option. Such use of explicit placement and destruction of objects can be necessary to cope with dedicated hardware resources and for writing memory management facilities. For example,

```c
void* operator new(std::size_t, void* p) { return p; }
struct X {
    X(int);
    ~X();
};
void f(X* p);

void g() {
    // rare, specialized use:
    char* buf = new char[sizeof(X)];
    X* p = new(buf) X(222); // use buf[] and initialize
    f(p);
    p->X::~X(); // cleanup
}
```
— end note]

Once a destructor is invoked for an object, the object no longer exists; the behavior is undefined if the destructor is invoked for an object whose lifetime has ended (3.8). [Example: if the destructor for an
automatic object is explicitly invoked, and the block is subsequently left in a manner that would ordinarily invoke implicit destruction of the object, the behavior is undefined. — end example]

13 [Note: the notation for explicit call of a destructor can be used for any scalar type name (5.2.4). Allowing this makes it possible to write code without having to know if a destructor exists for a given type. For example,

```c
typedef int I;
I* p;
p->I::~I();
```

— end note]

12.5 Free store

Any allocation function for a class T is a static member (even if not explicitly declared static).

1 [Example:

```c
class Arena;
struct B {
    void* operator new(std::size_t, Arena*);
};
struct D1 : B {
};

Arena* ap;
void foo(int i) {
    new (ap) D1; // calls B::operator new(std::size_t, Arena*)
    new D1[i];  // calls ::operator new[](std::size_t)
    new D1;    // ill-formed: ::operator new(std::size_t) hidden
}
```

— end example]

2 When an object is deleted with a delete-expression (5.3.5), a deallocation function (operator delete() for non-array objects or operator delete[]() for arrays) is (implicitly) called to reclaim the storage occupied by the object (3.7.4.2).

3 If a delete-expression begins with a unary :: operator, the deallocation function’s name is looked up in global scope. Otherwise, if the delete-expression is used to deallocate a class object whose static type has a virtual destructor, the deallocation function is the one selected at the point of definition of the dynamic type’s virtual destructor (12.4).\(^{112}\) Otherwise, if the delete-expression is used to deallocate an object of class T or array thereof, the static and dynamic types of the object shall be identical and the deallocation function’s name is looked up in the scope of T. If this lookup fails to find the name, the name is looked up in the global scope. If the result of the lookup is ambiguous or inaccessible, or if the lookup selects a placement deallocation function, the program is ill-formed.

4 When a delete-expression is executed, the selected deallocation function shall be called with the address of the block of storage to be reclaimed as its first argument and (if the two-parameter style is used) the size of the block as its second argument.\(^{113}\)

\(^{112}\) A similar provision is not needed for the array version of operator delete because 5.3.5 requires that in this situation, the static type of the object to be deleted be the same as its dynamic type.

\(^{113}\) If the static type of the object to be deleted is different from the dynamic type and the destructor is not virtual the size might be incorrect, but that case is already undefined; see 5.3.5.
6 Any deallocation function for a class X is a static member (even if not explicitly declared static).  

```cpp
class X {
    void operator delete(void*);
    void operator delete[](void*, std::size_t);
};

class Y {
    void operator delete(void*, std::size_t);
    void operator delete[](void*);
};
```

— end example

7 Since member allocation and deallocation functions are static they cannot be virtual.  

```
struct B {
    virtual ~B();
    void operator delete(void*, std::size_t);
};

struct D : B {
    void operator delete(void*);
};

void f() {
    B* bp = new D;
    delete bp;  // uses D::operator delete(void*)
}
```

Here, storage for the non-array object of class D is deallocated by D::operator delete(), due to the virtual destructor.  — end note

```
struct B {
    virtual ~B();
    void operator delete[](void*, std::size_t);
};

struct D : B {
    void operator delete[](void*, std::size_t);
};

void f(int i) {
    D* dp = new D[i];
    delete [] dp;  // uses D::operator delete[](void*, std::size_t)
    B* bp = new D[i];
    delete[] bp;  // undefined behavior
}
```

— end note

8 Access to the deallocation function is checked statically. Hence, even though a different one might actually be executed, the statically visible deallocation function is required to be accessible.  

`Example: for the call`
on line //1 above, if B::operator delete() had been private, the delete expression would have been ill-formed. — end example]

12.6 Initialization

1 When no initializer is specified for an object of (possibly cv-qualified) class type (or array thereof), or the initializer has the form (), the object is initialized as specified in 8.5.

2 An object of class type (or array thereof) can be explicitly initialized; see 12.6.1 and 12.6.2.

3 When an array of class objects is initialized (either explicitly or implicitly) and the elements are initialized by constructor, the constructor shall be called for each element of the array, following the subscript order; see 8.3.4. [Note: destructors for the array elements are called in reverse order of their construction. — end note]

12.6.1 Explicit initialization

1 An object of class type can be initialized with a parenthesized expression-list, where the expression-list is construed as an argument list for a constructor that is called to initialize the object. Alternatively, a single assignment-expression can be specified as an initializer using the = form of initialization. Either direct-initialization semantics or copy-initialization semantics apply; see 8.5. [Example:

```cpp
struct complex {
    complex();
    complex(double);
    complex(double,double);
};

complex sqrt(complex,complex);

complex a(1); // initialize by a call of
    // complex(double)
complex b = a; // initialize by a copy of a
complex c = complex(1,2); // construct complex(1,2)
    // using complex(double,double)
    // copy it into c
complex d = sqrt(b,c); // call sqrt(complex,complex)
    // and copy the result into d
complex e; // initialize by a call of
    // complex()
complex f = 3; // construct complex(3) using
    // complex(double)
    // copy it into f
complex g = { 1, 2 }; // construct complex(1,2)
    // using complex(double, double)
    // and copy it into g

— end example] [Note: overloading of the assignment operator (13.5.3) has no effect on initialization. — end note]

2 An object of class type can also be initialized by a braced-init-list. List-initialization semantics apply; see 8.5 and 8.5.4. [Example:

```cpp
complex v[6] = { 1, complex(1,2), complex(), 2 ];
```
Here, `complex::complex(double)` is called for the initialization of \(v[0]\) and \(v[3]\), `complex::complex(double, double)` is called for the initialization of \(v[1]\), `complex::complex()` is called for the initialization \(v[2]\), \(v[4]\), and \(v[5]\). For another example,

```c
struct X {
    int i;
    float f;
    complex c;
} x = { 99, 88.8, 77.7 };
```

Here, \(x.i\) is initialized with 99, \(x.f\) is initialized with 88.8, and `complex::complex(double)` is called for the initialization of \(x.c\). — end example

`Note:` braces can be elided in the `initializer-list` for any aggregate, even if the aggregate has members of a class type with user-defined type conversions; see 8.5.1. — end note]

3 [ `Note:` if \(T\) is a class type with no default constructor, any declaration of an object of type \(T\) (or array thereof) is ill-formed if no `initializer` is explicitly specified (see 12.6 and 8.5). — end note]

4 [ `Note:` the order in which objects with static or thread storage duration are initialized is described in 3.6.2 and 6.7. — end note]

12.6.2 Initializing bases and members

1 In the definition of a constructor for a class, initializers for direct and virtual base subobjects and non-static data members can be specified by a `ctor-initializer`, which has the form

```
ctor-initializer:
    : mem-initializer-list
mem-initializer-list:
    mem-initializer ...opt
    mem-initializer, mem-initializer-list ...opt
mem-initializer:
    mem-initializer-id ( expression-listopt )
    mem-initializer-id braced-init-list
mem-initializer-id:
    ::opt nested-name-specifieropt class-name identifier
```

2 Names in a `mem-initializer-id` are looked up in the scope of the constructor’s class and, if not found in that scope, are looked up in the scope containing the constructor’s definition. [ `Note:` if the constructor’s class contains a member with the same name as a direct or virtual base class of the class, a `mem-initializer-id` naming the member or base class and composed of a single identifier refers to the class member. A `mem-initializer-id` for the hidden base class may be specified using a qualified name. — end note] Unless the `mem-initializer-id` names the constructor’s class, a non-static data member of the constructor’s class, or a direct or virtual base of that class, the `mem-initializer` is ill-formed.

3 A `mem-initializer-list` can initialize a base class using any name that denotes that base class type. [ `Example:`

```c
struct A { A(); };
typedef A global_A;
struct B { };
struct C: public A, public B { C(); };
C::C(): global_A() {} // mem-initializer for base A
```

— end example]

4 If a `mem-initializer-id` is ambiguous because it designates both a direct non-virtual base class and an inherited virtual base class, the `mem-initializer` is ill-formed. [ `Example:`

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struct A { A(); };
struct B: public virtual A { };
struct C: public A, public B { C(); };
C::C(): A() { } // ill-formed: which A?

--- end example ---

5 A `ctor-initializer` may initialize the member of an anonymous union that is a member of the constructor's class. If a `ctor-initializer` specifies more than one `mem-initializer` for the same member, or for the same base class or for multiple members of the same union (including members of anonymous unions), the `ctor-initializer` is ill-formed.

6 A `mem-initializer-list` can delegate to another constructor of the constructor's class using any name that denotes the constructor's class itself. If a `mem-initializer-id` designates the constructor's class, it shall be the only `mem-initializer`; the constructor is a delegating constructor, and the constructor selected by the `mem-initializer` is the target constructor. The principal constructor is the first constructor invoked in the construction of an object (that is, not a target constructor for that object's construction). The target constructor is selected by overload resolution. Once the target constructor returns, the body of the delegating constructor is executed. If a constructor delegates to itself directly or indirectly, the program is ill-formed; no diagnostic is required. [Example:

```cpp
struct C {
    C ( int ) { } // #1: non-delegating constructor
    C(): C(42) { } // #2: delegates to #1
    C ( char c ) : C(42.0) { } // #3: ill-formed due to recursion with #4
    C ( double d ) : C('a') { } // #4: ill-formed due to recursion with #3
};
--- end example ---
```

7 The expression-list or braced-init-list in a `mem-initializer` is used to initialize the base class or non-static data member subobject denoted by the `mem-initializer-id` according to the initialization rules of 8.5 for direct-initialization. [Example:

```cpp
struct B1 { B1(int); /* ... */ };
struct B2 { B2(int); /* ... */ };
struct D : B1, B2 {
    D(int);
    B1 b;
    const int c;
};

D::D(int a) : B2(a+1), B1(a+2), c(a+3), b(a+4) { /* ... */ } 
D d(10);
--- end example ---
```

The initialization of each base and member constitutes a full-expression. Any expression in a `mem-initializer` is evaluated as part of the full-expression that performs the initialization. A `mem-initializer` where the `mem-initializer-id` names a virtual base class is ignored during execution of a constructor of any class that is not the most derived class.

8 If a given non-static data member or base class is not named by a `mem-initializer-id` (including the case where there is no `mem-initializer-list` because the constructor has no `ctor-initializer`) and the entity is not a virtual base class of an abstract class (10.4), then

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— if the entity is a non-static data member that has a brace-or-equal-initializer, the entity is initialized as specified in 8.5;
— otherwise, if the entity is a variant member (9.5), no initialization is performed;
— otherwise, the entity is default-initialized (8.5).

[Note: an abstract class (10.4) is never a most derived class, thus its constructors never initialize virtual base classes, therefore the corresponding mem-initializers may be omitted. — end note] An attempt to initialize more than one non-static data member of a union renders the program ill-formed. After the call to a constructor for class X has completed, if a member of X is neither initialized nor given a value during execution of the compound-statement of the body of the constructor, the member has indeterminate value.

[Example:

```cpp
class A {
    A();
};

class B {
    B(int); // members are initialized as follows:
};
class C {
    C() { } // initializes members as follows:
    A a; // OK: calls A::A()
    const B b; // error: B has no default constructor
    int i; // OK: i has indeterminate value
    int j = 5; // OK: j has the value 5
};
```
— end example]

9 If a given non-static data member has both a brace-or-equal-initializer and a mem-initializer, the initialization specified by the mem-initializer is performed, and the non-static data member’s brace-or-equal-initializer is ignored. [Example: Given

```cpp
class A {
    int i = /* some integer expression with side effects */;
    A(int arg) : i(arg) { }
    // ...
};
```

the A(int) constructor will simply initialize i to the value of arg, and the side effects in i’s brace-or-equal-initializer will not take place. — end example]

10 Initialization shall proceed in the following order:

— First, and only for the constructor of the most derived class (1.8), as described below, virtual base classes shall be initialized in the order they appear on a depth-first left-to-right traversal of the directed acyclic graph of base classes, where “left-to-right” is the order of appearance of the base class names in the derived class base-specifier-list.

— Then, direct base classes shall be initialized in declaration order as they appear in the base-specifier-list (regardless of the order of the mem-initializers).

— Then, non-static data members shall be initialized in the order they were declared in the class definition (again regardless of the order of the mem-initializers).
Finally, the compound-statement of the constructor body is executed.

[Note: the declaration order is mandated to ensure that base and member subobjects are destroyed in the reverse order of initialization. — end note]

All subobjects representing virtual base classes are initialized by the constructor of the most derived class (1.8). If the constructor of the most derived class does not specify a mem-initializer for a virtual base class V, then V’s default constructor is called to initialize the virtual base class subobject. If V does not have an accessible default constructor, the initialization is ill-formed. A mem-initializer naming a virtual base class shall be ignored during execution of the constructor of any class that is not the most derived class.

[Example:

```c
struct V {
  V();
  V(int);
};

struct A : virtual V {
  A();
  A(int);
};

struct B : virtual V {
  B();
  B(int);
};

struct C : A, B, virtual V {
  C();
  C(int);
};

A::A(int i) : V(i) { /* ... */ }
B::B(int i) { /* ... */ }
C::C(int i) { /* ... */ }

V v(1); // use V(int)
A a(2); // use V(int)
B b(3); // use V()
C c(4); // use V()
```

— end example]

Names in the expression-list of a mem-initializer are evaluated in the scope of the constructor for which the mem-initializer is specified. [Example:

```c
class X {
  int a;
  int b;
  int i;
  int j;
public:
  const int& r;
  X(int i): r(a), b(i), i(i), j(this->i) { }
};
```

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initializes `X::r` to refer to `X::a`, initializes `X::b` with the value of the constructor parameter `i`, initializes `X::i` with the value of the constructor parameter `i`, and initializes `X::j` with the value of `X::i`; this takes place each time an object of class `X` is created. — end example] [Note: because the mem-initializer are evaluated in the scope of the constructor, the this pointer can be used in the expression-list of a mem-initializer to refer to the object being initialized. — end note]

13 Member functions (including virtual member functions, 10.3) can be called for an object under construction. Similarly, an object under construction can be the operand of the typeid operator (5.2.8) or of a dynamic_cast (5.2.7). However, if these operations are performed in a ctor-initializer (or in a function called directly or indirectly from a ctor-initializer) before all the mem-initializers for base classes have completed, the result of the operation is undefined. [Example:

    class A {
    public:
        A(int);
    };

    class B : public A {
        int j;
    public:
        int f();
        B() : A(f()), // undefined: calls member function
            j(f()) { } // well-defined: bases are all initialized
    };

    class C {
    public:
        C(int);
    };

    class D : public B, C {
        int i;
    public:
        D() : C(f()), // undefined: calls member function
            i(f()) { } // well-defined: bases are all initialized
    };

    — end example]

14 [Note: 12.7 describes the result of virtual function calls, typeid and dynamic_casts during construction for the well-defined cases; that is, describes the polymorphic behavior of an object under construction. — end note]

15 A mem-initializer followed by an ellipsis is a pack expansion (14.6.3) that initializes the base classes specified by a pack expansion in the base-specifier-list for the class. [Example:

    template<class... Mixins>
    class X : public Mixins... {
    public:
        X(const Mixins&... mixins) : Mixins(mixins)... { }
    };

    — end example]

§ 12.6.2
12.7 Construction and destruction

For an object with a non-trivial constructor, referring to any non-static member or base class of the object before the constructor begins execution results in undefined behavior. For an object with a non-trivial destructor, referring to any non-static member or base class of the object after the destructor finishes execution results in undefined behavior. [Example:

```c
struct X { int i; }
struct Y : X { Y(); } // non-trivial
struct A { int a; }
struct B : public A { int j; Y y; } // non-trivial

extern B bobj;
B* pb = &bobj; // OK
int* p1 = &bobj.a; // undefined, refers to base class member
int* p2 = &bobj.y.i; // undefined, refers to member's member

A* pa = &bobj; // undefined, upcast to a base class type
B bobj; // definition of bobj

extern X xobj;
int* p3 = &xobj.i; //OK, X is a trivial class
X xobj;
```

2 For another example,

```c
struct W { int j; }
struct X : public virtual W { }
struct Y {
    int *p;
    X x;
    Y() : p(&x.j) { // undefined, x is not yet constructed
    }
};
```

— end example

3 To explicitly or implicitly convert a pointer (an lvalue) referring to an object of class X to a pointer (reference) to a direct or indirect base class B of X, the construction of X and the construction of all of its direct or indirect bases that directly or indirectly derive from B shall have started and the destruction of these classes shall not have completed, otherwise the conversion results in undefined behavior. To form a pointer to (or access the value of) a direct non-static member of an object obj, the construction of obj shall have started and its destruction shall not have completed, otherwise the computation of the pointer value (or accessing the member value) results in undefined behavior. [Example:

```c
struct A { }
struct B : virtual A { }
struct C : B { }
struct D : virtual A { D(A*); }
struct X { X(A*); }

struct E : C, D, X {
    E() : D(this), // undefined: upcast from E* to A*
    // might use path E* → D* → A*
    // but D is not constructed
    // D((C*)this), // defined:
};
```

§ 12.7
Member functions, including virtual functions (10.3), can be called during construction or destruction (12.6.2). When a virtual function is called directly or indirectly from a constructor (including the mem-initializer or brace-or-equal-initializer for a non-static data member) or from a destructor, and the object to which the call applies is the object under construction or destruction, the function called is the one defined in the constructor or destructor’s own class or in one of its bases, but not a function overriding it in a class derived from the constructor or destructor’s class, or overriding it in one of the other base classes of the most derived object (1.8). If the virtual function call uses an explicit class member access (5.2.5) and the object-expression refers to the object under construction or destruction but its type is neither the constructor or destructor’s own class or one of its bases, the result of the call is undefined. [Example:

```cpp
struct V {
    virtual void f();
    virtual void g();
};

struct A : virtual V {
    virtual void f();
};

struct B : virtual V {
    virtual void g();
    B(V*, A*);
};

struct D : A, B {
    virtual void f();
    virtual void g();
    D() : B((A*)this, this) { }
};

B::B(V* v, A* a) {
    f();          // calls V::f, not A::f
    g();          // calls B::g, not D::g
    v->g();       // v is base of B, the call is well-defined, calls B::g
    a->f();       // undefined behavior, a’s type not a base of B
}
```

— end example]

The typeid operator (5.2.8) can be used during construction or destruction (12.6.2). When typeid is used in a constructor (including the mem-initializer or brace-or-equal-initializer for a non-static data member) or in a destructor, or used in a function called (directly or indirectly) from a constructor or destructor, if the operand of typeid refers to the object under construction or destruction, typeid yields the std::type_info object representing the constructor or destructor’s class. If the operand of typeid refers to the object under
construction or destruction and the static type of the operand is neither the constructor or destructor’s class nor one of its bases, the result of `typeid` is undefined.

6 Dynamic casts (5.2.7) can be used during construction or destruction (12.6.2). When a `dynamic_cast` is used in a constructor (including the `mem-initializer` or `brace-or-equal-initializer` for a non-static data member) or in a destructor, or used in a function called (directly or indirectly) from a constructor or destructor, if the operand of the `dynamic_cast` refers to the object under construction or destruction, this object is considered to be a most derived object that has the type of the constructor or destructor’s class. If the operand of the `dynamic_cast` refers to the object under construction or destruction and the static type of the operand is not a pointer to or object of the constructor or destructor’s own class or one of its bases, the `dynamic_cast` results in undefined behavior.

[Example:

```cpp
struct V {
    virtual void f();
};

struct A : virtual V {};

struct B : virtual V {
    B(V*, A*);
};

struct D : A, B {
    D() : B((A*)this, this) { }
};

B::B(V* v, A* a) {
    typeid(*this);  // type_info for B
    typeid(*v);    // well-defined: *v has type V, a base of B
    typeid(*a);    // undefined behavior: type A not a base of B
    dynamic_cast<B*>(v);  // well-defined: v of type V*, V base of B
    // results in B*
    dynamic_cast<B*>(a);  // undefined behavior,
    // a has type A*, A not a base of B
}
```

— end example]

12.8 Copying class objects

1 A class object can be copied in two ways, by initialization (12.1, 8.5), including for function argument passing (5.2.2) and for function value return (6.6.3), and by assignment (5.17). Conceptually, these two operations are implemented by a copy constructor (12.1) and copy assignment operator (13.5.3).

2 A non-template constructor for class `X` is a copy constructor if its first parameter is of type `X&`, `const X&`, `volatile X&` or `const volatile X&`, and either there are no other parameters or else all other parameters have default arguments (8.3.6).114 [Example: `X::X(const X&)` and `X::X(X&, int=1)` are copy constructors.

```
struct X {
    X(int);
```

114) Because a template constructor or a constructor whose first parameter is an rvalue reference is never a copy constructor, the presence of such a constructor does not suppress the implicit declaration of a copy constructor. Such constructors participate in overload resolution with other constructors, including copy constructors, and, if selected, will be used to copy an object.
X(const X&, int = 1);
};
X a(1);     // calls X(int);
X b(a, 0);  // calls X(const X&, int);
X c = b;     // calls X(const X&, int);

— end example] [Note: all forms of copy constructor may be declared for a class. [Example:

struct X {
    X(const X&); // OK
};

— end example] — end note] [Note: if a class X only has a copy constructor with a parameter of type X&,
an initializer of type const X or volatile X cannot initialize an object of type (possibly cv-qualified) X.

[Example:

struct X {
    X(); // default constructor
    X(X&); // copy constructor with a nonconst parameter
};
const X cx;
X x = cx; // error: X::X(X&) cannot copy cx into x

— end example] — end note]

3 A declaration of a constructor for a class X is ill-formed if its first parameter is of type (optionally cv-qualified) X
and either there are no other parameters or else all other parameters have default arguments. A member
function template is never instantiated to perform the copy of a class object to an object of its class type.

[Example:

struct S {
    template<typename T> S(T);
};
S f();

void g() {
    S a( f() ); // does not instantiate member template
}

— end example]

4 If the class definition does not explicitly declare a copy constructor, one is declared implicitly. Thus, for the
class definition

struct X {
    X(const X&, int);
};

a copy constructor is implicitly-declared. If the user-declared constructor is later defined as

X::X(const X& x, int i =0) { /* ... */ }

then any use of X’s copy constructor is ill-formed because of the ambiguity; no diagnostic is required.

5 The implicitly-declared copy constructor for a class X will have the form

§ 12.8
X::X(const X&)

if
   — each direct or virtual base class B of X has a copy constructor whose first parameter is of type const B& or const volatile B&, and
   — for all the non-static data members of X that are of a class type M (or array thereof), each such class type has a copy constructor whose first parameter is of type const M& or const volatile M&.  

Otherwise, the implicitly-declared copy constructor will have the form

X::X(X&)

An implicitly-declared copy constructor is an inline public member of its class. An implicitly-declared copy constructor for a class X is defined as deleted if X has:
   — a variant member with a non-trivial copy constructor and X is a union-like class,
   — a non-static data member of class type M (or array thereof) that cannot be copied because overload resolution (13.3), as applied to M’s copy constructor, results in an ambiguity or a function that is deleted or inaccessible from the explicitly-declared copy constructor, or
   — a direct or virtual base class B that cannot be copied because overload resolution (13.3), as applied to B’s copy constructor, results in an ambiguity or a function that is deleted or inaccessible from the implicitly-declared copy constructor.

A copy constructor for class X is trivial if it is not user-provided (8.4) and if
   — class X has no virtual functions (10.3) and no virtual base classes (10.1), and
   — the constructor selected to copy each direct base class subobject is trivial, and
   — for each non-static data member of X that is of class type (or array thereof), the constructor selected to copy that member is trivial;
otherwise the copy constructor is non-trivial.

A non-user-provided copy constructor is implicitly defined if it is used to initialize an object of its class type from a copy of an object of its class type or of a class type derived from its class type.  
[Note: the copy constructor is implicitly defined even if the implementation elided its use (12.2). — end note] A program is ill-formed if the implicitly-defined copy constructor is explicitly defaulted but the corresponding implicit declaration would have been deleted.

Before the non-user-provided copy constructor for a class is implicitly defined, all non-user-provided copy constructors for its direct and virtual base classes and its non-static data members shall have been implicitly defined.  
[Note: an implicitly-declared copy constructor has an exception-specification (15.4). An explicitly-defaulted definition has no implicit exception-specification. — end note]

The implicitly-defined or explicitly-defaulted copy constructor for a non-union class X performs a memberwise copy of its subobjects.  
[Note: brace-or-equal-initializers of non-static data members are ignored. See also the example in 12.6.2. — end note] The order of copying is the same as the order of initialization of bases and members in a user-defined constructor (see 12.6.2). Each subobject is copied in the manner appropriate to its type:
   — if the subobject is of class type, the copy constructor for the class is used;

---

115) This implies that the reference parameter of the implicitly-declared copy constructor cannot bind to a volatile lvalue; see C.1.8.
116) See 8.5 for more details on direct and copy initialization.
— if the subobject is an array, each element is copied, in the manner appropriate to the element type;
— if the subobject is of scalar type, the built-in assignment operator is used.

Virtual base class subobjects shall be copied only once by the implicitly-defined copy constructor (see 12.6.2).

10 The implicitly-defined or explicitly-defaulted copy constructor for a union \( X \) copies the object representation (3.9) of \( X \).

11 A user-declared \textit{copy} assignment operator \( X::\text{operator=} \) is a non-static non-template member function of class \( X \) with exactly one parameter of type \( X, X&, \text{const } X&, \text{volatile } X& \) or \( \text{const volatile } X& \).

\[ \text{Note: more than one form of copy assignment operator may be declared for a class.} \quad \text{— end note} \]

\[ \text{Note:} \quad \text{an overloaded assignment operator must be declared to have only one parameter; see 13.5.3.} \quad \text{— end note} \]

\[ \text{Note:} \quad \text{if a class } X \text{ only has a copy assignment operator with a parameter of type } X&, \text{ an expression of type const } X \text{ cannot be assigned to an object of type } X. \quad \text{[Example:] } \]

\begin{verbatim}
struct X {
    X();
    X& operator=(X&);
};
const X cx;
X x;
void f() {
    x = cx; // error: X::operator=(X&) cannot assign cx into x
}
\end{verbatim}

\[ \text{— end example} \quad \text{— end note} \]

12 If the class definition does not explicitly declare a copy assignment operator, one is declared \textit{implicitly}. The implicitly-declared copy assignment operator for a class \( X \) will have the form

\[ X& X::\text{operator=} (\text{const } X&) \]

if

— each direct base class \( B \) of \( X \) has a copy assignment operator whose parameter is of type \text{const } B&, \text{const volatile } B& \text{ or } B, \text{ and}

— for all the non-static data members of \( X \) that are of a class type \( M \) (or array thereof), each such class type has a copy assignment operator whose parameter is of type \text{const } M&, \text{const volatile } M& \text{ or } M. \]

Otherwise, the implicitly-declared copy assignment operator will have the form

\[ X& X::\text{operator=} (X&) \]

The implicitly-declared copy assignment operator for class \( X \) has the return type \( X& \); it returns the object for which the assignment operator is invoked, that is, the object assigned to. An implicitly-declared copy assignment operator is an \textit{inline public} member of its class. An implicitly-declared copy assignment operator for class \( X \) is defined as deleted if \( X \) has:

— a variant member with a non-trivial copy assignment operator and \( X \) is a union-like class,

— a non-static data member of \text{const} non-class type (or array thereof), or

\[ \text{117) Because a template assignment operator or an assignment operator taking an rvalue reference parameter is never a copy assignment operator, the presence of such an assignment operator does not suppress the implicit declaration of a copy assignment operator. Such assignment operators participate in overload resolution with other assignment operators, including copy assignment operators, and, if selected, will be used to assign an object.} \]

\[ \text{118) This implies that the reference parameter of the implicitly-declared copy assignment operator cannot bind to a } \text{volatile} \text{ lvalue; see C.1.8.} \]
— a non-static data member of reference type, or
— a non-static data member of class type M (or array thereof) that cannot be copied because overload resolution (13.3), as applied to M’s copy assignment operator, results in an ambiguity or a function that is deleted or inaccessible from the implicitly-declared copy assignment operator, or
— a direct or virtual base class B that cannot be copied because overload resolution (13.3), as applied to B’s copy assignment operator, results in an ambiguity or a function that is deleted or inaccessible from the implicitly-declared copy assignment operator.

Because a copy assignment operator is implicitly declared for a class if not declared by the user, a base class copy assignment operator is always hidden by the copy assignment operator of a derived class (13.5.3). A using-declaration (7.3.3) that brings in from a base class an assignment operator with a parameter type that could be that of a copy-assignment operator for the derived class is not considered an explicit declaration of a copy-assignment operator and does not suppress the implicit declaration of the derived class copy-assignment operator; the operator introduced by the using-declaration is hidden by the implicitly-declared copy-assignment operator in the derived class.

13 A copy assignment operator for class X is trivial if it is not user-provided and if
— class X has no virtual functions (10.3) and no virtual base classes (10.1), and
— the assignment operator selected to copy each direct base class subobject is trivial, and
— for each non-static data member of X that is of class type (or array thereof), the assignment operator selected to copy that member is trivial;
otherwise the copy assignment operator is non-trivial.

14 A non-user-provided copy assignment operator is implicitly defined when an object of its class type is assigned a value of its class type or a value of a class type derived from its class type. A program is ill-formed if the implicitly-defined copy assignment operator is explicitly defaulted but the corresponding implicit declaration would have been deleted.

15 Before the non-user-provided copy assignment operator for a class is implicitly defined, all non-user-provided copy assignment operators for its direct base classes and its non-static data members shall have been implicitly defined. [Note: an implicitly-declared copy assignment operator has an exception-specification (15.4). An explicitly-defaulted definition has no implicit exception-specification. — end note]

16 The implicitly-defined or explicitly-defaulted copy assignment operator for a non-union class X performs memberwise assignment of its subobjects. The direct base classes of X are assigned first, in the order of their declaration in the base-specifier-list, and then the immediate non-static data members of X are assigned, in the order in which they were declared in the class definition. Each subobject is assigned in the manner appropriate to its type:
— if the subobject is of class type, the copy assignment operator for the class is used (as if by explicit qualification; that is, ignoring any possible virtual overriding functions in more derived classes);
— if the subobject is an array, each element is assigned, in the manner appropriate to the element type;
— if the subobject is of scalar type, the built-in assignment operator is used.

It is unspecified whether subobjects representing virtual base classes are assigned more than once by the implicitly-defined or explicitly-defaulted copy assignment operator. [Example:
It is unspecified whether the virtual base class subobject \( V \) is assigned twice by the implicitly-defined copy assignment operator for \( C \). — end example

17 The implicitly-defined or explicitly-defaulted copy assignment operator for a union \( X \) copies the object representation (3.9) of \( X \).

18 A program is ill-formed if the copy constructor or the copy assignment operator for an object is implicitly used and the special member function is not accessible (Clause 11). [Note: Copying one object into another using the copy constructor or the copy assignment operator does not change the layout or size of either object. — end note]

19 When certain criteria are met, an implementation is allowed to omit the copy construction of a class object, even if the copy constructor and/or destructor for the object have side effects. In such cases, the implementation treats the source and target of the omitted copy operation as simply two different ways of referring to the same object, and the destruction of that object occurs at the later of the times when the two objects would have been destroyed without the optimization.\(^{119}\) This elision of copy operations is permitted in the following circumstances (which may be combined to eliminate multiple copies):

— in a return statement in a function with a class return type, when the expression is the name of a non-volatile automatic object with the same cv-unqualified type as the function return type, the copy operation can be omitted by constructing the automatic object directly into the function’s return value

— in a throw-expression, when the operand is the name of a non-volatile automatic object, the copy operation from the operand to the exception object (15.1) can be omitted by constructing the automatic object directly into the exception object

— when a temporary class object that has not been bound to a reference (12.2) would be copied to a class object with the same cv-unqualified type, the copy operation can be omitted by constructing the temporary object directly into the target of the omitted copy

— when the exception-declaration of an exception handler (Clause 15) declares an object of the same type (except for cv-qualification) as the exception object (15.1), the copy operation can be omitted by treating the exception-declaration as an alias for the exception object if the meaning of the program will be unchanged except for the execution of constructors and destructors for the object declared by the exception-declaration.

[Example:

```cpp
class Thing {
public:
    Thing();
    "Thing();
    Thing(const Thing&);
};

Thing f() {
    Thing t;
    return t;
}

Thing t2 = f();
```

Here the criteria for elision can be combined to eliminate two calls to the copy constructor of class \texttt{Thing}: the copying of the local automatic object \texttt{t} into the temporary object for the return value of function \texttt{f()}]

\(^{119}\) Because only one object is destroyed instead of two, and one copy constructor is not executed, there is still one object destroyed for each one constructed.

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and the copying of that temporary object into object \( t_2 \). Effectively, the construction of the local object \( t \) can be viewed as directly initializing the global object \( t_2 \), and that object’s destruction will occur at program exit. — end example]

20 When the criteria for elision of a copy operation are met and the object to be copied is designated by an lvalue, overload resolution to select the constructor for the copy is first performed as if the object were designated by an rvalue. If overload resolution fails, or if the type of the first parameter of the selected constructor is not an rvalue reference to the object’s type (possibly cv-qualified), overload resolution is performed again, considering the object as an lvalue. [Note: This two-stage overload resolution must be performed regardless of whether copy elision will occur. It determines the constructor to be called if elision is not performed, and the selected constructor must be accessible even if the call is elided. — end note]

[Example:

```cpp
class Thing {
public:
    Thing();
    ~Thing();
    Thing(Thing&&);  // OK: Thing(Thing&&) used (or elided) to throw t
private:
    Thing(const Thing&);  // OK: Thing(const Thing&) used (or elided) to return t
};

Thing f(bool b) {
    Thing t;
    if (b)
        throw t;  // OK: Thing(Thing&&) used (or elided) to throw t
    return t;  // OK: Thing(Thing&&) used (or elided) to return t
}

Thing t2 = f(false);  // OK: Thing(Thing&&) used (or elided) to construct of t2
```

— end example]

12.9 Inheriting Constructors [class.inhctor]

1 A using-declaration (7.3.3) that names a constructor implicitly declares a set of inheriting constructors. The candidate set of inherited constructors from the class \( X \) named in the using-declaration consists of actual constructors and notional constructors that result from the transformation of defaulted parameters as follows:

— all non-template constructors of \( X \), and

— for each non-template constructor of \( X \) that has at least one parameter with a default argument, the set of constructors that results from omitting any ellipsis parameter specification and successively omitting parameters with a default argument from the end of the parameter-type-list, and

— all constructor templates of \( X \), and

— for each constructor template of \( X \) that has at least one parameter with a default argument, the set of constructor templates that results from omitting any ellipsis parameter specification and successively omitting parameters with a default argument from the end of the parameter-type-list.

2 The constructor characteristics of a constructor or constructor template are

— the template parameter list (14.2), if any,

— the parameter-type-list (8.3.5),
For each non-template constructor in the candidate set of inherited constructors other than a constructor having no parameters or a copy constructor having a single parameter, a constructor is implicitly declared with the same constructor characteristics unless there is a user-declared constructor with the same signature in the class where the using-declaration appears. Similarly, for each constructor template in the candidate set of inherited constructors, a constructor template is implicitly declared with the same constructor characteristics unless there is an equivalent user-declared constructor template in the class where the using-declaration appears. [Note: Default arguments are not inherited. — end note]

A constructor so declared has the same access as the corresponding constructor in X. It is deleted if the corresponding constructor in X is deleted (8.4).

[Note: Default and copy constructors may be implicitly declared as specified in 12.1 and 12.8. — end note]

Example:

```cpp
struct B1 {
    B1(int);
};

struct B2 {
    B2(int = 13, int = 42);
};

struct D1 : B1 {
    using B1::B1;
};

struct D2 : B2 {
    using B2::B2;
};
```

The candidate set of inherited constructors in D1 for B1 is

- B1(const B1&)
- B1(int)

The set of constructors present in D1 is

- D1(), implicitly-declared default constructor, ill-formed if used
- D1(const D1&), implicitly-declared copy constructor, not inherited
- D1(int), implicitly-declared inheriting constructor

The candidate set of inherited constructors in D2 for B2 is

- B2(const B2&)
- B2(int = 13, int = 42)
- B2(int = 13)
- B2()
The set of constructors present in D2 is

— D2(), implicitly-declared default constructor, not inherited
— D2(const D2&), implicitly-declared copy constructor, not inherited
— D2(int, int), implicitly-declared inheriting constructor
— D2(int), implicitly-declared inheriting constructor

— end example]

[Note: If two using-declarations declare inheriting constructors with the same signatures, the program is ill-formed (9.2, 13.1), because an implicitly-declared constructor introduced by the first using-declaration is not a user-declared constructor and thus does not preclude another declaration of a constructor with the same signature by a subsequent using-declaration. [Example:

```c
struct B1 {
    B1(int);
};

struct B2 {
    B2(int);
};

struct D1 : B1, B2 {
    using B1::B1;
    using B2::B2;
};
// ill-formed: attempts to declare D1(int) twice

struct D2 : B1, B2 {
    using B1::B1;
    using B2::B2;
    D2(int); // OK: user declaration supersedes both implicit declarations
};

— end example] — end note]

8 An inheriting constructor for a class is implicitly defined when it is used (3.2) to create an object of its class type (1.8). An implicitly-defined inheriting constructor performs the set of initializations of the class that would be performed by a user-written inline constructor for that class with a mem-initializer-list whose only mem-initializer has a mem-initializer-id that names the base class named in the nested-name-specifier of the using-declaration and an expression-list as specified below, and where the compound-statement in its function body is empty (12.6.2). If that user-written constructor would be ill-formed, the program is ill-formed. Each expression in the expression-list is of the form static_cast<T&&>(p), where p is the name of the corresponding constructor parameter and T is the declared type of p.

9 [Example:

```c
struct B1 {
    B1(int) {} // Example:
};

struct B2 {
    B2(double) {} // Example:
};

struct D1 : B1 {
```
using B1::B1; // implicitly declares D1(int)
int x;
};

void test() {
    D1 d(6); // OK: d.x is not initialized
    D1 e; // error: D1 has no default constructor
}

struct D2 : B2 {
    using B2::B2; // OK: implicitly declares D2(double)
    B1 b;
};

D2 f(1.0); // error: B1 has no default constructor

template< class T >
struct D : T {
    using T::T; // declares all constructors from class T
    ~D() { std::clog << "Destroying wrapper" << std::endl; }
};

Class template D wraps any class and forwards all of its constructors, while writing a message to the standard log whenever an object of class D is destroyed. — end example]
13 Overloading

1 When two or more different declarations are specified for a single name in the same scope, that name is said to be overloaded. By extension, two declarations in the same scope that declare the same name but with different types are called overloaded declarations. Only function declarations can be overloaded; object and type declarations cannot be overloaded.

2 When an overloaded function name is used in a call, which overloaded function declaration is being referenced is determined by comparing the types of the arguments at the point of use with the types of the parameters in the overloaded declarations that are visible at the point of use. This function selection process is called overload resolution and is defined in 13.3. [Example:

```c
double abs(double);
int abs(int);

abs(1);       // calls abs(int);
abs(1.0);     // calls abs(double);
```

— end example]

13.1 Overloadable declarations

1 Not all function declarations can be overloaded. Those that cannot be overloaded are specified here. A program is ill-formed if it contains two such non-overloadable declarations in the same scope. [Note: this restriction applies to explicit declarations in a scope, and between such declarations and declarations made through a using-declaration (7.3.3). It does not apply to sets of functions fabricated as a result of name lookup (e.g., because of using-directives) or overload resolution (e.g., for operator functions). — end note]

2 Certain function declarations cannot be overloaded:

   — Function declarations that differ only in the return type cannot be overloaded.

   — Member function declarations with the same name and the same parameter-type-list cannot be overloaded if any of them is a static member function declaration (9.4). Likewise, member function template declarations with the same name, the same parameter-type-list, and the same template parameter lists cannot be overloaded if any of them is a static member function template declaration.

   The types of the implicit object parameters constructed for the member functions for the purpose of overload resolution (13.3.1) are not considered when comparing parameter-type-lists for enforcement of this rule. In contrast, if there is no static member function declaration among a set of member function declarations with the same name and the same parameter-type-list, then these member function declarations can be overloaded if they differ in the type of their implicit object parameter. [Example: the following illustrates this distinction:

```c
class X {
    static void f();
    void f();          // ill-formed
    void f() const;   // ill-formed
    void f() const volatile;  // ill-formed
    void g();
    void g() const;   // OK: no static g
    void g() const volatile; // OK: no static g
};
```
— Member function declarations with the same name and the same parameter-type-list as well as member function template declarations with the same name, the same parameter-type-list, and the same template parameter lists cannot be overloaded if any of them, but not all, have a ref-qualifier (8.3.5).

Example:

```c
class Y {
    void h() &;
    void h() const &; // OK
    void h() &&; // OK, all declarations have a ref-qualifier
    void i() &;
    void i() const; // ill-formed, prior declaration of i
                   // has a ref-qualifier
};
```

— end example

3 [Note: as specified in 8.3.5, function declarations that have equivalent parameter declarations declare the same function and therefore cannot be overloaded:

— Parameter declarations that differ only in the use of equivalent typedef “types” are equivalent. A typedef is not a separate type, but only a synonym for another type (7.1.3). [Example:

```c
typedef int Int;
    void f(int i);
    void f(Int i); // OK: redeclaration of f(int)
    void f(int i) { /* ... */ }
    void f(Int i) { /* ... */ } // error: redefinition of f(int)
```

— end example]

Enumerations, on the other hand, are distinct types and can be used to distinguish overloaded function declarations. [Example:

```c
enum E { a };
    void f(int i) { /* ... */ }
    void f(E i) { /* ... */ }
```

— end example]

— Parameter declarations that differ only in a pointer * versus an array [] are equivalent. That is, the array declaration is adjusted to become a pointer declaration (8.3.5). Only the second and subsequent array dimensions are significant in parameter types (8.3.4). [Example:

```c
int f(char*);
int f(char[]); // same as f(char*)
int f(char[7]); // same as f(char*)
int f(char[9]); // same as f(char*)
int g(char*)(10));
int g(char[5][10]); // same as g(char*)(10));
int g(char[7][10]); // same as g(char*)(10));
int g(char[*][20]); // different from g(char*)(10));
```

— end example]
— Parameter declarations that differ only in that one is a function type and the other is a pointer to the same function type are equivalent. That is, the function type is adjusted to become a pointer to function type (8.3.5). [Example:

```c
void h(int());
void h(int (*)(())); // redeclaration of h(int())
void h(int x());    // definition of h(int())
void h(int (*)(x)()); // ill-formed: redefinition of h(int())
```
— end example]

— Parameter declarations that differ only in the presence or absence of const and/or volatile are equivalent. That is, the const and volatile type-specifiers for each parameter type are ignored when determining which function is being declared, defined, or called. [Example:

```c
typedef const int cInt;

int f (int);
int f (const int);      // redeclaration of f(int)
int f (int) {...}       // definition of f(int)
int f (cInt) {...}      // error: redefinition of f(int)
```
— end example]

Only the const and volatile type-specifiers at the outermost level of the parameter type specification are ignored in this fashion; const and volatile type-specifiers buried within a parameter type specification are significant and can be used to distinguish overloaded function declarations. In particular, for any type T, “pointer to T,” “pointer to const T,” and “pointer to volatile T” are considered distinct parameter types, as are “reference to T,” “reference to const T,” and “reference to volatile T.”

— Two parameter declarations that differ only in their default arguments are equivalent. [Example: consider the following:

```c
void f (int i, int j);
void f (int i = 99, int j);  // OK: redeclaration of f(int, int)
void f ();                   // OK: overloaded declaration of f

void prog () {
    f (1, 2);        // OK: call f(int, int)
    f (1);           // OK: call f(int, int)
    f ();            // Error: f(int, int) or f()?
}
```
— end example] — end note]

### 13.2 Declaration matching

Two function declarations of the same name refer to the same function if they are in the same scope and have equivalent parameter declarations (13.1). A function member of a derived class is not in the same scope as a function member of the same name in a base class. [Example:

120) When a parameter type includes a function type, such as in the case of a parameter type that is a pointer to function, the const and volatile type-specifiers at the outermost level of the parameter type specifications for the inner function type are also ignored.

§ 13.2
struct B {
    int f(int);
};

struct D : B {
    int f(char*);
};

Here D::f(char*) hides B::f(int) rather than overloading it.

void h(D* pd) {
    pd->f(1);            // error:
    // D::f(char*) hides B::f(int)
    pd->B::f(1);         // OK
    pd->f("Ben");       // OK, calls D::f
}

— end example ]

2 A locally declared function is not in the same scope as a function in a containing scope. [Example:

void f(char*);
void g() {
    extern void f(int);
    f("asdf");            // error: f(int) hides f(char*)
    // so there is no f(char*) in this scope
}

void caller () {
    extern void callee(int, int);
    {
        extern void callee(int);     // hides callee(int, int)
        callee(88, 99);              // error: only callee(int) in scope
    }
}

— end example ]

3 Different versions of an overloaded member function can be given different access rules. [Example:

class buffer {
    private:
        char* p;
        int size;
    protected:
        buffer(int s, char* store) { size = s; p = store; }
    public:
        buffer(int s) { p = new char[size = s]; }
};

— end example ]

13.3 Overload resolution [over.match]

1 Overload resolution is a mechanism for selecting the best function to call given a list of expressions that are
to be the arguments of the call and a set of candidate functions that can be called based on the context of
the call. The selection criteria for the best function are the number of arguments, how well the arguments
match the parameter-type-list of the candidate function, how well (for non-static member functions) the object matches the implied object parameter, and certain other properties of the candidate function. [Note: the function selected by overload resolution is not guaranteed to be appropriate for the context. Other restrictions, such as the accessibility of the function, can make its use in the calling context ill-formed. — end note]

Overload resolution selects the function to call in seven distinct contexts within the language:

— invocation of a function named in the function call syntax (13.3.1.1.1);
— invocation of a function call operator, a pointer-to-function conversion function, a reference-to-pointer-to-function conversion function, or a reference-to-function conversion function on a class object named in the function call syntax (13.3.1.1.2);
— invocation of the operator referenced in an expression (13.3.1.2);
— invocation of a constructor for direct-initialization (8.5) of a class object (13.3.1.3);
— invocation of a user-defined conversion for copy-initialization (8.5) of a class object (13.3.1.4);
— invocation of a conversion function for initialization of an object of a nonclass type from an expression of class type (13.3.1.5); and
— invocation of a conversion function for conversion to an lvalue or class rvalue to which a reference (8.5.3) will be directly bound (13.3.1.6).

Each of these contexts defines the set of candidate functions and the list of arguments in its own unique way. But, once the candidate functions and argument lists have been identified, the selection of the best function is the same in all cases:

— First, a subset of the candidate functions (those that have the proper number of arguments and meet certain other conditions) is selected to form a set of viable functions (13.3.2).
— Then the best viable function is selected based on the implicit conversion sequences (13.3.3.1) needed to match each argument to the corresponding parameter of each viable function.

If a best viable function exists and is unique, overload resolution succeeds and produces it as the result. Otherwise overload resolution fails and the invocation is ill-formed. When overload resolution succeeds, and the best viable function is not accessible (Clause 11) in the context in which it is used, the program is ill-formed.

13.3.1 Candidate functions and argument lists

The subclauses of 13.3.1 describe the set of candidate functions and the argument list submitted to overload resolution in each of the seven contexts in which overload resolution is used. The source transformations and constructions defined in these subclauses are only for the purpose of describing the overload resolution process. An implementation is not required to use such transformations and constructions.

The set of candidate functions can contain both member and non-member functions to be resolved against the same argument list. So that argument and parameter lists are comparable within this heterogeneous set, a member function is considered to have an extra parameter, called the implicit object parameter, which represents the object for which the member function has been called. For the purposes of overload resolution, both static and non-static member functions have an implicit object parameter, but constructors do not.

Similarly, when appropriate, the context can construct an argument list that contains an implied object argument to denote the object to be operated on. Since arguments and parameters are associated by
position within their respective lists, the convention is that the implicit object parameter, if present, is always the first parameter and the implied object argument, if present, is always the first argument.

4 For non-static member functions, the type of the implicit object parameter is

- “lvalue reference to cv X” for functions declared without a ref-qualifier or with the & ref-qualifier
- “rvalue reference to cv X” for functions declared with the && ref-qualifier

where X is the class of which the function is a member and cv is the cv-qualification on the member function declaration. [Example: for a const member function of class X, the extra parameter is assumed to have type “reference to const X”. — end example] For conversion functions, the function is considered to be a member of the class of the implicit object argument for the purpose of defining the type of the implicit object parameter. For non-conversion functions introduced by a using-declaration into a derived class, the function is considered to be a member of the derived class for the purpose of defining the type of the implicit object parameter. For static member functions, the implicit object parameter is considered to match any object (since if the function is selected, the object is discarded). [Note: no actual type is established for the implicit object parameter of a static member function, and no attempt will be made to determine a conversion sequence for that parameter (13.3.3). — end note]

5 During overload resolution, the implied object argument is indistinguishable from other arguments. The implicit object parameter, however, retains its identity since conversions on the corresponding argument shall obey these additional rules:

- no temporary object can be introduced to hold the argument for the implicit object parameter; and
- no user-defined conversions can be applied to achieve a type match with it.

For non-static member functions declared without a ref-qualifier, an additional rule applies:

- even if the implicit object parameter is not const-qualified, an rvalue temporary can be bound to the parameter as long as in all other respects the temporary can be converted to the type of the implicit object parameter. [Note: The fact that such a temporary is an rvalue does not affect the ranking of implicit conversion sequences (13.3.3.2). — end note]

6 Because other than in list-initialization only one user-defined conversion is allowed in an implicit conversion sequence, special rules apply when selecting the best user-defined conversion (13.3.3, 13.3.3.1). [Example:

```cpp
class T {
public:
  T();
};

class C : T {
public:
  C(int);
};
T a = 1;  // ill-formed: T(C(1)) not tried

— end example]

7 In each case where a candidate is a function template, candidate function template specializations are generated using template argument deduction (14.9.3, 14.9.2). Those candidates are then handled as candidate functions in the usual way.121 A given name can refer to one or more function templates and also to a set

121) The process of argument deduction fully determines the parameter types of the function template specializations, i.e., the parameters of function template specializations contain no template parameter types. Therefore the function template specializations can be treated as normal (non-template) functions for the remainder of overload resolution.

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of overloaded non-template functions. In such a case, the candidate functions generated from each function template are combined with the set of non-template candidate functions.

### 13.3.1.1 Function call syntax

Recall from §5.2.2, that a function call is a postfix-expression, possibly nested arbitrarily deep in parentheses, followed by an optional expression list enclosed in parentheses:

\[
\langle \ldots \langle \text{postfix-expression} \rangle \ldots \rangle_{\text{opt}} \langle \text{expression list}_{\text{opt}} \rangle
\]

Overload resolution is required if the postfix-expression is the name of a function, a function template (14.6.6), an object of class type, or a set of pointers to function.

13.3.1.1.1 describes how overload resolution is used in the first two of the above cases to determine the function to call. 13.3.1.1.2 describes how overload resolution is used in the third of the above cases to determine the function to call.

The fourth case arises from a postfix-expression of the form \&F, where \(F\) names a set of overloaded functions. In the context of a function call, \&\(F\) is treated the same as the name \(F\) by itself. Thus, \((\&F)\langle \text{expression list}_{\text{opt}} \rangle\) is simply \((F)\langle \text{expression list}_{\text{opt}} \rangle\), which is discussed in 13.3.1.1.1. If the function selected by overload resolution according to 13.3.1.1.1 is a non-static member function, the program is ill-formed.\(^{122}\)

(13.3.1.1.1)

\(^{122}\) When \(F\) is a non-static member function, a reference of the form \&A::F is a pointer-to-member, which cannot be used with the function-call syntax, and a reference of the form \&\(F\) is an invalid use of the “&” operator on a non-static member function.

### 13.3.1.1 Call to named function

1 In a function call (5.2.2)

\[
\text{postfix-expression} \ ( \text{expression-list}_{\text{opt}} )
\]

if the postfix-expression denotes a set of overloaded functions and/or function templates, overload resolution is applied as specified in 13.3.1.1.1. If the postfix-expression denotes an object of class type, overload resolution is applied as specified in 13.3.1.1.2.

If the postfix-expression denotes the address of a set of overloaded functions and/or function templates, overload resolution is applied using that set as described above. If the function selected by overload resolution is a non-static member function, the program is ill-formed. \([\text{Note: the resolution of the address of an overload set in other contexts is described in 13.4.} \) — end note]\)

### 13.3.1.1 Call to named function

Of interest in 13.3.1.1.1 are only those function calls in which the postfix-expression ultimately contains a name that denotes one or more functions that might be called. Such a postfix-expression, perhaps nested arbitrarily deep in parentheses, has one of the following forms:

\[
\text{postfix-expression}:
\]

\[
\text{postfix-expression} \ . \ \text{id-expression}
\]

\[
\text{postfix-expression} \ \text{->} \ \text{id-expression}
\]

\[
\text{primary-expression}
\]

These represent two syntactic subcategories of function calls: qualified function calls and unqualified function calls.

2 In qualified function calls, the name to be resolved is an id-expression and is preceded by an \text{->} or \text{.} operator. Since the construct \text{A->B} is generally equivalent to \((\text{A})*\text{B}\), the rest of Clause 13 assumes, without loss of generality, that all member function calls have been normalized to the form that uses an object and the \text{.} operator. Furthermore, Clause 13 assumes that the postfix-expression that is the left operand of the \text{.} operator.

\(\&F\)
operator has type "cv T" where T denotes a class. Under this assumption, the id-expression in the call is looked up as a member function of T following the rules for looking up names in classes (10.2). The function declarations found by that lookup constitute the set of candidate functions. The argument list is the expression-list in the call augmented by the addition of the left operand of the . operator in the normalized member function call as the implied object argument (13.3.1).

In unqualified function calls, the name is not qualified by an -> or . operator and has the more general form of a primary-expression. The name is looked up in the context of the function call following the normal rules for name lookup in function calls (3.4). The function declarations found by that lookup constitute the set of candidate functions. Because of the rules for name lookup, the set of candidate functions consists (1) entirely of non-member functions or (2) entirely of member functions of some class T. In case (1), the argument list is the same as the expression-list in the call. In case (2), the argument list is the expression-list in the call augmented by the addition of an implied object argument as in a qualified function call. If the keyword this (9.3.2) is in scope and refers to class T, or a derived class of T, then the implied object argument is (*this). If the keyword this is not in scope or refers to another class, then a contrived object of type T becomes the implied object argument. If the argument list is augmented by a contrived object and overload resolution selects one of the non-static member functions of T, the call is ill-formed.

13.3.1.1.2 Call to object of class type [over.call.object]

If the primary-expression E in the function call syntax evaluates to a class object of type "cv T", then the set of candidate functions includes at least the function call operators of T. The function call operators of T are obtained by ordinary lookup of the name operator() in the context of (E).operator().

In addition, for each non-explicit conversion function declared in T of the form

```c
operator conversion-type-id () attribute-specifier_opt cv-qualifier;
```

where cv-qualifier is the same cv-qualification as, or a greater cv-qualification than, cv, and where conversion-type-id denotes the type “pointer to function of (P1,...,Pn) returning R”, or the type “reference to pointer to function of (P1,...,Pn) returning R”, or the type “reference to function of (P1,...,Pn) returning R”, a surrogate call function with the unique name call-function and having the form

```c
R call-function ( conversion-type-id F, P1 a1, ... ,Pn an) { return F (a1,... ,an); }
```

is also considered as a candidate function. Similarly, surrogate call functions are added to the set of candidate functions for each non-explicit conversion function declared in a base class of T provided the function is not hidden within T by another intervening declaration.

If such a surrogate call function is selected by overload resolution, the corresponding conversion function will be called to convert E to the appropriate function pointer or reference, and the function will then be invoked with the arguments of the call. If the conversion function cannot be called (e.g., because of an ambiguity), the program is ill-formed.

The argument list submitted to overload resolution consists of the argument expressions present in the function call syntax preceded by the implied object argument (E). [Note: when comparing the call against the function call operators, the implied object argument is compared against the implicit object parameter of the function call operator. When comparing the call against a surrogate call function, the implied object argument is compared against the first parameter of the surrogate call function. The conversion function

---

123) Note that cv-qualifiers on the type of objects are significant in overload resolution for both lvalue and class rvalue objects.
124) An implied object argument must be contrived to correspond to the implicit object parameter attributed to member functions during overload resolution. It is not used in the call to the selected function. Since the member functions all have the same implicit object parameter, the contrived object will not be the cause to select or reject a function.
125) Note that this construction can yield candidate call functions that cannot be differentiated one from the other by overload resolution because they have identical declarations or differ only in their return type. The call will be ambiguous if overload resolution cannot select a match to the call that is uniquely better than such undifferentiable functions.
from which the surrogate call function was derived will be used in the conversion sequence for that parameter since it converts the implied object argument to the appropriate function pointer or reference required by that first parameter. — end note] [Example:

```c
int f1(int);
int f2(float);
typedef int (*fp1)(int);
typedef int (*fp2)(float);
struct A {
    operator fp1() { return f1; }
    operator fp2() { return f2; }
} a;
int i = a(1); // calls f1 via pointer returned from
              // conversion function
```

— end example]

### 13.3.1.2 Operators in expressions

1 If no operand of an operator in an expression has a type that is a class or an enumeration, the operator is assumed to be a built-in operator and interpreted according to Clause 5. [Note: because . , .* , and :: cannot be overloaded, these operators are always built-in operators interpreted according to Clause 5. ?: cannot be overloaded, but the rules in this subclause are used to determine the conversions to be applied to the second and third operands when they have class or enumeration type (5.16). — end note] [Example:

```c
struct String {
    String (const String&);
    String (char*);
    operator char* (){
};
String operator + (const String&, const String&);

void f(void) {
    char* p = "one" + "two"; // ill-formed because neither
                             // operand has user-defined type
    int I = 1 + 1;         // Always evaluates to 2 even if
                            // user-defined types exist which
                            // would perform the operation.
}
```

— end example]

2 If either operand has a type that is a class or an enumeration, a user-defined operator function might be declared that implements this operator or a user-defined conversion can be necessary to convert the operand to a type that is appropriate for a built-in operator. In this case, overload resolution is used to determine which operator function or built-in operator is to be invoked to implement the operator. Therefore, the operator notation is first transformed to the equivalent function-call notation as summarized in Table 10 (where @ denotes one of the operators covered in the specified subclause).

3 For a unary operator @ with an operand of a type whose cv-unqualified version is T1, and for a binary operator @ with a left operand of a type whose cv-unqualified version is T1 and a right operand of a type whose cv-unqualified version is T2, three sets of candidate functions, designated member candidates, non-member candidates and built-in candidates, are constructed as follows:

   — If T1 is a complete class type, the set of member candidates is the result of the qualified lookup of T1::operator@ (13.3.1.1.1); otherwise, the set of member candidates is empty.
Table 10 — Relationship between operator and function call notation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subclause</th>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>As member function</th>
<th>As non-member function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13.5.1</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>(a).operator@ ()</td>
<td>operator@ (a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.5.2</td>
<td>a@b</td>
<td>(a).operator@ (b)</td>
<td>operator@ (a, b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.5.3</td>
<td>a=b</td>
<td>(a).operator= (b)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.5.5</td>
<td>a[b]</td>
<td>(a).operator[] (b)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.5.6</td>
<td>a-&gt;</td>
<td>(a).operator-&gt; ()</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.5.7</td>
<td>a@</td>
<td>(a).operator@ (0)</td>
<td>operator@ (a, 0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

— The set of non-member candidates is the result of the unqualified lookup of `operator@` in the context of the expression according to the usual rules for name lookup in unqualified function calls (3.4.2) except that all member functions are ignored. However, if no operand has a class type, only those non-member functions in the lookup set that have a first parameter of type T1 or “reference to (possibly cv-qualified) T1”, when T1 is an enumeration type, or (if there is a right operand) a second parameter of type T2 or “reference to (possibly cv-qualified) T2”, when T2 is an enumeration type, are candidate functions.

— For the operator ,, the unary operator &, or the operator ->, the built-in candidates set is empty.

4 For the built-in assignment operators, conversions of the left operand are restricted as follows:

— no temporaries are introduced to hold the left operand, and

— no user-defined conversions are applied to the left operand to achieve a type match with the left-most parameter of a built-in candidate.

5 For all other operators, no such restrictions apply.

6 The set of candidate functions for overload resolution is the union of the member candidates, the non-member candidates, and the built-in candidates. The argument list contains all of the operands of the operator. The best function from the set of candidate functions is selected according to 13.3.2 and 13.3.3.126 [Example:

```c
struct A {
  operator int();
};
A operator+(const A&, const A&);
void m() {
  A a, b;
  a + b; // operator+(a,b) chosen over int(a) + int(b)
}

— end example]
```

126) If the set of candidate functions is empty, overload resolution is unsuccessful.
If a built-in candidate is selected by overload resolution, the operands are converted to the types of the corresponding parameters of the selected operation function. Then the operator is treated as the corresponding built-in operator and interpreted according to Clause 5.

The second operand of operator -> is ignored in selecting an operator-> function, and is not an argument when the operator-> function is called. When operator-> returns, the operator -> is applied to the value returned, with the original second operand.\footnote{If the value returned by the operator-> function has class type, this may result in selecting and calling another operator-> function. The process repeats until an operator-> function returns a value of non-class type.}

If the operator is the operator , , the unary operator & , or the operator -> , and there are no viable functions, then the operator is assumed to be the built-in operator and interpreted according to Clause 5.

[Note: the lookup rules for operators in expressions are different than the lookup rules for operator function names in a function call, as shown in the following example:

```
struct A { }
void operator + (A, A);

struct B {
    void operator + (B);
    void f ();
};

A a;

void B::f() {
    operator+ (a,a); // error: global operator hidden by member
    a + a; // OK: calls global operator +
}
```

— end note]

13.3.1.3 Initialization by constructor \[over.match.ctor\]

When objects of class type are direct-initialized (8.5), or copy-initialized from an expression of the same or a derived class type (8.5), overload resolution selects the constructor. For direct-initialization, the candidate functions are all the constructors of the class of the object being initialized. For copy-initialization, the candidate functions are all the converting constructors (12.3.1) of that class. The argument list is the expression-list or assignment-expression within the parentheses of the initializer.

13.3.1.4 Copy-initialization of class by user-defined conversion \[over.match.copy\]

Under the conditions specified in 8.5, as part of a copy-initialization of an object of class type, a user-defined conversion can be invoked to convert an initializer expression to the type of the object being initialized. Overload resolution is used to select the user-defined conversion to be invoked. Assuming that “cv T” is the type of the object being initialized, with T a class type, the candidate functions are selected as follows:

— The converting constructors (12.3.1) of T are candidate functions.

— When the type of the initializer expression is a class type “cv S”, the non-explicit conversion functions of S and its base classes are considered. Those that are not hidden within S and yield a type whose cv-unqualified version is the same type as T or is a derived class thereof are candidate functions. Conversion functions that return “reference to X” return lvalues or rvalues, depending on the type
of reference, of type \( X \) and are therefore considered to yield \( X \) for this process of selecting candidate functions.

In both cases, the argument list has one argument, which is the initializer expression. [Note: this argument will be compared against the first parameter of the constructors and against the implicit object parameter of the conversion functions. — end note]

### 13.3.1.5 Initialization by conversion function

Under the conditions specified in 8.5, as part of an initialization of an object of non-class type, a conversion function can be invoked to convert an initializer expression of class type to the type of the object being initialized. Overload resolution is used to select the conversion function to be invoked. Assuming that “\( cv1 \) \( T \)” is the type of the object being initialized, and “\( cv S \)” is the type of the initializer expression, with \( S \) a class type, the candidate functions are selected as follows:

- The conversion functions of \( S \) and its base classes are considered. Those non-explicit conversion functions that are not hidden within \( S \) and yield type \( T \) or a type that can be converted to type \( T \) via a standard conversion sequence (13.3.3.1.1) are candidate functions. For direct-initialization, those explicit conversion functions that are not hidden within \( S \) and yield type \( T \) or a type that can be converted to type \( T \) with a qualification conversion (4.4) are also candidate functions. Conversion functions that return a cv-qualified type are considered to yield the cv-unqualified version of that type for this process of selecting candidate functions. Conversion functions that return “reference to \( cv2 \) \( X \)” return lvalues or rvalues, depending on the type of reference, of type “\( cv2 \) \( X \)” and are therefore considered to yield \( X \) for this process of selecting candidate functions.

The argument list has one argument, which is the initializer expression. [Note: this argument will be compared against the implicit object parameter of the conversion functions. — end note]

### 13.3.1.6 Initialization by conversion function for direct reference binding

Under the conditions specified in 8.5.3, a reference can be bound directly to an lvalue or class rvalue that is the result of applying a conversion function to an initializer expression. Overload resolution is used to select the conversion function to be invoked. Assuming that “\( cv1 \) \( T \)” is the underlying type of the reference being initialized, and “\( cv S \)” is the type of the initializer expression, with \( S \) a class type, the candidate functions are selected as follows:

- The conversion functions of \( S \) and its base classes are considered, except that for copy-initialization, only the non-explicit conversion functions are considered. Those that are not hidden within \( S \) and yield type “lvalue reference to \( cv2 \) \( T2 \)” (when 8.5.3 requires an lvalue result) or “\( cv2 \) \( T2 \)” or “rvalue reference to \( cv2 \) \( T2 \)” (when 8.5.3 requires an rvalue result), where “\( cv1 \) \( T \)” is reference-compatible (8.5.3) with “\( cv2 \) \( T2 \)”, are candidate functions.

The argument list has one argument, which is the initializer expression. [Note: this argument will be compared against the implicit object parameter of the conversion functions. — end note]

### 13.3.1.7 Initialization by list-initialization

When objects of non-aggregate class type are list-initialized (8.5.4), overload resolution selects the constructor as follows, where \( T \) is the cv-unqualified class type of the object being initialized:

- If \( T \) has an initializer-list constructor (8.5.4), the argument list consists of the initializer list as a single argument; otherwise, the argument list consists of the elements of the initializer list.

- For direct-list-initialization, the candidate functions are all the constructors of the class \( T \).
For copy-list-initialization, the candidate functions are all the constructors of \( T \). However, if an \texttt{explicit} constructor is chosen, the initialization is ill-formed. [Note: This restriction only applies if this initialization is part of the final result of overload resolution — end note]

### 13.3.2 Viable functions

From the set of candidate functions constructed for a given context (13.3.1), a set of viable functions is chosen, from which the best function will be selected by comparing argument conversion sequences for the best fit (13.3.3). The selection of viable functions considers relationships between arguments and function parameters other than the ranking of conversion sequences.

First, to be a viable function, a candidate function shall have enough parameters to agree in number with the arguments in the list.

- If there are \( m \) arguments in the list, all candidate functions having exactly \( m \) parameters are viable.
- A candidate function having fewer than \( m \) parameters is viable only if it has an ellipsis in its parameter list (8.3.5). For the purposes of overload resolution, any argument for which there is no corresponding parameter is considered to “match the ellipsis” (13.3.3.1.3).
- A candidate function having more than \( m \) parameters is viable only if the \((m+1)\)-st parameter has a default argument (8.3.6). For the purposes of overload resolution, the parameter list is truncated on the right, so that there are exactly \( m \) parameters.

Second, for \( F \) to be a viable function, there shall exist for each argument an implicit conversion sequence (13.3.3.1) that converts that argument to the corresponding parameter of \( F \). If the parameter has reference type, the implicit conversion sequence includes the operation of binding the reference, and the fact that an \texttt{rvalue} reference to non-\texttt{const} cannot be bound to an \texttt{rvalue} can affect the viability of the function (see 13.3.3.3.4).

### 13.3.3 Best viable function

Define \( \text{ICS}_i(F) \) as follows:

- if \( F \) is a static member function, \( \text{ICS}_i(F) \) is defined such that \( \text{ICS}_i(F) \) is neither better nor worse than \( \text{ICS}_i(G) \) for any function \( G \), and, symmetrically, \( \text{ICS}_i(G) \) is neither better nor worse than \( \text{ICS}_i(F) \); otherwise,
- let \( \text{ICS}_i(F) \) denote the implicit conversion sequence that converts the \( i \)-th argument in the list to the type of the \( i \)-th parameter of viable function \( F \). 13.3.3.1 defines the implicit conversion sequences and 13.3.3.2 defines what it means for one implicit conversion sequence to be a better conversion sequence or worse conversion sequence than another.

Given these definitions, a viable function \( F_1 \) is defined to be a \textit{better} function than another viable function \( F_2 \) if for all arguments \( i \), \( \text{ICS}_i(F_1) \) is not a worse conversion sequence than \( \text{ICS}_i(F_2) \), and then

- for some argument \( j \), \( \text{ICS}_j(F_1) \) is a better conversion sequence than \( \text{ICS}_j(F_2) \), or, if not that,
- the context is an initialization by user-defined conversion (see 8.5, 13.3.1.5, and 13.3.1.6) and the standard conversion sequence from the return type of \( F_1 \) to the destination type (i.e., the type of the entity being initialized) is a better conversion sequence than the standard conversion sequence from the return type of \( F_2 \) to the destination type. [Example:

---

128) According to 8.3.6, parameters following the \((m+1)\)-st parameter must also have default arguments.
129) If a function is a static member function, this definition means that the first argument, the implied object parameter, has no effect in the determination of whether the function is better or worse than any other function.
struct A {
    A();
    operator int();
    operator double();
} a;
int i = a;  // a.operator int() followed by no conversion
           // is better than a.operator double() followed by
           // a conversion to int
float x = a; // ambiguous: both possibilities require conversions,
              // and neither is better than the other

— end example ] or, if not that,

— F1 is a non-template function and F2 is a function template specialization, or, if not that,
— F1 and F2 are function template specializations, and the function template for F1 is more specialized
than the template for F2 according to the partial ordering rules described in 14.6.6.2.

If there is exactly one viable function that is a better function than all other viable functions, then it is the
one selected by overload resolution; otherwise the call is ill-formed130.

[ Example:
void Fcn(const int*, short);
void Fcn(int*, int);
int i;
short s = 0;

void f() {
    Fcn(&i, s);         // is ambiguous because
    // &i → int* is better than &i → const int*
    // but s → short is also better than s → int
    Fcn(&i, 1L);        // calls Fcn(int*, int), because
    // &i → int* is better than &i → const int*
    // and 1L → short and 1L → int are indistinguishable
    Fcn(&i,'c');        // calls Fcn(int*, int), because
    // &i → int* is better than &i → const int*
    // and c → int is better than c → short
}
— end example ]

If the best viable function resolves to a function for which multiple declarations were found, and if at least
two of these declarations — or the declarations they refer to in the case of using-declarations — specify a
default argument that made the function viable, the program is ill-formed. [ Example:

namespace A {
    extern "C" void f(int = 5);
}

130) The algorithm for selecting the best viable function is linear in the number of viable functions. Run a simple tournament
to find a function W that is not worse than any opponent it faced. Although another function F that W did not face might be
at least as good as W, F cannot be the best function because at some point in the tournament F encountered another function
G such that F was not better than G. Hence, W is either the best function or there is no best function. So, make a second pass
over the viable functions to verify that W is better than all other functions.

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namespace B {
    extern "C" void f(int = 5);
}

using A::f;
using B::f;

void use() {
    f(3); // OK, default argument was not used for viability
    f(); // Error: found default argument twice
}

— end example]

13.3.3.1 Implicit conversion sequences [over.best.ics]

1 An implicit conversion sequence is a sequence of conversions used to convert an argument in a function call to the type of the corresponding parameter of the function being called. The sequence of conversions is an implicit conversion as defined in Clause 4, which means it is governed by the rules for initialization of an object or reference by a single expression (8.5, 8.5.3).

2 Implicit conversion sequences are concerned only with the type, cv-qualification, and lvalue-ness of the argument and how these are converted to match the corresponding properties of the parameter. Other properties, such as the lifetime, storage class, alignment, or accessibility of the argument and whether or not the argument is a bit-field are ignored. So, although an implicit conversion sequence can be defined for a given argument-parameter pair, the conversion from the argument to the parameter might still be ill-formed in the final analysis.

3 A well-formed implicit conversion sequence is one of the following forms:
   — a standard conversion sequence (13.3.3.1.1),
   — a user-defined conversion sequence (13.3.3.1.2), or
   — an ellipsis conversion sequence (13.3.3.1.3).

4 However, when considering the argument of a user-defined conversion function that is a candidate by 13.3.1.3 when invoked for the copying of the temporary in the second step of a class copy-initialization, by 13.3.1.7 when passing the initializer list as a single argument or when the initializer list has exactly one element and a conversion to some class \texttt{X} or reference to (possibly cv-qualified) \texttt{X} is considered for the first parameter of a constructor of \texttt{X}, or by 13.3.1.4, 13.3.1.5, or 13.3.1.6 in all cases, only standard conversion sequences and ellipsis conversion sequences are allowed.

5 For the case where the parameter type is a reference, see 13.3.3.1.4.

6 When the parameter type is not a reference, the implicit conversion sequence models a copy-initialization of the parameter from the argument expression. The implicit conversion sequence is the one required to convert the argument expression to an rvalue of the type of the parameter. [Note: when the parameter has a class type, this is a conceptual conversion defined for the purposes of Clause 13; the actual initialization is defined in terms of constructors and is not a conversion. — end note] Any difference in top-level cv-qualification is subsumed by the initialization itself and does not constitute a conversion. [Example: a parameter of type \texttt{A} can be initialized from an argument of type \texttt{const A}. The implicit conversion sequence for that case is the identity sequence; it contains no “conversion” from \texttt{const A} to \texttt{A}. — end example] When the parameter has a class type and the argument expression has the same type, the implicit conversion sequence is an identity conversion. When the parameter has a class type and the argument expression has a derived class type,
the implicit conversion sequence is a derived-to-base Conversion from the derived class to the base class. 
[Note: there is no such standard conversion; this derived-to-base Conversion exists only in the description of implicit conversion sequences. — end note] A derived-to-base Conversion has Conversion rank (13.3.3.1.1).

In all contexts, when converting to the implicit object parameter or when converting to the left operand of an assignment operation only standard conversion sequences that create no temporary object for the result are allowed.

If no conversions are required to match an argument to a parameter type, the implicit conversion sequence is the standard conversion sequence consisting of the identity conversion (13.3.3.1.1).

If no sequence of conversions can be found to convert an argument to a parameter type or the conversion is otherwise ill-formed, an implicit conversion sequence cannot be formed.

If several different sequences of conversions exist that each convert the argument to the parameter type, the implicit conversion sequence associated with the parameter is defined to be the unique conversion sequence designated the ambiguous conversion sequence. For the purpose of ranking implicit conversion sequences as described in 13.3.3.2, the ambiguous conversion sequence is treated as a user-defined sequence that is indistinguishable from any other user-defined conversion sequence131. If a function that uses the ambiguous conversion sequence is selected as the best viable function, the call will be ill-formed because the conversion of one of the arguments in the call is ambiguous.

The three forms of implicit conversion sequences mentioned above are defined in the following subclauses.

13.3.3.1.1 Standard conversion sequences

Table 11 summarizes the conversions defined in Clause 4 and partitions them into four disjoint categories: Lvalue Transformation, Qualification Adjustment, Promotion, and Conversion. [Note: these categories are orthogonal with respect to lvalue-ness, cv-qualification, and data representation: the Lvalue Transformations do not change the cv-qualification or data representation of the type; the Qualification Adjustments do not change the lvalue-ness or data representation of the type; and the Promotions and Conversions do not change the lvalue-ness or cv-qualification of the type. — end note]

[Note: As described in Clause 4, a standard conversion sequence is either the Identity conversion by itself (that is, no conversion) or consists of one to three conversions from the other four categories. At most one conversion from each category is allowed in a single standard conversion sequence. If there are two or more

131) The ambiguous conversion sequence is ranked with user-defined conversion sequences because multiple conversion sequences for an argument can exist only if they involve different user-defined conversions. The ambiguous conversion sequence is indistinguishable from any other user-defined conversion sequence because it represents at least two user-defined conversion sequences, each with a different user-defined conversion, and any other user-defined conversion sequence must be indistinguishable from at least one of them.

This rule prevents a function from becoming non-viable because of an ambiguous conversion sequence for one of its parameters. Consider this example,

```cpp
class B;
class A { A (B&);};
class B { operator A () ; };  
class C { C (B&); };  
void f(A) { }
void f(C) { }
B b;
f(b);  // ambiguous because b → C via constructor and
// b → A via constructor or conversion function.
```

If it were not for this rule, f(A) would be eliminated as a viable function for the call f(b) causing overload resolution to select f(C) as the function to call even though it is not clearly the best choice. On the other hand, if an f(B) were to be declared then f(b) would resolve to that f(B) because the exact match with f(B) is better than any of the sequences required to match f(A).

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conversions in the sequence, the conversions are applied in the canonical order: Lvalue Transformation, Promotion or Conversion, Qualification Adjustment. — end note]

3 Each conversion in Table 11 also has an associated rank (Exact Match, Promotion, or Conversion). These are used to rank standard conversion sequences (13.3.3.2). The rank of a conversion sequence is determined by considering the rank of each conversion in the sequence and the rank of any reference binding (13.3.3.1.4). If any of those has Conversion rank, the sequence has Conversion rank; otherwise, if any of those has Promotion rank, the sequence has Promotion rank; otherwise, the sequence has Exact Match rank.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conversion</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Subclause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No conversions required</td>
<td>Identity</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lvalue-to-rvalue conversion</td>
<td>Lvalue Transformation</td>
<td>Exact Match</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Array-to-pointer conversion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function-to-pointer conversion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification conversions</td>
<td>Qualification Adjustment</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integral promotions</td>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floating point promotion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integral conversions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floating point conversions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floating-integral conversions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pointer conversions</td>
<td></td>
<td>Conversion</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pointer to member conversions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boolean conversions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.3.3.1.2 User-defined conversion sequences

1 A user-defined conversion sequence consists of an initial standard conversion sequence followed by a user-defined conversion (12.3) followed by a second standard conversion sequence. If the user-defined conversion is specified by a constructor (12.3.1), the initial standard conversion sequence converts the source type to the type required by the argument of the constructor. If the user-defined conversion is specified by a conversion function (12.3.2), the initial standard conversion sequence converts the source type to the implicit object parameter of the conversion function.

2 The second standard conversion sequence converts the result of the user-defined conversion to the target type for the sequence. Since an implicit conversion sequence is an initialization, the special rules for initialization by user-defined conversion apply when selecting the best user-defined conversion for a user-defined conversion sequence (see 13.3.3 and 13.3.3.1).

3 If the user-defined conversion is specified by a specialization of a conversion function template, the second standard conversion sequence shall have exact match rank.

4 A conversion of an expression of class type to the same class type is given Exact Match rank, and a conversion of an expression of class type to a base class of that type is given Conversion rank, in spite of the fact that a copy constructor (i.e., a user-defined conversion function) is called for those cases.

13.3.3.1.3 Ellipsis conversion sequences

1 An ellipsis conversion sequence occurs when an argument in a function call is matched with the ellipsis
parameter specification of the function called (see 5.2.2).

13.3.3.1.4 Reference binding

1 When a parameter of reference type binds directly (8.5.3) to an argument expression, the implicit conversion sequence is the identity conversion, unless the argument expression has a type that is a derived class of the parameter type, in which case the implicit conversion sequence is a derived-to-base Conversion (13.3.3.1).

[Example:

```cpp
struct A {};
struct B : public A {} b;
int f(A&);
int f(B&);
int i = f(b); // calls f(B&), an exact match, rather than f(A&), a conversion
```
— end example]

If the parameter binds directly to the result of applying a conversion function to the argument expression, the implicit conversion sequence is a user-defined conversion sequence (13.3.3.1.2), with the second standard conversion sequence either an identity conversion or, if the conversion function returns an entity of a type that is a derived class of the parameter type, a derived-to-base Conversion.

2 When a parameter of reference type is not bound directly to an argument expression, the conversion sequence is the one required to convert the argument expression to the underlying type of the reference according to 13.3.3.1. Conceptually, this conversion sequence corresponds to copy-initializing a temporary of the underlying type with the argument expression. Any difference in top-level cv-qualification is subsumed by the initialization itself and does not constitute a conversion.

3 A standard conversion sequence cannot be formed if it requires binding an lvalue reference to non-const to an rvalue (except when binding an implicit object parameter; see the special rules for that case in 13.3.1). [Note: this means, for example, that a candidate function cannot be a viable function if it has a non-const lvalue reference parameter (other than the implicit object parameter) and the corresponding argument is a temporary or would require one to be created to initialize the lvalue reference (see 8.5.3). — end note]

4 Other restrictions on binding a reference to a particular argument that are not based on the types of the reference and the argument do not affect the formation of a standard conversion sequence, however. [Example: a function with an “lvalue reference to int” parameter can be a viable candidate even if the corresponding argument is an int bit-field. The formation of implicit conversion sequences treats the int bit-field as an int lvalue and finds an exact match with the parameter. If the function is selected by overload resolution, the call will nonetheless be ill-formed because of the prohibition on binding a non-const lvalue reference to a bit-field (8.5.3). — end example]

5 The binding of a reference to an expression that is reference-compatible with added qualification influences the rank of a standard conversion; see 13.3.3.2 and 8.5.3.

13.3.3.1.5 List-initialization sequence

1 When an argument is an initializer list (8.5.4), it is not an expression and special rules apply for converting it to a parameter type.

2 If the parameter type is `std::initializer_list<X>` and all the elements of the initializer list can be implicitly converted to `X`, the implicit conversion sequence is the worst conversion necessary to convert an element of the list to `X`. This conversion can be a user-defined conversion even in the context of a call to an initializer-list constructor. [Example:

```cpp
void f(std::initializer_list<int>);
f({1,2,3}); // OK: f(initializer_list<int>) identity conversion
```

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f( {'a', 'b'} ); // OK: f(initializer_list<int>) integral promotion
f( {1.0}; // error: narrowing

struct A {
    A(std::initializer_list<double>); // #1
    A(std::initializer_list<complex<double>>); // #2
    A(std::initializer_list<std::string>); // #3
};
A a{ 1.0, 2.0 }; // OK, uses #1

void g(A);
g( { "foo", "bar" } ); // OK, uses #3

— end example

3 Otherwise, if the parameter is a non-aggregate class \( X \) and overload resolution per 13.3.1.7 chooses a single best constructor of \( X \) to perform the initialization of an object of type \( X \) from the argument initializer list, the implicit conversion sequence is a user-defined conversion sequence. If multiple constructors are viable but none is better than the others, the implicit conversion sequence is the ambiguous conversion sequence. User-defined conversions are allowed for conversion of the initializer list elements to the constructor parameter types except as noted in 13.3.3.1. [Example:

```cpp
struct A {
    A(std::initializer_list<int>);
};
void f(A);
f( {'a', 'b'} ); // OK: f(A(std::initializer_list<int>)) user-defined conversion
```

```cpp
struct B {
    B(int, double);
};
void g(B);
g( {'a', 'b'} ); // OK: g(B(int, double)) user-defined conversion
g( {1.0, 1.0}; // error: narrowing

void f(B);
f( {'a', 'b'} ); // error: ambiguous f(A) or f(B)
```

```cpp
struct C {
    C(std::string);
};
void h(C);
h( {"foo"}); // OK: h(C(std::string("foo")))
```

```cpp
struct D {
    C(A, C);
};
void i(D);
i( {1,2}, {"bar"} ); // OK: i(D(A(std::initializer_list<int>{1,2}), C(std::string("bar"))))
```

— end example]

4 Otherwise, if the parameter has an aggregate type which can be initialized from the initializer list according to the rules for aggregate initialization (8.5.1), the implicit conversion sequence is a user-defined conversion sequence. [Example:
struct A {
    int m1;
    double m2;
};

void f(A);
f( {'a', 'b'} ); // OK: f(A(int,double)) user-defined conversion
f( {1.0} );     // error: narrowing

— end example]

5 Otherwise, if the parameter is a reference, see 13.3.3.1.4. [Note: The rules in this section will apply for initializing the underlying temporary for the reference. — end note] [Example:

struct A {
    int m1;
    double m2;
};

void f(const A&);
f( {'a', 'b'} ); // OK: f(A(int,double)) user-defined conversion
f( {1.0} );     // error: narrowing

void g(const double &);
g({1});         // same conversion as int to double

— end example]

6 Otherwise, if the parameter type is not a class:

— if the initializer list has one element, the implicit conversion sequence is the one required to convert the element to the parameter type; [Example:

void f(int);
f( {'a'} );    // OK: same conversion as char to int
f( {1.0} );    // error: narrowing

— end example]

— if the initializer list has no elements, the implicit conversion sequence is the identity conversion. [Example:

void f(int);
f( {} );      // OK: identity conversion

— end example]

7 In all cases other than those enumerated above, no conversion is possible.

13.3.3.2 Ranking implicit conversion sequences [over.ics.rank]

1 13.3.3.2 defines a partial ordering of implicit conversion sequences based on the relationships better conversion sequence and better conversion. If an implicit conversion sequence S1 is defined by these rules to be a better conversion sequence than S2, then it is also the case that S2 is a worse conversion sequence than S1. If conversion sequence S1 is neither better than nor worse than conversion sequence S2, S1 and S2 are said to be indistinguishable conversion sequences.
2 When comparing the basic forms of implicit conversion sequences (as defined in 13.3.3.1)

— a standard conversion sequence (13.3.3.1.1) is a better conversion sequence than a user-defined conversion sequence or an ellipsis conversion sequence, and

— a user-defined conversion sequence (13.3.3.1.2) is a better conversion sequence than an ellipsis conversion sequence (13.3.3.1.3).

3 Two implicit conversion sequences of the same form are indistinguishable conversion sequences unless one of the following rules applies:

— Standard conversion sequence \( S_1 \) is a better conversion sequence than standard conversion sequence \( S_2 \) if

---

1. \( S_1 \) is a proper subsequence of \( S_2 \) (comparing the conversion sequences in the canonical form defined by 13.3.3.1.1, excluding any Lvalue Transformation; the identity conversion sequence is considered to be a subsequence of any non-identity conversion sequence) or, if not that,
2. the rank of \( S_1 \) is better than the rank of \( S_2 \), or \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) have the same rank and are distinguishable by the rules in the paragraph below, or, if not that,
3. \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) differ only in their qualification conversion and yield similar types \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \) (4.4), respectively, and the cv-qualification signature of type \( T_1 \) is a proper subset of the cv-qualification signature of type \( T_2 \) and \( S_1 \) is not the deprecated string literal array to pointer conversion (4.2).

[Example:

```c
int f(const int *);
int f(int *);
int i;
int j = f(&i); // calls f(int*)
```

— end example] or, if not that,

— \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) are reference bindings (8.5.3) and neither refers to an implicit object parameter of a non-static member function declared without a ref-qualifier, and \( S_1 \) binds an rvalue reference to an rvalue and \( S_2 \) binds an lvalue reference.

[Example:

```c
int i;
int f();
int g(const int&);
int g(const int&&);
int j = g(i); // calls g(const int&)
int k = g(f()); // calls g(const int&&)
```

struct A {
    A& operator<<(int);
    void p() &;
    void p() &&;
};
A& operator<<(A&, char);
A() << 1; // calls A::operator<<(int)
A() << 'c'; // calls operator<<(A&, char)
A a;
a << 1; // calls A::operator<<(int)
a << 'c'; // calls A::operator<<(int)
A().p(); // calls A::p()&
```
a.p(); // calls A::p()

— end example] or, if not that,

— S1 and S2 are reference bindings (8.5.3), and the types to which the references refer are the same type except for top-level cv-qualifiers, and the type to which the reference initialized by S2 refers is more cv-qualified than the type to which the reference initialized by S1 refers. [Example:

```cpp
int f(const int &); int f(int &); int g(const int &); int g(int);

int i; int j = f(i); // calls f(int &)
int k = g(i); // ambiguous

struct X {
  void f() const;
  void f();
}; void g(const X& a, X b) {
  a.f(); // calls X::f() const
  b.f(); // calls X::f()
}

— end example]

— User-defined conversion sequence U1 is a better conversion sequence than another user-defined conversion sequence U2 if they contain the same user-defined conversion function or constructor and if the second standard conversion sequence of U1 is better than the second standard conversion sequence of U2. [Example:

```cpp
struct A {
  operator short();
} a;
int f(int);
int f(float);
int i = f(a); // calls f(int), because short → int is
              // better than short → float.

— end example]

— List-initialization sequence L1 is a better conversion sequence than list-initialization sequence L2 if L1 converts to std::initializer_list<X> for some X and L2 does not.

4 Standard conversion sequences are ordered by their ranks: an Exact Match is a better conversion than a Promotion, which is a better conversion than a Conversion. Two conversion sequences with the same rank are indistinguishable unless one of the following rules applies:

— A conversion that is not a conversion of a pointer, or pointer to member, to bool is better than another conversion that is such a conversion.

— If class B is derived directly or indirectly from class A, conversion of B* to A* is better than conversion of B* to void*, and conversion of A* to void* is better than conversion of B* to void*.

— If class B is derived directly or indirectly from class A and class C is derived directly or indirectly from B,

§ 13.3.3.2
— conversion of \texttt{C*} to \texttt{B*} is better than conversion of \texttt{C*} to \texttt{A*}, [Example:]

\begin{verbatim}
struct A {}
struct B : public A {}
struct C : public B {}
C *pc;
int f(A *);
int f(B *);
int i = f(pc);                      // calls f(B*)
end example]

— binding of an expression of type \texttt{C} to a reference of type \texttt{B&} is better than binding an expression of type \texttt{C} to a reference of type \texttt{A&},

— conversion of \texttt{A::*} to \texttt{B::*} is better than conversion of \texttt{A::*} to \texttt{C::*},

— conversion of \texttt{C} to \texttt{B} is better than conversion of \texttt{C} to \texttt{A},

— conversion of \texttt{B*} to \texttt{A*} is better than conversion of \texttt{C*} to \texttt{A*},

— binding of an expression of type \texttt{B} to a reference of type \texttt{A&} is better than binding an expression of type \texttt{C} to a reference of type \texttt{A&},

— conversion of \texttt{B::*} to \texttt{C::*} is better than conversion of \texttt{A::*} to \texttt{C::*}, and

— conversion of \texttt{B} to \texttt{A} is better than conversion of \texttt{C} to \texttt{A}.

[Note: compared conversion sequences will have different source types only in the context of comparing the second standard conversion sequence of an initialization by user-defined conversion (see 13.3.3); in all other contexts, the source types will be the same and the target types will be different. — end note]

### 13.4 Address of overloaded function  

1 A use of an overloaded function name without arguments is resolved in certain contexts to a function, a pointer to function or a pointer to member function for a specific function from the overload set. A function template name is considered to name a set of overloaded functions in such contexts. The function selected is the one whose type matches the target type required in the context. The target can be

— an object or reference being initialized (8.5, 8.5.3),

— the left side of an assignment (5.17),

— a parameter of a function (5.2.2),

— a parameter of a user-defined operator (13.5),

— the return value of a function, operator function, or conversion (6.6.3),

— an explicit type conversion (5.2.3, 5.2.9, 5.4), or

— a non-type template-parameter (14.4.2).

The overloaded function name can be preceded by the \& operator. An overloaded function name shall not be used without arguments in contexts other than those listed. [Note: any redundant set of parentheses surrounding the overloaded function name is ignored (5.1). — end note]

2 If the name is a function template, template argument deduction is done (14.9.2.2), and if the argument deduction succeeds, the resulting template argument list is used to generate a single function template
specialization, which is added to the set of overloaded functions considered. [Note: As described in 14.9.1, if deduction fails and the function template name is followed by an explicit template argument list, the template-id is then examined to see whether it identifies a single function template specialization. If it does, the template-id is considered to be an lvalue for that function template specialization. The target type is not used in that determination. — end note]

3 Non-member functions and static member functions match targets of type “pointer-to-function” or “reference-to-function.” Nonstatic member functions match targets of type “pointer-to-member-function;” the function type of the pointer to member is used to select the member function from the set of overloaded member functions. If a non-static member function is selected, the reference to the overloaded function name is required to have the form of a pointer to member as described in 5.3.1.

4 If more than one function is selected, any function template specializations in the set are eliminated if the set also contains a non-template function, and any given function template specialization F1 is eliminated if the set contains a second function template specialization whose function template is more specialized than the function template of F1 according to the partial ordering rules of 14.6.6.2. After such eliminations, if any, there shall remain exactly one selected function.

5 [Example:
   
   ```
   int f(double);
   int f(int);
   int (*pf)(double) = &f; // selects f(double)
   int (*pfi)(int) = &f; // selects f(int)
   int (*pfe)(...) = &f; // error: type mismatch
   int (&rf)(int) = f; // selects f(int)
   int (&rfd)(double) = f; // selects f(double)
   void g() {
     (int (*)(int))&f; // cast expression as selector
   }
   ```
   
   The initialization of pfe is ill-formed because no f() with type int(...) has been declared, and not because of any ambiguity. For another example,
   
   ```
   struct X {
     int f(int);
     static int f(long);
   };
   
   int (X::*p1)(int) = &X::f; // OK
   int (*p2)(int) = &X::f; // error: mismatch
   int (*p3)(long) = &X::f; // OK
   int (X::*p4)(long) = &X::f; // error: mismatch
   int (X::*p5)(int) = &X::f; // error: wrong syntax for
                      // pointer to member
   int (*p6)(long) = &(X::f); // OK
   ```
   
   — end example]

6 [Note: if f() and g() are both overloaded functions, the cross product of possibilities must be considered to resolve f(&g), or the equivalent expression f(g). — end note]

7 [Note: there are no standard conversions (Clause 4) of one pointer-to-function type into another. In particular, even if B is a public base of D, we have
   ```
   D* f();
   B* (*p1)() = &f; // error
   ```
void g(D*);
void (*p2)(B*) = &g;       // error

— end note]

13.5 Overloaded operators

1 A function declaration having one of the following operator-function-ids as its name declares an operator function. A function template declaration having one of the following operator-function-ids as its name declares an operator function template. A specialization of an operator function template is also an operator function. An operator function is said to implement the operator named in its operator-function-id.

operator-function-id:
operator operator

operator: one of
new delete new[] delete[]
+ - * / % - k | ~
! = < > += -= *= /= %=
* = k= |= << >> >>= <<= == !=
<= >= k& | | ++ -- , -=* ->
( ) [ ]

[Note: the last two operators are function call (5.2.2) and subscripting (5.2.1). The operators new[], delete[], () and [] are formed from more than one token. — end note]

2 Both the unary and binary forms of
+ - * k

can be overloaded.

3 The following operators cannot be overloaded:
. .* :: ?:

nor can the preprocessing symbols # and ## (Clause 16).

4 Operator functions are usually not called directly; instead they are invoked to evaluate the operators they implement (13.5.1 – 13.5.7). They can be explicitly called, however, using the operator-function-id as the name of the function in the function call syntax (5.2.2). [Example:

complex z = a.operator+(b);   //complex z = a+b;
void* p = operator new(sizeof(int)*n);

— end example]

5 The allocation and deallocation functions, operator new, operator new[], operator delete and operator delete[], are described completely in 3.7.4. The attributes and restrictions found in the rest of this subclause do not apply to them unless explicitly stated in 3.7.4.

6 An operator function shall either be a non-static member function or be a non-member function and have at least one parameter whose type is a class, a reference to a class, an enumeration, or a reference to an enumeration. It is not possible to change the precedence, grouping, or number of operands of operators. The meaning of the operators =, (unary) & and , (comma), predefined for each type, can be changed for specific class and enumeration types by defining operator functions that implement these operators. Operator functions are inherited in the same manner as other base class functions.
The identities among certain predefined operators applied to basic types (for example, \( ++a \equiv a+=1 \)) need not hold for operator functions. Some predefined operators, such as \( *+ \), require an operand to be an lvalue when applied to basic types; this is not required by operator functions.

An operator function cannot have default arguments (8.3.6), except where explicitly stated below. Operator functions cannot have more or fewer parameters than the number required for the corresponding operator, as described in the rest of this subclause.

Operators not mentioned explicitly in subclauses 13.5.3 through 13.5.7 act as ordinary unary and binary operators obeying the rules of 13.5.1 or 13.5.2.

### 13.5.1 Unary operators

1. A prefix unary operator shall be implemented by a non-static member function (9.3) with no parameters or a non-member function with one parameter. Thus, for any prefix unary operator \( @ \), \( @x \) can be interpreted as either \( x\text{.operator}@(()) \) or \( \text{operator}@ (x) \). If both forms of the operator function have been declared, the rules in 13.3.1.2 determine which, if any, interpretation is used. See 13.5.7 for an explanation of the postfix unary operators \( ++ \) and \( -- \).

2. The unary and binary forms of the same operator are considered to have the same name. [Note: consequently, a unary operator can hide a binary operator from an enclosing scope, and vice versa. — end note]

### 13.5.2 Binary operators

1. A binary operator shall be implemented either by a non-static member function (9.3) with one parameter or by a non-member function with two parameters. Thus, for any binary operator \( @ \), \( x@y \) can be interpreted as either \( x\text{.operator}@(y) \) or \( \text{operator}@ (x, y) \). If both forms of the operator function have been declared, the rules in 13.3.1.2 determine which, if any, interpretation is used.

### 13.5.3 Assignment

1. An assignment operator shall be implemented by a non-static member function with exactly one parameter. Because a copy assignment operator \( \text{operator}= \) is implicitly declared for a class if not declared by the user (12.8), a base class assignment operator is always hidden by the copy assignment operator of the derived class.

2. Any assignment operator, even the copy assignment operator, can be virtual. [Note: for a derived class \( D \) with a base class \( B \) for which a virtual copy assignment has been declared, the copy assignment operator in \( D \) does not override \( B \)'s virtual copy assignment operator. [Example:
13.5.4 Function call

operator() shall be a non-static member function with an arbitrary number of parameters. It can have default arguments. It implements the function call syntax

\[
\text{postfix-expression ( expression-listopt )}
\]

where the postfix-expression evaluates to a class object and the possibly empty expression-list matches the parameter list of an operator() member function of the class. Thus, a call \(x(arg_1, \ldots)\) is interpreted as \(x\text{.operator}()(arg_1, \ldots)\) for a class object \(x\) of type \(T\) if \(T::\text{operator}()(T_1, T_2, T_3)\) exists and if the operator is selected as the best match function by the overload resolution mechanism (13.3.3).

13.5.5 Subscripting

operator[] shall be a non-static member function with exactly one parameter. It implements the subscripting syntax

\[
\text{postfix-expression [ expression ]}
\]

Thus, a subscripting expression \(x[y]\) is interpreted as \(x\text{.operator}[](y)\) for a class object \(x\) of type \(T\) if \(T::\text{operator}[](T_1)\) exists and if the operator is selected as the best match function by the overload resolution mechanism (13.3.3).

13.5.6 Class member access

operator-> shall be a non-static member function taking no parameters. It implements the class member access syntax that uses ->.

\[
\text{postfix-expression \rightarrow templateopt id-expression}
\]

\[
\text{postfix-expression \rightarrow pseudo-destructor-name}
\]

An expression \(x->m\) is interpreted as \((x\text{.operator}->())->m\) for a class object \(x\) of type \(T\) if \(T::\text{operator}->()\) exists and if the operator is selected as the best match function by the overload resolution mechanism (13.3).

13.5.7 Increment and decrement

The user-defined function called operator++ implements the prefix and postfix ++ operator. If this function is a member function with no parameters, or a non-member function with one parameter of class or enumeration type, it defines the prefix increment operator ++ for objects of that type. If the function is a member function with one parameter (which shall be of type int) or a non-member function with two parameters (the second of which shall be of type int), it defines the postfix increment operator ++ for objects of that type. When the postfix increment is called as a result of using the ++ operator, the int argument will have value zero.\(^{132}\)

\[\text{Example:}\]

\begin{verbatim}
struct X {
    X& operator++(); // prefix ++
    X operator++(int); // postfix a++
};
\end{verbatim}

\(^{132}\) Calling operator++ explicitly, as in expressions like \(a\text{.operator}++(2)\), has no special properties: The argument to operator++ is 2.
struct Y { }
Y& operator++(Y&);  // prefix ++b
Y        operator++(Y, int); // postfix b++

void f(X a, Y b) {
   ++a;    // a.operator++();
a++;     // a.operator++(0);
++b;     // operator++(b);
b++;     // operator++(b, 0);

   a.operator++();  // explicit call: like ++a;
a.operator++(0);  // explicit call: like a++;
operator++(b);   // explicit call: like ++b;
operator++(b, 0); // explicit call: like b++;
}

— end example]

The prefix and postfix decrement operators -- are handled analogously.

2.14.8 User-defined literals

\textit{literal-operator-id:}
\begin{itemize}
\item \texttt{operator "" identifier}
\end{itemize}

1 The \textit{identifier} in a \textit{literal-operator-id} is called a \textit{literal suffix identifier}.

2 A declaration whose \textit{declarator-id} is a \textit{literal-operator-id} shall be a declaration of a namespace-scope function or function template (it could be a friend function (11.4)), an explicit instantiation or specialization of a function template, or a using-declaration (7.3.3). A function declared with a \textit{literal-operator-id} is a \textit{literal operator}. A function template declared with a \textit{literal-operator-id} is a \textit{literal operator template}.

3 The declaration of a literal operator shall have a \textit{parameter-declaration-clause} equivalent to one of the following:
\begin{itemize}
\item \texttt{const char*}
\item \texttt{unsigned long long int}
\item \texttt{long double}
\item \texttt{const char*, std::size_t}
\item \texttt{const wchar_t*, std::size_t}
\item \texttt{const char16_t*, std::size_t}
\item \texttt{const char32_t*, std::size_t}
\end{itemize}

4 A \textit{raw literal operator} is a literal operator with a single parameter whose type is \texttt{const char*}.

5 The declaration of a literal operator template shall have an empty \textit{parameter-declaration-clause} and its \textit{template-parameter-list} shall have a single \textit{template-parameter} that is a non-type template parameter pack (14.6.3) with element type \texttt{char}.

6 Literal operators and literal operator templates shall not have C language linkage.

7 \textbf{[Note:} literal operators and literal operator templates are usually invoked implicitly through user-defined literals (2.14.8). However, except for the constraints described above, they are ordinary namespace-scope functions and function templates. In particular, they are looked up like ordinary functions and function templates and they follow the same overload resolution rules. Also, they can be declared \texttt{inline} or \texttt{constexpr}, they may have internal or external linkage, they can be called explicitly, their addresses can be taken, etc. \textbf{— end note]}

§ 13.5.8
The candidate operator functions that represent the built-in operators defined in Clause 5 are specified in this subclause. These candidate functions participate in the operator overload resolution process as described in 13.3.1.2 and are used for no other purpose. [Note: because built-in operators take only operands with non-class type, and operator overload resolution occurs only when an operand expression originally has class or enumeration type, operator overload resolution can resolve to a built-in operator only when an operand has a class type that has a user-defined conversion to a non-class type appropriate for the operator, or when an operand has an enumeration type that can be converted to a type appropriate for the operator. Also note that some of the candidate operator functions given in this subclause are more permissive than the built-in operators themselves. As described in 13.3.1.2, after a built-in operator is selected by overload resolution the expression is subject to the requirements for the built-in operator given in Clause 5, and therefore to any additional semantic constraints given there. If there is a user-written candidate with the same name and parameter types as a built-in candidate operator function, the built-in operator function is hidden and is not included in the set of candidate functions. — end note]

In this subclause, the term promoted integral type is used to refer to those integral types which are preserved by integral promotion (including e.g. int and long but excluding e.g. char). Similarly, the term promoted arithmetic type refers to floating types plus promoted integral types. [Note: in all cases where a promoted integral type or promoted arithmetic type is required, an operand of enumeration type will be acceptable by way of the integral promotions. — end note]

For every pair \((T, VQ)\), where \(T\) is an arithmetic type, and \(VQ\) is either volatile or empty, there exist candidate operator functions of the form

\[
VQ T \& \text{operator}++(VQ T \&);
T \text{operator}++(VQ T, \text{int});
\]

For every pair \((T, VQ)\), where \(T\) is an arithmetic type other than bool, and \(VQ\) is either volatile or empty, there exist candidate operator functions of the form

\[
VQ T \& \text{operator}--(VQ T \&);
T \text{operator}--(VQ T, \text{int});
\]

For every pair \((T, VQ)\), where \(T\) is a cv-qualified or cv-unqualified object type, and \(VQ\) is either volatile or empty, there exist candidate operator functions of the form

\[
T VQ \& \text{operator}++(T VQ \&);
T VQ \& \text{operator}--(T VQ \&);
T \text{operator}++(T VQ \&, \text{int});
T \text{operator}--(T VQ \&, \text{int});
\]
For every cv-qualified or cv-unqualified object type \( T \), there exist candidate operator functions of the form:

\[
T & \text{operator}*(\text{T}*)
\]

For every function type \( T \) that does not have cv-qualifiers or a ref-qualifier, there exist candidate operator functions of the form:

\[
T & \text{operator}*(\text{T}*)
\]

For every type \( T \) there exist candidate operator functions of the form:

\[
\text{T} \text{operator}+(\text{T}*)
\]

For every promoted arithmetic type \( T \), there exist candidate operator functions of the form:

\[
\text{T operator}+(\text{T})
\]

\[
\text{T operator}-(\text{T})
\]

For every promoted integral type \( T \), there exist candidate operator functions of the form:

\[
\text{T operator}~(\text{T})
\]

For every quintuple \( (C1, C2, T, CV1, CV2) \), where \( C2 \) is a class type, \( C1 \) is the same type as \( C2 \) or is a derived class of \( C2 \), \( T \) is an object type or a function type, and \( CV1 \) and \( CV2 \) are cv-qualifier-seqs, there exist candidate operator functions of the form:

\[
CV12 T & \text{operator}->* (CV1 C1*, CV2 T C2::*);
\]

where \( CV12 \) is the union of \( CV1 \) and \( CV2 \).

For every pair of promoted arithmetic types \( L \) and \( R \), there exist candidate operator functions of the form:

\[
L R \text{operator}*(L, R);
\]

\[
L R \text{operator}/(L, R);
\]

\[
L R \text{operator}+(L, R);
\]

\[
L R \text{operator}-(L, R);
\]

\[
\text{bool operator}<(L, R);
\]

\[
\text{bool operator}>(L, R);
\]

\[
\text{bool operator}<=(L, R);
\]

\[
\text{bool operator}>= (L, R);
\]

\[
\text{bool operator}!=(L, R);
\]

where \( LR \) is the result of the usual arithmetic conversions between types \( L \) and \( R \).

For every cv-qualified or cv-unqualified object type \( T \) there exist candidate operator functions of the form:

\[
\text{T} \text{operator}+(\text{T}* , \text{std::ptrdiff}\_\text{t})
\]

\[
\text{T} & \text{operator}[] (\text{T}*, \text{std::ptrdiff}\_\text{t})
\]

\[
\text{T} \text{operator}-(\text{T}* , \text{std::ptrdiff}\_\text{t})
\]

\[
\text{T} \text{operator}+(\text{std::ptrdiff}\_\text{t}, \text{T}*)
\]

\[
\text{T} & \text{operator}[](\text{std::ptrdiff}\_\text{t}, \text{T}*)
\]

For every \( T \), where \( T \) is a pointer to object type, there exist candidate operator functions of the form:

\[
\text{std::ptrdiff}\_\text{t} \text{operator}-(\text{T}, \text{T})
\]

For every \( T \), where \( T \) is an enumeration type, a or pointer to object type, or \text{std::nullptr}\_\text{t}, there exist candidate operator functions of the form:

\[
\text{§ 13.6 307}
\]
bool operator<(T, T);
bool operator>(T, T);
bool operator<=(T, T);
bool operator>=(T, T);
bool operator==(T, T);
bool operator!=(T, T);

16 For every pointer to member type $T$ there exist candidate operator functions of the form

bool operator==(T, T);
bool operator!=(T, T);

17 For every pair of promoted integral types $L$ and $R$, there exist candidate operator functions of the form

$L R$ operator%(L, R);
$L R$ operator&(L, R);
$L R$ operator^(L, R);
$L R$ operator|(L, R);
$L$ operator<<(L, R);
$L$ operator>>(L, R);

where $L R$ is the result of the usual arithmetic conversions between types $L$ and $R$.

18 For every triple $(L, VQ, R)$, where $L$ is an arithmetic type, $VQ$ is either volatile or empty, and $R$ is a promoted arithmetic type, there exist candidate operator functions of the form

$VQ L$ & operator=(VQ L &, R);
$VQ L$ & operator=(VQ L &, R);
$VQ L$ & operator^=(VQ L &, R);
$VQ L$ & operator^=(VQ L &, R);
$VQ L$ & operator|==(VQ L &, R);
$VQ L$ & operator|=(VQ L &, R);

19 For every pair $(T, VQ)$, where $T$ is any type and $VQ$ is either volatile or empty, there exist candidate operator functions of the form

$T *VQ$ & operator=(T *VQ &, T *

20 For every pair $(T, VQ)$, where $T$ is an enumeration or pointer to member type and $VQ$ is either volatile or empty, there exist candidate operator functions of the form

$VQ T$ & operator=(VQ T &, T );

21 For every pair $(T, VQ)$, where $T$ is a cv-qualified or cv-unqualified object type and $VQ$ is either volatile or empty, there exist candidate operator functions of the form

$T *VQ$ & operator+=($(T VQ &), std::ptrdiff_t);
$T *VQ$ & operator-=($(T VQ &), std::ptrdiff_t);

22 For every triple $(L, VQ, R)$, where $L$ is an integral type, $VQ$ is either volatile or empty, and $R$ is a promoted integral type, there exist candidate operator functions of the form

$VQ L$ & operator%=($VQ L $, R);
$VQ L$ & operator%=$(VQ L $, R);
$VQ L$ & operator^=($VQ L $, R);
$VQ L$ & operator^=($VQ L $, R);
$VQ L$ & operator|=($VQ L $, R);
$VQ L$ & operator|=($VQ L $, R);

§ 13.6
There also exist candidate operator functions of the form

```cpp
bool operator!(bool);
bool operator&&(bool, bool);
bool operator||(bool, bool);
```

For every pair of promoted arithmetic types \( L \) and \( R \), there exist candidate operator functions of the form

```cpp
L R operator?(bool, L, R);
```

where \( L R \) is the result of the usual arithmetic conversions between types \( L \) and \( R \). [Note: as with all these descriptions of candidate functions, this declaration serves only to describe the built-in operator for purposes of overload resolution. The operator “?” cannot be overloaded. —end note]

For every type \( T \), where \( T \) is a pointer or pointer-to-member type, there exist candidate operator functions of the form

```cpp
T operator?(bool, T, T);
```
14 Templates

1 A template defines a family of classes or functions or an alias for a family of types.

   template-declaration:
     export_opt template < template-parameter-list > declaration
   
     template-parameter-list:
     template-parameter
     template-parameter-list , template-parameter

   [Note: The > token following the template-parameter-list of a template-declaration may be the product of replacing a >> token by two consecutive > tokens (14.3). — end note]

   The declaration in a template-declaration shall
   — declare or define a function or a class, or
   — define a member function, a member class or a static data member of a class template or of a class
     nested within a class template, or
   — define a member template of a class or class template, or
   — be an alias-declaration.

   A template-declaration is a declaration. A template-declaration is also a definition if its declaration defines
   a function, a class, or a static data member.

2 A template-declaration can appear only as a namespace scope or class scope declaration. In a function
   template declaration, the last component of the declarator-id shall be a template-name or operator-function-id
   (i.e., not a template-id). [Note: in a class template declaration, if the class name is a simple-template-id,
   the declaration declares a class template partial specialization (14.6.5). — end note]

3 In a template-declaration, explicit specialization, or explicit instantiation the init-declarator-list in the
   declaration shall contain at most one declarator. When such a declaration is used to declare a class template,
   no declarator is permitted.

4 A template name has linkage (3.5). A non-member function template can have internal linkage; any other
   template name shall have external linkage. Entities generated from a template with internal linkage are
   distinct from all entities generated in other translation units. A template, a template explicit specialization
   (14.8.3), and a class template partial specialization shall not have C linkage. Use of a linkage specification
   other than C or C++ with any of these constructs is conditionally-supported, with implementation-defined
   semantics. Template definitions shall obey the one definition rule (3.2). [Note: default arguments for func-
   tion templates and for member functions of class templates are considered definitions for the purpose of
   template instantiation (14.6) and must also obey the one definition rule. — end note]

5 A class template shall not have the same name as any other template, class, function, object, enumeration,
   enumerator, namespace, or type in the same scope (3.3), except as specified in (14.6.5). Except that a
   function template can be overloaded either by (non-template) functions with the same name or by other
   function templates with the same name (14.9.3), a template name declared in namespace scope or in class
   scope shall be unique in that scope.
14.1 Exported templates

A template-declaration may be preceded by the `export` keyword. Such a template is said to be exported. Declaring exported a class template is equivalent to declaring exported all of its non-inline member functions, static data members, member classes, member class templates, and non-inline member function templates.

If a template is exported in one translation unit, it shall be exported in all translation units in which it appears; no diagnostic is required. A declaration of an exported template shall appear with the `export` keyword before any point of instantiation (14.7.4.1) of that template in that translation unit. In addition, the first declaration of an exported template containing the `export` keyword shall not follow the definition of that template. The `export` keyword shall not be used in a friend declaration.

Templates defined in an unnamed namespace, inline functions, and inline function templates shall not be exported. An exported non-class template shall be defined only once in a program; no diagnostic is required. An exported non-class template need only be declared (and not necessarily defined) in a translation unit in which it is instantiated.

A non-exported non-class template shall be defined in every translation unit in which it is implicitly instantiated (14.8.1), unless the corresponding specialization is explicitly instantiated (14.8.2) in some translation unit; no diagnostic is required.

[Note: an implementation may require that a translation unit containing the definition of an exported template be compiled before any translation unit containing an instantiation of that template. — end note]

A template-declaration that declares a template alias (14.6.7) shall not be exported.

14.2 Template parameters

The syntax for template-parameters is:

```
template-parameter:
  type-parameter
  parameter-declaration

type-parameter:
  class ...opt identifieropt
  class identifieropt = type-id
  typename ...opt identifieropt
  typename identifieropt = type-id
  template < template-parameter-list > class ...opt identifieropt
  template < template-parameter-list > class identifieropt = id-expression
```

[Note: The `>` token following the template-parameter-list of a type-parameter may be the product of replacing a `>>` token by two consecutive `>` tokens (14.3). — end note]

There is no semantic difference between `class` and `typename` in a template-parameter. `typename` followed by an `unqualified-id` names a template type parameter. `typename` followed by a `qualified-id` denotes the type in a non-type 133 parameter-declaration. A storage class shall not be specified in a template-parameter declaration. [Note: a template parameter may be a class template. For example,

```
template<class T> class myarray { /* ... */ }
```

```
template<class K, class V, template<class T> class C = myarray>
class Map {
  C<K> key;
  C<V> value;
```

133) Since template template-parameters and template template-arguments are treated as types for descriptive purposes, the terms non-type parameter and non-type argument are used to refer to non-type, non-template parameters and arguments.
A type-parameter whose identifier does not follow an ellipsis defines its identifier to be a typedef-name (if declared with class or typename) or template-name (if declared with template) in the scope of the template declaration. [Note: because of the name lookup rules, a template-parameter that could be interpreted as either a non-type template-parameter or a type-parameter (because its identifier is the name of an already existing class) is taken as a type-parameter. For example,

```cpp
class T { /* ... */ };  
int i;

template<class T, T i> void f(T t) {  
  T t1 = i; // template-parameters T and i  
  ::T t2 = ::i; // global namespace members T and i
}
```

Here, the template f has a type-parameter called T, rather than an unnamed non-type template-parameter of class T. — end note]

A non-type template-parameter shall have one of the following (optionally cv-qualified) types:

1. integral or enumeration type,
2. pointer to object or pointer to function,
3. lvalue reference to object or lvalue reference to function,
4. pointer to member.

[Note: other types are disallowed either explicitly below or implicitly by the rules governing the form of template-arguments (14.4). — end note] The top-level cv-qualifiers on the template-parameter are ignored when determining its type.

A non-type non-reference template-parameter is an rvalue. It shall not be assigned to or in any other way have its value changed. A non-type non-reference template-parameter cannot have its address taken. When a non-type non-reference template-parameter is used as an initializer for a reference, a temporary is always used. [Example:

```cpp
template<const X& x, int i> void f() {  
i++;
  // error: change of template-parameter value
  &x; // OK
  &i; // error: address of non-reference template-parameter

  int& ri = i;  // error: non-const reference bound to temporary
  const int& cri = i; // OK: const reference bound to temporary
}
```

— end example]

A non-type template-parameter shall not be declared to have floating point, class, or void type. [Example:

```cpp
template<double d> class X; // error
template<double* pd> class Y; // OK
template<double& rd> class Z; // OK
```
A non-type template-parameter of type “array of T” or “function returning T” is adjusted to be of type “pointer to T” or “pointer to function returning T”, respectively. [Example:

```cpp
template<int *a> struct R { /* ... */};
template<int b[5]> struct S { /* ... */};
int p;
R<&p> w;       // OK
S<&p> x;       // OK due to parameter adjustment
int v[5];
R<v> y;        // OK due to implicit argument conversion
S<v> z;        // OK due to both adjustment and conversion
```

— end example]

A default template-argument is a template-argument (14.4) specified after = in a template-parameter. A default template-argument may be specified for any kind of template-parameter (type, non-type, template) that is not a template parameter pack (14.6.3). A default template-argument may be specified in a template declaration. A default template-argument shall not be specified in the template-parameter-lists of the definition of a member of a class template that appears outside of the member’s class. A default template-argument shall not be specified in a friend class template declaration. If a friend function template declaration specifies a default template-argument, that declaration shall be a definition and shall be the only declaration of the function template in the translation unit.

The set of default template-arguments available for use with a template declaration or definition is obtained by merging the default arguments from the definition (if in scope) and all declarations in scope in the same way default function arguments are (8.3.6). [Example:

```cpp
template<class T1, class T2 = int> class A;
template<class T1 = int, class T2> class A;
```

is equivalent to

```cpp
template<class T1 = int, class T2 = int> class A;
```

— end example]

If a template-parameter of a class template has a default template-argument, each subsequent template-parameter shall either have a default template-argument supplied or be a template parameter pack. If a template-parameter of a class template is a template parameter pack, it shall be the last template-parameter. [Note: These are not requirements for function templates because template arguments might be deduced (14.9.2). [Example:

```cpp
template<class T1 = int, class T2> class B;       // error
```

— end example] — end note]

A template-parameter shall not be given default arguments by two different declarations in the same scope. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T = int> class X;
template<class T = int> class X { /*... */ }; // error
```

— end example]

The scope of a template-parameter extends from its point of declaration until the end of its template. In particular, a template-parameter can be used in the declaration of subsequent template-parameters and their default arguments. [Example:
A template parameter shall not be used in its own default argument.

When parsing a default template-argument for a non-type template-parameter, the first non-nested > is taken as the end of the template-parameter-list rather than a greater-than operator. [Example:

```
template<int i = 3 > class X { /* ... */};  // syntax error
```

```
template<int i = (3 > 4) > class Y { /* ... */};  // OK
```

— end example]

A template-parameter of a template template-parameter is permitted to have a default template-argument. When such default arguments are specified, they apply to the template template-parameter in the scope of the template template-parameter. [Example:

```
template <class T = float> struct B {};  
```

```
template <template <class TT = float> class T> struct A {
    inline void f();
    inline void g();
};
```

```
template <template <class TT> class T> void A<T>::f() {
    T<> t;  // error - TT has no default template argument
}
```

```
template <template <class TT = char> class T> void A<T>::g() {
    T<> t;  // OK - T<char>
}
```

— end example]

If a template-parameter is a type-parameter with an ellipsis prior to its optional identifier or is a parameter-declaration that declares a parameter pack (8.3.5), then the template-parameter is a template parameter pack (14.6.3). [Example:

```
template <class... Types> class Tuple;  // Types is a template type parameter pack
```

```
template <class T, int... Dims> struct multi_array; // Dims is a non-type template parameter pack
```

— end example]

### 14.3 Names of template specializations

1 A template specialization (14.8) can be referred to by a template-id:

```
simple-template-id:
    template-name < template-argument-listopt >

template-id:
    simple-template-id
    operator-function-id < template-argument-listopt >
    literal-operator-id < template-argument-listopt >

template-name:
    identifier
```

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template-argument-list:
  template-argument ...opt
  template-argument-list , template-argument ...opt

template-argument:
  constant-expression
  type-id
  id-expression

[Note: the name lookup rules (3.4) are used to associate the use of a name with a template declaration; that is, to identify a name as a template-name. — end note]

1 For a template-name to be explicitly qualified by the template arguments, the name must be known to refer to a template.

2 After name lookup (3.4) finds that a name is a template-name or that an operator-function-id or a literal-operator-id refers to a set of overloaded functions any member of which is a function template if this is followed by a <, the < is always taken as the delimiter of a template-argument-list and never as the less-than operator. When parsing a template-argument-list, the first non-nested > is taken as the ending delimiter rather than a greater-than operator. Similarly, the first non-nested >> is treated as two consecutive but distinct > tokens, the first of which is taken as the end of the template-argument-list and completes the template-id. [Note: The second > token produced by this replacement rule may terminate an enclosing template-id construct or it may be part of a different construct (e.g. a cast). — end note] [Example:

   template<int i> class X { /* ... */ };
   X< 1>2 > x1;       // syntax error
   X<(1>2)> x2;       // OK

   template<class T> class Y { /* ... */ };
   Y<X<1>> x3;        // OK, same as Y<X<1> > x3;
   Y<X<(6>>1)>> x4;   // syntax error
   Y<X<(6>>1)>> x5;   // OK

   — end example]

3 When the name of a member template specialization appears after . or -> in a postfix-expression, or after a nested-name-specifier in a qualified-id, and the postfix-expression or qualified-id explicitly depends on a template-parameter (14.7.2) but does not refer to a member of the current instantiation (14.7.2.1), the member template name must be prefixed by the keyword template. Otherwise the name is assumed to name a non-template. [Example:

   struct X {
      template<std::size_t> X* alloc();
      template<std::size_t> static X* adjust();
   };
   template<class T> void f(T* p) {
      T* p1 = p->alloc<200>(); // ill-formed: < means less than
      T* p2 = p->template alloc<200>(); // OK: < starts template argument list
      T::adjust<100>();          // ill-formed: < means less than
      T::template adjust<100>(); // OK: < starts template argument list
   }

   — end example]

4 A > that encloses the type-id of a dynamic_cast, static_cast, reinterpret_cast or const_cast, or which encloses the template-arguments of a subsequent template-id, is considered nested for the purpose of this description.

134) A > that encloses the type-id of a dynamic_cast, static_cast, reinterpret_cast or const_cast, or which encloses the template-arguments of a subsequent template-id, is considered nested for the purpose of this description.
If a name prefixed by the keyword `template` is not the name of a template, the program is ill-formed.  

[Note: the keyword `template` may not be applied to non-template members of class templates. — end note]  

[Note: as is the case with the `typename` prefix, the `template` prefix is allowed in cases where it is not strictly necessary; i.e., when the `nested-name-specifier` or the expression on the left of the `->` or `. is not dependent on a `template-parameter`, or the use does not appear in the scope of a template. — end note]  

A `simple-template-id` that names a class template specialization is a `class-name` (Clause 9).  

A `template-id` that names a template alias specialization is a `type-name`.  

### 14.4 Template arguments  

There are three forms of `template-argument`, corresponding to the three forms of `template-parameter`: type, non-type and template. The type and form of each `template-argument` specified in a `template-id` shall match the type and form specified for the corresponding parameter declared by the template in its `template-parameter-list`. When the parameter declared by the template is a template parameter pack (14.6.3), it will correspond to zero or more `template-arguments`.  

```
template<class T> class Array {  
  T* v;
  int sz;
  public:
    explicit Array(int);
    T& operator[](int);
    T& elem(int i) { return v[i]; }
};

Array<int> v1(20);  
typedef std::complex<double> dcomplex;  // std::complex is a standard library template
Array<dcomplex> v2(30);  
Array<dcomplex> v3(40);

void bar() {
  v1[3] = 7;
  v2[3] = v3.elem(4) = dcomplex(7,8);
}
```

— end example ]

In a `template-argument`, an ambiguity between a `type-id` and an expression is resolved to a `type-id`, regardless of the form of the corresponding `template-parameter`.  

```
template<class T> void f();
template<int I> void f();

void g() {
  f<int>();  // int() is a type-id: call the first f()
}
```

— end example ]

The name of a `template-argument` shall be accessible at the point where it is used as a `template-argument`.  

[Note: if the name of the `template-argument` is accessible at the point where it is used as a `template-argument`, there is no such ambiguity in a default `template-argument` because the form of the `template-parameter` determines the allowable forms of the `template-argument`. ]

---

135) There is no such ambiguity in a default `template-argument` because the form of the `template-parameter` determines the allowable forms of the `template-argument`. 

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argument, there is no further access restriction in the resulting instantiation where the corresponding
template-parameter name is used. — end note] [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> class X {
  static T t;
};
class Y {
private:
  struct S { /* */
    X<S> x; // OK: S is accessible
    // X<Y::S> has a static member of type Y::S
    // OK: even though Y::S is private
  };
  X<Y::S> y; // error: S not accessible
};

X<Y::S> y; // error: S not accessible
```
— end example] For a template-argument that is a class type or a class template, the template definition
has no special access rights to the members of the template-argument. [Example:

```cpp
template <template <class TT> class T> class A {
  typename T<int>::S s;
};
class B {
  struct S { /* */
  };
};
A<B> b; // ill-formed: A has no access to B::S
```
— end example]

4 When template argument packs or default template-arguments are used, a template-argument list can be
empty. In that case the empty <> brackets shall still be used as the template-argument-list. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T = char> class String;
String<> p; // OK: String<char>
String* q; // syntax error
template<class ... Elements> class Tuple;
Tuple<> t; // OK: Elements is empty
Tuple* u; // syntax error
```
— end example]

5 An explicit destructor call (12.4) for an object that has a type that is a class template specialization may
explicitly specify the template-arguments. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> struct A {
  ~A();
};
void f(A<int> p, A<int> q) {
  p->A<int>::~A(); // OK: destructor call
  q->A<int>::~A(); // OK: destructor call
}
```
— end example]
6. If the use of a template-argument gives rise to an ill-formed construct in the instantiation of a template specialization, the program is ill-formed.

7. When the template in a template-id is an overloaded function template, both non-template functions in the overload set and function templates in the overload set for which the template-arguments do not match the template-parameters are ignored. If none of the function templates have matching template-parameters, the program is ill-formed.

8. A template-argument followed by an ellipsis is a pack expansion (14.6.3).

### 14.4.1 Template type arguments

1. A template-argument for a template-parameter which is a type shall be a type-id.

2. [Example:

```cpp
template <class T> class X { }
template <class T> void f(T t) { }
struct {} unnamed_obj;

void f() {
  struct A { }
  enum { e1 }
  typedef struct { } B;
  B b;
  X<A> x1; // OK
  X<A*> x2; // OK
  X<B> x3; // OK
  f(e1);  // OK
  f(unnamed_obj); // OK
  f(b);  // OK
}
```

— end example] [Note: a template type argument may be an incomplete type (3.9). — end note]

3. If a declaration acquires a function type through a type dependent on a template-parameter and this causes a declaration that does not use the syntactic form of a function declarator to have function type, the program is ill-formed. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> struct A {
  static T t;
};
typedef int function();
A<function> a; // ill-formed: would declare A<function>::t
// as a static member function
```

— end example]

4. If a template-argument for a template-parameter T names a type that is a reference to a type A, an attempt to create the type “lvalue reference to cv T” creates the type “lvalue reference to A,” while an attempt to create the type “rvalue reference to cv T” creates the type T [Example:

```cpp
template <class T> class X {
  void f(const T&);
  void g(T&&);
};
X<int&> x1; // X<int&>::f has the parameter type int&
// X<int&>::g has the parameter type int&
```

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X<const int&&> x2;  // X<const int&&>::f has the parameter type const int&
    // X<const int&&>::g has the parameter type const int&&

— end example ]

14.4.2 Template non-type arguments  [temp.arg.nontype]

1 A template-argument for a non-type, non-template template-parameter shall be one of:
   — an integral constant expression; or
   — the name of a non-type template-parameter; or
   — the address of an object or function with external linkage, including function templates and function
     template-ids but excluding non-static class members, expressed as & id-expression where the & is
     optional if the name refers to a function or array, or if the corresponding template-parameter is a
     reference; or
   — a constant expression that evaluates to a null pointer value (4.10); or
   — a constant expression that evaluates to a null member pointer value (4.11); or
   — a pointer to member expressed as described in 5.3.1.

2 [ Note: A string literal (2.14.5) does not satisfy the requirements of any of these categories and thus is not
   an acceptable template-argument.  [ Example:

        template<class T, char* p> class X {  
            X();
            X(const char* q) { /* ... */ }  
        };

        X<int, "Studebaker"> x1;  // error: string literal as template-argument

        char p[] = "Vivisectionist";
        X<int, p> x2;  // OK

— end example ] — end note ]

3 [ Note: Addresses of array elements and names or addresses of non-static class members are not acceptable
   template-arguments.  [ Example:

        template<int* p> class X {  
            int a[10];
            struct S { int m; static int s; } s;

            X<&a[2]> x3;  // error: address of array element
            X<&s.m> x4;  // error: address of non-static member
            X<&s.s> x5;  // error: &S::s must be used
            X<&S::s> x6;  // OK: address of static member

— end example ] — end note ]

4 [ Note: Temporaries, unnamed lvalues, and named lvalues that do not have external linkage are not accept-
   able template-arguments when the corresponding template-parameter has reference type.  [ Example:

        template<const int& CRI> struct B { /* ... */ };

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The following conversions are performed on each expression used as a non-type template-argument. If a non-type template-argument cannot be converted to the type of the corresponding template-parameter then the program is ill-formed.

— for a non-type template-parameter of integral or enumeration type, integral promotions (4.5) and integral conversions (4.7) are applied.

— for a non-type template-parameter of type pointer to object, qualification conversions (4.4) and the array-to-pointer conversion (4.2) are applied; if the template-argument is of type std::nullptr_t, the null pointer conversion (4.10) is applied. [Note: In particular, neither the null pointer conversion for a zero-valued integral constant expression (4.10) nor the derived-to-base conversion (4.10) are applied. Although 0 is a valid template-argument for a non-type template-parameter of integral type, it is not a valid template-argument for a non-type template-parameter of pointer type. However, both (int*)0 and nullptr are valid template-arguments for a non-type template-parameter of type “pointer to int.” — end note]

— For a non-type template-parameter of type reference to object, no conversions apply. The type referred to by the reference may be more cv-qualified than the (otherwise identical) type of the template-argument. The template-parameter is bound directly to the template-argument, which shall be an lvalue.

— For a non-type template-parameter of type pointer to function, the function-to-pointer conversion (4.3) is applied; if the template-argument is of type std::nullptr_t, the null pointer conversion (4.10) is applied. If the template-argument represents a set of overloaded functions (or a pointer to such), the matching function is selected from the set (13.4).

— For a non-type template-parameter of type reference to function, no conversions apply. If the template-argument represents a set of overloaded functions, the matching function is selected from the set (13.4).

— For a non-type template-parameter of type pointer to member function, if the template-argument is of type std::nullptr_t, the null member pointer conversion (4.11) is applied; otherwise, no conversions apply. If the template-argument represents a set of overloaded member functions, the matching member function is selected from the set (13.4).

— For a non-type template-parameter of type pointer to data member, qualification conversions (4.4) are applied; if the template-argument is of type std::nullptr_t, the null member pointer conversion (4.11) is applied.

Example:

```cpp
template<const int* pci> struct X { /* ... */ };  
int ai[10];  
X<ai> xi;     // array to pointer and qualification conversions

struct Y { /* ... */ };  
template<const Y& b> struct Z { /* ... */ };  
Y y;  
Z<y> z;     // no conversion, but note extra cv-qualification

template<int (&pa)[5]> struct W { /* ... */ };  
```
int b[5];
W<b> w; // no conversion

void f(char);
void f(int);

template<void (*pf)(int)> struct A { /* ... */};
A<&f> a; // selects f(int)

— end example]

14.4.3 Template template arguments [temp.arg.template]

1 A template-argument for a template template-parameter shall be the name of a class template or a template alias, expressed as id-expression. When the template-argument names a class template, only primary class templates are considered when matching the template template argument with the corresponding parameter; partial specializations are not considered even if their parameter lists match that of the template template parameter.

2 Any partial specializations (14.6.5) associated with the primary class template are considered when a specialization based on the template template-parameter is instantiated. If a specialization is not visible at the point of instantiation, and it would have been selected had it been visible, the program is ill-formed; no diagnostic is required. [Example:

template<class T> class A {
    int x;
};
template<class T> class A<T*> {
    long x;
};
template<template<class U> class V> class C {
    V<int> y;
    V<int*> z;
};
C<A> c; // V<int> within C<A> uses the primary template,
         // so c.y.x has type int
         // V<int*> within C<A> uses the partial specialization,
         // so c.z.x has type long

— end example]

[Example:

template<class T> class A { /* ... */};
template<class T, class U = T> class B { /* ... */};
template <class ... Types> class C { /* ... */};

template<template<class> class P> class X { /* ... */};
template<template<class ...> class Q> class Y { /* ... */};

X<A> xa; // OK
X<B> xb; // ill-formed: default arguments for the parameters of a template argument are ignored
X<C> xc; // ill-formed: a template parameter pack does not match a template parameter
A template-argument matches a template template-parameter (call it P) when each of the template parameters in the template-parameter-list of the template-argument’s corresponding class template or template alias (call it A) matches the corresponding template parameter in the template-parameter-list of P. When P’s template-parameter-list contains a template parameter pack (14.6.3), the template parameter pack will match zero or more template parameters or template parameter packs in the template-parameter-list of A with the same type and form as the template parameter pack in P (ignoring whether those template parameters are template parameter packs) [Example:

```cpp
// Example:
template <class T> struct eval;

template <template <class, class...> class TT, class T1, class... Rest>
struct eval<TT<T1, Rest...>> { };

template <class T1> struct A;
template <class T1, class T2> struct B;
template <int N> struct C;
template <class T1, int N> struct D;
template <class T1, class T2, int N = 17> struct E;

eval<A<int>> eA; // OK: matches partial specialization of eval
eval<B<int, float>> eB; // OK: matches partial specialization of eval
eval<C<int>> eC; // error: C does not match TT in partial specialization
eval<D<int, 17>> eD; // error: D does not match TT in partial specialization
eval<E<int, float>> eE; // error: E does not match TT in partial specialization
```

— end example]
template<class E, int size> class buffer { /* ... */ };
buffer<char,2*512> x;
buffer<char,1024> y;

declares x and y to be of the same type, and

```cpp
template<class T, void(*err_fct)()> class list { /* ... */ };
list<int,&error_handler1> x1;
list<int,&error_handler2> x2;
list<int,&error_handler2> x3;
list<char,&error_handler2> x4;
```
declares x2 and x3 to be of the same type. Their type differs from the types of x1 and x4.

```cpp
template<template<class> class TT> struct X { };
template<class> struct Y { };
template<class T> using Z = Y<T>;
X<Y> y;
X<Z> z;
```
declares y and z to be of the same type.

--- end example ---

## 14.6 Template declarations

A template-id, that is, the template-name followed by a template-argument-list shall not be specified in the declaration of a primary template declaration. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T1, class T2, int I> class A<T1, T2, I> { }; // error
template<class T1, int I> void sort<T1, I>(T1 data[I]); // error
```
— end example] [Note: however, this syntax is allowed in class template partial specializations (14.6.5).
— end note]

2 For purposes of name lookup and instantiation, default arguments of function templates and default arguments of member functions of class templates are considered definitions; each default argument is a separate definition which is unrelated to the function template definition or to any other default arguments.

3 Because an alias-declaration cannot declare a template-id, it is not possible to partially or explicitly specialize a template alias.

### 14.6.1 Class templates

A class template defines the layout and operations for an unbounded set of related types. [Example: a single class template List might provide a common definition for list of int, list of float, and list of pointers to Shapes. — end example]

[Example: An array class template might be declared like this:

```cpp
template<class T> class Array {
    T* v;
    int sz;
public:
    explicit Array(int);
    T& operator[](int); // error
    T& elem(int i) { return v[i]; } // error
};
```
]
The prefix `template <class T>` specifies that a template is being declared and that a `type-name T` will be used in the declaration. In other words, `Array` is a parameterized type with `T` as its parameter. — end example]

When a member function, a member class, a static data member or a member template of a class template is defined outside of the class template definition, the member definition is defined as a template definition in which the `template-parameters` are those of the class template. The names of the template parameters used in the definition of the member may be different from the template parameter names used in the class template definition. The template argument list following the class template name in the member definition shall name the parameters in the same order as the one used in the template parameter list of the member. Each template parameter pack shall be expanded with an ellipsis in the template argument list. [Example:

```c
template<class T1, class T2> struct A {
  void f1();
  void f2();
};

template<class T2, class T1> void A<T2,T1>::f1() { } // OK
template<class T2, class T1> void A<T1,T2>::f2() { } // error
```

— end example]

In a redeclaration, partial specialization, explicit specialization or explicit instantiation of a class template, the `class-key` shall agree in kind with the original class template declaration (7.1.6.3).

### 14.6.1.1 Member functions of class templates

A member function of a class template may be defined outside of the class template definition in which it is declared. [Example:

```c
template<class T> class Array {
  T* v;
  int sz;
public:
  explicit Array(int);
  T& operator[](int);
  T& elem(int i) { return v[i]; }
};
```

declares three function templates. The subscript function might be defined like this:

```c
template<class T> T& Array<T>::operator[](int i) {
  if (i<0 || sz<=i) error("Array: range error");
  return v[i];
}
```

— end example]

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The template-arguments for a member function of a class template are determined by the template-arguments of the type of the object for which the member function is called. [Example: the template-argument for `Array<T>::operator[]()` will be determined by the `Array` to which the subscripting operation is applied.]

```cpp
Array<int> v1(20);
Array<dcomplex> v2(30);

v1[3] = 7; // Array<int>::operator[]( )
v2[3] = dcomplex(7,8); // Array<dcomplex>::operator[]( )
```

— end example |

### 14.6.1.2 Member classes of class templates

A class member of a class template may be defined outside the class template definition in which it is declared. [Note: the class member must be defined before its first use that requires an instantiation (14.8.1). For example,]

```cpp
template<class T> struct A {
    class B;
};
A<int>::B* b1; // OK: requires A to be defined but not A::B
template<class T> class A<T>::B { }
A<int>::B b2; // OK: requires A::B to be defined
```

— end note |

### 14.6.1.3 Static data members of class templates

A definition for a static data member may be provided in a namespace scope enclosing the definition of the static member’s class template. [Example:]

```cpp
template<class T> class X {
    static T s;
};
template<class T> T X<T>::s = 0;
```

— end example |

### 14.6.2 Member templates

A template can be declared within a class or class template; such a template is called a member template. A member template can be defined within or outside its class definition or class template definition. A member template of a class that is defined outside of its class template definition shall be specified with the template-parameters of the class template followed by the template-parameters of the member template. [Example:]

```cpp
template<class T> struct string {
    template<class T2> int compare(const T2&);
    template<class T2> string(const string<T2>& s) { /* ... */ }
};

template<class T> template<class T2> int string<T>::compare(const T2& s) {
}
```

— end example |

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2 A local class shall not have member templates. Access control rules (Clause 11) apply to member template names. A destructor shall not be a member template. A normal (non-template) member function with a given name and type and a member function template of the same name, which could be used to generate a specialization of the same type, can both be declared in a class. When both exist, a use of that name and type refers to the non-template member unless an explicit template argument list is supplied. [Example:

```cpp
template <class T> struct A {
  void f(int);
  template <class T2> void f(T2);
};

template <> void A<int>::f(int) { } // non-template member
template <> template <> void A<int>::f<>(int) { } // template member

template <class T> struct AA {
  template <class C> virtual void g(C); // error
  virtual void f(); // OK
};

int main() {
  A<char> ac;
  ac.f(1); // non-template
  ac.f('c'); // template
  ac.f<>(1); // template
}

— end example]

3 A member function template shall not be virtual. [Example:

```cpp
template <class T> struct AA {
  template <class C> virtual void g(C); // error
  virtual void f(); // OK
};

int main() {
  A<char> ac;
  ac.f(1); // non-template
  ac.f('c'); // template
  ac.f<>(1); // template
}

— end example]

4 A specialization of a member function template does not override a virtual function from a base class. [Example:

```cpp
class B {
  virtual void f(int);
};

class D : public B {
  template <class T> void f(T); // does not override B::f(int)
  void f(int i) { f<>(i); } // overriding function that calls // the template instantiation
};

— end example]

5 A specialization of a conversion function template is referenced in the same way as a non-template conversion function that converts to the same type. [Example:

```cpp
struct A {
  template <class T> operator T*();
};

template <class T> A::operator T*() { return 0; }

template <> A::operator char*() { return 0; } // specialization

template A::operator void*(); // explicit instantiation

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int main() {
    A a;
    int *ip;
    ip = a.operator int*(); // explicit call to template operator

}  

— end example] [ Note: because the explicit template argument list follows the function template name, and because conversion member function templates and constructor member function templates are called without using a function name, there is no way to provide an explicit template argument list for these function templates. — end note]

6 A specialization of a conversion function template is not found by name lookup. Instead, any conversion function templates visible in the context of the use are considered. For each such operator, if argument deduction succeeds (14.9.2.3), the resulting specialization is used as if found by name lookup.

7 A using-declaration in a derived class cannot refer to a specialization of a conversion function template in a base class.

8 Overload resolution (13.3.3.2) and partial ordering (14.6.6.2) are used to select the best conversion function among multiple specializations of conversion function templates and/or non-template conversion functions.

14.6.3 Variadic templates [temp.variadic]

1 A template parameter pack is a template parameter that accepts zero or more template arguments. [ Example: 

    template<class ... Types> struct Tuple { }; 

    Tuple<> t0; // Types contains no arguments 
    Tuple<int> t1; // Types contains one argument: int 
    Tuple<int, float> t2; // Types contains two arguments: int and float 
    Tuple<0> error; // error: 0 is not a type 

— end example ]

2 A function parameter pack is a function parameter that accepts zero or more function arguments. [ Example: 

    template<class ... Types> void f(Types ... args); 

    f(); // OK: args contains no arguments 
    f(1); // OK: args contains one argument: int 
    f(2, 1.0); // OK: args contains two arguments: int and double 

— end example ]

3 A parameter pack is either a template parameter pack or a function parameter pack.

4 A pack expansion is a sequence of tokens that names one or more parameter packs, followed by an ellipsis. The sequence of tokens is called the pattern of the expansion; its syntax depends on the context in which the expansion occurs. Pack expansions can occur in the following contexts:

— In an initializer-list (8.5); the pattern is an initializer-clause.
— In a base-specifier-list (10); the pattern is a base-specifier.
— In a mem-initializer-list (12.6.2); the pattern is a mem-initializer.
— In a template-argument-list (14.4); the pattern is a template-argument.

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— In an exception-specification (15.4); the pattern is a type-id.

— In an attribute-list (7.6.1); the pattern is an attribute.

[Example:

```cpp
template<class ... Types> void f(Types ... rest);
template<class ... Types> void g(Types ... rest) {
    f(&rest ...);  // "&rest ..." is a pack expansion; "&rest" is its pattern
}
```

— end example]

5 A parameter pack whose name appears within the pattern of a pack expansion is expanded by that pack expansion. An appearance of the name of a parameter pack is only expanded by the innermost enclosing pack expansion. The pattern of a pack expansion shall name one or more parameter packs that are not expanded by a nested pack expansion. All of the parameter packs expanded by a pack expansion shall have the same number of arguments specified. An appearance of a name of a parameter pack that is not expanded is ill-formed. [Example:

```cpp
template<typename...> struct Tuple {};  
template<typename T1, typename T2> struct Pair {};  

template<class ... Args1> struct zip {
    template<class ... Args2> struct with {
        typedef Tuple<Pair<Args1, Args2> ... > type;
    };
};

typedef zip<short, int>::with<unsigned short, unsigned>::type T1;  // T1 is Tuple<Pair<short, unsigned short>, Pair<int, unsigned>>
typedef zip<short>::with<unsigned short, unsigned>::type T2;  // error: different number of arguments specified for Args1 and Args2

template<class ... Args> void g(Args ... args) {
    f(const_cast<const Args*>(&args)...);  // OK: "Args" and "args" are expanded
    f(5 ...);  // error: pattern does not contain any parameter packs
    f(args);  // error: parameter pack "args" is not expanded
    f(h(args ...) + args ...);  // OK: first "args" expanded within h, second "args" expanded within f
}
```

— end example]

6 The instantiation of an expansion produces a list \( E_1 \oplus E_2 \oplus \ldots \oplus E_N \), where \( N \) is the number of elements in the pack expansion parameters and \( \oplus \) is the syntactically-appropriate separator for the list. Each \( E_i \) is generated by instantiating the pattern and replacing each pack expansion parameter with its \( i \)th element. All of the \( E_i \) become elements in the enclosing list. [Note: The variety of list varies with the context: expression-list, base-specifier-list, template-argument-list, etc. — end note]

14.6.4 Friends [temp.friend]

1 A friend of a class or class template can be a function template or class template, a specialization of a function template or class template, or an ordinary (non-template) function or class. For a friend function declaration that is not a template declaration:
— if the name of the friend is a qualified or unqualified template-id, the friend declaration refers to a specialization of a function template, otherwise

— if the name of the friend is a qualified-id and a matching non-template function is found in the specified class or namespace, the friend declaration refers to that function, otherwise,

— if the name of the friend is a qualified-id and a matching specialization of a function template is found in the specified class or namespace, the friend declaration refers to that function template specialization, otherwise,

— the name shall be an unqualified-id that declares (or redeclares) an ordinary (non-template) function.

[Example:

```cpp
template<class T> class task;
template<class T> task<T>* preempt(task<T>*);

template<class T> class task {
    friend void next_time();
    friend void process(task<T>*);
    friend task<T>* preempt<T>(task<T>*);
    template<class C> friend int func(C);

    friend class task<int>;
    template<class P> friend class frd;
};
```

Here, each specialization of the `task` class template has the function `next_time` as a friend; because `process` does not have explicit template-arguments, each specialization of the `task` class template has an appropriately typed function `process` as a friend, and this friend is not a function template specialization; because the friend `preempt` has an explicit template-argument `<T>`, each specialization of the `task` class template has the appropriate specialization of the function template `preempt` as a friend; and each specialization of the `task` class template has all specializations of the function template `func` as friends. Similarly, each specialization of the `task` class template has the class template specialization `task<int>` as a friend, and has all specializations of the class template `frd` as friends. — end example]

---

2 A friend template may be declared within a class or class template. A friend function template may be defined within a class or class template, but a friend class template may not be defined in a class or class template. In these cases, all specializations of the friend class or friend function template are friends of the class or class template granting friendship. [Example:

```cpp
class A {
    template<class T> friend class B; // OK
    template<class T> friend void f(T){/* ... */} // OK
};

— end example]

---

3 A template friend declaration specifies that all specializations of that template, whether they are implicitly instantiated (14.8.1), partially specialized (14.6.5) or explicitly specialized (14.8.3), are friends of the class containing the template friend declaration. [Example:

```cpp
class X {
    template<class T> friend struct A;
    class Y { }
};
```

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template<class T> struct A { X::Y ab; }; // OK
template<class T> struct A<T*> { X::Y ab; }; // OK

— end example ]

4 When a function is defined in a friend function declaration in a class template, the function is instantiated when the function is used. The same restrictions on multiple declarations and definitions that apply to non-template function declarations and definitions also apply to these implicit definitions.

5 A member of a class template may be declared to be a friend of a non-template class. In this case, the corresponding member of every specialization of the class template is a friend of the class granting friendship. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> struct A {
    struct B { }
    void f();
};

class C {
    template<class T> friend struct A<T>::B;
    template<class T> friend void A<T>::f();
};
```

— end example ]

6 [ Note: a friend declaration may first declare a member of an enclosing namespace scope (14.7.5). — end note ]

7 A friend template shall not be declared in a local class.

8 Friend declarations shall not declare partial specializations. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> class A { }
class X {
    template<class T> friend class A<T*>; // error
};
```

— end example ]

9 When a friend declaration refers to a specialization of a function template, the function parameter declarations shall not include default arguments, nor shall the inline specifier be used in such a declaration.

14.6.5 Class template partial specializations [temp.class.spec]

1 A primary class template declaration is one in which the class template name is an identifier. A template declaration in which the class template name is a simple-template-id is a partial specialization of the class template named in the simple-template-id. A partial specialization of a class template provides an alternative definition of the template that is used instead of the primary definition when the arguments in a specialization match those given in the partial specialization (14.6.5.1). The primary template shall be declared before any specializations of that template. A partial specialization shall be declared before the first use of a class template specialization that would make use of the partial specialization as the result of an implicit or explicit instantiation in every translation unit in which such a use occurs; no diagnostic is required.

2 When a partial specialization is used within the instantiation of an exported template, and the unspecialized template name is non-dependent in the exported template, a declaration of the partial specialization shall
be declared before the definition of the exported template, in the translation unit containing that definition. A similar restriction applies to explicit specialization; see 14.8.

3 Each class template partial specialization is a distinct template and definitions shall be provided for the members of a template partial specialization (14.6.5.3).

4 [Example:

```c
template<class T1, class T2, int I> class A { }; // #1
template<class T, int I> class A<T, T*, I> { }; // #2
template<class T1, class T2, int I> class A<T1*, T2, I> { }; // #3
template<class T> class A<int, T*, 5> { }; // #4
template<class T1, class T2, int I> class A<T1, T2*, I> { }; // #5
```

The first declaration declares the primary (unspecialized) class template. The second and subsequent declarations declare partial specializations of the primary template. — end example]

5 The template parameters are specified in the angle bracket enclosed list that immediately follows the keyword `template`. For partial specializations, the template argument list is explicitly written immediately following the class template name. For primary templates, this list is implicitly described by the template parameter list. Specifically, the order of the template arguments is the sequence in which they appear in the template parameter list. [Example: the template argument list for the primary template in the example above is `<T1, T2, I>`. — end example] [Note: the template argument list shall not be specified in the primary template declaration. For example,

```c
template<class T1, class T2, int I> class A<T1*, T2, I> { }; // #5
```
— end note]

6 A class template partial specialization may be declared or redeclared in any namespace scope in which its definition may be defined (14.6.1 and 14.6.2). [Example:

```c
template<class T> struct A {
    struct C {
        template<class T2> struct B { }; // #6
    };
};

// partial specialization of A<T>::C::B<T2>
template<class T> template<class T2>
struct A<T>::C::B<T2> { }; // #7

A<short>::C::B<int*> absip; // uses partial specialization
```
— end example]

7 Partial specialization declarations themselves are not found by name lookup. Rather, when the primary template name is used, any previously-declared partial specializations of the primary template are also considered. One consequence is that a using-declaration which refers to a class template does not restrict the set of partial specializations which may be found through the using-declaration. [Example:

```c
namespace N {
    template<class T1, class T2> class A { }; // primary template
}

using N::A; // refers to the primary template
```
namespace N {
    template<class T> class A<T, T*> { } // partial specialization
}

A<int, int*> a; // uses the partial specialization, which is found through
// the using declaration which refers to the primary template

/* end example */

A non-type argument is non-specialized if it is the name of a non-type parameter. All other non-type
arguments are specialized.

Within the argument list of a class template partial specialization, the following restrictions apply:

— A partially specialized non-type argument expression shall not involve a template parameter of the
partial specialization except when the argument expression is a simple identifier. [Example:

    template <int I, int J> struct A {};
    template <int I> struct A<I+5, I*2> {}; // error

    template <int I, int J> struct B {};
    template <int I> struct B<I, I> {}; /* OK */

— end example */

— The type of a template parameter corresponding to a specialized non-type argument shall not be
dependent on a parameter of the specialization. [Example:

    template <class T, T t> struct C {};
    template <class T> struct C<T, 1>; /* error */

    template <int X, int (*array_ptr)[X]> class A {};
    int array[5];
    template <int X> class A<X, &array> { } // error

— end example */

— The argument list of the specialization shall not be identical to the implicit argument list of the primary
template.

— The template parameter list of a specialization shall not contain default template argument values.136

— An argument shall not contain an unexpanded parameter pack. If an argument is a pack expansion
(14.6.3), it shall be the last argument in the template argument list.

14.6.5.1 Matching of class template partial specializations [temp.class.spec.match]

When a class template is used in a context that requires an instantiation of the class, it is necessary to
determine whether the instantiation is to be generated using the primary template or one of the partial
specializations. This is done by matching the template arguments of the class template specialization with
the template argument lists of the partial specializations.

— If exactly one matching specialization is found, the instantiation is generated from that specialization.

136) There is no way in which they could be used.
If more than one matching specialization is found, the partial order rules (14.6.5.2) are used to determine whether one of the specializations is more specialized than the others. If none of the specializations is more specialized than all of the other matching specializations, then the use of the class template is ambiguous and the program is ill-formed.

If no matches are found, the instantiation is generated from the primary template.

A partial specialization matches a given actual template argument list if the template arguments of the partial specialization can be deduced from the actual template argument list (14.9.2). [Example:

\begin{verbatim}
A<int, int, 1> a1;  // uses #1
A<int, int*, 1> a2; // uses #2, T is int, I is 1
A<int, char*, 5> a3; // uses #4, T is char
A<int, char*, 1> a4; // uses #5, T1 is int, T2 is char, I is 1
A<int*, int*, 2> a5; // ambiguous: matches #3 and #5
\end{verbatim}

— end example]

A non-type template argument can also be deduced from the value of an actual template argument of a non-type parameter of the primary template. [Example: the declaration of a2 above. — end example]

In a type name that refers to a class template specialization, (e.g., A<int, int, 1>) the argument list shall match the template parameter list of the primary template. The template arguments of a specialization are deduced from the arguments of the primary template.

### 14.6.5.2 Partial ordering of class template specializations

For two class template partial specializations, the first is at least as specialized as the second if, given the following rewrite to two function templates, the first function template is at least as specialized as the second according to the ordering rules for function templates (14.6.6.2):

— the first function template has the same template parameters as the first partial specialization and has a single function parameter whose type is a class template specialization with the template arguments of the first partial specialization, and

— the second function template has the same template parameters as the second partial specialization and has a single function parameter whose type is a class template specialization with the template arguments of the second partial specialization.

[Example:

\begin{verbatim}
template<int I, int J, class T> class X { }
template<int I, int J> class X<I, J, int> { }; // #1
template<int I> class X<I, I, int> { }; // #2
template<int I, int J, class T>
    requires Con1<T> class X<I, J, T> { }; // #3
template<int I, int J, class T>
    requires Con2<T> class X<I, J, T> { }; // #4

    template<int I, int J> void f(X<I, J, int>);
    template<int I> void f(X<I, I, int>);  // A
\end{verbatim}

The partial specialization #2 is more specialized than the partial specialization #1 because the function template B is more specialized than the function template A according to the ordering rules for function templates. — end example]

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14.6.5.3 Members of class template specializations

The template parameter list of a member of a class template partial specialization shall match the template parameter list of the class template partial specialization. The template argument list of a member of a class template partial specialization shall match the template argument list of the class template partial specialization. A class template specialization is a distinct template. The members of the class template partial specialization are unrelated to the members of the primary template. Class template partial specialization members that are used in a way that requires a definition shall be defined; the definitions of members of the primary template are never used as definitions for members of a class template partial specialization. An explicit specialization of a member of a class template partial specialization is declared in the same way as an explicit specialization of the primary template. [Example:

```c
// primary template
template<class T, int I> struct A {
    void f();
};

template<class T, int I> void A<T,I>::f() { }

// class template partial specialization
template<class T> struct A<T,2> {
    void f();
    void g();
    void h();
};

// member of class template partial specialization
template<class T> void A<T,2>::g() { }

// explicit specialization
template<> void A<char,2>::h() { }
```

```c
int main() {
    A<char,0> a0;
    A<char,2> a2;
    a0.f(); // OK, uses definition of primary template's member
    a2.g(); // OK, uses definition of
             // partial specialization's member
    a2.h(); // OK, uses definition of
             // explicit specialization's member
    a2.f(); // ill-formed, no definition of f for A<T,2>
             // the primary template is not used here
}
```
— end example]

2 If a member template of a class template is partially specialized, the member template partial specializations are member templates of the enclosing class template; if the enclosing class template is instantiated (14.8.1, 14.8.2), a declaration for every member template partial specialization is also instantiated as part of creating the members of the class template specialization. If the primary member template is explicitly specialized for a given (implicit) specialization of the enclosing class template, the partial specializations of the member template are ignored for this specialization of the enclosing class template. If a partial specialization of the member template is explicitly specialized for a given (implicit) specialization of the enclosing class template, the primary member template and its other partial specializations are still considered for this specialization of the enclosing class template. [Example:
template<class T> struct A {
    template<class T2> struct B {}; // #1
    template<class T2> struct B<T2*> {}; // #2
};

template<> template<class T2> struct A<short>::B {}; // #3
A<char>::B<int*> abcip; // uses #2
A<short>::B<int*> absip; // uses #3
A<char>::B<int> abci; // uses #1

— end example ]

14.6.6 Function templates [temp.fct]

1 A function template defines an unbounded set of related functions. [Example: a family of sort functions
might be declared like this:

template<class T> class Array { }
    template<class T> void sort(Array<T>&);

— end example ]

2 A function template can be overloaded with other function templates and with normal (non-template)
functions. A normal function is not related to a function template (i.e., it is never considered to be a special-
ization), even if it has the same name and type as a potentially generated function template specialization.\footnote{That is, declarations of non-template functions do not merely guide overload resolution of function template specializations with the same name. If such a non-template function is used in a program, it must be defined; it will not be implicitly instantiated using the function template definition.}

14.6.6.1 Function template overloading [temp.over.link]

1 It is possible to overload function templates so that two different function template specializations have the
same type. [Example:

    // file1.c
    template<class T>
    void f(T*);
    void g(int* p) {
        f(p); // calls f<int*>(int*)
    }

    // file2.c
    template<class T>
    void f(T);
    void h(int* p) {
        f(p); // calls f<int*>(int*)
    }

— end example ]

2 Such specializations are distinct functions and do not violate the one definition rule (3.2).

3 The signature of a function template is defined in 1.3. The names of the template parameters are significant
only for establishing the relationship between the template parameters and the rest of the signature. [Note:
two distinct function templates may have identical function return types and function parameter lists, even
if overload resolution alone cannot distinguish them.

    template<class T> void f();
    template<int I> void f(); // OK: overloads the first template
        // distinguishable with an explicit template argument list

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4 When an expression that references a template parameter is used in the function parameter list or the return type in the declaration of a function template, the expression that references the template parameter is part of the signature of the function template. This is necessary to permit a declaration of a function template in one translation unit to be linked with another declaration of the function template in another translation unit and, conversely, to ensure that function templates that are intended to be distinct are not linked with one another. [Example:

```c
template <int I, int J> A<I+J> f(A<I>, A<J>); // #1
template <int K, int L> A<K+L> f(A<K>, A<L>); // same as #1
template <int I, int J> A<I-J> f(A<I>, A<J>); // different from #1
```

— end example] [Note: Most expressions that use template parameters use non-type template parameters, but it is possible for an expression to reference a type parameter. For example, a template type parameter can be used in the `sizeof` operator. — end note]

5 Two expressions involving template parameters are considered equivalent if two function definitions containing the expressions would satisfy the one definition rule (3.2), except that the tokens used to name the template parameters may differ as long as a token used to name a template parameter in one expression is replaced by another token that names the same template parameter in the other expression. [Example:

```c
template <int I, int J> void f(A<I+J>); // #1
template <int K, int L> void f(A<K+L>); // same as #1
```

— end example] Two expressions involving template parameters that are not equivalent are functionally equivalent if, for any given set of template arguments, the evaluation of the expression results in the same value.

6 Two function templates are equivalent if they are declared in the same scope, have the same name, have identical template parameter lists, and have return types and parameter lists that are equivalent using the rules described above to compare expressions involving template parameters. Two function templates are functionally equivalent if they are equivalent except that one or more expressions that involve template parameters in the return types and parameter lists are functionally equivalent using the rules described above to compare expressions involving template parameters. If a program contains declarations of function templates that are functionally equivalent but not equivalent, the program is ill-formed; no diagnostic is required.

7 [Note: This rule guarantees that equivalent declarations will be linked with one another, while not requiring implementations to use heroic efforts to guarantee that functionally equivalent declarations will be treated as distinct. For example, the last two declarations are functionally equivalent and would cause a program to be ill-formed:

```c
// Guaranteed to be the same
template <int I> void f(A<I>, A<I+10>);  
template <int I> void f(A<I>, A<I+10>);

// Guaranteed to be different
template <int I> void f(A<I>, A<I+10>);  
template <int I> void f(A<I>, A<I+11>);

// Ill-formed, no diagnostic required
template <int I> void f(A<I>, A<I+10>);  
template <int I> void f(A<I>, A<I+1+2+3+4>);
```

§ 14.6.6.1
14.6.6.2 Partial ordering of function templates

If a function template is overloaded, the use of a function template specialization might be ambiguous because template argument deduction (14.9.2) may associate the function template specialization with more than one function template declaration. Partial ordering of overloaded function template declarations is used in the following contexts to select the function template to which a function template specialization refers:

— during overload resolution for a call to a function template specialization (13.3.3);
— when the address of a function template specialization is taken;
— when a placement operator delete that is a function template specialization is selected to match a placement operator new (3.7.4.2, 5.3.4);
— when a friend function declaration (14.6.4), an explicit instantiation (14.8.2) or an explicit specialization (14.8.3) refers to a function template specialization.

Partial ordering selects which of two function templates is more specialized than the other by transforming each template in turn (see next paragraph) and performing template argument deduction using the function parameter types, or in the case of a conversion function the return type.

Not: if template argument deduction succeeds, then the template requirements (if any) have all been satisfied (??) by the deduced template arguments. — end note —

The deduction process determines whether one of the templates is more specialized than the other. If so, the more specialized template is the one chosen by the partial ordering process.

To produce the transformed template, for each type, non-type, or template template parameter (including template parameter packs (14.6.3) thereof) synthesize a unique type, value, or class template respectively and substitute it for each occurrence of that parameter in the function type of the template.

Using the transformed function template’s function parameter list, or in the case of a conversion function its transformed return type, perform type deduction against the function parameter list (or return type) of the other function. The mechanism for performing these deductions is given in 14.9.2.4.

[Example:

```cpp
template<class T> struct A { A(); }

template<class T> void f(T);
template<class T> void f(T*);
template<class T> void f(const T*);

template<class T> void g(T);
template<class T> void g(T&);

template<class T> void h(const T&);
template<class T> void h(A<T>&);

void m() {
    const int *p;
    f(p);          // f(const T*) is more specialized than f(T) or f(T*)
    float x;
    g(x);          // Ambiguous: g(T) or g(T&)
    A<int> z;
    h(z);          // overload resolution selects h(A<T>&)
}
```
const A<int> z2;
h(z2);                      // h(const T&) is called because h(A<T>&) is not callable
}

— end example ]

5 The presence of unused ellipsis and default arguments has no effect on the partial ordering of function templates. [ Example:

```c
template<class T> void f(T);     // #1
template<class T> void f(T*, int=1);  // #2
template<class T> void g(T);     // #3
template<class T> void g(T*, ...);  // #4

int main() {
  int* ip;
f(ip);      // calls #2
g(ip);      // calls #4
}

— end example ]

14.6.7 Template aliases

A template-declaration in which the declaration is an alias-declaration (clause 7) declares the identifier to be a template alias. A template alias declares template alias is a name for a family of types. The name of the template alias is a template-name.  

When a template-id refers to the specialization of a template alias, it is equivalent to the associated type obtained by substitution of its template-arguments for the template-parameters in the type-id of the template alias. [ Note: A template alias name is never deduced. — end note ] [ Example:

```c
template<class T> struct Alloc { /* ... */};
template<class T> using Vec = vector<T, Alloc<T>>;
Vec<int> v;       // same as vector<int, Alloc<int>> v;

template<class T>
  void process(Vec<T>& v)
  { /* ... */ }

template<class T>
  void process(vector<T, Alloc<T>>& w)
  { /* ... */ }    // error: redefinition

template<template<class> class TT>
  void f(TT<int>);;
f(v);                     // error: Vec not deduced

template<template<class, class> class TT>
  void g(TT<int, Alloc<int>>);;
g(v);                     // OK: TT = vector
```
14.7 Name resolution

Three kinds of names can be used within a template definition:

- The name of the template itself, and names declared within the template itself.
- Names dependent on a template-parameter (14.7.2).
- Names from scopes which are visible within the template definition.

A name used in a template declaration or definition and that is dependent on a template-parameter is assumed not to name a type unless the applicable name lookup finds a type name or the name is qualified by the keyword typename. [Example:

```c
class X;

template<class T> class Y {
    class Z;            // forward declaration of member class

    void f() {
        X* a1;          // declare pointer to X
        T* a2;          // declare pointer to T
        Y* a3;          // declare pointer to Y<T>
        Z* a4;          // declare pointer to Z
        typedef typename T::A TA;
        TA* a5;         // declare pointer to T's A
        typename T::A* a6; // declare pointer to T's A
        T::A* a7;       // T::A is not a type name:
                        // multiply T::A by a7; ill-formed,
                        // no visible declaration of a7
        B* a8;          // B is not a type name:
                        // multiply B by a8; ill-formed,
                        // no visible declarations of B and a8
    }
};
```

When a qualified-id is intended to refer to a type that is not a member of the current instantiation (14.7.2.1) and its nested-name-specifier depends on a template-parameter (14.7.2), it shall be prefixed by the keyword typename, forming a typename-specifier. If the qualified-id in a typename-specifier does not denote a type, the program is ill-formed.

```
typename-specifier:
    typename ::opt nested-name-specifier identifier
typename ::opt nested-name-specifier template ::opt simple-template-id
```

If a specialization of a template is instantiated for a set of template-arguments such that the qualified-id prefixed by typename does not denote a type, the specialization is ill-formed. The usual qualified name lookup (3.4.3) is used to find the qualified-id even in the presence of typename. [Example:

```c
struct A {
    struct X { }; // correct
    int X;
};
```

§ 14.7
struct B {
    struct X { };  
};  
template<class T> void f(T t) {  
    typename T::X x;  
}  
void foo() {  
    A a;  
    B b;  
    f(b); // OK: T::X refers to B::X  
    f(a); // error: T::X refers to the data member A::X not the struct A::X  
}  

/* end example */

5 A qualified name used as the name in a mem-initializer-id, a base-specifier, or an elaborated-type-specifier is implicitly assumed to name a type, without the use of the typename keyword. [Note: the typename keyword is not permitted by the syntax of these constructs. — end note]

6 If, for a given set of template arguments, a specialization of a template is instantiated that refers to a qualified-id that denotes a type, and the nested-name-specifier of the qualified-id depends on a template parameter, the qualified-id shall either be prefixed by typename or shall be used in a context in which it implicitly names a type as described above. [Example:

    template <class T> void f(int i) {
        T::x * i; // T::x must not be a type  
    }  

    struct Foo {
        typedef int x;  
    };  

    struct Bar {
        static int const x = 5;
    };  

    int main() {
        f<Bar>(1); // OK  
        f<Foo>(1); // error: Foo::x is a type  
    }  

    /* end example */

7 Within the definition of a class template or within the definition of a member of a class template, the keyword typename is not required when referring to the unqualified name of a previously declared member of the class template that declares a type. [Example:

    template<class T> struct A {
        typedef int B;
        B b; // OK, no typename required  
    };  

    /* end example */

8 Knowing which names are type names allows the syntax of every template definition to be checked. No diagnostic shall be issued for a template definition for which a valid specialization can be generated. If
no valid specialization can be generated for a template definition, and that template is not instantiated, the template definition is ill-formed, no diagnostic required. If a type used in a non-dependent name is incomplete at the point at which a template is defined but is complete at the point at which an instantiation is done, and if the completeness of that type affects whether or not the program is well-formed or affects the semantics of the program, the program is ill-formed; no diagnostic is required. [Note: if a template is instantiated, errors will be diagnosed according to the other rules in this Standard. Exactly when these errors are diagnosed is a quality of implementation issue. — end note] [Example:

```cpp
int j;
template<class T> class X {
    void f(T t, int i, char* p) {
        t = i;       // diagnosed if X::f is instantiated
          // and the assignment to t is an error
        p = i;       // may be diagnosed even if X::f is
          // not instantiated
        p = j;       // may be diagnosed even if X::f is
          // not instantiated
    }
    void g(T t) { 
        +;     // may be diagnosed even if X::g is
          // not instantiated
    }
};
— end example
```

9 When looking for the declaration of a name used in a template definition, the usual lookup rules (3.4.1, 3.4.2) are used for non-dependent names. The lookup of names dependent on the template parameters is postponed until the actual template argument is known (14.7.2). [Example:

```cpp
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

template<class T> class Set {
    T* p;
    int cnt;
public:
    Set();
    Set<T>(const Set<T>&);
    void printall() {
        for (int i = 0; i<cnt; i++)
            cout << p[i] << '\n';
    }
};

in the example, i is the local variable i declared in printall, cnt is the member cnt declared in Set, and cout is the standard output stream declared in iostream. However, not every declaration can be found this way; the resolution of some names must be postponed until the actual template-arguments are known. For example, even though the name operator<< is known within the definition of printall() and a declaration of it can be found in <iostream>, the actual declaration of operator<< needed to print p[i] cannot be known until it is known what type T is (14.7.2). — end example]

10 If a name does not depend on a template-parameter (as defined in 14.7.2), a declaration (or set of declarations) for that name shall be in scope at the point where the name appears in the template definition; the name is bound to the declaration (or declarations) found at that point and this binding is not affected by declarations that are visible at the point of instantiation. [Example:

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void f(char);

template<class T> void g(T t) {
    f(1); // f(char)
    f(T(1)); // dependent
    f(t); // dependent
    dd++; // not dependent
    // error: declaration for dd not found
}

double dd;

void h() {
    g(e); // will cause one call of f(char) followed
    // by two calls of f(E)
    g('a'); // will cause three calls of f(char)
}

— end example]

11 [ Note: for purposes of name lookup, default arguments of function templates and default arguments of
member functions of class templates are considered definitions (14.6). — end note ]

14.7.1 Locally declared names [temp.local]

1 Like normal (non-template) classes, class templates have an injected-class-name (Clause 9). The
injected-class-name can be used with or without a template-argument-list. When it is used without a
template-argument-list, it is equivalent to the injected-class-name followed by the template-parameters
of the class template enclosed in <>. When it is used with a template-argument-list, it refers to the specified class
template specialization, which could be the current specialization or another specialization.

2 Within the scope of a class template specialization or partial specialization, when the injected-class-name
is not followed by a <, it is equivalent to the injected-class-name followed by the template-arguments of the
class template specialization or partial specialization enclosed in <>. [ Example:

    template<class T> class Y;
    template<> class Y<int> {
        Y* p; // meaning Y<int>
        Y<char>* q; // meaning Y<char>
    };

— end example ]

3 The injected-class-name of a class template or class template specialization can be used either with or without
a template-argument-list wherever it is in scope. [ Example:

    template <class T> struct Base {
        Base* p;
    };

    template <class T> struct Derived: public Base<T> {
        typename Derived::Base* p; // meaning Derived::Base<T>
    };

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A lookup that finds an injected-class-name (10.2) can result in an ambiguity in certain cases (for example, if it is found in more than one base class). If all of the injected-class-names that are found refer to specializations of the same class template, and if the name is followed by a template-argument-list, the reference refers to the class template itself and not a specialization thereof, and is not ambiguous. [Example:

```cpp
template <class T> struct Base { }
template <class T> struct Derived: Base<int>, Base<char> {
    typename Derived::Base b; // error: ambiguous
    typename Derived::Base<double> d; // OK
};
```

— end example]

When the normal name of the template (i.e., the name from the enclosing scope, not the injected-class-name) is used without a template-argument-list, it refers to the class template itself and not a specialization of the template. [Example:

```cpp
template <class T> class X {
    X* p; // meaning X<T>
    X<T>* p2;
    X<int>* p3;
    ::X* p4; // error: missing template argument list
    // ::X does not refer to the injected-class-name
};
```

— end example]

The scope of a template parameter extends from its point of declaration until the end of its template. A template parameter hides any entity with the same name in the enclosing scope. [Note: this implies that a template parameter can be used in the declaration of subsequent template parameters and their default arguments but cannot be used in preceding template parameters or their default arguments. For example,

```cpp
template<class T, T* p, class U = T> class X { /* ... */ };
template<class T> void f(T* p = new T);
```

This also implies that a template parameter can be used in the specification of base classes. For example,

```cpp
template<class T> class X : public Array<T> { /* ... */ };
template<class T> class Y : public T { /* ... */ };
```

The use of a template parameter as a base class implies that a class used as a template argument must be defined and not just declared when the class template is instantiated.—end note].

A template-parameter shall not be redeclared within its scope (including nested scopes). A template-parameter shall not have the same name as the template name. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T, int i> class Y {
    int T; // error: template-parameter redeclared
    void f() {
        char T; // error: template-parameter redeclared
    }
};

template<class X> class X; // error: template-parameter redeclared
```
In the definition of a member of a class template that appears outside of the class template definition, the name of a member of this template hides the name of a template-parameter. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> struct A {
    struct B { /* ... */};
    void f();
};

template<class B> void A<B>::f() {
    B b; // A's B, not the template parameter
}
```

— end example]

In the definition of a member of a class template that appears outside of the namespace containing the class template definition, the name of a template-parameter hides the name of a member of this namespace. [Example:

```cpp
namespace N {
    class C { };
    template<class T> class B {
        void f(T);
    };
}

template<class C> void N::B<C>::f(C) {
    C b; // C is the template parameter, not N::C
}
```

— end example]

In the definition of a class template or in the definition of a member of such a template that appears outside of the template definition, for each base class which does not depend on a template-parameter (14.7.2), if the name of the base class or the name of a member of the base class is the same as the name of a template-parameter, the base class name or member name hides the template-parameter name (3.3.10). [Example:

```cpp
struct A {
    struct B { /* ... */};
    int a;
    int Y;
};

template<class B, class a> struct X : A {
    B b; // A's B
    a b; // error: A's a isn't a type name
};
```

— end example]

### 14.7.2 Dependent names

Inside a template, some constructs have semantics which may differ from one instantiation to another. Such a construct depends on the template parameters. In particular, types and expressions may depend on the type and/or value of template parameters (as determined by the template arguments) and this determines the context for name lookup for certain names. Expressions may be type-dependent (on the type of a template
parameter) or value-dependent (on the value of a non-type template parameter). In an expression of the form:

\[
\text{postfix-expression ( expression-list}_{\text{opt}}\)
\]

where the postfix-expression is an unqualified-id but not a template-id, the unqualified-id denotes a dependent name if and only if any of the expressions in the expression-list is a type-dependent expression (14.7.2.2). If an operand of an operator is a type-dependent expression, the operator also denotes a dependent name. Such names are unbound and are looked up at the point of the template instantiation (14.7.4.1) in both the context of the template definition and the context of the point of instantiation.

2 [Example:]

```c
template<class T> struct X : B<T> {  
  typename T::A* pa;
  void f(B<T>* pb) {  
    static int i = B<T>::i;
    pb->j++;
  }
};
```

the base class name B<T>, the type name T::A, the names B<T>::i and pb->j explicitly depend on the template-parameter. — end example]

3 In the definition of a class or class template, if a base class depends on a template-parameter, the base class scope is not examined during unqualified name lookup either at the point of definition of the class template or member or during an instantiation of the class template or member. [Example:

```c
typedef double A;
template<class T> class B {  
  typedef int A;
};
template<class T> struct X : B<T> {  
  A a;  // a has type double
};
```

The type name A in the definition of X<T> binds to the typedef name defined in the global namespace scope, not to the typedef name defined in the base class B<T>. — end example] [Example:

```c
struct A {  
  struct B { /* ... */ };  
  int a;
  int Y;
};  

int a;

template<class T> struct Y : T {  
  struct B { /* ... */ };  
  B b;  // The B defined in Y
  void f(int i) { a = i; }  // : :a
  Y* p;  // Y<T>
};

Y<A> ya;
```

§ 14.7.2
The members $A::B$, $A::a$, and $A::Y$ of the template argument $A$ do not affect the binding of names in $Y<A>$. 
— end example]

14.7.2.1 Dependent types

In the definition of a class template, a nested class of a class template, a member of a class template, or a member of a nested class of a class template, a name refers to the current instantiation if it is

— the injected-class-name (9) of the class template or nested class,
— in the definition of a primary class template, the name of the class template followed by the template argument list of the primary template (as described below) enclosed in $<>$,
— in the definition of a nested class of a class template, the name of the nested class referenced as a member of the current instantiation, or
— in the definition of a partial specialization, the name of the class template followed by the template argument list of the partial specialization enclosed in $<>$. If the $n$th template parameter is a parameter pack, the $n$th template argument is a pack expansion (14.6.3) whose pattern is the name of the parameter pack.

2 The template argument list of a primary template is a template argument list in which the $n$th template argument has the value of the $n$th template parameter of the class template. If the $n$th template parameter is a template parameter pack (14.6.3), the $n$th template argument is a pack expansion (14.6.3) whose pattern is the name of the template parameter pack.

3 A template argument that is equivalent to a template parameter (i.e., has the same constant value or the same type as the template parameter) can be used in place of that template parameter in a reference to the current instantiation. In the case of a non-type template argument, the argument must have been given the value of the template parameter and not an expression in which the template parameter appears as a subexpression. [Example:

```c
template <class T> class A {
    A* p1; // A is the current instantiation
    A<T>* p2; // A<T> is the current instantiation
    A<T>* p3; // A<T>* is not the current instantiation
    ::A<T>* p4; // ::A<T> is the current instantiation

class B {
    B* p1; // B is the current instantiation
    A<T>::B* p2; // A<T>::B is the current instantiation
    typename A<T>::B* p3; // A<T>::B is not the
    // current instantiation
};
};

template <class T> class A<T*> {
    A<T*>* p1; // A<T*> is the current instantiation
    A<T>* p2; // A<T> is not the current instantiation
};

template <class T1, class T2, int I> struct B {
    B<T1, T2, I>* b1; // refers to the current instantiation
    B<T2, T1, I>* b2; // not the current instantiation

typeof T1 my_T1;
    static const int my_I = I;
    static const int my_I2 = I+0;
    static const int my_I3 = my_I;

§ 14.7.2.1
A name is a \textit{member of the current instantiation} if it is

\begin{itemize}
\item An unqualified name that, when looked up, refers to a member of a class template. [Note: this can only occur when looking up a name in a scope enclosed by the definition of a class template. \textit{— end note}]
\item A \textit{qualified-id} in which the \textit{nested-name-specifier} refers to the current instantiation.
\end{itemize}

\begin{example}
\begin{verbatim}
template <class T> class A {
    static const int i = 5;
    int n1[i];           // i refers to a member of the current instantiation
    int n2[A::i];        // A::i refers to a member of the current instantiation
    int n3[A<T>::i];     // A<T>::i refers to a member of the current instantiation
    int f();
};

template <class T> int A<T>::f() {
    return i;           // i refers to a member of the current instantiation
}
\end{verbatim}
\textit{— end example}\end{example}

A name is a \textit{member of an unknown specialization} if the name is a \textit{qualified-id} in which the \textit{nested-name-specifier} names a dependent type that is not the current instantiation.

A type is dependent if it is

\begin{itemize}
\item a template parameter,
\item a member of an unknown specialization,
\item a nested class that is a member of the current instantiation,
\item a cv-qualified type where the cv-unqualified type is dependent,
\item a compound type constructed from any dependent type,
\item an array type constructed from any dependent type or whose size is specified by a constant expression that is value-dependent,
\item a \textit{simple-template-id} in which either the template name is a template parameter or any of the template arguments is a dependent type or an expression that is type-dependent or value-dependent, or
\item denoted by \texttt{decltype(expression)}, where \texttt{expression} is type-dependent (14.7.2.2).
\end{itemize}

[\textit{Note: because typedefs do not introduce new types, but instead simply refer to other types, a name that refers to a typedef that is a member of the current instantiation is dependent only if the type referred to is dependent. \textit{— end note}\textit{]}
14.7.2.2 Type-dependent expressions

Except as described below, an expression is type-dependent if any subexpression is type-dependent.

This is type-dependent if the class type of the enclosing member function is dependent (14.7.2.1).

An id-expression is type-dependent if it contains:

- an identifier that was declared with a dependent type,
- a template-id that is dependent,
- a conversion-function-id that specifies a dependent type,
- a nested-name-specifier or a qualified-id that names a member of an unknown specialization.

Expressions of the following forms are type-dependent only if the type specified by the type-id, simple-type-specifier or new-type-id is dependent, even if any subexpression is type-dependent:

- `simple-type-specifier ( expression-list_opt )`
- `::opt new new-placement_opt new-type-id new-initializer_opt`
- `::opt new new-placement_opt ( type-id ) new-initializer_opt`
- `dynamic_cast < type-id > ( expression )`
- `static_cast < type-id > ( expression )`
- `const_cast < type-id > ( expression )`
- `reinterpret_cast < type-id > ( expression )`

Expressions of the following forms are never type-dependent (because the type of the expression cannot be dependent):

- `literal`
- `postfix-expression . pseudo-destructor-name`
- `postfix-expression -> pseudo-destructor-name`
- `sizeof unary-expression`
- `sizeof ( type-id )`
- `sizeof ... ( identifier )`
- `sizeof ( type-id )`
- `sizeof ( type-id )`
- `alignof ( type-id )`
- `typeid ( expression )`
- `typeid ( type-id )`
- `::opt delete cast-expression`
- `::opt delete [ ] cast-expression`
- `throw assignment-expression_opt`

[Note: For the standard library macro `offsetof`, see 18.2. — end note]

A class member access expression (5.2.5) is type-dependent if the type of the referenced member is dependent.

[Note: in an expression of the form `x.y` or `xp->y` the type of the expression is usually the type of the member `y` of the class of `x` (or the class pointed to by `xp`). However, if `x` or `xp` refers to a dependent type that is not the current instantiation, the type of `y` is always dependent. If `x` or `xp` refers to a non-dependent type or refers to the current instantiation, the type of `y` is the type of the class member access expression. — end note]

14.7.2.3 Value-dependent expressions

Except as described below, a constant expression is value-dependent if any subexpression is value-dependent.

An identifier is value-dependent if it is:

- a name declared with a dependent type,
— the name of a non-type template parameter,
— a constant with literal type and is initialized with an expression that is value-dependent.

Expressions of the following form are value-dependent if the unary-expression is type-dependent or the type-id is dependent:

\[
\begin{align*}
\&\text{sizeof unary-expression} \\
\&\text{sizeof ( type-id )} \\
\&\text{alignof ( type-id )}
\end{align*}
\]

[Note: For the standard library macro \texttt{offsetof}, see 18.2. — end note]

3 Expressions of the following form are value-dependent if either the type-id or simple-type-specifier is dependent or the expression or cast-expression is value-dependent:

\[
\begin{align*}
\&\text{simple-type-specifier ( expression-listopt )} \\
\&\text{static_cast < type-id > ( expression )} \\
\&\text{const_cast < type-id > ( expression )} \\
\&\text{reinterpret_cast < type-id > ( expression )} \\
\&\text{( type-id ) cast-expression}
\end{align*}
\]

4 Expressions of the following form are value-dependent:

\[
\begin{align*}
\&\text{sizeof ... ( identifier )}
\end{align*}
\]

14.7.2.4 Dependent template arguments \[\text{temp.dep.temp}\]

1 A type template-argument is dependent if the type it specifies is dependent.

2 An integral non-type template-argument is dependent if the constant expression it specifies is value-dependent.

3 A non-integral non-type template-argument is dependent if its type is dependent or it has either of the following forms

\[
\begin{align*}
\&\text{qualified-id} \\
\&\text{& qualified-id}
\end{align*}
\]

and contains a nested-name-specifier which specifies a class-name that names a dependent type.

4 A template template-argument is dependent if it names a template-parameter or is a qualified-id with a nested-name-specifier which contains a class-name that names a dependent type.

14.7.3 Non-dependent names \[\text{temp.nondep}\]

1 Non-dependent names used in a template definition are found using the usual name lookup and bound at the point they are used. [Example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\&\text{void g(double);} \\
\&\text{void h();} \\
\&\text{template<class T> class Z { } public:} \\
\&\text{void f() {} g(1); \quad // calls g(double)} \\
\&\text{h++; \quad // ill-formed: cannot increment function;} \\
\&\text{// this could be diagnosed either here or} \\
\&\text{// at the point of instantiation}
\end{align*}
\]

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void g(int);  // not in scope at the point of the template
// definition, not considered for the call g(1)

— end example]

14.7.4  Dependent name resolution

In resolving dependent names, names from the following sources are considered:

— Declarations that are visible at the point of definition of the template.
— Declarations from namespaces associated with the types of the function arguments both from the
  instantiation context (14.7.4.1) and from the definition context.

14.7.4.1  Point of instantiation

For a function template specialization, a member function template specialization, or a specialization for a
member function or static data member of a class template, if the specialization is implicitly instantiated
because it is referenced from within another template specialization and the context from which it is ref-
erenced depends on a template parameter, the point of instantiation of the specialization is the point of
instantiation of the enclosing specialization. Otherwise, the point of instantiation for such a specialization
immediately follows the namespace scope declaration or definition that refers to the specialization.

If a function template or member function of a class template is called in a way which uses the definition of
a default argument of that function template or member function, the point of instantiation of the default
argument is the point of instantiation of the function template or member function specialization.

For a class template specialization, a class member template specialization, or a specialization for a class
member of a class template, if the specialization is implicitly instantiated because it is referenced from
within another template specialization, if the context from which the specialization is referenced depends
on a template parameter, and if the specialization is not instantiated previous to the instantiation of the
enclosing template, the point of instantiation is immediately before the point of instantiation of the enclosing
template. Otherwise, the point of instantiation for such a specialization immediately precedes the namespace
scope declaration or definition that refers to the specialization.

If a virtual function is implicitly instantiated, its point of instantiation is immediately following the point of
instantiation of its enclosing class template specialization.

An explicit instantiation definition is an instantiation point for the specialization or specializations specified
by the explicit instantiation.

The instantiation context of an expression that depends on the template arguments is the set of declarations
with external linkage declared prior to the point of instantiation of the template specialization in the same
translation unit.

A specialization for a function template, a member function template, or of a member function or static
data member of a class template may have multiple points of instantiations within a translation unit.
A specialization for a class template has at most one point of instantiation within a translation unit. A
specialization for any template may have points of instantiation in multiple translation units. If two different
points of instantiation give a template specialization different meanings according to the one definition rule (3.2), the program is ill-formed, no diagnostic required.

14.7.4.2 Candidate functions

For a function call that depends on a template parameter, if the function name is an unqualified-id but not a template-id, or if the function is called using operator notation, the candidate functions are found using the usual lookup rules (3.4.1, 3.4.2) except that:

— For the part of the lookup using unqualified name lookup (3.4.1), only function declarations with external linkage from the template definition context are found.

— For the part of the lookup using associated namespaces (3.4.2), only function declarations with external linkage found in either the template definition context or the template instantiation context are found.

If the call would be ill-formed or would find a better match had the lookup within the associated namespaces considered all the function declarations with external linkage introduced in those namespaces in all translation units, not just considering those declarations found in the template definition and template instantiation contexts, then the program has undefined behavior.

14.7.5 Friend names declared within a class template

Friend classes or functions can be declared within a class template. When a template is instantiated, the names of its friends are treated as if the specialization had been explicitly declared at its point of instantiation.

As with non-template classes, the names of namespace-scope friend functions of a class template specialization are not visible during an ordinary lookup unless explicitly declared at namespace scope (11.4). Such names may be found under the rules for associated classes (3.4.2).

Example:

```cpp
template<typename T> struct number {
    number(int);
    friend number gcd(number x, number y) { return 0; };
};

void g() {
    number<double> a(3), b(4);
    a = gcd(a,b); // finds gcd because number<double> is an associated class, making gcd visible
    // in its namespace (global scope)
    b = gcd(3,4); // ill-formed; gcd is not visible
}
```

— end example

14.8 Template instantiation and specialization

The act of instantiating a function, a class, a member of a class template or a member template is referred to as template instantiation.

A function instantiated from a function template is called an instantiated function. A class instantiated from a class template is called an instantiated class. A member function, a member class, or a static data member of a class template instantiated from the member definition of the class template is called, respectively, an instantiated member function, member class or static data member. A member function instantiated from

138) Friend declarations do not introduce new names into any scope, either when the template is declared or when it is instantiated.

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a member function template is called an instantiated member function. A member class instantiated from a member class template is called an instantiated member class.

3 An explicit specialization may be declared for a function template, a class template, a member of a class template or a member template. An explicit specialization declaration is introduced by `template<>`. In an explicit specialization declaration for a class template, a member of a class template or a class member template, the name of the class that is explicitly specialized shall be a `simple-template-id`. In the explicit specialization declaration for a function template or a member function template, the name of the function or member function explicitly specialized may be a `template-id`. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T = int> struct A {
    static int x;
};
template<class U> void g(U) { }

template<> struct A<double> { }; // specialize for T == double
template<> struct A<> { };      // specialize for T == int
template<> void g(char) { }    // specialize for U == char
    // U is deduced from the parameter type
template<> void g<int>(int) { } // specialize for U == int
template<> int A<char>::x = 0; // specialize for T == char

template<class T = int> struct B {
    static int x;
};
template<> int B<>::x = 1;     // specialize for T == int

— end example]
```

4 An instantiated template specialization can be either implicitly instantiated (14.8.1) for a given argument list or be explicitly instantiated (14.8.2). A specialization is a class, function, or class member that is either instantiated or explicitly specialized (14.8.3).

5 For a given template and a given set of `template-arguments`,
   — an explicit instantiation definition shall appear at most once in a program,
   — an explicit specialization shall be defined at most once in a program (according to 3.2), and
   — both an explicit instantiation and a declaration of an explicit specialization shall not appear in a program unless the explicit instantiation follows a declaration of the explicit specialization.

An implementation is not required to diagnose a violation of this rule.

6 Each class template specialization instantiated from a template has its own copy of any static members. [Example:

```cpp
    template<class T> class X {
        static T s;
    };
template<class T> T X<T>::s = 0;
X<int> aa;
X<char*> bb;
```

`X<int>` has a static member `s` of type `int` and `X<char*>` has a static member `s` of type `char*`. — end example]

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14.8.1 Implicit instantiation

1 Unless a class template specialization has been explicitly instantiated (14.8.2) or explicitly specialized (14.8.3), the class template specialization is implicitly instantiated when the specialization is referenced in a context that requires a completely-defined object type or when the completeness of the class type affects the semantics of the program. The implicit instantiation of a class template specialization causes the implicit instantiation of the declarations, but not of the definitions or default arguments, of the class member functions, member classes, static data members and member templates; and it causes the implicit instantiation of the definitions of member anonymous unions. Unless a member of a class template or a member template has been explicitly instantiated or explicitly specialized, the specialization of the member is implicitly instantiated when the specialization is referenced in a context that requires the member definition to exist; in particular, the initialization (and any associated side-effects) of a static data member does not occur unless the static data member is itself used in a way that requires the definition of the static data member to exist.

2 Unless a function template specialization has been explicitly instantiated or explicitly specialized, the function template specialization is implicitly instantiated when the specialization is referenced in a context that requires a function definition to exist. Unless a call is to a function template explicit specialization or to a member function of an explicitly specialized class template, a default argument for a function template or a member function of a class template is implicitly instantiated when the function is called in a context that requires the value of the default argument.

3 [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> struct Z {
  void f();
  void g();
};

void h() {
  Z<int> a; // instantiation of class Z<int> required
  Z<char>* p; // instantiation of class Z<char> not required
  Z<double>* q; // instantiation of class Z<double> not required

  a.f(); // instantiation of Z<int>::f() required
  p->g(); // instantiation of class Z<char> required, and
          // instantiation of Z<char>::g() required
}
```

Nothing in this example requires class Z<double>, Z<int>::g(), or Z<char>::f() to be implicitly instantiated. — end example]

4 A class template specialization is implicitly instantiated if the class type is used in a context that requires a completely-defined object type or if the completeness of the class type might affect the semantics of the program. [Note: in particular, if the semantics of an expression depend on the member or base class lists of a class template specialization, the class template specialization is implicitly generated. For instance, deleting a pointer to class type depends on whether or not the class declares a destructor, and conversion between pointer to class types depends on the inheritance relationship between the two classes involved. — end note] [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> class B { /* ... */};
template<class T> class D : public B<T> { /* ... */};

void f(void*);
void f(B<int>*);
```
5 If the overload resolution process can determine the correct function to call without instantiating a class template definition, it is unspecified whether that instantiation actually takes place. [Example:

```cpp
template <class T> struct S {
    operator int();
};

void f(int);
void f(S<int>&);
void f(S<float>);

void g(S<int>& sr) {
    f(sr); // instantiation of S<int> allowed but not required
    // instantiation of S<float> allowed but not required
}
```

— end example]

6 If an implicit instantiation of a class template specialization is required and the template is declared but not defined, the program is ill-formed. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> class X;

X<char> ch; // error: definition of X required
```

— end example]

7 The implicit instantiation of a class template does not cause any static data members of that class to be implicitly instantiated.

8 If a function template or a member function template specialization is used in a way that involves overload resolution, a declaration of the specialization is implicitly instantiated (14.9.3).

9 An implementation shall not implicitly instantiate a function template, a member template, a non-virtual member function, a member class, or a static data member of a class template that does not require instantiation. It is unspecified whether or not an implementation implicitly instantiates a virtual member function of a class template if the virtual member function would not otherwise be instantiated. The use of a template specialization in a default argument shall not cause the template to be implicitly instantiated except that a class template may be instantiated where its complete type is needed to determine the correctness of the default argument. The use of a default argument in a function call causes specializations in the default argument to be implicitly instantiated.

10 Implicitly instantiated class and function template specializations are placed in the namespace where the template is defined. Implicitly instantiated specializations for members of a class template are placed in the namespace where the enclosing class template is defined. Implicitly instantiated member templates are placed in the namespace where the enclosing class or class template is defined. [Example:
namespace N {
    template<class T> class List {
        public:
            T* get();
    }
}

template<class K, class V> class Map {
    public:
        N::List<V> lt;
        V get(K);
    
    void g(Map<char*,int>& m) {
        int i = m.get("Nicholas");
    }
}

a call of lt.get() from Map<char*,int>::get() would place List<int>::get() in the namespace N rather than in the global namespace. — end example

If a function template \( f \) is called in a way that requires a default argument expression to be used, the dependent names are looked up, the semantics constraints are checked, and the instantiation of any template used in the default argument expression is done as if the default argument expression had been an expression used in a function template specialization with the same scope, the same template parameters and the same access as that of the function template \( f \) used at that point. This analysis is called default argument instantiation. The instantiated default argument is then used as the argument of \( f \). Each default argument is instantiated independently. [Example:

    template<class T> void f(T x, T y = ydef(T()), T z = zdef(T()));
    class A { };
    A zdef(A);
    
    void g(A a, A b, A c) {
        f(a, b, c); // no default argument instantiation
        f(a, b);   // default argument z = zdef(T()) instantiated
        f(a);      // ill-formed; ydef is not declared
    }

— end example]

[Note: 14.7.4.1 defines the point of instantiation of a template specialization. — end note]

There is an implementation-defined quantity that specifies the limit on the total depth of recursive instantiations, which could involve more than one template. The result of an infinite recursion in instantiation is undefined. [Example:

    template<class T> class X {
        X<T>* p;  // OK
        X<T**> a;    // implicit generation of X<T> requires
            // the implicit instantiation of X<T*> which requires
                // the implicit instantiation of X<T**> which ...
    };

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14.8.2 Explicit instantiation

A class, a function or member template specialization can be explicitly instantiated from its template. A member function, member class or static data member of a class template can be explicitly instantiated from the member definition associated with its class template. An explicit instantiation of a function template shall not use the `inline` or `constexpr` specifiers.

The syntax for explicit instantiation is:

```
explicit-instantiation:
  extern_opt template declaration
```

There are two forms of explicit instantiation: an explicit instantiation definition and an explicit instantiation declaration. An explicit instantiation declaration begins with the `extern` keyword.

If the explicit instantiation is for a class or member class, the `elaborated-type-specifier` in the `declaration` shall include a `simple-template-id`. If the explicit instantiation is for a function or member function, the `unqualified-id` in the `declaration` shall be either a `template-id` or, where all template arguments can be deduced, a `template-name` or `operator-function-id`. [Note: the declaration may declare a `qualified-id`, in which case the `unqualified-id` of the `qualified-id` must be a `template-id`. — end note] If the explicit instantiation is for a member function, a member class or a static data member of a class template specialization, the name of the class template specialization in the `qualified-id` for the member name shall be a `simple-template-id`. An explicit instantiation shall appear in an enclosing namespace of its template. If the name declared in the explicit instantiation is an unqualified name, the explicit instantiation shall appear in the namespace where its template is declared or, if that namespace is inline (7.3.1), any namespace from its enclosing namespace set. [Note: regarding qualified names in declarators, see 8.3. — end note] [Example:

```c
template<class T> class Array { void mf(); }; #template class Array<char>; #template void Array<int>::mf();

template<class T> void sort(Array<T>& v) { /* ... */ } template void sort(Array<char>&); // argument is deduced here

namespace N { template<class T> void f(T&) { } } template void N::f<int>(int&); #end example]
```

A declaration of a function template shall be in scope at the point of the explicit instantiation of the function template. A definition of the class or class template containing a member function template shall be in scope at the point of the explicit instantiation of the member function template. A definition of a class template or class member template shall be in scope at the point of the explicit instantiation of the class template or class member template. A definition of a class template shall be in scope at the point of an explicit instantiation of a member function or a static data member of the class template. A definition of a member class of a class template shall be in scope at the point of an explicit instantiation of the member class. If the `declaration` of the explicit instantiation names an implicitly-declared special member function (Clause 12), the program is ill-formed.

For a given set of template parameters, if an explicit instantiation of a template appears after a declaration of an explicit specialization for that template, the explicit instantiation has no effect. Otherwise, for an explicit instantiation definition the definition of a non-exported function template, a non-exported member
function template, or a non-exported member function or static data member of a class template shall be present in every translation unit in which it is explicitly instantiated.

5 An explicit instantiation of a class or function template specialization is placed in the namespace in which the template is defined. An explicit instantiation for a member of a class template is placed in the namespace where the enclosing class template is defined. An explicit instantiation for a member template is placed in the namespace where the enclosing class or class template is defined. [Example:

```cpp
namespace N {
    template<class T> class Y { void mf() { } }; 
}

template class Y<int>; // error: class template Y not visible
                    // in the global namespace

using N::Y;
template class Y<int>; // OK: explicit instantiation in namespace N

template class N::Y<char*>; // OK: explicit instantiation in namespace N
template void N::Y<double>::mf(); // OK: explicit instantiation
                    // in namespace N

— end example]

6 A trailing `template-argument` can be left unspecified in an explicit instantiation of a function template specialization or of a member function template specialization provided it can be deduced from the type of a function parameter (14.9.2). [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> class Array { /* ... */ }; 
template<class T> void sort(Array<T>& v);

// instantiate sort(Array<int>&) - template-argument deduced
template void sort<>(Array<int>&);

— end example]

7 An explicit instantiation that names a class template specialization is an explicit instantiation of the same kind (declaration or definition) of each of its members (not including members inherited from base classes) that has not been previously explicitly specialized in the translation unit containing the explicit instantiation, except as described below.

8 An explicit instantiation definition that names a class template specialization explicitly instantiates the class template specialization and is only an explicit instantiation definition of members whose definition is visible at the point of instantiation.

9 An explicit instantiation declaration that names a class template specialization has no effect on the class template specialization itself (except for perhaps resulting in its implicit instantiation). Except for inline functions, other explicit instantiation declarations have the effect of suppressing the implicit instantiation of the entity to which they refer. [Note: The intent is that an inline function that is the subject of an explicit instantiation declaration will still be implicitly instantiated when used so that the body can be considered for inlining, but that no out-of-line copy of the inline function would be generated in the translation unit. — end note]

10 If an entity is the subject of both an explicit instantiation declaration and an explicit instantiation definition in the same translation unit, the definition shall follow the declaration. An entity that is the subject of an explicit instantiation declaration and that is also used in the translation unit shall be the subject of an
explicit instantiation definition somewhere in the program; otherwise the program is ill-formed, no diagnostic required. [Note: This rule does apply to inline functions even though an explicit instantiation declaration of such an entity has no other normative effect. This is needed to ensure that if the address of an inline function is taken in a translation unit in which the implementation chose to suppress the out-of-line body, another translation unit will supply the body. — end note] An explicit instantiation declaration shall not name a specialization of a template with internal linkage.

11 The usual access checking rules do not apply to names used to specify explicit instantiations. [Note: In particular, the template arguments and names used in the function declarator (including parameter types, return types and exception specifications) may be private types or objects which would normally not be accessible and the template may be a member template or member function which would not normally be accessible. — end note]

12 An explicit instantiation does not constitute a use of a default argument, so default argument instantiation is not done. [Example:

```cpp
char* p = 0;
template<class T> T g(T = &p);
template int g<int>(int);  // OK even though &p isn't an int.
```

— end example]

14.8.3 Explicit specialization

1 An explicit specialization of any of the following:

- non-deleted function template
- class template
- non-deleted member function of a class template
- static data member of a class template
- member class of a class template
- member class template of a class or class template
- non-deleted member function template of a class or class template

can be declared by a declaration introduced by `template<>`; that is:

```cpp
explicit-specialization:
  template <> declaration
```

[Example:

```cpp
template<class T> class stream;

template<> class stream<char> { /∗ ... */ };

template<class T> class Array { /∗ ... */ };
template<class T> void sort(Array<T>& v) { /∗ ... */ }

template<> void sort<char*>(Array<char*>&) ;
```

Given these declarations, `stream<char>` will be used as the definition of streams of chars; other streams will be handled by class template specializations instantiated from the class template. Similarly, `sort<char*>` will be used as the sort function for arguments of type `Array<char*>`; other `Array` types will be sorted by functions generated from the template. — end example]
2 An explicit specialization shall be declared in the nearest enclosing namespace of the template, or, if the
namespace is inline (7.3.1), any namespace from its enclosing namespace set. Such a declaration may also
be a definition. If the declaration is not a definition, the specialization may be defined later (7.3.1.2).

3 A declaration of a function template or class template being explicitly specialized shall be in scope at the
point of declaration of an explicit specialization. [Note: a declaration, but not a definition of the template is
required. — end note] The definition of a class or class template shall be in scope at the point of declaration
of an explicit specialization for a member template of the class or class template. [Example:

```c
template<> class X<int> { /* ... */ }; // error: X not a template

template<class T> class X;

template<> class X<char*> { /* ... */ }; // OK: X is a template
```

— end example]

4 A member function, a member class or a static data member of a class template may be explicitly specialized
for a class specialization that is implicitly instantiated; in this case, the definition of the class template shall
be in scope at the point of declaration of the explicit specialization for the member of the class template.
If such an explicit specialization for the member of a class template names an implicitly-declared special
member function (Clause 12), the program is ill-formed.

5 A member of an explicitly specialized class is not implicitly instantiated from the member declaration of
the class template; instead, the member of the class template specialization shall itself be explicitly defined.
In this case, the definition of the class template explicit specialization shall be in scope at the point of
declaration of the explicit specialization of the member. The definition of an explicitly specialized class is
unrelated to the definition of a generated specialization. That is, its members need not have the same names,
types, etc. as the members of a generated specialization. Definitions of members of an explicitly specialized
class are defined in the same manner as members of normal classes, and not using the syntax for explicit
specialization. [Example:

```c
template<class T> struct A {
    void f(T) { /* ... */ }
};

template<> struct A<int> {
    void f(int);
};

void h() {
    A<int> a;
    a.f(16); // A<int>::f must be defined somewhere
}
```

// explicit specialization syntax not used for a member of
// explicitly specialized class template specialization
void A<int>::f(int) { /* ... */ }

— end example]

6 If a template, a member template or the member of a class template is explicitly specialized then that
specialization shall be declared before the first use of that specialization that would cause an implicit instan-
tiation to take place, in every translation unit in which such a use occurs; no diagnostic is required. If the
program does not provide a definition for an explicit specialization and either the specialization is used in a
way that would cause an implicit instantiation to take place or the member is a virtual member function,
the program is ill-formed, no diagnostic required. An implicit instantiation is never generated for an explicit specialization that is declared but not defined. [Example:

```c
template<class T> class Array { /* ... */ };  
template<class T> void sort(Array<T>& v) { /* ... */ }

void f(Array<String>& v) {
    sort(v);  // use primary template
    // sort(Array<T>&), T is String
}

template<> void sort<String>(Array<String>& v);  // error: specialization
    // after use of primary template

template<> void sort<>(Array<char*>& v);  // OK: sort<char*> not yet used
```

— end example]

7 The placement of explicit specialization declarations for function templates, class templates, member functions of class templates, static data members of class templates, member classes of class templates, member class templates of class templates, member function templates of class templates, member functions of member templates of class templates, member functions of member templates of non-template classes, member function templates of member classes of class templates, etc., and the placement of partial specialization declarations of class templates, member class templates of non-template classes, member class templates of class templates, etc., can affect whether a program is well-formed according to the relative positioning of the explicit specialization declarations and their points of instantiation in the translation unit as specified above and below. When writing a specialization, be careful about its location; or to make it compile will be such a trial as to kindle its self-immolation.

8 When a specialization for which an explicit specialization exists is used within the instantiation of an exported template, and the unspecialized template name is non-dependent in the exported template, a declaration of the explicit specialization shall be declared before the definition of the exported template, in the translation unit containing that definition. [Example:

```c
// file #1
#include <vector>

// Primary class template vector
export template<class T> void f(t) {
    std::vector<T> vec;  // should match the specialization
    /* ... */
}

// file #2
#include <vector>

class B { };  // Explicit specialization of vector for vector<B>
namespace std {
    template<> class vector<B> { /* ... */ };
}

template<class T> void f(T);

void g(B b) {
    f(b);  // ill-formed:
    // f<B> should refer to vector<B>, but the specialization was not declared with the
    // definition of f in file #1
}
```

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A template explicit specialization is in the scope of the namespace in which the template was defined. [Example:

```cpp
define N {
    template<class T> class X {
        /* ... */
    }
    template<class T> class Y {
        /* ... */
    }

    template<> class X<int> {
        /* ... */
    } // OK: specialization
    // in same namespace
    template<> class Y<double>;
    // forward declare intent to
    // specialize for double
}

template<> class N::Y<double> {
    /* ... */
} // OK: specialization
    // in same namespace

-- end example --
```]

A simple-template-id that names a class template explicit specialization that has been declared but not defined can be used exactly like the names of other incompletely-defined classes (3.9). [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> class X;
    // X is a class template
template<> class X<int>;

X<int>* p; // OK: pointer to declared class X<int>
X<int> x; // error: object of incomplete class X<int>

-- end example --
```]

A trailing template-argument can be left unspecified in the template-id naming an explicit function template specialization provided it can be deduced from the function argument type. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> class Array {
    /* ... */
} // explicit specialization for sort(Array<int>&)
    // with deduced template-argument of type int

template<> void sort(Array<int>&);

-- end example --
```]

[Note: This paragraph is intentionally empty. -- end note--]

A function with the same name as a template and a type that exactly matches that of a template specialization is not an explicit specialization (14.6.6).

An explicit specialization of a function template is inline only if it is explicitly declared to be, and independently of whether its function template is. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> void f(T) {
    /* ... */
}

template<class T> inline T g(T) {
    /* ... */
}

template<> inline void f<(int)> {
    /* ... */
} // OK: inline

template<> int g<(int)> {
    /* ... */
} // OK: not inline

-- end example --
```]
An explicit specialization of a static data member of a template is a definition if the declaration includes an initializer; otherwise, it is a declaration. [Note: there is no syntax for the definition of a static data member of a template that requires default initialization. must use a brace-init-list:]

```cpp
template<> X Q<int>::x; // declaration
```

This is a declaration regardless of whether X can be default initialized (8.5). — end note]

A member or a member template of a class template may be explicitly specialized for a given implicit instantiation of the class template, even if the member or member template is defined in the class template definition. An explicit specialization of a member or member template is specified using the syntax for explicit specialization. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> struct A {
  void f(T);
  template<class X1> void g1(T, X1);
  template<class X2> void g2(T, X2);
  void h(T) {} // out of class member template definition
};
```

```cpp// specialization
template<> void A<int>::f(int);
```

```cpp// member template specialization
template<class T> template<class X1> void A<T>::g1(T, X1) {} // X1 deduced as char
```

```cpp// member specialization even if defined in class definition
template<> template<> void A<int>::g1(int, char); // X2 specified as char
```

— end example]
In an explicit specialization declaration for a member of a class template or a member template that appears in namespace scope, the member template and some of its enclosing class templates may remain unspecialized, except that the declaration shall not explicitly specialize a class member template if its enclosing class templates are not explicitly specialized as well. In such explicit specialization declaration, the keyword template followed by a template-parameter-list shall be provided instead of the template<> preceding the explicit specialization declaration of the member. The types of the template-parameters in the template-parameter-list shall be the same as those specified in the primary template definition. [Example:

```
template <class T1> class A {
template<class T2> class B {
  template<class T3> void mf1(T3);
  void mf2();
};
template <> template <class X>
class A<int>::B {
  template <class T> void mf1(T);
};
template <> template <> template<class T>
void A<int>::B<double>::mf1(T t) { }

template <class Y> template <>
void A<Y>::B<double>::mf2() { }  // ill-formed; B<double> is specialized but
// its enclosing class template A is not
```

— end example]

A specialization of a member function template or member class template of a non-specialized class template is itself a template.

An explicit specialization declaration shall not be a friend declaration.

Default function arguments shall not be specified in a declaration or a definition for one of the following explicit specializations:

— the explicit specialization of a function template;

— the explicit specialization of a member function template;

— the explicit specialization of a member function of a class template where the class template specialization to which the member function specialization belongs is implicitly instantiated. [Note: default function arguments may be specified in the declaration or definition of a member function of a class template specialization that is explicitly specialized. — end note]

### 14.9 Function template specializations

[tem.pct.spec]

A function instantiated from a function template is called a function template specialization; so is an explicit specialization of a function template. Template arguments can be explicitly specified when naming the function template specialization, deduced from the context (e.g., deduced from the function arguments in a call to the function template specialization, see 14.9.2), or obtained from default template arguments.

Each function template specialization instantiated from a template has its own copy of any static variable. [Example:

```
template<class T> void f(T* p) {
  static T s;
}
```

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void g(int a, char* b) {
    f(&a);    // calls f<int>(int*)
    f(&b);    // calls f<char*>(char**)
}

Here f<int>(int*) has a static variable s of type int and f<char*>(char**) has a static variable s of type char*. — end example

14.9.1 Explicit template argument specification

Template arguments can be specified when referring to a function template specialization by qualifying the function template name with the list of template-arguments in the same way as template-arguments are specified in uses of a class template specialization. [Example:

```c
template<class T> void sort(Array<T>& v);
void f(Array<dcomplex>& cv, Array<int>& ci) {
    sort<dcomplex>(cv);    // sort(Array<dcomplex>&)
    sort<int>(ci);         // sort(Array<int>&)
}
```

and

```c
template<class U, class V> U convert(V v);
```

```c
void g(double d) {
    int i = convert<int,double>(d);    // int convert(double)
    char c = convert<char,double>(d);  // char convert(double)
}
```

— end example]

2 A template argument list may be specified when referring to a specialization of a function template

— when a function is called,
— when the address of a function is taken, when a function initializes a reference to function, or when a pointer to member function is formed,
— in an explicit specialization,
— in an explicit instantiation, or
— in a friend declaration.

3 Trailing template arguments that can be deduced (14.9.2) or obtained from default template-arguments may be omitted from the list of explicit template-arguments. A trailing template parameter pack (14.6.3) not otherwise deduced will be deduced to an empty sequence of template arguments. If all of the template arguments can be deduced, they may all be omitted; in this case, the empty template argument list <> itself may also be omitted. In contexts where deduction is done and fails, or in contexts where deduction is not done, if a template argument list is specified and it, along with any default template arguments, identifies a single function template specialization, then the template-id is an lvalue for the function template specialization. [Example:

```c
template<class X, class Y> X f(Y);
template<class X, class Y, class ... Z> X g(Y);
void h() {
    int i = f<int>(5.6);    // Y is deduced to be double
    int j = f(5.6);         // ill-formed: X cannot be deduced
```
\begin{verbatim}
f<void>(f<int, bool>);  // Y for outer f deduced to be int (*)(bool)
f<void>(f<int>);        // ill-formed: f<int> does not denote a single function template specialization
int k = g<int>(5.6);   // Y is deduced to be double, Z is deduced to an empty sequence
f<void>(g<int, bool>);  // Y for outer f is deduced to be int (*)(bool), Z is deduced to an empty sequence
\end{verbatim}

— end example

4 [Note: An empty template argument list can be used to indicate that a given use refers to a specialization of a function template even when a normal (i.e., non-template) function is visible that would otherwise be used. For example:

\begin{verbatim}
template <class T> int f(T);  // #1
int f(int);                  // #2
int k = f(1);                // uses #2
int l = f<*>(1);              // uses #1
\end{verbatim}

— end note]

5 Template arguments that are present shall be specified in the declaration order of their corresponding template-parameters. The template argument list shall not specify more template-arguments than there are corresponding template-parameters unless one of the template-parameters is a template parameter pack. [Example:

\begin{verbatim}
template<class X, class Y, class Z> X f(Y,Z);
template<class ... Args> void f2();
void g() {
  f<int,char*,double>("aa",3.0);  // Z is deduced to be double
  f<int,char*>("aa",3.0);          // error: X cannot be deduced
  f<int,"aa",3.0>;                // error: X cannot be deduced
  f2<char, short, int, long>();   // OK
}
\end{verbatim}

— end example]

6 Implicit conversions (Clause 4) will be performed on a function argument to convert it to the type of the corresponding function parameter if the parameter type contains no template-parameters that participate in template argument deduction. [Note: template parameters do not participate in template argument deduction if they are explicitly specified. For example,

\begin{verbatim}
template<class T> void f(T);

class Complex {
  Complex(double);
};

void g() {
  f<Complex>(1);  // OK, means f<Complex>(Complex(1))
}
\end{verbatim}

— end note]

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[Note: because the explicit template argument list follows the function template name, and because conversion member function templates and constructor member function templates are called without using a function name, there is no way to provide an explicit template argument list for these function templates. — end note]

[Note: For simple function names, argument dependent lookup (3.4.2) applies even when the function name is not visible within the scope of the call. This is because the call still has the syntactic form of a function call (3.4.1). But when a function template with explicit template arguments is used, the call does not have the correct syntactic form unless there is a function template with that name visible at the point of the call. If no such name is visible, the call is not syntactically well-formed and argument-dependent lookup does not apply. If some such name is visible, argument dependent lookup applies and additional function templates may be found in other namespaces. [Example:

```cpp
namespace A {
    struct B { }
    template<int X> void f(B);
};
namespace C {
    template<class T> void f(T t);
};
void g(A::B b) {
    f<3>(b); // ill-formed: not a function call
    A::f<3>(b); // well-formed
    C::f<3>(b); // ill-formed; argument dependent lookup
               // applies only to unqualified names
    using C::f;
    f<3>(b);  // well-formed because C::f is visible; then
               // A::f is found by argument dependent lookup
}
```

— end example] — end note]

Template argument deduction can extend the sequence of template arguments corresponding to a template parameter pack, even when the sequence contains explicitly specified template arguments. [Example:

```cpp
template<class ... Types> void f(Types ... values);
void g() {
    f<int*, float*>(0, 0, 0); // Types is deduced to the sequence int*, float*, int
}
```

— end example]

### 14.9.2 Template argument deduction

[template.deduct]

When a function template specialization is referenced, all of the template arguments shall have values. The values can be explicitly specified or, in some cases, be deduced from the use or obtained from default template-arguments. [Example:

```cpp
void f(Array<dcomplex>& cv, Array<int>& ci) {
    sort(cv); // calls sort(Array<dcomplex>&)
    sort(ci); // calls sort(Array<int>&)
}
```

and

§ 14.9.2
void g(double d) {
    int i = convert<int>(d); // calls convert<int,double>(double)
    int c = convert<char>(d); // calls convert<char,double>(double)
}

— end example

2 When an explicit template argument list is specified, the template arguments must be compatible with the template parameter list and must result in a valid function type as described below; otherwise type deduction fails. Specifically, the following steps are performed when evaluating an explicitly specified template argument list with respect to a given function template:

— The specified template arguments must match the template parameters in kind (i.e., type, non-type, template). There must not be more arguments than there are parameters unless at least one parameter is a template parameter pack, and there shall be an argument for each non-pack parameter. Otherwise, type deduction fails.

— Non-type arguments must match the types of the corresponding non-type template parameters, or must be convertible to the types of the corresponding non-type parameters as specified in 14.4.2, otherwise type deduction fails.

— The specified template argument values are substituted for the corresponding template parameters as specified below.

3 After this substitution is performed, the function parameter type adjustments described in 8.3.5 are performed. [Example: A parameter type of “void ()(const int, int[5])” becomes “void(*)(int,int*)”. — end example] [Note: A top-level qualifier in a function parameter declaration does not affect the function type but still affects the type of the function parameter variable within the function. — end note] [Example:}

template <class T> void f(T t);
template <class X> void g(const X x);
template <class Z> void h(Z, Z*);

int main() {
    // #1: function type is f(int), t is non const
    f<int>(1);

    // #2: function type is f(int), t is const
    f<const int>(1);

    // #3: function type is g(int), x is const
    g<int>(1);

    // #4: function type is g(int), x is const
    g<const int>(1);

    // #5: function type is h(int, const int*)
    h<const int>(1,0);
}

— end example

4 [Note: f<int>(1) and f<const int>(1) call distinct functions even though both of the functions called have the same function type. — end note]
5 The resulting substituted and adjusted function type is used as the type of the function template for template argument deduction. If a template argument has not been deduced, its default template argument, if any, is used. [Example:

```cpp
template <class T, class U = double>
void f(T t = 0, U u = 0);

void g() {
    f(1, 'c');  // f<int,char>(1,'c')
    f(1);        // f<int,double>(1,0)
    f();         // error: T cannot be deduced
    f<int>();   // f<int,double>(0,0)
    f<int,char>();  // f<int,char>(0,0)
}
```

— end example]

When all template arguments have been deduced or obtained from default template arguments, all uses of template parameters in non-deduced contexts are replaced with the corresponding deduced or default argument values. If the substitution results in an invalid type, as described above, type deduction fails.

6 At certain points in the template argument deduction process it is necessary to take a function type that makes use of template parameters and replace those template parameters with the corresponding template arguments. This is done at the beginning of template argument deduction when any explicitly specified template arguments are substituted into the function type, and again at the end of template argument deduction when any template arguments that were deduced or obtained from default arguments are substituted.

7 The substitution occurs in all types and expressions that are used in the function type and in template parameter declarations. The expressions include not only constant expressions such as those that appear in array bounds or as nontype template arguments but also general expressions (i.e., non-constant expressions) inside `sizeof`, `decltype`, and other contexts that allow non-constant expressions. [Note: The equivalent substitution in exception specifications is done only when the function is instantiated, at which point a program is ill-formed if the substitution results in an invalid type or expression. — end note]

8 If a substitution results in an invalid type or expression, type deduction fails. An invalid type or expression is one that would be ill-formed if written using the substituted arguments. Access checking is not done as part of the substitution process. Consequently, when deduction succeeds, an access error could still result when the function is instantiated. Only invalid types and expressions in the immediate context of the function type and its template parameter types can result in a deduction failure. [Note: The evaluation of the substituted types and expressions can result in side effects such as the instantiation of class template specializations and/or function template specializations, the generation of implicitly-defined functions, etc. Such side effects are not in the “immediate context” and can result in the program being ill-formed. — end note]

[Example:

```cpp
struct X { };
struct Y {
    Y(X){}
};

template <class T> auto f(T t1, T t2) -> decltype(t1 + t2); // #1
X f(Y, Y);         // #2

X x1, x2;
X x3 = f(x1, x2);  // deduction fails on #1 (cannot add X+X), calls #2
```
Note: Type deduction may fail for the following reasons:

- Attempting to instantiate a pack expansion containing multiple parameter packs of differing lengths.
- Attempting to create an array with an element type that is `void`, a function type, a reference type, or an abstract class type, or attempting to create an array with a size that is zero or negative.  |
  ```cpp
template <class T> int f(T[5]);
int I = f<int>(0);
int j = f<void>(0); // invalid array
```
- Attempting to use a type that is not a class type in a qualified name.  |
  ```cpp
template <class T> int f(typename T::B*);
int i = f<int>(0);
```
- Attempting to use a type in a `nested-name-specifier` of a `qualified-id` when that type does not contain the specified member, or
  - the specified member is not a type where a type is required, or
  - the specified member is not a template where a template is required, or
  - the specified member is not a non-type where a non-type is required.
  ```cpp
template <class T> struct X { };
template <class T> class struct Z { };
template <class T> void f(typename T::Y*){}
template <class T> void g(X<T::N>*){}
template <class T> void h(Z<T::template TT>*){}
struct A { }; struct B { int Y; }; struct C { typedef int N; }; struct D { typedef int TT; }
int main() {
  // Deduction fails in each of these cases:
f<A>(0); // A does not contain a member Y
f<B>(0); // The Y member of B is not a type
g<C>(0); // The N member of C is not a non-type
h<D>(0); // The TT member of D is not a template
}
```
- Attempting to create a pointer to reference type.
- Attempting to create a reference to `void`. 

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— Attempting to create “pointer to member of T” when T is not a class type. [Example:

```cpp
template <class T> int f(int T::*);
int i = f<int>(0);
```
— end example]

— Attempting to give an invalid type to a non-type template parameter. [Example:

```cpp
template <class T, T> struct S {}; 
template <class T> int f(S<T, T()>*);
struct X {}; 
int i0 = f<X>(0);
```
— end example]

— Attempting to perform an invalid conversion in either a template argument expression, or an expression used in the function declaration. [Example:

```cpp
template <class T, T*> int f(int);
int i2 = f<int,1>(0); // can't conv 1 to int*
```
— end example]

— Attempting to create a function type in which a parameter has a type of `void`, or in which the return type is a function type or array type.

— Attempting to create a function type in which a parameter type or the return type is an abstract class type (10.4).

— end note]

Except as described above, the use of an invalid value shall not cause type deduction to fail. [Example:

In the following example 1000 is converted to `signed char` and results in an implementation-defined value as specified in (4.7). In other words, both templates are considered even though 1000, when converted to `signed char`, results in an implementation-defined value.

```cpp
template <int> int f(int);
template <signed char> int f(int);
int i1 = f<1>(0); // ambiguous
int i2 = f<1000>(0); // ambiguous
```
— end example]

### 14.9.2.1 Deducing template arguments from a function call

Template argument deduction is done by comparing each function template parameter type (call it $P$) with the type of the corresponding argument of the call (call it $A$) as described below. If removing references and cv-qualifiers from $P$ gives `std::initializer_list<P'>` for some $P'$ and the argument is an initializer list (8.5.4), then deduction is performed instead for each element of the initializer list, taking $P'$ as a function template parameter type and the initializer element as its argument. Otherwise, an initializer list argument causes the parameter to be considered a non-deduced context (14.9.2.5). [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> void f(std::initializer_list<T>);
f({1,2,3}); // T deduced to int
f({1,"asdf"}); // error: T deduced to both int and const char*
```

```cpp
template<class T> void g(T);
g({1,2,3}); // error: no argument deduced for T
```
For a function parameter pack, the type \( A \) of each remaining argument of the call is compared with the type \( P \) of the \textit{declarator-id} of the function parameter pack. Each comparison deduces template arguments for subsequent positions in the template parameter packs expanded by the function parameter pack. [Note: A function parameter pack can only occur at the end of a \textit{parameter-declaration-list} (8.3.5). — end note] [Example:

\begin{verbatim}
void h(int x, float& y) {
    const int z = x;
    f(x, y, z); // Types is deduced to int, float, const int
    g(x, y, z); // T1 is deduced to int; Types is deduced to float, int
}
\end{verbatim}

— end example]

2 If \( P \) is not a reference type:

- If \( A \) is an array type, the pointer type produced by the array-to-pointer standard conversion (4.2) is used in place of \( A \) for type deduction; otherwise,
- If \( A \) is a function type, the pointer type produced by the function-to-pointer standard conversion (4.3) is used in place of \( A \) for type deduction; otherwise,
- If \( A \) is a cv-qualified type, the top level cv-qualifiers of \( A \)'s type are ignored for type deduction.

3 If \( P \) is a cv-qualified type, the top level cv-qualifiers of \( P \)'s type are ignored for type deduction. If \( P \) is a reference type, the type referred to by \( P \) is used for type deduction. If \( P \) is of the form \( T\& \), where \( T \) is \textit{a template parameter}, an \textit{rvalue reference to a cv-unqualified template parameter} and the argument is an lvalue, the type \( A\& \) “\textit{rvalue reference to A}” is used in place of \( A \) for type deduction. [Example:

\begin{verbatim}
template <typename T> int f(T&); int i;
int j = f(i); // calls f<int&>(i)
template <typename T> int g(const T&); int k;
int n = g(k); // calls g<int>(k)
\end{verbatim}

— end example]

4 In general, the deduction process attempts to find template argument values that will make the deduced \( A \) identical to \( A \) (after the type \( A \) is transformed as described above). However, there are three cases that allow a difference:

- If the original \( P \) is a reference type, the deduced \( A \) (i.e., the type referred to by the reference) can be more cv-qualified than the transformed \( A \).
- The transformed \( A \) can be another pointer or pointer to member type that can be converted to the deduced \( A \) via a qualification conversion (4.4).
- If \( P \) is a class and \( P \) has the form \textit{simple-template-id}, then the transformed \( A \) can be a derived class of the deduced \( A \). Likewise, if \( P \) is a pointer to a class of the form \textit{simple-template-id}, the transformed \( A \) can be a pointer to a derived class pointed to by the deduced \( A \).

5 These alternatives are considered only if type deduction would otherwise fail. If they yield more than one possible deduced \( A \), the type deduction fails. [Note: if a \textit{template-parameter} is not used in any of the function parameters of a function template, or is used only in a non-deduced context, its corresponding

\section*{§ 14.9.2.1}
Template arguments cannot be deduced from a function call and the template argument must be explicitly specified. — end note]

6 When P is a function type, pointer to function type, or pointer to member function type:
   — If the argument is an overload set containing one or more function templates, the parameter is treated as a non-deduced context.
   — If the argument is an overload set (not containing function templates), trial argument deduction is attempted using each of the members of the set. If deduction succeeds for only one of the overload set members, that member is used as the argument value for the deduction. If deduction succeeds for more than one member of the overload set the parameter is treated as a non-deduced context.

7 [Example:
   // Only one function of an overload set matches the call so the function
   // parameter is a deduced context.
   template <class T> int f(T (*p)(T));
   int g(int);
   int g(char);
   int i = f(g); // calls f(int (*)(int))
   — end example]

8 [Example:
   // Ambiguous deduction causes the second function parameter to be a
   // non-deduced context.
   template <class T> int f(T, T (*p)(T));
   int g(int);
   char g(char);
   int i = f(1, g); // calls f(int, int (*)(int))
   — end example]

9 [Example:
   // The overload set contains a template, causing the second function
   // parameter to be a non-deduced context.
   template <class T> int f(T, T (*p)(T));
   char g(char);
   template <class T> T g(T);
   int i = f(1, g); // calls f(int, int (*)(int))
   — end example]

14.9.2.2 Deducing template arguments taking the address of a function template
   [temp.deduct.funcaddr]

1 Template arguments can be deduced from the type specified when taking the address of an overloaded function (13.4). The function template's function type and the specified type are used as the types of P and A, and the deduction is done as described in 14.9.2.5.

14.9.2.3 Deducing conversion function template arguments
   [temp.deduct.conv]

1 Template argument deduction is done by comparing the return type of the conversion function template (call it P) with the type that is required as the result of the conversion (call it A) as described in 14.9.2.5.
2 If A is not a reference type:
   — If P is an array type, the pointer type produced by the array-to-pointer standard conversion (4.2) is used in place of P for type deduction; otherwise,
   — If P is a function type, the pointer type produced by the function-to-pointer standard conversion (4.3) is used in place of P for type deduction; otherwise,
   — If P is a cv-qualified type, the top level cv-qualifiers of P’s type are ignored for type deduction.

3 If A is a cv-qualified type, the top level cv-qualifiers of A’s type are ignored for type deduction. If A is a reference type, the type referred to by A is used for type deduction. If P is a reference type, the type referred to by P is used for type deduction.

4 In general, the deduction process attempts to find template argument values that will make the deduced A identical to A. However, there are two cases that allow a difference:
   — If the original A is a reference type, A can be more cv-qualified than the deduced A (i.e., the type referred to by the reference)
   — The deduced A can be another pointer or pointer to member type that can be converted to A via a qualification conversion.

5 These alternatives are considered only if type deduction would otherwise fail. If they yield more than one possible deduced A, the type deduction fails.

6 When the deduction process requires a qualification conversion for a pointer or pointer to member type as described above, the following process is used to determine the deduced template argument values:

   If A is a type
   
   \[ cv_{1,0} \text{ "pointer to \ldots" } cv_{1,n-1} \text{ "pointer to" } cv_{1,n} T1 \]

   and P is a type
   
   \[ cv_{2,0} \text{ "pointer to \ldots" } cv_{2,n-1} \text{ "pointer to" } cv_{2,n} T2 \]

   The cv-unqualified T1 and T2 are used as the types of A and P respectively for type deduction. [Example:

   ```
   struct A {
   template <class T> operator T***();
   }
   A a;
   const int * const * const * p1 = a; // T is deduced as int, not const int
   ```
   — end example]

14.9.2.4 Deducing template arguments during partial ordering [temp.deduct.partial]

1 Template argument deduction is done by comparing certain types associated with the two function templates being compared.

2 Two sets of types are used to determine the partial ordering. For each of the templates involved there is the original function type and the transformed function type. [Note: the creation of the transformed type is described in 14.6.6.2. — end note] The deduction process uses the transformed type as the argument template and the original type of the other template as the parameter template. This process is done twice for each type involved in the partial ordering comparison: once using the transformed template-1 as the argument template and template-2 as the parameter template and again using the transformed template-2 as the argument template and template-1 as the parameter template.
The types used to determine the ordering depend on the context in which the partial ordering is done:

- In the context of a function call, the function parameter types are used.
- In the context of a call to a conversion operator, the return types of the conversion function templates are used.
- In other contexts (14.6.6.2) the function template’s function type is used.

Each type from the parameter template and the corresponding type from the argument template are used as the types of \( P \) and \( A \).

Before the partial ordering is done, certain transformations are performed on the types used for partial ordering:

- If \( P \) is a reference type, \( P \) is replaced by the type referred to.
- If \( A \) is a reference type, \( A \) is replaced by the type referred to.

If both \( P \) and \( A \) were reference types (before being replaced with the type referred to above), determine which of the two types (if any) is more cv-qualified than the other; otherwise the types are considered to be equally cv-qualified for partial ordering purposes. The result of this determination will be used below.

Remove any top-level cv-qualifiers:

- If \( P \) is a cv-qualified type, \( P \) is replaced by the cv-unqualified version of \( P \).
- If \( A \) is a cv-qualified type, \( A \) is replaced by the cv-unqualified version of \( A \).

Using the resulting types \( P \) and \( A \) the deduction is then done as described in 14.9.2.5. If deduction succeeds for a given type, the type from the argument template is considered to be at least as specialized as the type from the parameter template.

If, for a given type, deduction succeeds in both directions (i.e., the types are identical after the transformations above) and if the type from the argument template is more cv-qualified than the type from the parameter template (as described above) that type is considered to be more specialized than the other. If neither type is more cv-qualified than the other then neither type is more specialized than the other.

If for each type being considered a given template is at least as specialized for all types and more specialized for some set of types and the other template is not more specialized for any types or is not at least as specialized for any types, then the given template is more specialized than the other template. Otherwise, neither template is more specialized than the other.

In most cases, all template parameters must have values in order for deduction to succeed, but for partial ordering purposes a template parameter may remain without a value provided it is not used in the types being used for partial ordering. [Note: a template parameter used in a non-deduced context is considered used. — end note] [Example:

```cpp
template <class T> T f(int); // #1
template <class T, class U> T f(U); // #2
void g() {
    f<int>(1); // calls #1
}
```

— end example]

[Note: Partial ordering of function templates containing template parameter packs is independent of the number of deduced arguments for those template parameter packs. — end note] [Example:
template<class ... > struct Tuple { }

// #1
template<class ... Types> void g(Tuple<Types ...>);  

// #2
template<class T1, class ... Types> void g(Tuple<T1, Types ...>);  

// #3
template<class T1, class ... Types> void g(Tuple<T1, Types& ...>);  

g(Tuple<>());        // calls #1

...  

g(Tuple<int&>());    // calls #3

g(Tuple<int>());     // calls #3

— end example —

14.9.2.5 Deducing template arguments from a type [temp.deduct.type]

1 Template arguments can be deduced in several different contexts, but in each case a type that is specified in terms of template parameters (call it \( P \)) is compared with an actual type (call it \( A \)), and an attempt is made to find template argument values (a type for a type parameter, a value for a non-type parameter, or a template for a template parameter) that will make \( P \), after substitution of the deduced values (call it the deduced \( A \)), compatible with \( A \).

2 In some cases, the deduction is done using a single set of types \( P \) and \( A \), in other cases, there will be a set of corresponding types \( P \) and \( A \). Type deduction is done independently for each \( P/A \) pair, and the deduced template argument values are then combined. If type deduction cannot be done for any \( P/A \) pair, or if for any pair the deduction leads to more than one possible set of deduced values, or if different pairs yield different deduced values, or if any template argument remains neither deduced nor explicitly specified, template argument deduction fails.

3 A given type \( P \) can be composed from a number of other types, templates, and non-type values:
   — A function type includes the types of each of the function parameters and the return type.
   — A pointer to member type includes the type of the class object pointed to and the type of the member pointed to.
   — A type that is a specialization of a class template (e.g., \( A<int> \)) includes the types, templates, and non-type values referenced by the template argument list of the specialization.
   — An array type includes the array element type and the value of the array bound.

4 In most cases, the types, templates, and non-type values that are used to compose \( P \) participate in template argument deduction. That is, they may be used to determine the value of a template argument, and the value so determined must be consistent with the values determined elsewhere. In certain contexts, however, the value does not participate in type deduction, but instead uses the values of template arguments that were either deduced elsewhere or explicitly specified. If a template parameter is used only in non-deduced contexts and is not explicitly specified, template argument deduction fails.

5 The non-deduced contexts are:
   — The nested-name-specifier of a type that was specified using a qualified-id.
   — A non-type template specifier or an array bound in which a subexpression references a template parameter.
   — A template parameter used in the parameter type of a function parameter that has a default argument that is being used in the call for which argument deduction is being done.
A function parameter for which argument deduction cannot be done because the associated function argument is a function, or a set of overloaded functions (13.4), and one or more of the following apply:

— more than one function matches the function parameter type (resulting in an ambiguous deduction), or
— no function matches the function parameter type, or
— the set of functions supplied as an argument contains one or more function templates.

A function parameter for which the associated argument is an initializer list (8.5.4) but the parameter does not have std::initializer_list or reference to possibly cv-qualified std::initializer_list type. [Example:

```cpp
template<class T> void g(T);
g({1,2,3}); // error: no argument deduced for T
```
— end example]

When a type name is specified in a way that includes a non-deduced context, all of the types that comprise that type name are also non-deduced. However, a compound type can include both deduced and non-deduced types. [Example: If a type is specified as A<T>::B<T2>, both T and T2 are non-deduced. Likewise, if a type is specified as A<I+J>::X<T>, I, J, and T are non-deduced. If a type is specified as void f(typename A<T>::B, A<T>), the T in A<T>::B is non-deduced but the T in A<T> is deduced. — end example]

[Example: Here is an example in which different parameter/argument pairs produce inconsistent template argument deductions:

```cpp
template<class T> void f(T x, T y) { /* ... */ }
struct A { /* ... */ };  
struct B : A { /* ... */ };  
void g(A a, B b) {
    f(a,b); // error: T could be A or B
    f(b,a); // error: T could be A or B
    f(a,a); // OK: T is A
    f(b,b); // OK: T is B
}
```

Here is an example where two template arguments are deduced from a single function parameter/argument pair. This can lead to conflicts that cause type deduction to fail:

```cpp
template <class T, class U> void f( T (*)( T, U, U ) );
```

```cpp
int g1( int, float, float);
char g2( int, float, float);
int g3( int, char, float);

void r() {
    f(g1); // OK: T is int and U is float
    f(g2); // error: T could be char or int
    f(g3); // error: U could be char or float
}
```

Here is an example where a qualification conversion applies between the argument type on the function call and the deduced template argument type:

```cpp
template<class T> void f(const T*) { }
int *p;
```

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Here is an example where the template argument is used to instantiate a derived class type of the corresponding function parameter type:

```cpp
void s() {
    f(p);  // f(const int*)
}
```

A template type argument \( T \), a template template argument \( TT \) or a template non-type argument \( i \) can be deduced if \( P \) and \( A \) have one of the following forms:

- \( T \)
- \( cv\)-list \( T \)
- \( T^* \)
- \( T& \)
- \( T&& \)
- \( T[integer-constant] \)
- \( template-name<T> \) (where \( template-name \) refers to a class template)
- \( type(T) \)
- \( T() \)
- \( T(T) \)
- \( T type::* \)
- \( type(T::*) \)
- \( T (type::*())() \)
- \( type(T::*())() \)
- \( type(T::*)(T) \)
- \( T(T::*)(T) \)
- \( T (T::*())() \)
- \( T (T::*)(T) \)
- \( type[i] \)
- \( template-name<i> \) (where \( template-name \) refers to a class template)
- \( TT<T> \)
- \( TT<i> \)
- \( TT<> \)

Where \( (T) \) represents a \textit{parameter-type-list} where at least one parameter type contains a \( T \), and \( () \) represents a \textit{parameter-type-list} where no parameter type contains a \( T \). Similarly, \( <T> \) represents template argument lists where at least one argument contains a \( T \), \( <i> \) represents template argument lists where at least one argument contains an \( i \) and \( <> \) represents template argument lists where no argument contains a \( T \) or an \( i \).

If \( P \) has a form that contains \( <T> \) or \( <i> \), then each argument \( P_i \) of the respective template argument list \( P \) is compared with the corresponding argument \( A_i \) of the corresponding template argument list of \( A \).
the template argument list of \( P \) contains a pack expansion that is not the last template argument, the entire template argument list is a non-deduced context. If \( P_i \) is a pack expansion, then the pattern of \( P_i \) is compared with each remaining argument in the template argument list of \( A \). Each comparison deduces template arguments for subsequent positions in the template parameter packs expanded by \( P_i \).

Similarly, if \( P \) has a form that contains \((T)\), then each parameter type \( P_i \) of the respective parameter-type-list of \( P \) is compared with the corresponding parameter type \( A_i \) of the corresponding parameter-type-list of \( A \). If the parameter-declaration corresponding to \( P_i \) is a function parameter pack, then the type of its declarator-id is compared with each remaining parameter type in the parameter-type-list of \( A \). Each comparison deduces template arguments for subsequent positions in the template parameter packs expanded by the function parameter pack. \[ Note: A function parameter pack can only occur at the end of a parameter-declaration-list (8.3.5). \] — end note]

These forms can be used in the same way as \( T \) is for further composition of types. \[ Example: \]
\[
X<int> (*)(char[6])
\]
is of the form
\[
\text{template-name} <T> (*)(\text{type} [i])
\]
which is a variant of
\[
\text{type} (*)(T)
\]
where type is \( X<int> \) and \( T \) is \( char[6] \). — end example]

Template arguments cannot be deduced from function arguments involving constructs other than the ones specified above.

A template type argument cannot be deduced from the type of a non-type template-argument.

\[ Example:\]
\[
\text{template<class T, T i> void f(double a[10][i]);}
\]
\[
\text{int v[10][20];}
\]
\[
f(v); \quad \text{// error: argument for template-parameter T cannot be deduced}
\]
— end example]

\[ Note: except for reference and pointer types, a major array bound is not part of a function parameter type and cannot be deduced from an argument:\]
\[
\text{template<int i> void f1(int a[10][i]);}
\]
\[
\text{template<int i> void f2(int a[i][20]);}
\]
\[
\text{template<int i> void f3(int (&a)[i][20]);}
\]
\[
\text{void g() \{}
\]
\[
\text{int v[10][20];}
\]
\[
f1(v); \quad \text{// OK: i deduced to be 20}
\]
\[
f1<20>(v); \quad \text{// OK}
\]
\[
f2(v); \quad \text{// error: cannot deduce template-argument i}
\]
\[
f2<10>(v); \quad \text{// OK}
\]
\[
f3(v); \quad \text{// OK: i deduced to be 10}
\]
\[
\text{\}}
\]

If, in the declaration of a function template with a non-type template parameter, the non-type template parameter is used in a subexpression in the function parameter list, the expression is a non-deduced context as specified above. \[ Example: \]

\[ \text{§ 14.9.2.5} \]
template <int i> class A { /* ... */};
template <int i> void g(A<i+1>);
template <int i> void f(A<i>, A<i+1>);
void k() {
    A<1> a1;
    A<2> a2;
g(a1);      // error: deduction fails for expression i+1
    g<0>(a1);  // OK
    f(a1, a2);  // OK
}

— end example] — end note] [Note: template parameters do not participate in template argument deduction if they are used only in non-deduced contexts. For example,]

    template<int i, typename T>
    T deduce(typename A<T>::X x, T t, typename B<i>::Y y);
    // i is not deduced here

A<int> a;
B<77> b;

    int x = deduce<77>(a.xm, 62, b.ym);
    // T is deduced to be int, a.xm must be convertible to
    // A<int>::X
    // i is explicitly specified to be 77, b.ym must be convertible
    // to B<77>::Y

— end note]

17 If, in the declaration of a function template with a non-type template-parameter, the non-type template-parameter is used in an expression in the function parameter-list and, if the corresponding template-argument is deduced, the template-argument type shall match the type of the template-parameter exactly, except that a template-argument deduced from an array bound may be of any integral type.139 [Example:

    template<int i> class A { /* ... */};
template<short s> void f(A<s>);
void k1() {
    A<1> a;
f(a);       // error: deduction fails for conversion from int to short
    f<1>(a);   // OK
}

template<const short cs> class B { };
template<short s> void g(B<s>);
void k2() {
    B<1> b;
g(b);      // OK: cv-qualifiers are ignored on template parameter types
}

— end example]

18 A template-argument can be deduced from a function, pointer to function, or pointer to member function type.

139) Although the template-argument corresponding to a template-parameter of type bool may be deduced from an array bound, the resulting value will always be true because the array bound will be non-zero.
Example:

template<class T> void f(void(*)(T,int));
template<class T> void foo(T,int);
void g(int,int);
void g(char,int);

void h(int,int,int);
void h(char,int);

int m() {
    f(&g);     // error: ambiguous
    f(&h);     // OK: void h(char,int) is a unique match
    f(&foo);   // error: type deduction fails because foo is a template
}

— end example —

19 A template type-parameter cannot be deduced from the type of a function default argument. [ Example:

    template <class T> void f(T = 5, T = 7);
    void g() {
        f(1);    // OK: call f<int>(1,7)
        f();     // error: cannot deduce T
        f<int>(); // OK: call f<int>(5,7)
    }

— end example —

20 The template-argument corresponding to a template template-parameter is deduced from the type of the template-argument of a class template specialization used in the argument list of a function call. [ Example:

    template <template <class T> class X> struct A { };  
    template <template <class T> class X> void f(A<X>) { }
    template<class T> struct B { };  
    A<B> ab;  
    f(ab);     // calls f(A<B>)

— end example —

21 [ Note: Template argument deduction involving parameter packs (14.6.3) can deduce zero or more arguments for each parameter pack. — end note ] [ Example:

    template<class> struct X { };  
    template<class R, class ... ArgTypes> struct X<R(int, ArgTypes ...)> { };  
    template<class ... Types> struct Y { };  
    template<class T, class ... Types> struct Y<T, Types & ...> { };  

    template<class ... Types> int f(void (*)(Types ...));  
    void g(int, float);

    X<int> x1;                                  // uses primary template
    X<int(int, float, double)> x2;              // uses partial specialization; ArgTypes contains float, double
    X<int(float, int)> x3;                      // uses primary template
    Y<> y1;                                     // use primary template; Types is empty
    Y<int&, float&, double&> y2;                // uses partial specialization; T is int&, Types contains float, double
    Y<int, float, double> y3;                   // uses primary template; Types contains int, float, double
    int fv = f(g);                              // OK; Types contains int, float
If the original function parameter associated with `A` is a function parameter pack and the function parameter associated with `P` is not a function parameter pack, then template argument deduction fails. [Example:

```cpp
template<class ... Args> void f(Args ... args); // #1
template<class T1, class ... Args> void f(T1 a1, Args ... args); // #2
template<class T1, class T2> void f(T1 a1, T2 a2); // #3
```

`f();` // calls #1
`f(1, 2, 3);` // calls #2
`f(1, 2);` // calls #3; non-variadic template #3 is more
// specialized than the variadic templates #1 and #2

--- end example]}

14.9.3 Overload resolution [temp.over]

A function template can be overloaded either by (non-template) functions of its name or by (other) function templates of the same name. When a call to that name is written (explicitly, or implicitly using the operator notation), template argument deduction (14.9.2) and checking of any explicit template arguments (14.4) are performed for each function template to find the template argument values (if any) that can be used with that function template to instantiate a function template specialization that can be invoked with the call arguments. For each function template, if the argument deduction and checking succeeds, the template-arguments (deduced and/or explicit) are used to synthesize the declaration of a single function template specialization which is added to the candidate functions set to be used in overload resolution. If, for a given function template, argument deduction fails, no such function is added to the set of candidate functions for that template. The complete set of candidate functions includes all the synthesized declarations and all of the non-template overloaded functions of the same name. The synthesized declarations are treated like any other functions in the remainder of overload resolution, except as explicitly noted in 13.3.3.

[Example:

```cpp
template<class T> T max(T a, T b) { return a>b?a:b; }
```

```cpp
void f(int a, int b, char c, char d) {
  int m1 = max(a,b); // max(int a, int b)
  char m2 = max(c,d); // max(char a, char b)
  int m3 = max(a,c); // error: cannot generate max(int,char)
}
```

2 Adding the non-template function

```cpp
int max(int, int);
```

to the example above would resolve the third call, by providing a function that could be called for `max(a, c)` after using the standard conversion of `char` to `int` for `c`.

3 Here is an example involving conversions on a function argument involved in template-argument deduction:

--- end example]}

140) The parameters of function template specializations contain no template parameter types. The set of conversions allowed on deduced arguments is limited, because the argument deduction process produces function templates with parameters that either match the call arguments exactly or differ only in ways that can be bridged by the allowed limited conversions. Non-deduced arguments allow the full range of conversions. Note also that 13.3.3 specifies that a non-template function will be given preference over a template specialization if the two functions are otherwise equally good candidates for an overload match.

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template<class T> struct B { /* ... */ };
// #1

template<class T> struct D : public B<T> { /* ... */ };
// #1

void g(B<int>& bi, D<int>& di) {
    f(bi); // #1: f<const char*>(bi)
    f(di); // #2: f<const char*>(di)
}

template<class T> void f(T*, int); // #1

void h(int* pi, int i, char c) {
    f(pi, i); // #1: f<const char*>(pi, i)
    f(pi, c); // #2: f<const char*>(pi, c)
    f(i, c); // #2: f<const char*>(i, c)
    f(i, i); // #2: f<const char*>(i, char(i))
}

— end example —

Only the signature of a function template specialization is needed to enter the specialization in a set of candidate functions. Therefore only the function template declaration is needed to resolve a call for which a template specialization is a candidate. [Example:

template<class T> void f(T); // declaration

void g() {
    f("Annemarie"); // call of f<const char*>
}

The call of f is well-formed even if the template f is only declared and not defined at the point of the call. The program will be ill-formed unless a specialization for f<const char*>, either implicitly or explicitly generated, is present in some translation unit. — end example —
15 Exception handling

1 Exception handling provides a way of transferring control and information from a point in the execution of a program to an exception handler associated with a point previously passed by the execution. A handler will be invoked only by a throw-expression invoked in code executed in the handler’s try block or in functions called from the handler’s try block.

   try-block:
       try compound-statement handler-seq

   function-try-block:
       try ctor-initializer opt compound-statement handler-seq

   handler-seq:
       handler handler-seq opt

   handler:
       catch ( exception-declaration ) compound-statement

   exception-declaration:
       type-specifier-seq declarator
       type-specifier-seq abstract-declarator

   ...

   throw-expression:
       throw assignment-expression opt

2 A try-block is a statement (Clause 6). A throw-expression is of type void. Code that executes a throw-expression is said to “throw an exception;” code that subsequently gets control is called a “handler.” [Note: within this Clause “try block” is taken to mean both try-block and function-try-block. — end note]

3 A goto or switch statement shall not be used to transfer control into a try block or into a handler. [Example:

    void f() {
      goto 11;     // Ill-formed
      goto 12;     // Ill-formed
      try {
        goto 11;   // OK
        goto 12;   // Ill-formed
        11: ;
      } catch (...) {
        12: ;
        goto 11;   // Ill-formed
        goto 12;   // OK
      }
    }

   — end example] A goto, break, return, or continue statement can be used to transfer control out of a try block or handler. When this happens, each variable declared in the try block will be destroyed in the context that directly contains its declaration. [Example:

    lab: try {
      T1 t1;

   — end example]
try {
    T2 t2;
    if (condition)
        goto lab;
    } catch(...) { /* handler 2 */ }
} catch(...) { /* handler 1 */ }

Here, executing goto lab; will destroy first t2, then t1, assuming the condition does not declare a variable. Any exception raised while destroying t2 will result in executing handler 2; any exception raised while destroying t1 will result in executing handler 1. — end example]

A function-try-block associates a handler-seq with the ctor-initializer, if present, and the compound-statement. An exception thrown during the execution of the initializer expressions in the ctor-initializer or during the execution of the compound-statement transfers control to a handler in a function-try-block in the same way as an exception thrown during the execution of a try-block transfers control to other handlers. [Example:

```cpp
int f(int);
class C {
    int i;
    double d;
public:
    C(int, double);
};
C::C(int ii, double id)
try : i(f(ii)), d(id) {
    // constructor statements
}
catch (...) {
    // handles exceptions thrown from the ctor-initializer
    // and from the constructor statements
}
```

— end example]

15.1 Throwing an exception [except.throw]

1 Throwing an exception transfers control to a handler. An object is passed and the type of that object determines which handlers can catch it. [Example:

```cpp
throw "Help!";
```

can be caught by a handler of const char* type:

```cpp
try {
    // ...
}
catch(const char* p) {
    // handle character string exceptions here
}
```

and

```cpp
class Overflow {
public:
    Overflow(char,double,double);
};
```

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```c
void f(double x) {
    throw Overflow('+',x,3.45e107);
}
```
can be caught by a handler for exceptions of type `Overflow`

```c
try {
    f(1.2);
} catch(Overflow& oo) {
    // handle exceptions of type Overflow here
}
```

--- end example

2 When an exception is thrown, control is transferred to the nearest handler with a matching type (15.3); “nearest” means the handler for which the `compound-statement` or `ctor-initializer` following the `try` keyword was most recently entered by the thread of control and not yet exited.

3 A `throw-expression` initializes a temporary object, called the `exception object`, the type of which is determined by removing any top-level `cv-qualifiers` from the static type of the operand of `throw` and adjusting the type from “array of T” or “function returning T” to “pointer to T” or “pointer to function returning T”, respectively. [Note: the temporary object created for a `throw expression` that is a string literal is never of type `char*`, `char16_t*`, `char32_t*`, or `wchar_t*`; that is, the special conversions for string literals from the types “array of const char”, “array of const char16_t”, “array of const char32_t”, and “array of const wchar_t” to the types “pointer to char”, “pointer to char16_t”, “pointer to char32_t”, and “pointer to wchar_t”, respectively (4.2), are never applied to a `throw expression` — end note] The temporary is an lvalue and is used to initialize the variable named in the matching `handler` (15.3). If the type of the exception object would be an incomplete type or a pointer to an incomplete type other than (possibly cv-qualified) `void` the program is ill-formed. Except for these restrictions and the restrictions on type matching mentioned in 15.3, the operand of `throw` is treated exactly as a function argument in a call (5.2.2) or the operand of a return statement.

4 The memory for the temporary copy of the exception being thrown is allocated in an unspecified way, except as noted in 3.7.4.1. The temporary persists as long as there is a handler being executed for that exception. In particular, if a handler exits by executing a `throw;` statement, that passes control to another handler for the same exception, so the temporary remains. When the last remaining active handler for the exception exits by any means other than `throw;` the temporary object is destroyed and the implementation may deallocate the memory for the temporary object; any such deallocation is done in an unspecified way. The destruction occurs immediately after the destruction of the object declared in the `exception-declaration` in the handler.

5 When the thrown object is a class object, the copy constructor and the destructor shall be accessible, even if the copy operation is elided (12.8).

6 An exception is considered caught when a handler for that exception becomes active (15.3). [Note: an exception can have active handlers and still be considered uncaught if it is rethrown. — end note]

7 A `throw-expression` with no operand rethrows the currently handled exception (15.3). The exception is reactivated with the existing temporary; no new temporary exception object is created. The exception is no longer considered to be caught; therefore, the value of `std::uncaught_exception()` will again be `true`. [Example: code that must be executed because of an exception yet cannot completely handle the exception can be written like this:

```c
try {
    // ...
} catch (...) {
    // catch all exceptions
```

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8 If no exception is presently being handled, executing a *throw-expression* with no operand calls `std::terminate()` (15.5.1).

### 15.2 Constructors and destructors

1 As control passes from a *throw-expression* to a handler, destructors are invoked for all automatic objects constructed since the try block was entered. The automatic objects are destroyed in the reverse order of the completion of their construction.

2 An object that is partially constructed or partially destroyed will have destructors executed for all of its fully constructed base classes and non-variant members, that is, for subobjects for which the principal constructor (12.6.2) has completed execution and the destructor has not yet begun execution. Similarly, if the non-delegating constructor for an object has completed execution and a delegating constructor for that object exits with an exception, the object’s destructor will be invoked. If the object was allocated in a *new-expression*, the matching deallocation function (3.7.4.2, 5.3.4, 12.5), if any, is called to free the storage occupied by the object.

3 The process of calling destructors for automatic objects constructed on the path from a try block to a *throw-expression* is called “*stack unwinding.*” [Note: If a destructor called during stack unwinding exits with an exception, `std::terminate` is called (15.5.1). So destructors should generally catch exceptions and not let them propagate out of the destructor. — end note]

### 15.3 Handling an exception

1 The *exception-declaration* in a *handler* describes the type(s) of exceptions that can cause that *handler* to be entered. The *exception-declaration* shall not denote an incomplete type or an rvalue reference type. The *exception-declaration* shall not denote a pointer or reference to an incomplete type, other than `void*`, `const void*`, `volatile void*`, or `const volatile void*`.

2 A handler of type “array of `T`” or “function returning `T`” is adjusted to be of type “pointer to `T`” or “pointer to function returning `T`”, respectively.

3 A *handler* is a match for an exception object of type `E` if
   - The *handler* is of type `cv T` or `cv T&` and `E` and `T` are the same type (ignoring the top-level `cv-qualifiers`), or
   - the *handler* is of type `cv T` or `cv T&` and `T` is an unambiguous public base class of `E`, or
   - the *handler* is of type `cv1 T* cv2` and `E` is a pointer type that can be converted to the type of the *handler* by either or both of
     - a standard pointer conversion (4.10) not involving conversions to pointers to private or protected or ambiguous classes
     - a qualification conversion
   - the *handler* is a pointer or pointer to member type and `E` is `std::nullptr_t`.
   [Note: a *throw-expression* whose operand is an integral constant expression of integer type that evaluates to zero does not match a handler of pointer or pointer to member type. — end note]
Example:

```c
class Matherr { /* ... */ virtual void vf(); }
class Overflow: public Matherr { /* ... */);
class Underflow: public Matherr { /* ... */};
class Zerodivide: public Matherr { /* ... */};

void f() {
    try {
        g();
    } catch (Overflow oo) {
        // ...
    } catch (Matherr mm) {
        // ...
    }
}
```

Here, the Overflow handler will catch exceptions of type Overflow and the Matherr handler will catch exceptions of type Matherr and of all types publicly derived from Matherr including exceptions of type Underflow and Zerodivide. — end example]

4 The handlers for a try block are tried in order of appearance. That makes it possible to write handlers that can never be executed, for example by placing a handler for a derived class after a handler for a corresponding base class.

5 A ... in a handler’s exception-declaration functions similarly to ... in a function parameter declaration; it specifies a match for any exception. If present, a ... handler shall be the last handler for its try block.

6 If no match is found among the handlers for a try block, the search for a matching handler continues in a dynamically surrounding try block.

7 A handler is considered active when initialization is complete for the formal parameter (if any) of the catch Clause. [Note: the stack will have been unwound at that point. — end note] Also, an implicit handler is considered active when std::terminate() or std::unexpected() is entered due to a throw. A handler is no longer considered active when the catch Clause exits or when std::unexpected() exits after being entered due to a throw.

8 The exception with the most recently activated handler that is still active is called the currently handled exception.

9 If no matching handler is found, the function std::terminate() is called; whether or not the stack is unwound before this call to std::terminate() is implementation-defined (15.5.1).

10 Referring to any non-static member or base class of an object in the handler for a function-try-block of a constructor or destructor for that object results in undefined behavior.

11 The fully constructed base classes and members of an object shall be destroyed before entering the handler of a function-try-block of a constructor for that object. Similarly, if a delegating constructor for an object exits with an exception after the non-delegating constructor for that object has completed execution, the object’s destructor shall be executed before entering the handler of a function-try-block of a constructor for that object. The base classes and non-variant members of an object shall be destroyed before entering the handler of a function-try-block of a destructor for that object (12.4).

12 The scope and lifetime of the parameters of a function or constructor extend into the handlers of a function-try-block.

13 Exceptions thrown in destructors of objects with static storage duration or in constructors of namespace-scope objects with static storage duration are not caught by a function-try-block on main(). Exceptions

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thrown in destructors of objects with thread storage duration or in constructors of namespace-scope objects with thread storage duration are not caught by a function-try-block on the initial function of the thread.

14 If a return statement appears in a handler of the function-try-block of a constructor, the program is ill-formed.

15 The currently handled exception is rethrown if control reaches the end of a handler of the function-try-block of a constructor or destructor. Otherwise, a function returns when control reaches the end of a handler for the function-try-block (6.6.3). Flowing off the end of a function-try-block is equivalent to a return with no value; this results in undefined behavior in a value-returning function (6.6.3).

16 The object declared in an exception-declaration or, if the exception-declaration does not specify a name, a temporary (12.2) is copy-initialized (8.5) from the exception object. The object shall not have an abstract class type. The object is destroyed when the handler exits, after the destruction of any automatic objects initialized within the handler.

17 When the handler declares a non-constant object, any changes to that object will not affect the temporary object that was initialized by execution of the throw-expression. When the handler declares a reference to a non-constant object, any changes to the referenced object are changes to the temporary object initialized when the throw-expression was executed and will have effect should that object be rethrown.

15.4 Exception specifications 

1 A function declaration lists exceptions that its function might directly or indirectly throw by using an exception-specification as a suffix of its declarator.

```
exception-specification
    throw ( type-id-list_opt )
```

type-id-list:
    type-id ... opt
    type-id-list , type-id ... opt

2 An exception-specification shall appear only on a function declarator for a function type, pointer to function type, reference to function type, or pointer to member function type that is the top-level type of a declaration or definition, or on such a type appearing as a parameter or return type in a function declarator. An exception-specification shall not appear in a typedef declaration or alias-declaration. [ Example:

```
void f() throw(int); // OK
void (*fp)() throw (int); // OK
void g(void pfa() throw(int)); // OK
typedef int (*pf)() throw(int); // ill-formed
```

— end example ] A type denoted in an exception-specification shall not denote an incomplete type. A type denoted in an exception-specification shall not denote a pointer or reference to an incomplete type, other than void*, const void*, volatile void*, or const volatile void*.

3 If any declaration of a function has an exception-specification, all declarations, including the definition and an explicit specialization, of that function shall have an exception-specification with the same set of type-ids. If any declaration of a pointer to function, reference to function, or pointer to member function has an exception-specification, all occurrences of that declaration shall have an exception-specification with the same set of type-ids. In an explicit instantiation an exception-specification may be specified, but is not required. If an exception-specification is specified in an explicit instantiation directive, it shall have the same set of type-ids as other declarations of that function. A diagnostic is required only if the sets of type-ids are different within a single translation unit.
If a virtual function has an \textit{exception-specification}, all declarations, including the definition, of any function that overrides that virtual function in any derived class shall only allow exceptions that are allowed by the \textit{exception-specification} of the base class virtual function. \textit{Example:}

```cpp
struct B {
    virtual void f() throw (int, double);
    virtual void g();
};

struct D: B {
    void f();           // ill-formed
    void g() throw (int); // OK
};
```

The declaration of \texttt{D::f} is ill-formed because it allows all exceptions, whereas \texttt{B::f} allows only \texttt{int} and \texttt{double}. \textit{— end example} A similar restriction applies to assignment to and initialization of pointers to functions, pointers to member functions, and references to functions: the target entity shall allow at least the exceptions allowed by the source value in the assignment or initialization. \textit{Example:}

```cpp
class A { /*...*/};
void (*pf1)();        // no exception specification
void (*pf2)() throw(A);

void f() {
    pf1 = pf2;    // OK: \texttt{pf1} is less restrictive
    pf2 = pf1;    // error: \texttt{pf2} is more restrictive
}
```

\textit{— end example}]

In such an assignment or initialization, \textit{exception-specifications} on return types and parameter types shall match exactly. In other assignments or initializations, \textit{exception-specifications} shall match exactly.

An \textit{exception-specification} can include the same type more than once and can include classes that are related by inheritance, even though doing so is redundant. \textit{Note:} An \textit{exception-specification} can also include the class \texttt{std::bad_exception} (18.8.2.1). \textit{— end note}

A function is said to \textit{allow} an exception of type \texttt{E} if its \textit{exception-specification} contains a type \texttt{T} for which a handler of type \texttt{T} would be a match (15.3) for an exception of type \texttt{E}.

Whenever an exception is thrown and the search for a handler (15.3) encounters the outermost block of a function with an \textit{exception-specification}, the function \texttt{std::unexpected()} is called (15.5.2) if the \textit{exception-specification} does not allow the exception. \textit{Example:}

```cpp
class X { };
class Y { };
class Z: public X { };
class W { };

void f() throw (X, Y) {
    int n = 0;
    if (n) throw X();    // OK
    if (n) throw Z();    // also OK
    throw W();           // will call \texttt{std::unexpected()}
}
```

\textit{— end example}]

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The function `std::unexpected()` may throw an exception that will satisfy the `exception-specification` for which it was invoked, and in this case the search for another handler will continue at the call of the function with this `exception-specification` (see 15.5.2), or it may call `std::terminate()`.

An implementation shall not reject an expression merely because when executed it throws or might throw an exception that the containing function does not allow. [Example:

```cpp
tvoid f() throw(X, Y);

tvoid g() throw(X) {
    f(); // OK
}
```

the call to `f` is well-formed even though when called, `f` might throw exception `Y` that `g` does not allow. — end example]

A function with no `exception-specification` allows all exceptions. A function with an empty `exception-specification`, `throw()`, does not allow any exceptions.

An `exception-specification` is not considered part of a function’s type.

An implicitly declared special member function (Clause 12) shall have an `exception-specification`. If `f` is an implicitly declared default constructor, copy constructor, destructor, or copy assignment operator, its implicit `exception-specification` specifies the `type-id` `T` if and only if `T` is allowed by the `exception-specification` of a function directly invoked by `f`’s implicit definition; `f` shall allow all exceptions if any function it directly invokes allows all exceptions, and `f` shall allow no exceptions if every function it directly invokes allows no exceptions. [Example:

```cpp
struct A {
    A();
    A(const A&) throw();
    ~A() throw(X);
};
struct B {
    B() throw();
    B(const B&) throw();
    ~B() throw(Y);
};
struct D : public A, public B {
    // Implicit declaration of D::D();
    // Implicit declaration of D::D(const D&) throw();
    // Implicit declaration of D::~D() throw(X,Y);
};
```

Furthermore, if `A::~A()` or `B::~B()` were virtual, `D::~D()` would not be as restrictive as that of `A::~A`, and the program would be ill-formed since a function that overrides a virtual function from a base class shall have an `exception-specification` at least as restrictive as that in the base class. — end example]

In an `exception-specification`, a `type-id` followed by an ellipsis is a pack expansion (14.6.3).

### 15.5 Special functions

[except.special]

The functions `std::terminate()` (15.5.1) and `std::unexpected()` (15.5.2) are used by the exception handling mechanism for coping with errors related to the exception handling mechanism itself. The function...
\begin{quote}
\texttt{std::current\_exception()} (18.8.5) and the class \texttt{std::nested\_exception} (18.8.6) can be used by a program to capture the currently handled exception.
\end{quote}

\textbf{15.5.1 The \texttt{std::terminate()} function} \hfill \texttt{[except.terminate]}

In the following situations exception handling must be abandoned for less subtle error handling techniques:

\begin{itemize}
\item when the exception handling mechanism, after completing evaluation of the expression to be thrown but before the exception is caught (15.1), calls a function that exits via an uncaught exception,\footnote{\textsuperscript{141}}
\item when the exception handling mechanism cannot find a handler for a thrown exception (15.3), or
\item when the destruction of an object during stack unwinding (15.2) exits using an exception, or
\item when construction of a non-local object with static or thread storage duration exits using an exception (3.6.2), or
\item when destruction of an object with static or thread storage duration exits using an exception (3.6.3), or
\item when execution of a function registered with \texttt{std::atexit} exits using an exception (18.5), or
\item when a \textit{throw-expression} with no operand attempts to rethrow an exception and no exception is being handled (15.1), or
\item when \texttt{std::unexpected} throws an exception which is not allowed by the previously violated exception-specified, and \texttt{std::bad\_exception} is not included in that exception-specified (15.5.2), or
\item when the implementation’s default unexpected exception handler is called (18.8.2.2).
\end{itemize}

In such cases, \texttt{std::terminate()} is called (18.8.3). In the situation where no matching handler is found, it is implementation-defined whether or not the stack is unwound before \texttt{std::terminate()} is called. In all other situations, the stack shall not be unwound before \texttt{std::terminate()} is called. An implementation is not permitted to finish stack unwinding prematurely based on a determination that the unwind process will eventually cause a call to \texttt{std::terminate()}.

\textbf{15.5.2 The \texttt{std::unexpected()} function} \hfill \texttt{[except.unexpected]}

If a function with an exception-specification throws an exception that is not listed in the exception-specification, the function \texttt{std::unexpected()} is called (18.8.2) immediately after completing the stack unwinding for the former function.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textbf{[Note:} By default, \texttt{std::unexpected()} calls \texttt{std::terminate()}, but a program can install its own handler function (18.8.2.3). In either case, the constraints in the following paragraph apply. \textit{— end note}\textbf{]}
\item The \texttt{std::unexpected()} function shall not return, but it can throw (or re-throw) an exception. If it throws a new exception which is allowed by the exception specification which previously was violated, then the search for another handler will continue at the call of the function whose exception specification was violated. If it throws or rethrows an exception that the exception-specification does not allow then the following happens: If the exception-specification does not include the class \texttt{std::bad\_exception} (18.8.2.1) then the function \texttt{std::terminate()} is called, otherwise the thrown exception is replaced by an implementation-defined object of the type \texttt{std::bad\_exception} and the search for another handler will continue at the call of the function whose exception-specification was violated.
\end{itemize}

\footnote{\textsuperscript{141}} For example, if the object being thrown is of a class with a copy constructor, \texttt{std::terminate()} will be called if that copy constructor exits with an exception during a \textit{throw}. 

\textsuperscript{141}
Thus, an exception-specification guarantees that only the listed exceptions will be thrown. If the exception-specification includes the type std::bad_exception then any exception not on the list may be replaced by std::bad_exception within the function std::unexpected().

15.5.3 The std::uncaught_exception() function

The function std::uncaught_exception() returns true after completing evaluation of the object to be thrown until completing the initialization of the exception-declaration in the matching handler (18.8.4). This includes stack unwinding. If the exception is rethrown (15.1), std::uncaught_exception() returns true from the point of rethrow until the rethrown exception is caught again.
16 Preprocessing directives

A preprocessing directive consists of a sequence of preprocessing tokens that satisfies the following constraints: The first token in the sequence is a \# preprocessing token that (at the start of translation phase 4) is either the first character in the source file (optionally after white space containing no new-line characters) or that follows white space containing at least one new-line character. The last token in the sequence is the first new-line character that follows the first token in the sequence.\(^{142}\) A new-line character ends the preprocessing directive even if it occurs within what would otherwise be an invocation of a function-like macro.

```
preprocessing-file:
group\_opt

group:
group-part
group group-part

group-part:
if-section
control-line
text-line
# non-directive

if-section:
if-group elif-groups\_opt else-group\_opt endif-line

if-group:
# if constant-expression new-line group\_opt
# ifdef identifier new-line group\_opt
# ifndef identifier new-line group\_opt

elif-groups:
elif-group
elif-groups elif-group

elif-group:
# elif constant-expression new-line group\_opt

date-group:
# else new-line group\_opt

date-line:
# endif new-line
```

\(^{142}\) Thus, preprocessing directives are commonly called “lines.” These “lines” have no other syntactic significance, as all white space is equivalent except in certain situations during preprocessing (see the \# character string literal creation operator in 16.3.2, for example).
A text line shall not begin with a # preprocessing token. A non-directive shall not begin with any of the directive names appearing in the syntax.

When in a group that is skipped (16.1), the directive syntax is relaxed to allow any sequence of preprocessing tokens to occur between the directive name and the following new-line character.

The only white-space characters that shall appear between preprocessing tokens within a preprocessing directive (from just after the introducing # preprocessing token through just before the terminating new-line character) are space and horizontal-tab (including spaces that have replaced comments or possibly other white-space characters in translation phase 3).

The implementation can process and skip sections of source files conditionally, include other source files, and replace macros. These capabilities are called preprocessing, because conceptually they occur before translation of the resulting translation unit.

The preprocessing tokens within a preprocessing directive are not subject to macro expansion unless otherwise stated.

[Example: In:

```c
#define EMPTY
EMPTY  #  include <file.h>
```
the sequence of preprocessing tokens on the second line is not a preprocessing directive, because it does not begin with a # at the start of translation phase 4, even though it will do so after the macro EMPTY has been replaced. — end example]

16.1 Conditional inclusion [cpp.cond]

1 The expression that controls conditional inclusion shall be an integral constant expression except that it shall not contain a cast; identifiers (including those lexically identical to keywords) are interpreted as described below, and it may contain unary operator expressions of the form

\[\text{defined identifier}\]

or

\[\text{defined ( identifier )}\]

which evaluate to 1 if the identifier is currently defined as a macro name (that is, if it is predefined or if it has been the subject of a \texttt{#define} preprocessing directive without an intervening \texttt{#undef} directive with the same subject identifier), 0 if it is not.

2 Each preprocessing token that remains (in the list of preprocessing tokens that will become the controlling expression) after all macro replacements have occurred shall be in the lexical form of a token (2.7).

3 Preprocessing directives of the forms

\[\text{# if constant-expression new-line groupopt}\]

\[\text{# elif constant-expression new-line groupopt}\]

check whether the controlling constant expression evaluates to nonzero.

4 Prior to evaluation, macro invocations in the list of preprocessing tokens that will become the controlling constant expression are replaced (except for those macro names modified by the \texttt{defined} unary operator), just as in normal text. If the token \texttt{defined} is generated as a result of this replacement process or use of the \texttt{defined} unary operator does not match one of the two specified forms prior to macro replacement, the behavior is undefined. After all replacements due to macro expansion and the \texttt{defined} unary operator have been performed, all remaining identifiers and keywords except for \texttt{true} and \texttt{false}, are replaced with the pp-number 0, and then each preprocessing token is converted into a token. The resulting tokens comprise the controlling constant expression which is evaluated according to the rules of 5.19 using arithmetic that has at least the ranges specified in 18.3, except that: For the purposes of this token conversion and evaluation all signed and unsigned integer types act as if they have the same representation as, respectively, \texttt{intmax_t} or \texttt{uintmax_t} (18.4.2). This includes interpreting character literals, which may involve converting escape sequences into execution character set members. Whether the numeric value for these character literals matches the value obtained when an identical character literal occurs in an expression (other than within a \texttt{#if} or \texttt{#elif} directive) is implementation-defined. Also, whether a single-character character literal may have a negative value is implementation-defined. Each subexpression with type \texttt{bool} is subjected to integral promotion before processing continues.

\[\text{143) Because the controlling constant expression is evaluated during translation phase 4, all identifiers either are or are not macro names — there simply are no keywords, enumeration constants, etc.}\]

\[\text{144) An alternative token (2.6) is not an identifier, even when its spelling consists entirely of letters and underscores. Therefore it is not subject to this replacement.}\]

\[\text{145) Thus on an implementation where std::numeric_limits<int>::max() is 0x7FFFFFFF and std::numeric_limits<unsigned int>::max() is 0xFFFFFFFF, the integer literal 0x8000 is signed and positive within a #if expression even though it is unsigned in translation phase 7 (2.2).}\]

\[\text{146) Thus, the constant expression in the following #if directive and if statement is not guaranteed to evaluate to the same value in these two contexts.}\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{#if 'z' - 'a' == 25} \\
\text{if ('z' - 'a' == 25)}
\end{align*}
\]

§ 16.1
Preprocessing directives of the forms

```
#define identifier new-line group_opt
#define !identifier new-line group_opt
```

check whether the identifier is or is not currently defined as a macro name. Their conditions are equivalent to `#if defined identifier` and `#if !defined identifier` respectively.

Each directive’s condition is checked in order. If it evaluates to false (zero), the group that it controls is skipped: directives are processed only through the name that determines the directive in order to keep track of the level of nested conditionals; the rest of the directives’ preprocessing tokens are ignored, as are the other preprocessing tokens in the group. Only the first group whose control condition evaluates to true (nonzero) is processed. If none of the conditions evaluates to true, and there is a `#else` directive, the group controlled by the `#else` is processed; lacking a `#else` directive, all the groups until the `#endif` are skipped.

### 16.2 Source file inclusion

A `#include` directive shall identify a header or source file that can be processed by the implementation.

A preprocessing directive of the form

```
#include <h-char-sequence> new-line
```

searches a sequence of implementation-defined places for a header identified uniquely by the specified sequence between the `<` and `>` delimiters, and causes the replacement of that directive by the entire contents of the header. How the places are specified or the header identified is implementation-defined.

A preprocessing directive of the form

```
#include "q-char-sequence" new-line
```

causes the replacement of that directive by the entire contents of the source file identified by the specified sequence between the `"` delimiters. The named source file is searched for in an implementation-defined manner. If this search is not supported, or if the search fails, the directive is reprocessed as if it read

```
#include <h-char-sequence> new-line
```

with the identical contained sequence (including `>` characters, if any) from the original directive.

A preprocessing directive of the form

```
#include pp-tokens new-line
```

(that does not match one of the two previous forms) is permitted. The preprocessing tokens after `include` in the directive are processed just as in normal text (Each identifier currently defined as a macro name is replaced by its replacement list of preprocessing tokens.). If the directive resulting after all replacements does not match one of the two previous forms, the behavior is undefined. The method by which a sequence of preprocessing tokens between a `<` and a `>` preprocessing token pair or a pair of `"` characters is combined into a single header name preprocessing token is implementation-defined.

The implementation shall provide unique mappings for sequences consisting of one or more `nondigits` or `digits` (2.11) followed by a period (.) and a single `nondigit`. The first character shall not be a `digit`. The implementation may ignore distinctions of alphabetical case.

---

147) As indicated by the syntax, a preprocessing token shall not follow a `#else` or `#endif` directive before the terminating new-line character. However, comments may appear anywhere in a source file, including within a preprocessing directive.

148) Note that adjacent string literals are not concatenated into a single string literal (see the translation phases in 2.2); thus, an expansion that results in two string literals is an invalid directive.
A `#include` preprocessing directive may appear in a source file that has been read because of a `#include` directive in another file, up to an implementation-defined nesting limit.

[Note: Although an implementation may provide a mechanism for making arbitrary source files available to the `< >` search, in general programmers should use the `< >` form for headers provided with the implementation, and the " " form for sources outside the control of the implementation. For instance:

```c
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include "usefullib.h"
#include "myprog.h"
```
— end note]

Example: This illustrates macro-replaced `#include` directives:

```c
#if VERSION == 1
#define INCFILE "vers1.h"
#elif VERSION == 2
#define INCFILE "vers2.h"    // and so on
#else
#define INCFILE "versN.h"
#endif
#include INCFILE
```
— end example]

16.3 Macro replacement

Two replacement lists are identical if and only if the preprocessing tokens in both have the same number, ordering, spelling, and white-space separation, where all white-space separations are considered identical.

An identifier currently defined as an object-like macro may be redefined by another `#define` preprocessing directive provided that the second definition is an object-like macro definition and the two replacement lists are identical, otherwise the program is ill-formed. Likewise, an identifier currently defined as a function-like macro may be redefined by another `#define` preprocessing directive provided that the second definition is a function-like macro definition that has the same number and spelling of parameters, and the two replacement lists are identical, otherwise the program is ill-formed.

There shall be white-space between the identifier and the replacement list in the definition of an object-like macro.

If the identifier-list in the macro definition does not end with an ellipsis, the number of arguments (including those arguments consisting of no preprocessing tokens) in an invocation of a function-like macro shall equal the number of parameters in the macro definition. Otherwise, there shall be more arguments in the invocation than there are parameters in the macro definition (excluding the ...). There shall exist a ) preprocessing token that terminates the invocation.

The identifier `__VA_ARGS__` shall occur only in the replacement-list of a function-like macro that uses the ellipsis notation in the parameters.

A parameter identifier in a function-like macro shall be uniquely declared within its scope.

The identifier immediately following the `define` is called the `macro name`. There is one name space for macro names. Any white-space characters preceding or following the replacement list of preprocessing tokens are not considered part of the replacement list for either form of macro.

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If a # preprocessing token, followed by an identifier, occurs lexically at the point at which a preprocessing directive could begin, the identifier is not subject to macro replacement.

A preprocessing directive of the form

```
# define identifier replacement-list new-line
```

defines an object-like macro that causes each subsequent instance of the macro name\(^{149}\) to be replaced by the replacement list of preprocessing tokens that constitute the remainder of the directive.\(^{150}\) The replacement list is then rescanned for more macro names as specified below.

A preprocessing directive of the form

```
# define identifier lparen identifier-list opt ) replacement-list new-line
# define identifier lparen ... ) replacement-list new-line
# define identifier lparen identifier-list , ... ) replacement-list new-line
```

defines a function-like macro with parameters, whose use is similar syntactically to a function call. The parameters are specified by the optional list of identifiers, whose scope extends from their declaration in the identifier list until the new-line character that terminates the #define preprocessing directive. Each subsequent instance of the function-like macro name followed by a ( as the next preprocessing token introduces the sequence of preprocessing tokens that is replaced by the replacement list in the definition (an invocation of the macro). The replaced sequence of preprocessing tokens is terminated by the matching ) preprocessing token, skipping intervening matched pairs of left and right parenthesis preprocessing tokens. Within the sequence of preprocessing tokens making up an invocation of a function-like macro, new-line is considered a normal white-space character.

The sequence of preprocessing tokens bounded by the outside-most matching parentheses forms the list of arguments for the function-like macro. The individual arguments within the list are separated by comma preprocessing tokens, but comma preprocessing tokens between matching inner parentheses do not separate arguments. If there are sequences of preprocessing tokens within the list of arguments that would otherwise act as preprocessing directives,\(^{151}\) the behavior is undefined.

If there is a ... in the identifier-list in the macro definition, then the trailing arguments, including any separating comma preprocessing tokens, are merged to form a single item: the variable arguments. The number of arguments so combined is such that, following merger, the number of arguments is one more than the number of parameters in the macro definition (excluding the ...).

### 16.3.1 Argument substitution \[cpp.subst\]

After the arguments for the invocation of a function-like macro have been identified, argument substitution takes place. A parameter in the replacement list, unless preceded by a # or ## preprocessing token or followed by a ## preprocessing token (see below), is replaced by the corresponding argument after all macros contained therein have been expanded. Before being substituted, each argument’s preprocessing tokens are completely macro replaced as if they formed the rest of the preprocessing file; no other preprocessing tokens are available.

\(^{149}\) Since, by macro-replacement time, all character literals and string literals are preprocessing tokens, not sequences possibly containing identifier-like subsequences (see 2.2, translation phases), they are never scanned for macro names or parameters.

\(^{150}\) An alternative token (2.6) is not an identifier, even when its spelling consists entirely of letters and underscores. Therefore it is not possible to define a macro whose name is the same as that of an alternative token.

\(^{151}\) Despite the name, a non-directive is a preprocessing directive.
An identifier _ _ VA_ARGS _ _ that occurs in the replacement list shall be treated as if it were a parameter, and the variable arguments shall form the preprocessing tokens used to replace it.

16.3.2 The # operator

1 Each # preprocessing token in the replacement list for a function-like macro shall be followed by a parameter as the next preprocessing token in the replacement list.

2 A character string literal is a string-literal with no prefix. If, in the replacement list, a parameter is immediately preceded by a # preprocessing token, both are replaced by a single character string literal preprocessing token that contains the spelling of the preprocessing token sequence for the corresponding argument. Each occurrence of white space between the argument’s preprocessing tokens becomes a single space character in the character string literal. White space before the first preprocessing token and after the last preprocessing token comprising the argument is deleted. Otherwise, the original spelling of each preprocessing token in the argument is retained in the character string literal, except for special handling for producing the spelling of string literals and character literals: a \ character is inserted before each " and \ character of a character literal or string literal (including the delimiting " characters). If the replacement that results is not a valid character string literal, the behavior is undefined. The character string literal corresponding to an empty argument is ". The order of evaluation of # and ## operators is unspecified.

16.3.3 The ## operator

1 A ## preprocessing token shall not occur at the beginning or at the end of a replacement list for either form of macro definition.

2 If, in the replacement list of a function-like macro, a parameter is immediately preceded or followed by a ## preprocessing token, the parameter is replaced by the corresponding argument’s preprocessing token sequence; however, if an argument consists of no preprocessing tokens, the parameter is replaced by a placemarker preprocessing token instead.

3 For both object-like and function-like macro invocations, before the replacement list is reexamined for more macro names to replace, each instance of a ## preprocessing token in the replacement list (not from an argument) is deleted and the preceding preprocessing token is concatenated with the following preprocessing token. Placemarker preprocessing tokens are handled specially: concatenation of two placemarkers results in a single placemarker preprocessing token, and concatenation of a placemarker with a non-placemarker preprocessing token results in the non-placemarker preprocessing token. If the result is not a valid preprocessing token, the behavior is undefined. The resulting token is available for further macro replacement. The order of evaluation of ## operators is unspecified.

[Example: In the following fragment:

```
#define hash_hash # ## #
#define mkstr(a) # a
#define in_between(a) mkstr(a)
#define join(c, d) in_between(c hash_hash d)
char p[] = join(x, y); // equivalent to
   // char p[] = "x ## y";
```

The expansion produces, at various stages:

```
join(x, y)
in_between(x hash_hash y)
in_between(x ## y)
```

152) Placemarker preprocessing tokens do not appear in the syntax because they are temporary entities that exist only within translation phase 4.
In other words, expanding `hash_hash` produces a new token, consisting of two adjacent sharp signs, but this new token is not the `##` operator. — end example]

### 16.3.4 Rescanning and further replacement

After all parameters in the replacement list have been substituted and `#` and `##` processing has taken place, all placemaker preprocessing tokens are removed. Then the resulting preprocessing token sequence is rescanned, along with all subsequent preprocessing tokens of the source file, for more macro names to replace.

If the name of the macro being replaced is found during this scan of the replacement list (not including the rest of the source file's preprocessing tokens), it is not replaced. Furthermore, if any nested replacements encounter the name of the macro being replaced, it is not replaced. These nonreplaced macro name preprocessing tokens are no longer available for further replacement even if they are later (re)examined in contexts in which that macro name preprocessing token would otherwise have been replaced.

The resulting completely macro-replaced preprocessing token sequence is not processed as a preprocessing directive even if it resembles one, but all pragma unary operator expressions within it are then processed as specified in 16.9 below.

### 16.3.5 Scope of macro definitions

A macro definition lasts (independent of block structure) until a corresponding `#undef` directive is encountered or (if none is encountered) until the end of the translation unit. Macro definitions have no significance after translation phase 4.

A preprocessing directive of the form

```
# undef identifier new-line
```

causes the specified identifier no longer to be defined as a macro name. It is ignored if the specified identifier is not currently defined as a macro name.

[Note: The simplest use of this facility is to define a “manifest constant,” as in]

```
#define TABSIZE 100
int table[TABSIZE];
```

The following defines a function-like macro whose value is the maximum of its arguments. It has the advantages of working for any compatible types of the arguments and of generating in-line code without the overhead of function calling. It has the disadvantages of evaluating one or the other of its arguments a second time (including side effects) and generating more code than a function if invoked several times. It also cannot have its address taken, as it has none.

```
#define max(a, b) ((a) > (b) ? (a) : (b))
```

The parentheses ensure that the arguments and the resulting expression are bound properly.

To illustrate the rules for redefinition and reexamination, the sequence

```
#define x 3
#define f(a) f(x * (a))
#undef x
#define x 2
#define g f
```
# define z z[0]
# define h g(~
# define m(a) a(w)
# define w 0,1
# define t(a) a
# define p() int
# define q(x) x
# define r(x,y) x ## y
# define str(x) # x

f(y+1) + f(f(z)) % t(t(g)(0) + t)(1);
g(x+(3,4)-w) | h 5) & m
(f)^m(m);
p() i[q()] = { q(1), r(2,3), r(4,), r(,5), r(,) }
char c[2][6] = { str(hello), str() }

results in
f(2 *(y+1)) + f(2 * (f(2 * (z[0]))))) % f(2 * (0)) + t(1);
f(2 * (2+(3,4)-0,1)) | f(2 * (~5)) & f(2 * (0,1))"m(0,1);
int i[] = { 1, 23, 4, 5, };
char c[2][6] = { "hello", "" }

To illustrate the rules for creating character string literals and concatenating tokens, the sequence

#define str(s) # s
#define xstr(s) str(s)
#define debug(s, t) printf("x" # s "= %d, x" # t "= %s", \
x ## s, x ## t)
#define INCFILE(n) vers ## n
#define glue(a, b) a ## b
#define xglue(a, b) glue(a, b)
#define HIGHLOW "hello"
#define LOW LOW", world"

debug(1, 2);
fputs(str(strncmp("abc\0d", "abc", '\4') == 0) str(: @
", s);
#include xstr(INCFILE(2).h)
glue(HIGH, LOW);
xglue(HIGH, LOW)

results in
printf("x" "1" " = %d, x" "2" " = %s", x1, x2);
fputs("strncmp("abc\0d", "abc", '\4') == 0" " : @\n", s);
#include "vers2.h" (after macro replacement, before file access)
"hello";
"hello", "world"

or, after concatenation of the character string literals,

printf("x1= %d, x2= %s", x1, x2);
fputs("strncmp("abc\0d", "abc", '\4') == 0: @\n", s);
#include "vers2.h" (after macro replacement, before file access)
"hello";
"hello, world"

§ 16.3.5
Space around the \# and \## tokens in the macro definition is optional.

To illustrate the rules for placemarker preprocessing tokens, the sequence

```c
#define t(x,y,z) x ## y ## z
int j[] = { t(1,2,3), t(4,5), t(6,7,8),
           t(9,10), t(11,12), t(13,14) };
```

results in

```c
int j[] = { 123, 45, 67, 89,
           10, 11, 12, };
```

To demonstrate the redefinition rules, the following sequence is valid.

```c
#define OBJ_LIKE (1-1)
#define OBJ_LIKE /* white space */ (1-1) /* other */
#define FUNC_LIKE(a) ( a )
#define FUNC_LIKE( a )( /* note the white space */
                   a /* other stuff on this line */
                   )
```

But the following redefinitions are invalid:

```c
#define OBJ_LIKE (0)    // different token sequence
#define OBJ_LIKE (1 - 1) // different white space
#define FUNC_LIKE(b) ( a ) // different parameter usage
#define FUNC_LIKE(b) ( b ) // different parameter spelling
```

Finally, to show the variable argument list macro facilities:

```c
#define debug(...) fprintf(stderr, _ _VA_ARGS_
#define showlist(...) puts(#_ _VA_ARGS_
#define report(test, ...) ((test) ? puts(#test) : printf(_ _VA_ARGS_

ddebug("Flag");
ddebug("X = %d\n", x);
dshowlist(The first, second, and third items.);
dreport(x>y, "x is %d but y is %d", x, y);
```

results in

```c
fprintf(stderr, "Flag");
fprintf(stderr, "X = %d\n", x);
puts( "The first, second, and third items." );
((x>y) ? puts("x>y") : printf("x is %d but y is %d", x, y));
```

--- end note ---

### 16.4 Line control

1. The string literal of a \#line directive, if present, shall be a character string literal.
2. The line number of the current source line is one greater than the number of new-line characters read or introduced in translation phase 1 (2.2) while processing the source file to the current token.
3. A preprocessing directive of the form

   `# line digit-sequence new-line`
causes the implementation to behave as if the following sequence of source lines begins with a source line that has a line number as specified by the digit sequence (interpreted as a decimal integer). If the digit sequence specifies zero or a number greater than 2147483647, the behavior is undefined.

4 A preprocessing directive of the form

```plaintext
# line digit-sequence " s-char-sequence_opt " new-line
```

sets the presumed line number similarly and changes the presumed name of the source file to be the contents of the character string literal.

5 A preprocessing directive of the form

```plaintext
# line pp-tokens new-line
```

(that does not match one of the two previous forms) is permitted. The preprocessing tokens after `line` on the directive are processed just as in normal text (each identifier currently defined as a macro name is replaced by its replacement list of preprocessing tokens). If the directive resulting after all replacements does not match one of the two previous forms, the behavior is undefined; otherwise, the result is processed as appropriate.

16.5 Error directive

[cpp.error]

1 A preprocessing directive of the form

```plaintext
# error pp-tokens_opt new-line
```

causes the implementation to produce a diagnostic message that includes the specified sequence of preprocessing tokens, and renders the program ill-formed.

16.6 Pragma directive

[cpp.pragma]

1 A preprocessing directive of the form

```plaintext
# pragma pp-tokens_opt new-line
```

causes the implementation to behave in an implementation-defined manner. The behavior might cause translation to fail or cause the translator or the resulting program to behave in a non-conforming manner. Any pragma that is not recognized by the implementation is ignored.

16.7 Null directive

[cpp.null]

1 A preprocessing directive of the form

```plaintext
# new-line
```

has no effect.

16.8 Predefined macro names

[cpp.predefined]

1 The following macro names shall be defined by the implementation:

```plaintext
__cplusplus
```

The name `__cplusplus` is defined to the value `[tbd]` when compiling a C++ translation unit.\(^{153}\)

```plaintext
__DATE__
```

The date of translation of the source file: a character string literal of the form "Mmm dd yyyy", where

\(^{153}\) It is intended that future versions of this standard will replace the value of this macro with a greater value. Non-conforming compilers should use a value with at most five decimal digits.
the names of the months are the same as those generated by the `asctime` function, and the first character of `dd` is a space character if the value is less than 10. If the date of translation is not available, an implementation-defined valid date shall be supplied.

`__FILE__`

The presumed name of the current source file (a character string literal).

`__LINE__`

The presumed line number (within the current source file) of the current source line (an integer constant).

`__STDC_HOSTED__`

The integer constant 1 if the implementation is a hosted implementation or the integer constant 0 if it is not.

`__TIME__`

The time of translation of the source file: a character string literal of the form "hh:mm:ss" as in the time generated by the `asctime` function. If the time of translation is not available, an implementation-defined valid time shall be supplied.

2 The following macro names are conditionally defined by the implementation:

`__STDC__`

Whether `__STDC__` is predefined and if so, what its value is, are implementation-defined.

`__STDC_MB_MIGHT_NEQ_WC__`

The integer constant 1, intended to indicate that, in the encoding for `wchar_t`, a member of the basic character set need not have a code value equal to its value when used as the lone character in an ordinary character literal.

`__STDC_VERSION__`

Whether `__STDC_VERSION__` is predefined and if so, what its value is, are implementation-defined.

`__STDC_ISO_10646__`

An integer constant of the form `yyyymm`L (for example, `199712L`). If this symbol is defined, then every character in the Unicode required set, when stored in an object of type `wchar_t`, has the same value as the short identifier of that character. The Unicode required set consists of all the characters that are defined by ISO/IEC 10646, along with all amendments and technical corrigenda as of the specified year and month.

3 The values of the predefined macros (except for `__FILE__`) and `__LINE__`) remain constant throughout the translation unit.

4 If any of the pre-defined macro names in this subclause, or the identifier `defined`, is the subject of a `#define` or a `#undef` preprocessing directive, the behavior is undefined. Any other predefined macro names shall begin with a leading underscore followed by an uppercase letter or a second underscore.

### 16.9 Pragma operator

A unary operator expression of the form:

```
Pragma ( string-literal )
```

is processed as follows: The string literal is `destringized` by deleting the L prefix, if present, deleting the leading and trailing double-quotes, replacing each escape sequence `\"` by a double-quote, and replacing `154)` The presumed source file name and line number can be changed by the `#line` directive.
each escape sequence `\` by a single backslash. The resulting sequence of characters is processed through translation phase 3 to produce preprocessing tokens that are executed as if they were the *pp-tokens* in a pragma directive. The original four preprocessing tokens in the unary operator expression are removed.

[Example:

```c
#pragma listing on "..\listing.dir"
```

can also be expressed as:

```c
__Pragma ( listing on "\"..\"\listing.dir\"")
```

The latter form is processed in the same way whether it appears literally as shown, or results from macro replacement, as in:

```c
#define LISTING(x) PRAGMA(listing on #x)
#define PRAGMA(x) __Pragma(#x)

LISTING( ..\listing.dir )
```

— end example]
17 Library introduction [library]

17.1 General [library.general]

1 This Clause describes the contents of the C++ standard library, how a well-formed C++ program makes use of the library, and how a conforming implementation may provide the entities in the library.

2 The following subclauses describe the definitions (17.3), method of description (17.5), and organization (17.6.1) of the library. Clause 17.6, Clauses 18 through 30, and Annex D specify the contents of the library, as well as library requirements and constraints on both well-formed C++ programs and conforming implementations.

3 Detailed specifications for each of the components in the library are in Clauses 18–30, as shown in Table 12.

Table 12 — Library categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Language support library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Diagnostics library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>General utilities library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Strings library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Localization library</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Containers library</td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Iterators library</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Algorithms library</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>Numerics library</td>
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<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Input/output library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Regular expressions library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Atomic operations library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Thread support library</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 The language support library (Clause 18) provides components that are required by certain parts of the C++ language, such as memory allocation (5.3.4, 5.3.5) and exception processing (Clause 15).

5 The diagnostics library (Clause 19) provides a consistent framework for reporting errors in a C++ program, including predefined exception classes.

6 The general utilities library (Clause 20) includes components used by other library elements, such as a predefined storage allocator for dynamic storage management (3.7.4).

7 The strings library (Clause 21) provides support for manipulating text represented as sequences of type `char`, sequences of type `char16_t`, sequences of type `char32_t`, sequences of type `wchar_t`, and sequences of any other character-like type.

8 The localization library (Clause 22) provides extended internationalization support for text processing.

9 The containers (Clause 23), iterators (Clause 24), and algorithms (25) libraries provide a C++ program with access to a subset of the most widely used algorithms and data structures.

10 The numerics library (Clause 26) provides numeric algorithms and complex number components that extend support for numeric processing. The `valarray` component provides support for n-at-a-time processing,
potentially implemented as parallel operations on platforms that support such processing. The random number component provides facilities for generating pseudo-random numbers.

11 The input/output library (Clause 27) provides the `iostream` components that are the primary mechanism for C++ program input and output. They can be used with other elements of the library, particularly strings, locales, and iterators.

12 The regular expressions library (Clause 28) provides regular expression matching and searching.

13 The atomic operations library (Clause 29) allows more fine-grained concurrent access to shared data than is possible with locks.

14 The thread support library (Clause 30) provides components to create and manage threads, including mutual exclusion and interthread communication.

### 17.2 The C standard library [library.c]

1 The C++ standard library also makes available the facilities of the C99 standard library, suitably adjusted to ensure static type safety.

2 The descriptions of many library functions rely on the Standard C99 Library for the signatures and semantics of those functions. In all such cases, any use of the `restrict` qualifier shall be omitted.

### 17.3 Definitions [definitions]

#### 17.3.1 arbitrary-positional stream [defs.arbitrary.stream]

a stream (described in Clause 27) that can seek to any integral position within the length of the stream. Every arbitrary-positional stream is also a repositionable stream.

#### 17.3.2 blocked thread [defs.blocked]

a thread that is waiting for some condition (other than the availability of a processor) to be satisfied before it can continue execution. As a verb, to block is to place a thread in the blocked state, and to unblock is to place a thread in the unblocked state.

#### 17.3.3 character [defs.character]

in Clauses 21, 22, 27, and 28, means any object which, when treated sequentially, can represent text. The term does not only mean `char`, `char16_t`, `char32_t`, and `wchar_t` objects, but any value that can be represented by a type that provides the definitions specified in these Clauses.

#### 17.3.4 character container type [defs.character.container]

a class or a type used to represent a `character`. It is used for one of the template parameters of the string, iostream, and regular expression class templates. A character container type shall be a POD (3.9) type.

#### 17.3.5 comparison

155) This definition is taken from POSIX.
comparison function
an operator function (13.5) for any of the equality (5.10) or relational (5.9) operators.

17.3.6
component
a group of library entities directly related as members, parameters, or return types. For example, the class template basic_string and the non-member function templates that operate on strings are referred to as the string component.

17.3.7
deadlock
two or more threads are unable to continue execution because each is blocked waiting for one or more of the others to satisfy some condition.

17.3.8
default behavior
a description of replacement function and handler function semantics. Any specific behavior provided by the implementation, within the scope of the required behavior.

17.3.9
handler function
a non-reserved function whose definition may be provided by a C++ program. A C++ program may designate a handler function at various points in its execution, by supplying a pointer to the function when calling any of the library functions that install handler functions (Clause 18).

17.3.10
iostream class templates
templates, defined in Clause 27, that take two template arguments: charT and traits. The argument charT is a character container class, and the argument traits is a class which defines additional characteristics and functions of the character type represented by charT necessary to implement the iostream class templates.

17.3.11
modifier function
a class member function (9.3), other than constructors, assignment, or destructor, that alters the state of an object of the class.

17.3.12
move assignment
use of a move assignment operator.

17.3.13
move assignment operator
an assignment operator which accepts only an rvalue argument of the type being assigned to and might modify the argument as a side effect during the assignment.
17.3.14 move constructor
a constructor which accepts only an rvalue argument of the type being constructed and might modify the argument as a side effect during construction.

17.3.15 object state
the current value of all non-static class members of an object (9.2). The state of an object can be obtained by using one or more observer functions.

17.3.16 NTCTS
a sequence of values that have character type, that precede the terminating null character type value \( \text{charT}() \).

17.3.17 observer function
a class member function (9.3) that accesses the state of an object of the class, but does not alter that state. Observer functions are specified as \( \text{const} \) member functions (9.3.2).

17.3.18 replacement function
a non-reserved function whose definition is provided by a C++ program. Only one definition for such a function is in effect for the duration of the program’s execution, as the result of creating the program (2.2) and resolving the definitions of all translation units (3.5).

17.3.19 repositional stream
a stream (described in Clause 27) that can seek to a position that was previously encountered.

17.3.20 required behavior
a description of replacement function and handler function semantics, applicable to both the behavior provided by the implementation and the behavior that shall be provided by any function definition in the program. If a function defined in a C++ program fails to meet the required behavior when it executes, the behavior is undefined.

17.3.21 reserved function
a function, specified as part of the C++ standard library, that must be defined by the implementation. If a C++ program provides a definition for any reserved function, the results are undefined.

17.3.22 stable algorithm
an algorithm that preserves, as appropriate to the particular algorithm, the order of elements.

— For the sort algorithms the relative order of equivalent elements is preserved.
— For the `remove` algorithms the relative order of the elements that are not removed is preserved.
— For the `merge` algorithms, for equivalent elements in the original two ranges, the elements from the first range precede the elements from the second range.

17.3.23  
_traits class

a class that encapsulates a set of types and functions necessary for class templates and function templates to manipulate objects of types for which they are instantiated. Traits classes defined in Clauses 21, 22 and 27 are `character traits`, which provide the character handling support needed by the string and iostream classes.

17.4  Additional definitions

1.3 defines additional terms used elsewhere in this International Standard.

17.5  Method of description (Informative)

This subclause describes the conventions used to specify the C++ standard library. 17.5.1 describes the structure of the normative Clauses 18 through 30 and Annex D. 17.5.2 describes other editorial conventions.

17.5.1  Structure of each clause

17.5.1.1  Elements

Each library clause contains the following elements, as applicable: 156
— Summary
— Requirements
— Detailed specifications
— References to the Standard C library

17.5.1.2  Summary

The Summary provides a synopsis of the category, and introduces the first-level subclauses. Each subclause also provides a summary, listing the headers specified in the subclause and the library entities provided in each header.

1 Paragraphs labelled “Note(s):” or “Example(s):” are informative, other paragraphs are normative.
2 The contents of the summary and the detailed specifications include:
— macros
— values
— types
— classes and class templates
— functions and function templates
— objects

156) To save space, items that do not apply to a Clause are omitted. For example, if a Clause does not specify any requirements, there will be no “Requirements” subclause.
17.5.1.3 Requirements

Requirements describe constraints that shall be met by a C++ program that extends the standard library. Such extensions are generally one of the following:

- Template arguments
- Derived classes
- Containers, iterators, and algorithms that meet an interface convention

The string and iostream components use an explicit representation of operations required of template arguments. They use a class template `char_traits` to define these constraints.

Interface convention requirements are stated as generally as possible. Instead of stating “class X has to define a member function `operator++()`,” the interface requires “for any object `x` of class `X`, `++x` is defined.” That is, whether the operator is a member is unspecified.

Requirements are stated in terms of well-defined expressions that define valid terms of the types that satisfy the requirements. For every set of well-defined expression requirements there is a table that specifies an initial set of the valid expressions and their semantics. Any generic algorithm (Clause 25) that uses the well-defined expression requirements is described in terms of the valid expressions for its formal type parameters.

Template argument requirements are sometimes referenced by name. See 17.5.2.1.

In some cases the semantic requirements are presented as C++ code. Such code is intended as a specification of equivalence of a construct to another construct, not necessarily as the way the construct must be implemented.  

17.5.1.4 Detailed Specifications

The detailed specifications each contain the following elements:

- name and brief description
- synopsis (class definition or function prototype, as appropriate)
- restrictions on template arguments, if any
- description of class invariants
- description of function semantics

Descriptions of class member functions follow the order (as appropriate):  

- constructor(s) and destructor
- copying & assignment functions
- comparison functions
- modifier functions
- observer functions
- operators and other non-member functions

---

157) Although in some cases the code given is unambiguously the optimum implementation.
158) To save space, items that do not apply to a class are omitted. For example, if a class does not specify any comparison functions, there will be no “Comparison functions” subclause.
Descriptions of function semantics contain the following elements (as appropriate):\(^{159}\)

- **Requires**: the preconditions for calling the function
- **Effects**: the actions performed by the function
- **Synchronization**: the synchronization operations (1.10) applicable to the function
- **Postconditions**: the observable results established by the function
- **Returns**: a description of the value(s) returned by the function
- **Throws**: any exceptions thrown by the function, and the conditions that would cause the exception
- **Complexity**: the time and/or space complexity of the function
- **Remarks**: additional semantic constraints on the function
- **Error conditions**: the error conditions for error codes reported by the function.
- **Notes**: non-normative comments about the function

Whenever the **Effects**: element specifies that the semantics of some function \(F\) are *Equivalent to* some code sequence, then the various elements are interpreted as follows. If \(F\)’s semantics specifies a **Requires**: element, then that requirement is logically imposed prior to the *equivalent-to* semantics. Next, the semantics of the code sequence are determined by the **Requires**, **Effects**, **Postconditions**, **Returns**, **Throws**, **Complexity**, **Remarks**, **Error conditions**, and **Notes** specified for the function invocations contained in the code sequence. The value returned from \(F\) is specified by \(F\)’s **Returns**: element, or if \(F\) has no **Returns**: element, a non-void return from \(F\) is specified by the **Returns**: elements in the code sequence. If \(F\)’s semantics contains a **Throws**, **Postconditions**, or **Complexity**: element, then that supersedes any occurrences of that element in the code sequence.

For non-reserved replacement and handler functions, Clause 18 specifies two behaviors for the functions in question: their required and default behavior. The default behavior describes a function definition provided by the implementation. The required behavior describes the semantics of a function definition provided by either the implementation or a C++ program. Where no distinction is explicitly made in the description, the behavior described is the required behavior.

If the formulation of a complexity requirement calls for a negative number of operations, the actual requirement is zero operations.\(^{160}\)

Complexity requirements specified in the library clauses are upper bounds, and implementations that provide better complexity guarantees satisfy the requirements.

Error conditions specify conditions where a function may fail. The conditions are listed, together with a suitable explanation, as the **enum class errc** constants (19.5) that could be used as an argument to function **make_error_condition** (19.5.3.5).

### 17.5.1.5 C Library

Paragraphs labelled “SEE ALSO:” contain cross-references to the relevant portions of this International Standard and the ISO C standard, which is incorporated into this International Standard by reference.

### 17.5.2 Other conventions

This subclause describes several editorial conventions used to describe the contents of the C++ standard

---

159) To save space, items that do not apply to a function are omitted. For example, if a function does not specify any further preconditions, there will be no “Requires” paragraph.

160) This simplifies the presentation of complexity requirements in some cases.
library. These conventions are for describing implementation-defined types (17.5.2.1), and member functions (17.5.2.2).

17.5.2.1 Type descriptions

17.5.2.1.1 General

The Requirements subclauses may describe names that are used to specify constraints on template arguments. These names are used in library Clauses to describe the types that may be supplied as arguments by a C++ program when instantiating template components from the library.

17.5.2.1.2 Enumerated types

Several types defined in Clause 27 are enumerated types. Each enumerated type may be implemented as an enumeration or as a synonym for an enumeration.

The enumerated type enumerated can be written:

```c
enum enumerated { V0, V1, V2, V3, ..... };
```

```
static const enumerated C0 (V0);
static const enumerated C1 (V1);
static const enumerated C2 (V2);
static const enumerated C3 (V3);
......
```

Here, the names C0, C1, etc. represent enumerated elements for this particular enumerated type. All such elements have distinct values.

17.5.2.1.3 Bitmask types

Several types defined in Clauses 18 through 30 and Annex D are bitmask types. Each bitmask type can be implemented as an enumerated type that overloads certain operators, as an integer type, or as a bitset (20.3.7).

The bitmask type bitmask can be written:

```c
enum bitmask {
    V0 = 1 << 0, V1 = 1 << 1, V2 = 1 << 2, V3 = 1 << 3, ...
};
```

```
static const bitmask C0 (V0);
static const bitmask C1 (V1);
static const bitmask C2 (V2);
static const bitmask C3 (V3);
......
```

// For exposition only.
// int_type is an integral type capable of
// representing all values of bitmask
bitmask operator& (bitmask X, bitmask Y) {

161) Examples from 20.2 include: EqualityComparable, LessThanComparable, CopyConstructable, etc. Examples from 24.2 include: InputIterator, ForwardIterator, Function, Predicate, etc.
162) Such as an integer type, with constant integer values (3.9.1).
return static_cast<bitmask>(
    static_cast<int_type>(X) &
    static_cast<int_type>(Y));
}

bitmask operator| (bitmask X, bitmask Y) {
    return static_cast<bitmask>(
        static_cast<int_type>(X) |
        static_cast<int_type>(Y));
}

bitmask operator~ (bitmask X, bitmask Y) {
    return static_cast<bitmask>(
        static_cast<int_type>(X) ~
        static_cast<int_type>(Y));
}

bitmask operator^ (bitmask X, bitmask Y) {
    return static_cast<bitmask>(
        static_cast<int_type>(X) ^
        static_cast<int_type>(Y));
}

bitmask operator& (bitmask X, bitmask Y) {
    X = X & Y; return X;
}

bitmask & operator|= (bitmask & X, bitmask Y) {
    X = X | Y; return X;
}

bitmask & operator^= (bitmask & X, bitmask Y) {
    X = X ^ Y; return X;
}

3 Here, the names $C_0$, $C_1$, etc. represent bitmask elements for this particular bitmask type. All such elements have distinct values such that, for any pair $C_i$ and $C_j$, $C_i \& C_j$ is nonzero and $C_i \& C_j$ is zero.

4 The following terms apply to objects and values of bitmask types:
   — To set a value $Y$ in an object $X$ is to evaluate the expression $X |\= Y$.
   — To clear a value $Y$ in an object $X$ is to evaluate the expression $X &\= \sim Y$.
   — The value $Y$ is set in the object $X$ if the expression $X \& Y$ is nonzero.

17.5.2.1.4 Character sequences

1 The C standard library makes widespread use of characters and character sequences that follow a few uniform conventions:
   — A letter is any of the 26 lowercase or 26 uppercase letters in the basic execution character set.\(^{163}\)
   — The decimal-point character is the (single-byte) character used by functions that convert between a (single-byte) character sequence and a value of one of the floating-point types. It is used in the character sequence to denote the beginning of a fractional part. It is represented in Clauses 18 through 30 and Annex D by a period, ‘.’, which is also its value in the "C" locale, but may change during program execution by a call to setlocale(int, const char*),\(^{164}\) or by a change to a locale object, as described in Clauses 22.3 and 27.
   — A character sequence is an array object (8.3.4) $A$ that can be declared as $T\ A[N]$, where $T$ is any of the types char, unsigned char, or signed char (3.9.1), optionally qualified by any combination of

\(^{163}\) Note that this definition differs from the definition in ISO C 7.1.1.
\(^{164}\) declared in <locale> (22.6).
const or volatile. The initial elements of the array have defined contents up to and including an element determined by some predicate. A character sequence can be designated by a pointer value $S$ that points to its first element.

17.5.2.1.4.1 Byte strings

A null-terminated byte string, or NTBS, is a character sequence whose highest-addressed element with defined content has the value zero (the terminating null character); no other element in the sequence has the value zero.\(^\text{165}\)

- The length of an NTBS is the number of elements that precede the terminating null character. An empty NTBS has a length of zero.
- The value of an NTBS is the sequence of values of the elements up to and including the terminating null character.
- A static NTBS is an NTBS with static storage duration.\(^\text{166}\)

17.5.2.1.4.2 Multibyte strings

A null-terminated multibyte string, or NTMBS, is an NTBS that constitutes a sequence of valid multibyte characters, beginning and ending in the initial shift state.\(^\text{167}\)

- A static NTMBS is an NTMBS with static storage duration.

17.5.2.1.4.3 char16_t sequences

A char16-character sequence is an array object (8.3.4) $A$ that can be declared as $T \ A[N]$, where $T$ is type char16_t (3.9.1), optionally qualified by any combination of const or volatile. The initial elements of the array have defined contents up to and including an element determined by some predicate. A char16-character sequence can be designated by a pointer value $S$ that designates its first element.

- A null-terminated char16-character string, or NTC16s, is a char16-character sequence whose highest-addressed element with defined content has the value zero.\(^\text{168}\)
- The length of an NTC16s is the number of elements that precede the terminating null char16_t character. An empty NTC16s has a length of zero.
- The value of an NTC16s is the sequence of values of the elements up to and including the terminating null character.
- A static NTC16s is an NTC16s with static storage duration.\(^\text{169}\)

17.5.2.1.4.4 char32_t sequences

A char32-character sequence is an array object (8.3.4) $A$ that can be declared as $T \ A[N]$, where $T$ is type char32_t (3.9.1), optionally qualified by any combination of const or volatile. The initial elements of the array have defined contents up to and including an element determined by some predicate. A char32-character sequence can be designated by a pointer value $S$ that designates its first element.

\(^{165}\) Many of the objects manipulated by function signatures declared in <cstring> (21.6) are character sequences or NTBSs. The size of some of these character sequences is limited by a length value, maintained separately from the character sequence.\(^{166}\) A string literal, such as "abc", is a static NTBS.\(^{167}\) An NTBS that contains characters only from the basic execution character set is also an NTMBS. Each multibyte character then consists of a single byte.\(^{168}\) Many of the objects manipulated by function signatures declared in <cuchar> are char16-character sequences or NTC16s.\(^{169}\) A char16_t string literal, such as u"abc", is a static NTC16s.

§ 17.5.2.1.4
A null-terminated char32-character string, or NTC32s, is a char32-character sequence whose highest-addressed element with defined content has the value zero.\textsuperscript{170}

The length of an NTC32s is the number of elements that precede the terminating null char32_t character. An empty NTC32s has a length of zero.

The value of an NTC32s is the sequence of values of the elements up to and including the terminating null character.

A static NTC32s is an NTC32s with static storage duration.\textsuperscript{171}

17.5.2.1.4.5 Wide-character sequences

A wide-character sequence is an array object (8.3.4) \texttt{A} that can be declared as \texttt{T A[N]}, where \texttt{T} is type \texttt{wchar_t} (3.9.1), optionally qualified by any combination of \texttt{const} or \texttt{volatile}. The initial elements of the array have defined contents up to and including an element determined by some predicate. A wide-character sequence can be designated by a pointer value \texttt{S} that designates its first element.

A null-terminated wide-character string, or NTWCS, is a wide-character sequence whose highest-addressed element with defined content has the value zero.\textsuperscript{172}

The length of an NTWCS is the number of elements that precede the terminating null wide character. An empty NTWCS has a length of zero.

The value of an NTWCS is the sequence of values of the elements up to and including the terminating null character.

A static NTWCS is an NTWCS with static storage duration.\textsuperscript{173}

17.5.2.2 Functions within classes

For the sake of exposition, Clauses 18 through 30 and Annex D do not describe copy constructors, assignment operators, or (non-virtual) destructors with the same apparent semantics as those that can be generated by default (12.1, 12.4, 12.8).

It is unspecified whether the implementation provides explicit definitions for such member function signatures, or for virtual destructors that can be generated by default.

17.5.2.3 Private members

Clauses 18 through 30 and Annex D do not specify the representation of classes, and intentionally omit specification of class members (9.2). An implementation may define static or non-static class members, or both, as needed to implement the semantics of the member functions specified in Clauses 18 through 30 and Annex D.

Objects of certain classes are sometimes required by the external specifications of their classes to store data, apparently in member objects. For the sake of exposition, some subclauses provide representative declarations, and semantic requirements, for private member objects of classes that meet the external specifications of the classes. The declarations for such member objects and the definitions of related member types are followed by a comment that ends with \textit{exposition only}, as in:

\begin{verbatim}
streambuf* sb; // exposition only
\end{verbatim}

\textsuperscript{170} Many of the objects manipulated by function signatures declared in \texttt{<cuchar>} are char32-character sequences or NTC32s.

\textsuperscript{171} A char32_t string literal, such as \texttt{U"abc"}, is a static NTC32s.

\textsuperscript{172} Many of the objects manipulated by function signatures declared in \texttt{<cwchar>} are wide-character sequences or NTWCSs.

\textsuperscript{173} A wide string literal, such as \texttt{L"abc"} is a static NTWCS.
An implementation may use any technique that provides equivalent external behavior.

### 17.6 Library-wide requirements

This subclause specifies requirements that apply to the entire C++ standard library. Clauses 18 through 30 and Annex D specify the requirements of individual entities within the library.

Requirements specified in terms of interactions between threads do not apply to programs having only a single thread of execution.

Within this subclause, 17.6.1 describes the library’s contents and organization, 17.6.2 describes how well-formed C++ programs gain access to library entities, 17.6.3 describes constraints on well-formed C++ programs, and 17.6.4 describes constraints on conforming implementations.

#### 17.6.1 Library contents and organization

1. **17.6.1.1** describes the entities defined in the C++ standard library. 17.6.1.2 lists the standard library headers and some constraints on those headers. 17.6.1.3 lists requirements for a freestanding implementation of the C++ standard library.

1. **17.6.1.1 Library contents**

   The C++ standard library provides definitions for the following types of entities: macros, values, types, templates, classes, functions, objects.

   All library entities except macros, `operator new` and `operator delete` are defined within the namespace `std` or namespaces nested within namespace `std`. It is unspecified whether names declared in a specific namespace are declared directly in that namespace or in an inline namespace inside that namespace.\(^{174}\)

   Whenever a name `x` defined in the standard library is mentioned, the name `x` is assumed to be fully qualified as `::std::x`, unless explicitly described otherwise. For example, if the Effects section for library function `F` is described as calling library function `G`, the function `::std::G` is meant.

2. **17.6.1.2 Headers**

   Each element of the C++ standard library is declared or defined (as appropriate) in a *header*.\(^{175}\)

   The C++ standard library provides 52 *C++ library headers*, as shown in Table 13.

| `<algorithm>` | `<fstream>` | `<list>` | `<regex>` | `<typeindex>` |
| `<array>` | `<functional>` | `<locale>` | `<set>` | `<typeinfo>` |
| `<atomic>` | `<future>` | `<map>` | `<sstream>` | `<type_traits>` |
| `<bitset>` | `<initializer_list>` | `<memory>` | `<stack>` | `<unordered_map>` |
| `<chrono>` | `<ios>` | `<mutex>` | `<system_error>` | `<unordered_set>` |
| `<codecvt>` | `<iosfwd>` | `<numeric>` | `<string>` | `<valarray>` |
| `<condition_variable>` | `<iostream>` | `<ostream>` | `<strstream>` | `<vector>` |
| `<deque>` | `<iterator>` | `<queue>` | `<system_error>` | `<thread>` |
| `<exception>` | `<limits>` | `<random>` | `<tuple>` |

---

\(^{174}\) This gives implementors freedom to use inline namespaces to support multiple configurations of the library.

\(^{175}\) A header is not necessarily a source file, nor are the sequences delimited by `< and >` in header names necessarily valid source file names (16.2).
The facilities of the C99 standard Library are provided in 26 additional headers, as shown in Table 14.

Table 14 — C++ headers for C library facilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Header</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cassert&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cinttypes&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;csignal&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cstdio&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cwchar&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;ccomplex&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;ciso646&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cstdarg&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cstdlib&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cwctype&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cctype&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;climits&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cstdatomic&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cstring&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cerrno&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;clocale&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cassert&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cstdbool&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;ctgmath&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cfenv&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cmath&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cstddef&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;ctime&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cfloat&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;csetjmp&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cstdint&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;cuchar&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Except as noted in Clauses 18 through 30 and Annex D, the contents of each header `cname` shall be the same as that of the corresponding header `name.h`, as specified in the C99 standard Library (1.2) or the C Unicode TR, as appropriate, as if by inclusion. In the C++ standard library, however, the declarations (except for names which are defined as macros in C) are within namespace scope (3.3.6) of the namespace `std`. It is unspecified whether these names are first declared within the global namespace scope and are then injected into namespace `std` by explicit using-declarations (7.3.3).

Names which are defined as macros in C shall be defined as macros in the C++ standard library, even if C grants license for implementation as functions. [Note: the names defined as macros in C include the following: assert, offsetof, setjmp, va_arg, va_end, and va_start. — end note]

Names that are defined as functions in C shall be defined as functions in the C++ standard library.

Identifiers that are keywords or operators in C++ shall not be defined as macros in C++ standard library headers.

D.6, C standard library headers, describes the effects of using the `name.h` (C header) form in a C++ program.

17.6.1.3 Freestanding implementations

Two kinds of implementations are defined: hosted and freestanding (1.4). For a hosted implementation, this International Standard describes the set of available headers.

A freestanding implementation has an implementation-defined set of headers. This set shall include at least the headers shown in Table 15.

The supplied version of the header `<cstdlib>` shall declare at least the functions `abort()`, `atexit()`, and `exit()` (18.5). The other headers listed in this table shall meet the same requirements as for a hosted implementation.

17.6.2 Using the library

17.6.2.1 Overview

This section describes how a C++ program gains access to the facilities of the C++ standard library.
describes effects during translation phase 4, while 17.6.2.3 describes effects during phase 8 (2.2).

17.6.2.2 Headers

The entities in the C++ standard library are defined in headers, whose contents are made available to a translation unit when it contains the appropriate `#include` preprocessing directive (16.2).

A translation unit may include library headers in any order (Clause 2). Each may be included more than once, with no effect different from being included exactly once, except that the effect of including either `<cassert>` or `<assert.h>` depends each time on the lexically current definition of `NDEBUG`.

A translation unit shall include a header only outside of any external declaration or definition, and shall include the header lexically before the first reference in that translation unit to any of the entities declared in that header.

17.6.2.3 Linkage

Entities in the C++ standard library have external linkage (3.5). Unless otherwise specified, objects and functions have the default `extern "C++"` linkage (7.5).

Whether a name from the Standard C library declared with external linkage has `extern "C"` or `extern "C++"` linkage is implementation-defined. It is recommended that an implementation use `extern "C++"` linkage for this purpose.

Objects and functions defined in the library and required by a C++ program are included in the program prior to program startup.

See also: replacement functions (17.6.3.6), run-time changes (17.6.3.7).

17.6.3 Constraints on programs

17.6.3.1 Overview

This section describes restrictions on C++ programs that use the facilities of the C++ standard library. The following subclauses specify constraints on the program’s use of namespaces (17.6.3.2.1), its use of various reserved names (17.6.3.3), its use of headers (17.6.3.4), its use of standard library classes as base

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Table 15 — C++ headers for freestanding implementations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subclause</th>
<th>Header(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18.2 Types</td>
<td><code>&lt;cstdlib&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.3 Implementation properties</td>
<td><code>&lt;limits&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.5 Start and termination</td>
<td><code>&lt;cstdlib&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.6 Dynamic memory management</td>
<td><code>&lt;new&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.7 Type identification</td>
<td><code>&lt;typeinfo&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.8 Exception handling</td>
<td><code>&lt;exception&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.9 Initializer lists</td>
<td><code>&lt;initializer_list&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.10 Other runtime support</td>
<td><code>&lt;cstdarg&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.6 Type traits</td>
<td><code>&lt;type_traits&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

179) This is the same as the Standard C library.
180) The only reliable way to declare an object or function signature from the Standard C library is by including the header that declares it, notwithstanding the latitude granted in 7.1.7 of the C Standard.
classes (17.6.3.5), its definitions of replacement functions (17.6.3.6), and its installation of handler functions during execution (17.6.3.7).

17.6.3.2 Namespace use

17.6.3.2.1 Namespace std

1 The behavior of a C++ program is undefined if it adds declarations or definitions to namespace std or to a namespace within namespace std unless otherwise specified. A program may add a template specialization for any standard library template to namespace std only if the declaration depends on a user-defined type of external linkage and the specialization meets the standard library requirements for the original template and is not explicitly prohibited.\(^{181}\)

2 The behavior of a C++ program is undefined if it declares

— an explicit specialization of any member function of a standard library class template, or
— an explicit specialization of any member function template of a standard library class or class template, or
— an explicit or partial specialization of any member class template of a standard library class or class template.

A program may explicitly instantiate a template defined in the standard library only if the declaration depends on the name of a user-defined type of external linkage and the instantiation meets the standard library requirements for the original template.

3 A translation unit shall not declare namespace std to be an inline namespace (7.3.1).

17.6.3.2.2 Namespace posix

1 The behavior of a C++ program is undefined if it adds declarations or definitions to namespace posix or to a namespace within namespace posix unless otherwise specified. The namespace posix is reserved for use by ISO/IEC 9945 and other POSIX standards.

17.6.3.3 Reserved names

1 The C++ standard library reserves the following kinds of names:

— macros
— global names
— names with external linkage

2 If a program declares or defines a name in a context where it is reserved, other than as explicitly allowed by this Clause, its behavior is undefined.

17.6.3.3.1 Macro names

1 A translation unit that includes a standard library header shall not \#define or \#undef names declared in any standard library header.

\(^{181}\) Any library code that instantiates other library templates must be prepared to work adequately with any user-supplied specialization that meets the minimum requirements of the Standard.
A translation unit shall not \#define or \#undef names lexically identical to keywords.

17.6.3.3.2 Global names

Certain sets of names and function signatures are always reserved to the implementation:

- Each name that contains a double underscore \_\_ or begins with an underscore followed by an uppercase letter (2.12) is reserved to the implementation for any use.
- Each name that begins with an underscore is reserved to the implementation for use as a name in the global namespace.

17.6.3.3.3 External linkage

Each name declared as an object with external linkage in a header is reserved to the implementation to designate that library object with external linkage, both in namespace std and in the global namespace.

Each global function signature declared with external linkage in a header is reserved to the implementation to designate that function signature with external linkage.

Each name from the Standard C library declared with external linkage is reserved to the implementation for use as a name with extern "C" linkage, both in namespace std and in the global namespace.

Each function signature from the Standard C library declared with external linkage is reserved to the implementation for use as a function signature with both extern "C" and extern "C++" linkage, or as a name of namespace scope in the global namespace.

17.6.3.3.4 Types

For each type T from the Standard C library, the types ::T and std::T are reserved to the implementation and, when defined, ::T shall be identical to std::T.

17.6.3.3.5 User-defined literal suffixes

Literal suffix identifiers that do not start with an underscore are reserved for future standardization.

17.6.3.4 Headers

If a file with a name equivalent to the derived file name for one of the C++ standard library headers is not provided as part of the implementation, and a file with that name is placed in any of the standard places for a source file to be included (16.2), the behavior is undefined.

17.6.3.5 Derived classes

Virtual member function signatures defined for a base class in the C++ Standard library may be overridden in a derived class defined in the program (10.3).

17.6.3.6 Replacement functions

Clauses 18 through 30 and Annex D describe the behavior of numerous functions defined by the C++ standard library. Under some circumstances, however, certain of these function descriptions also apply to replacement

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182) The list of such reserved names includes errno, declared or defined in <cerrno>.
183) The list of such reserved function signatures with external linkage includes setjmp(jmp_buf), declared or defined in <csetjmp>, and va_end(va_list), declared or defined in <cstdlib>.
184) The function signatures declared in <cuchar>, <cwchar>, and <cwctype> are always reserved, notwithstanding the restrictions imposed in subclause 4.5.1 of Amendment 1 to the C Standard for these headers.
185) These types are clock_t, div_t, FILE, fpos_t, lconv, lddiv_t, mbstate_t, ptdiff_t, sig_atomic_t, size_t, time_t, tm, va_list, wctrans_t, wctype_t, and wint_t.
functions defined in the program (17.3).

2 A C++ program may provide the definition for any of eight dynamic memory allocation function signatures declared in header `<new>` (3.7.4, Clause 18):

   — operator new(std::size_t)
   — operator new(std::size_t, const std::nothrow_t&)
   — operator new[](std::size_t)
   — operator new[](std::size_t, const std::nothrow_t&)
   — operator delete(void*)
   — operator delete(void*, const std::nothrow_t&)
   — operator delete[](void*)
   — operator delete[](void*, const std::nothrow_t&)

3 The program’s definitions are used instead of the default versions supplied by the implementation (18.6). Such replacement occurs prior to program startup (3.2, 3.6). The program’s definitions shall not be specified as `inline`. No diagnostic is required.

### 17.6.3.7 Handler functions

1 The C++ standard library provides default versions of the following handler functions (Clause 18):

   — unexpected_handler
   — terminate_handler

2 A C++ program may install different handler functions during execution, by supplying a pointer to a function defined in the program or the library as an argument to (respectively):

   — set_new_handler
   — set_unexpected
   — set_terminate

   See also: subclauses 18.6.2, Storage allocation errors, and 18.8, Exception handling.

### 17.6.3.8 Other functions

1 In certain cases (replacement functions, handler functions, operations on types used to instantiate standard library template components), the C++ standard library depends on components supplied by a C++ program. If these components do not meet their requirements, the Standard places no requirements on the implementation.

2 In particular, the effects are undefined in the following cases:

   — for replacement functions (18.6.1), if the installed replacement function does not implement the semantics of the applicable Required behavior: paragraph.

   — for handler functions (18.6.2.3, 18.8.3.1, 18.8.2.2), if the installed handler function does not implement the semantics of the applicable Required behavior: paragraph
— for types used as template arguments when instantiating a template component, if the operations on
the type do not implement the semantics of the applicable Requirements subclause (20.2.2, 23.2,
24.2, 26.2). Operations on such types can report a failure by throwing an exception unless otherwise
specified.

— if any replacement function or handler function or destructor operation throws exits via an exception,
unless specifically allowed in the applicable Required behavior: paragraph.

— if an incomplete type (3.9) is used as a template argument when instantiating a template component,
unless specifically allowed for that component.

17.6.3.9 Function arguments

Each of the following statements applies to all arguments to functions defined in the C++ standard library,
unless explicitly stated otherwise.

— If an argument to a function has an invalid value (such as a value outside the domain of the function,
or a pointer invalid for its intended use), the behavior is undefined.

— If a function argument is described as being an array, the pointer actually passed to the function shall
have a value such that all address computations and accesses to objects (that would be valid if the
pointer did point to the first element of such an array) are in fact valid.

17.6.3.10 Shared objects and the library

The behavior of a program is undefined if calls to standard library functions from different threads may
introduce a data race. The conditions under which this may occur are specified in 17.6.4.8.

17.6.3.11 Required paragraph

Violation of the preconditions specified in a function’s Required behavior: paragraph results in undefined
behavior unless the function’s Throws: paragraph specifies throwing an exception when the precondition is
violated.

17.6.4 Conforming implementations

17.6.4.1 Overview

This section describes the constraints upon, and latitude of, implementations of the C++ standard library.

17.6.4.2 Headers

A C++ header may include other C++ headers.\textsuperscript{186} A C++ header shall provide the declarations and
definitions that appear in its synopsis. A C++ header shown in its synopsis as including other C++ headers
shall provide the declarations and definitions that appear in the synopses of those other headers.

Certain types and macros are defined in more than one header. Every such entity shall be defined such that
any header that defines it may be included after any other header that also defines it (3.2).

\textsuperscript{186) C++ headers must include a C++ header that contains any needed definition (3.2).}
The C standard headers (D.6) shall include only their corresponding C++ standard header, as described in 17.6.1.2.

17.6.4.3 Restrictions on macro definitions

The names and global function signatures described in 17.6.1.1 are reserved to the implementation.

All object-like macros defined by the C standard library and described in this Clause as expanding to integral constant expressions are also suitable for use in #if preprocessing directives, unless explicitly stated otherwise.

17.6.4.4 Global and non-member functions

It is unspecified whether any global or non-member functions in the C++ standard library are defined as inline (7.1.2).

A call to a global or non-member function signature described in Clauses 18 through 30 and Annex D shall behave as if the implementation declared no additional global or non-member function signatures.\(^{187}\)

An implementation shall not declare a global or non-member function signature with additional default arguments.

Unless otherwise specified, global and non-member functions in the standard library shall not use functions from another namespace which are found through argument-dependent name lookup (3.4.2). [Note: The phrase “unless otherwise specified” is intended to allow argument-dependent lookup in cases like that of ostream_iterators: Effects:

```cpp
*out_stream << value;
if (delim != 0)
    *out_stream << delim;
return (*this);

— end note]
```

17.6.4.5 Member functions

It is unspecified whether any member functions in the C++ standard library are defined as inline (7.1.2).

An implementation may declare additional non-virtual member function signatures within a class:

1. by adding arguments with default values to a member function signature;\(^{188}\) [Note: An implementation may not add arguments with default values to virtual, global, or non-member functions. — end note]
2. by replacing a member function signature with default values by two or more member function signatures with equivalent behavior; and
3. by adding a member function signature for a member function name.

A call to a member function signature described in the C++ standard library behaves as if the implementation declares no additional member function signatures.\(^{189}\)

\(^{187}\) A valid C++ program always calls the expected library global or non-member function. An implementation may also define additional global or non-member functions that would otherwise not be called by a valid C++ program.

\(^{188}\) Hence, the address of a member function of a class in the C++ standard library has an unspecified type.

\(^{189}\) A valid C++ program always calls the expected library member function, or one with equivalent behavior. An implementation may also define additional member functions that would otherwise not be called by a valid C++ program.
17.6.4.6 constexpr functions and constructors

Within any header that provides any non-defining declarations of constexpr functions or constructors an implementation shall provide corresponding definitions.

17.6.4.7 Reentrancy

Except where explicitly specified in this standard, it is implementation-defined which functions in the Standard C++ library may be recursively reentered.

17.6.4.8 Data race avoidance

This section specifies requirements that implementations shall meet to prevent data races (1.10). Every standard library function shall meet each requirement unless otherwise specified. Implementations may prevent data races in cases other than those specified below.

2 A C++ standard library function shall not directly or indirectly access objects (1.10) accessible by threads other than the current thread unless the objects are accessed directly or indirectly via the function’s arguments, including this.

3 A C++ standard library function shall not directly or indirectly modify objects (1.10) accessible by threads other than the current thread unless the objects are accessed directly or indirectly via the function’s non-const arguments, including this.

4 [Note: This means, for example, that implementations can’t use a static object for internal purposes without synchronization because it could cause a data race even in programs that do not explicitly share objects between threads. — end note]

5 A C++ standard library function shall not access objects indirectly accessible via its arguments or via elements of its container arguments except by invoking functions required by its specification on those container elements.

Implementations may share their own internal objects between threads if the objects are not visible to users and are protected against data races.

7 Unless otherwise specified, C++ standard library functions shall perform all operations solely within the current thread if those operations have effects that are visible (1.10) to users.

8 [Note: This allows implementations to parallelize operations if there are no visible side effects. — end note]

17.6.4.9 Protection within classes

It is unspecified whether any function signature or class described in Clauses 18 through 30 and Annex D is a friend of another class in the C++ standard library.

17.6.4.10 Derived classes

An implementation may derive any class in the C++ standard library from a class with a name reserved to the implementation.

Certain classes defined in the C++ standard library are required to be derived from other classes in the C++ standard library. An implementation may derive such a class directly from the required base or indirectly through a hierarchy of base classes with names reserved to the implementation.

In any case:

— Every base class described as virtual shall be virtual;

— Every base class described as non-virtual shall not be virtual;

§ 17.6.4.10
— Unless explicitly stated otherwise, types with distinct names shall be distinct types.\(^{190}\)

17.6.4.11 Restrictions on exception handling

1 Any of the functions defined in the C++ standard library can report a failure by throwing an exception of a type described in its \textit{Throws:} paragraph or its \textit{exception-specification} (15.4). An implementation may strengthen the \textit{exception-specification} for a non-virtual function by removing listed exceptions.\(^{191}\)

2 A function may throw an object of a type not listed in its \textit{Throws} clause if its type is derived from a type named in the \textit{Throws} clause and would be caught by an exception handler for the base type.

3 Functions from the C standard library shall not throw exceptions\(^{192}\) except when such a function calls a program-supplied function that throws an exception.\(^{193}\)

4 Destructor operations defined in the C++ standard library shall not throw exceptions. Any other functions defined in the C++ standard library that do not have an \textit{exception-specification} may throw implementation-defined exceptions unless otherwise specified.\(^{194}\) An implementation may strengthen this implicit \textit{exception-specification} by adding an explicit one.\(^{195}\)

17.6.4.12 Restrictions on storage of pointers

1 Objects constructed by the standard library that may hold a user-supplied pointer value or an integer of type \texttt{std::intptr\_t} shall store such values in a traceable pointer location (3.7.4.3). [\textit{Note:} Other libraries are strongly encouraged to do the same, since not doing so may result in accidental use of pointers that are not safely derived. Libraries that store pointers outside the user’s address space should make it appear that they are stored and retrieved from a traceable pointer location. — end note]

17.6.4.13 Value of error codes

1 Certain functions in the C++ standard library report errors via a \texttt{std::error\_code} (19.5.2.1) object. That object’s \texttt{category()} member shall return \texttt{std::system\_category()} for errors originating from the operating system, or a reference to an implementation-defined \texttt{error\_category} object for errors originating elsewhere. The implementation shall define the possible values of \texttt{value()} for each of these error categories. [\textit{Example:} For operating systems that are based on POSIX, implementations are encouraged to define the \texttt{std::system\_category()} values as identical to the POSIX \texttt{errno} values, with additional values as defined by the operating system’s documentation. Implementations for operating systems that are not based on POSIX are encouraged to define values identical to the operating system’s values. For errors that do not originate from the operating system, the implementation may provide enums for the associated values. — end example]

---

\(^{190}\) There is an implicit exception to this rule for types that are described as synonyms for basic integral types, such as \texttt{size\_t} (18.2) and \texttt{streamoff} (27.5.1).

\(^{191}\) That is, an implementation of the function will have an explicit \textit{exception-specification} that lists fewer exceptions than those specified in this International Standard. It may not, however, change the types of exceptions listed in the \textit{exception-specification} from those specified, nor add others.

\(^{192}\) That is, the C library functions can all be treated as if they have a \texttt{throw()} \textit{exception-specification}. This allows implementations to make performance optimizations based on the absence of exceptions at runtime.\(^{193}\) The functions \texttt{qsort()} and \texttt{bsearch()} (25.5) meet this condition.

\(^{194}\) In particular, they can report a failure to allocate storage by throwing an exception of type \texttt{bad\_alloc}, or a class derived from \texttt{bad\_alloc} (18.6.2.1). Library implementations are encouraged (but not required) to report errors by throwing exceptions of or derived from the standard exception classes (18.6.2.1, 18.8, 19.2).

\(^{195}\) That is, an implementation may provide an explicit \textit{exception-specification} that defines the subset of “any” exceptions thrown by that function. This implies that the implementation may list implementation-defined types in such an \textit{exception-specification}.
18 Language support library

[language.support]

18.1 General

This Clause describes the function signatures that are called implicitly, and the types of objects generated implicitly, during the execution of some C++ programs. It also describes the headers that declare these function signatures and define any related types.

The following subclauses describe common type definitions used throughout the library, characteristics of the predefined types, functions supporting start and termination of a C++ program, support for dynamic memory management, support for dynamic type identification, support for exception processing, support for initializer lists, and other runtime support, as summarized in Table 16.

Table 16 — Language support library summary

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18.2 Types

Table 17 describes the header `<cstdint>`.

Table 17 — Header `<cstdint>` synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
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</tr>
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</table>

The contents are the same as the Standard C library header `<cstdint.h>`, with the following changes:
The macro `NULL` is an implementation-defined C++ null pointer constant in this International Standard (4.10).\textsuperscript{196}

The macro `offsetof(type, member-designator)` accepts a restricted set of `type` arguments in this International Standard. If `type` is not a standard-layout class (Clause 9), the results are undefined.\textsuperscript{197} The expression `offsetof(type, member-designator)` is never type-dependent (14.7.2.2) and it is value-dependent (14.7.2.3) if and only if `type` is dependent. The result of applying the `offsetof` macro to a field that is a static data member or a function member is undefined.

The type `max_align_t` is a POD type whose alignment requirement is at least as great as that of every scalar type, and whose alignment requirement is supported in every context.

`nullptr_t` is defined as follows:

```cpp
namespace std {
  typedef decltype(nullptr) nullptr_t;
}
```

The type for which `nullptr_t` is a synonym has the characteristics described in 3.9.1 and 4.10. [Note: Although `nullptr`'s address cannot be taken, the address of another `nullptr_t` object that is an lvalue can be taken. — end note]

See also: Alignment (3.11), `sizeof` (5.3.3), Additive operators (5.7), Free store (12.5), and ISO C 7.1.6.

18.3 Implementation properties \[support.limits\]

The headers `<limits>`, `<climits>`, `<cfloat>`, and `<cinttypes>` supply characteristics of implementation-dependent arithmetic types (3.9.1).

18.3.1 Numeric limits \[limits\]

The `numeric_limits` component provides a C++ program with information about various properties of the implementation’s representation of the arithmetic types.

Specializations shall be provided for each arithmetic type, both floating point and integer, including `bool`. The member `is_specialized` shall be `true` for all such specializations of `numeric_limits`.

For all members declared `static constexpr` in the `numeric_limits` template, specializations shall define these values in such a way that they are usable as constant expressions.

Non-arithmetic standard types, such as `complex<T>` (26.4.2), shall not have specializations.

**Header `<limits>` synopsis**

```cpp
namespace std {
  template<class T> class numeric_limits;
  enum float_round_style;
  enum float_denorm_style;

  template<> class numeric_limits<bool>;

  template<> class numeric_limits<char>;
  template<> class numeric_limits<signed char>;
  template<> class numeric_limits<unsigned char>;
  template<> class numeric_limits<char16_t>;
  template<> class numeric_limits<char32_t>;
```

\textsuperscript{196} Possible definitions include 0 and 0L, but not `(void*)0`.

\textsuperscript{197} Note that `offsetof` is required to work as specified even if unary `operator&` is overloaded for any of the types involved.
template<> class numeric_limits<wchar_t>;

template<> class numeric_limits<short>;
template<> class numeric_limits<int>;
template<> class numeric_limits<long>;
template<> class numeric_limits<long long>;
template<> class numeric_limits<unsigned short>;
template<> class numeric_limits<unsigned int>;
template<> class numeric_limits<unsigned long>;
template<> class numeric_limits<unsigned long long>;
template<> class numeric_limits<float>;
template<> class numeric_limits<double>;
template<> class numeric_limits<long double>;

§ 18.3.1.1 Class template numeric_limits

namespace std {
    template<class T> class numeric_limits {
        public:
            static constexpr bool is_specialized = false;
            static constexpr T min() throw() { return T(); }
            static constexpr T max() throw() { return T(); }
            static constexpr T lowest() throw() { return T(); }
            static constexpr int digits = 0;
            static constexpr int digits10 = 0;
            static constexpr int max_digits10 = 0;
            static constexpr bool is_signed = false;
            static constexpr bool is_integer = false;
            static constexpr bool is_exact = false;
            static constexpr int radix = 0;
            static constexpr T epsilon() throw() { return T(); }
            static constexpr T round_error() throw() { return T(); }
            static constexpr int min_exponent = 0;
            static constexpr int min_exponent10 = 0;
            static constexpr int max_exponent = 0;
            static constexpr int max_exponent10 = 0;
            static constexpr bool has_infinity = false;
            static constexpr bool has_quiet_NaN = false;
            static constexpr bool has_signaling_NaN = false;
            static constexpr float_denorm_style has_denorm = denorm_absent;
            static constexpr bool has_denorm_loss = false;
            static constexpr T infinity() throw() { return T(); }
            static constexpr T quiet_NaN() throw() { return T(); }
            static constexpr T signaling_NaN() throw() { return T(); }
            static constexpr T denorm_min() throw() { return T(); }
            static constexpr bool is_iec559 = false;
            static constexpr bool is_bounded = false;
            static constexpr bool is_modulo = false;

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static constexpr bool traps = false;
static constexpr bool tinyness_before = false;
static constexpr float_round_style round_style = round_toward_zero;
};

template<class T> class numeric_limits<const T>;
template<class T> class numeric_limits<volatile T>;
template<class T> class numeric_limits<const volatile T>;
}

The default numeric_limits<T> template shall have all members, but with 0 or false values.

The value of each member of a specialization of numeric_limits on a cv-qualified type cv T shall be equal to the value of the corresponding member of the specialization on the unqualified type T.

18.3.1.2 numeric_limits members

static constexpr T min() throw();
Minimum finite value.\footnote{Equivalent to CHAR_MIN, SHRT_MIN, FLT_MIN, DBL_MIN, etc.}
For floating types with denormalization, returns the minimum positive normalized value.
Meaningful for all specializations in which is_bounded != false, or is_bounded == false && is_-
signed == false.

static constexpr T max() throw();
Maximum finite value.\footnote{Equivalent to CHAR_MAX, SHRT_MAX, FLT_MAX, DBL_MAX, etc.}
Meaningful for all specializations in which is_bounded != false.

static constexpr T lowest() throw();
A finite value x such that there is no other finite value y where y < x.\footnote{lowest() is necessary because not all floating-point representations have a smallest (most negative) value that is the negative of the largest (most positive) finite value.}
Meaningful for all specializations in which is_bounded != false.

static constexpr int digits;
Number of radix digits that can be represented without change.
For integer types, the number of non-sign bits in the representation.
For floating point types, the number of radix digits in the mantissa.\footnote{Equivalent to FLT_MANT_DIG, DBL_MANT_DIG, LDBL_MANT_DIG.}

static constexpr int digits10;
Number of base 10 digits that can be represented without change.\footnote{Equivalent to FLT_DIG, DBL_DIG, LDBL_DIG.}
Meaningful for all specializations in which is_bounded != false.

static constexpr int max_digits10;

\footnote{Equivalent to CHAR_MIN, SHRT_MIN, FLT_MIN, DBL_MIN, etc.}
\footnote{Equivalent to CHAR_MAX, SHRT_MAX, FLT_MAX, DBL_MAX, etc.}
\footnote{lowest() is necessary because not all floating-point representations have a smallest (most negative) value that is the negative of the largest (most positive) finite value.}
\footnote{Equivalent to FLT_MANT_DIG, DBL_MANT_DIG, LDBL_MANT_DIG.}
\footnote{Equivalent to FLT_DIG, DBL_DIG, LDBL_DIG.}
Number of base 10 digits required to ensure that values which differ are always differentiated.
Meaningful for all floating point types.

static constexpr bool is_signed;
True if the type is signed.
Meaningful for all specializations.

static constexpr bool is_integer;
True if the type is integer.
Meaningful for all specializations.

static constexpr bool is_exact;
True if the type uses an exact representation. All integer types are exact, but not all exact types are
integer. For example, rational and fixed-exponent representations are exact but not integer.
Meaningful for all specializations.

static constexpr int radix;
For floating types, specifies the base or radix of the exponent representation (often 2).\(^{203}\)
For integer types, specifies the base of the representation.\(^{204}\)
Meaningful for all specializations.

static constexpr T epsilon() throw();
Machine epsilon: the difference between 1 and the least value greater than 1 that is representable.\(^{205}\)
Meaningful for all floating point types.

static constexpr T round_error() throw();
Measure of the maximum rounding error.\(^{206}\)

static constexpr int min_exponent;
Minimum negative integer such that \(\text{radix}\) raised to the power of one less than that integer is a
normalized floating point number.\(^{207}\)
Meaningful for all floating point types.

static constexpr int min_exponent10;
Minimum negative integer such that 10 raised to that power is in the range of normalized floating
point numbers.\(^{208}\)
Meaningful for all floating point types.

static constexpr int max_exponent;

\(^{203}\) Equivalent to FLT_RADIX.
\(^{204}\) Distinguishes types with bases other than 2 (e.g. BCD).
\(^{205}\) Equivalent to FLT_EPSILON, DBL_EPSILON, LDBL_EPSILON.
\(^{206}\) Rounding error is described in ISO/IEC 10967-1 Language independent arithmetic - Part 1 Section 5.2.8 and Annex A
Rationale Section A.5.2.8 - Rounding constants.
\(^{207}\) Equivalent to FLT_MIN_EXP, DBL_MIN_EXP, LDBL_MIN_EXP.
\(^{208}\) Equivalent to FLT_MIN_10_EXP, DBL_MIN_10_EXP, LDBL_MIN_10_EXP.
Maximum positive integer such that \texttt{radix} raised to the power one less than that integer is a representable finite floating point number.\textsuperscript{209}

Meaningful for all floating point types.

\texttt{static constexpr int max_exponent10;}

Maximum positive integer such that 10 raised to that power is in the range of representable finite floating point numbers.\textsuperscript{210}

Meaningful for all floating point types.

\texttt{static constexpr bool has_infinity;}

True if the type has a representation for positive infinity.

Meaningful for all floating point types.

Shall be \texttt{true} for all specializations in which \texttt{is_iec559} \(!= \texttt{false}\).

\texttt{static constexpr bool has_quiet_NaN;}

True if the type has a representation for a quiet (non-signaling) “Not a Number.”\textsuperscript{211}

Meaningful for all floating point types.

Shall be \texttt{true} for all specializations in which \texttt{is_iec559} \(!= \texttt{false}\).

\texttt{static constexpr bool has_signaling_NaN;}

True if the type has a representation for a signaling “Not a Number.”\textsuperscript{212}

Meaningful for all floating point types.

Shall be \texttt{true} for all specializations in which \texttt{is_iec559} \(!= \texttt{false}\).

\texttt{static constexpr float_denorm_style has_denorm;}

\texttt{denorm_present} if the type allows denormalized values (variable number of exponent bits)\textsuperscript{213}, \texttt{denorm_absent} if the type does not allow denormalized values, and \texttt{denorm_indeterminate} if it is indeterminate at compile time whether the type allows denormalized values.

Meaningful for all floating point types.

\texttt{static constexpr bool has_denorm_loss;}

True if loss of accuracy is detected as a denormalization loss, rather than as an inexact result.\textsuperscript{214}

\texttt{static constexpr T infinity() throw();}

Representation of positive infinity, if available.\textsuperscript{215}

Meaningful for all specializations for which \texttt{has_infinity} \(!= \texttt{false}\). Required in specializations for which \texttt{is_iec559} \(!= \texttt{false}\).

\texttt{static constexpr T quiet_NaN() throw();}

\textsuperscript{209) Equivalent to FLT\_MAX\_EXP, DBL\_MAX\_EXP, LDBL\_MAX\_EXP.}
\textsuperscript{210) Equivalent to FLT\_MAX\_10\_EXP, DBL\_MAX\_10\_EXP, LDBL\_MAX\_10\_EXP.}
\textsuperscript{211) Required by LIA-1.}
\textsuperscript{212) Required by LIA-1.}
\textsuperscript{213) Required by LIA-1.}
\textsuperscript{214) See IEC 559.}
\textsuperscript{215) Required by LIA-1.}

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Representation of a quiet “Not a Number,” if available.\(^\text{216}\)

Meaningful for all specializations for which \texttt{has\_quiet\_NaN} \(!= \text{false}\). Required in specializations for which \texttt{is\_iec559} \(!= \text{false}\).

\begin{verbatim}
static constexpr T signaling_NaN() throw();
\end{verbatim}

Representation of a signaling “Not a Number,” if available.\(^\text{217}\)

Meaningful for all specializations for which \texttt{has\_signaling\_NaN} \(!= \text{false}\). Required in specializations for which \texttt{is\_iec559} \(!= \text{false}\).

\begin{verbatim}
static constexpr T denorm_min() throw();
\end{verbatim}

Minimum positive denormalized value.\(^\text{218}\)

Meaningful for all floating point types.

In specializations for which \texttt{has\_denorm} \(!= \text{false}\), returns the minimum positive normalized value.

\begin{verbatim}
static constexpr bool is_iec559;
\end{verbatim}

True if and only if the type adheres to IEC 559 standard.\(^\text{219}\)

Meaningful for all floating point types.

\begin{verbatim}
static constexpr bool is_bounded;
\end{verbatim}

True if the set of values representable by the type is finite.\(^\text{220}\) [Note: All built-in types are bounded. This member would be false for arbitrary precision types. — end note]

Meaningful for all specializations.

\begin{verbatim}
static constexpr bool is_modulo;
\end{verbatim}

True if the type is modulo.\(^\text{221}\) A type is modulo if, for any operation involving \(+\), \(-\), or \(*\) on values of that type whose result would fall outside the range \([\text{min}()\!,\text{max}()]\), the value returned differs from the true value by an integer multiple of \(\text{max}()\! - \text{min}() + 1\).

On most machines, this is \texttt{false} for floating types, \texttt{true} for unsigned integers, and \texttt{true} for signed integers.

Meaningful for all specializations.

\begin{verbatim}
static constexpr bool traps;
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{true} if, at program startup, there exists a value of the type that would cause an arithmetic operation using that value to trap.\(^\text{222}\)

Meaningful for all specializations.

\begin{verbatim}
static constexpr bool tinyness_before;
\end{verbatim}

\(^{216}\) Required by LIA-1.
\(^{217}\) Required by LIA-1.
\(^{218}\) Required by LIA-1.
\(^{219}\) International Electrotechnical Commission standard 559 is the same as IEEE 754.
\(^{220}\) Required by LIA-1.
\(^{221}\) Required by LIA-1.
\(^{222}\) Required by LIA-1.
true if tinyness is detected before rounding.\textsuperscript{223}

Meaningful for all floating point types.

\texttt{static constexpr float\_round\_style round\_style;}

The rounding style for the type.\textsuperscript{224}

Meaningful for all floating point types. Specializations for integer types shall return \texttt{round\_toward\_zero}.

\textbf{18.3.1.3 Type float\_round\_style}

\begin{verbatim}
namespace std {
  enum float_round_style {
    round_indeterminate = -1,
    round_toward_zero   = 0,
    round_to_nearest   = 1,
    round_towardInfinity = 2,
    round_toward_neg_infinity = 3
  };
}
\end{verbatim}

1 The rounding mode for floating point arithmetic is characterized by the values:

- \texttt{round\_indeterminate} if the rounding style is indeterminable
- \texttt{round\_toward\_zero} if the rounding style is toward zero
- \texttt{round\_to\_nearest} if the rounding style is to the nearest representable value
- \texttt{round\_toward\_infinity} if the rounding style is toward infinity
- \texttt{round\_toward\_neg\_infinity} if the rounding style is toward negative infinity

\textbf{18.3.1.4 Type float\_denorm\_style}

\begin{verbatim}
namespace std {
  enum float_denorm_style {
    denorm_indeterminate = -1,
    denorm_absent       = 0,
    denorm_present      = 1
  };
}
\end{verbatim}

1 The presence or absence of denormalization (variable number of exponent bits) is characterized by the values:

- \texttt{denorm\_indeterminate} if it cannot be determined whether or not the type allows denormalized values
- \texttt{denorm\_absent} if the type does not allow denormalized values
- \texttt{denorm\_present} if the type does allow denormalized values

\textsuperscript{223)\ Refer to IEC 559. Required by LIA-1.\textsuperscript{224)\ Equivalent to FLT\_ROUNDS. Required by LIA-1.}
18.3.1.5 numeric_limits specializations [numeric.special]

All members shall be provided for all specializations. However, many values are only required to be meaningful under certain conditions (for example, epsilon() is only meaningful if is_integer is false). Any value that is not “meaningful” shall be set to 0 or false.

Example:

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<> class numeric_limits<float> {
        public:
            static constexpr bool is_specialized = true;

            inline static constexpr float min() throw() { return 1.17549435E-38F; }
            inline static constexpr float max() throw() { return 3.40282347E+38F; }
            inline static constexpr float lowest() throw() { return -3.40282347E+38F; }

            static constexpr int digits = 24;
            static constexpr int digits10 = 6;
            static constexpr int max_digits10 = 9;

            static constexpr bool is_signed = true;
            static constexpr bool is_integer = false;
            static constexpr bool is_exact = false;

            static constexpr int radix = 2;
            inline static constexpr float epsilon() throw() { return 1.19209290E-07F; }

            static constexpr int min_exponent = -125;
            static constexpr int min_exponent10 = -37;
            static constexpr int max_exponent = +128;
            static constexpr int max_exponent10 = +38;

            static constexpr bool has_infinity = true;
            static constexpr bool has_quiet_NaN = true;
            static constexpr bool has_signaling_NaN = true;
            static constexpr float_denorm_style has_denorm = denorm_absent;
            static constexpr bool has_denorm_loss = false;

            inline static constexpr float infinity() throw() { return ...; }
            inline static constexpr float quiet_NaN() throw() { return ...; }
            inline static constexpr float signaling_NaN() throw() { return ...; }
            inline static constexpr float denorm_min() throw() { return min(); }

            static constexpr bool is_iec559 = true;
            static constexpr bool is_bounded = true;
            static constexpr bool is_modulo = false;
            static constexpr bool traps = true;
            static constexpr bool tinyness_before = true;

            static constexpr float_round_style round_style = round_to_nearest;
    }
} — end example
```

§ 18.3.1.5
The specialization for `bool` shall be provided as follows:

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<> class numeric_limits<bool> {
        public:
            static constexpr bool is_specialized = true;
            static constexpr bool min() throw() { return false; }
            static constexpr bool max() throw() { return true; }
            static constexpr bool lowest() throw() { return false; }

            static constexpr int digits = 1;
            static constexpr int digits10 = 0;
            static constexpr int max_digits10 = 0;

            static constexpr bool is_signed = false;
            static constexpr bool is_integer = true;
            static constexpr int radix = 2;
            static constexpr int min_exponent = 0;
            static constexpr int min_exponent10 = 0;
            static constexpr int max_exponent = 0;
            static constexpr int max_exponent10 = 0;

            static constexpr bool has_infinity = false;
            static constexpr bool has_quiet_NaN = false;
            static constexpr bool has_signaling_NaN = false;
            static constexpr bool infinity() throw() { return 0; }
            static constexpr bool quiet_NaN() throw() { return 0; }
            static constexpr bool signaling_NaN() throw() { return 0; }
            static constexpr bool denorm_min() throw() { return 0; }

            static constexpr float_denorm_style has_denorm = denorm_absent;
            static constexpr bool has_denorm_loss = false;
            static constexpr bool is_iec559 = false;
            static constexpr bool is_bounded = true;
            static constexpr bool is_modulo = false;
            static constexpr bool traps = false;
            static constexpr bool tinyness_before = false;
            static constexpr float_round_style round_style = round_toward_zero;
    }
}
```

18.3.2 C Library

1 Table 18 describes the header `<climits>`.  
2 The contents are the same as the Standard C library header `<limits.h>`. [Note: The types of the constants defined by macros in `<climits>` are not required to match the types to which the macros refer. — end note]  
3 Table 19 describes the header `<cfloat>`.  
4 The contents are the same as the Standard C library header `<float.h>`.  

§ 18.3.2
Table 18 — Header `<climits>` synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Values:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAR_BIT</td>
<td>INT_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LONG_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SCHAR_MIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SHRT_MIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ULLONG_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAR_MAX</td>
<td>LLONG_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LONG_MIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SCHAR_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UCHAR_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ULONG_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAR_MIN</td>
<td>LLONG_MIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MB_LEN_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SHRT_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UINT_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>USHRT_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INT_MIN</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19 — Header `<cfloat>` synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Values:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBL_DIG</td>
<td>DBL_MIN_EXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FLT_MAX_EXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LDBL_MANT_DIG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBL_EPSILON</td>
<td>DECIMAL_DIG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FLT_MIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LDBL_MAX_10_EXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBL_MANT_DIG</td>
<td>FLT_DIG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FLT_MIN_10_EXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LDBL_MAX_EXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBL_MAX</td>
<td>FLT_EPSILON</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FLT_MIN_EXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LDBL_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBL_MAX_10_EXP</td>
<td>FLT_EVAL_METHOD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FLT_RADIX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LDBL_MIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBL_MAX_EXP</td>
<td>FLT_MANT_DIG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FLT_ROUNDS</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LDBL_MIN_10_EXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBL_MIN</td>
<td>FLT_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LDBL_DIG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LDBL_MIN_EXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBL_MIN_10_EXP</td>
<td>FLT_MAX_10_EXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LDBL_EPSILON</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also: ISO C 7.1.5, 5.2.4.2.2, 5.2.4.2.1.

18.4 Integer types

18.4.1 Header `<cstdint>` synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
  typedef signed integer type int8_t; // optional
  typedef signed integer type int16_t; // optional
  typedef signed integer type int32_t; // optional
  typedef signed integer type int64_t; // optional

  typedef signed integer type int_fast8_t;
  typedef signed integer type int_fast16_t;
  typedef signed integer type int_fast32_t;
  typedef signed integer type int_fast64_t;

  typedef signed integer type int_least8_t;
  typedef signed integer type int_least16_t;
  typedef signed integer type int_least32_t;
  typedef signed integer type int_least64_t;

  typedef signed integer type intmax_t;
  typedef signed integer type intptr_t; // optional

  typedef unsigned integer type uint8_t; // optional
  typedef unsigned integer type uint16_t; // optional
  typedef unsigned integer type uint32_t; // optional
  typedef unsigned integer type uint64_t; // optional

  typedef unsigned integer type uint_fast8_t;
```
typedef unsigned integer type uint_fast16_t;
typedef unsigned integer type uint_fast32_t;
typedef unsigned integer type uint_fast64_t;

typedef unsigned integer type uint_least8_t;
typedef unsigned integer type uint_least16_t;
typedef unsigned integer type uint_least32_t;
typedef unsigned integer type uint_least64_t;

typedef unsigned integer type uintmax_t;
typedef unsigned integer type uintptr_t;

} // namespace std

1 The header also defines numerous macros of the form:

    INT_[FAST LEAST]{8 16 32 64}_MIN
    [U]INT_[FAST LEAST]{8 16 32 64}_MAX
    INT{MAX PTR}_MIN
    [U]INT{MAX PTR}_MAX
    {PTRDIFF SIG_ATOMIC WCHAR WINT}{_MAX _MIN}
    SIZE_MAX

plus function macros of the form:

    [U]INT{8 16 32 64 MAX}_C

2 The header defines all functions, types, and macros the same as C99 7.18. [Note: The macros defined by <cstdint> are provided unconditionally. In particular, the symbols __STDC_LIMIT_MACROS and __STDC_CONSTANT_MACROS (mentioned in C99 footnotes 219, 220, and 222) play no role in C++. — end note]

18.4.2 The header <stdint.h> [stdinth]

1 The header behaves as if it includes the header <cstdint>, and provides sufficient using declarations to declare in the global namespace all type names defined in the header <cstdint>.

18.5 Start and termination [support.start.term]

1 Table 20 describes some of the contents of the header <cstdlib>.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macros:</td>
<td>EXIT_FAILURE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions: _Exit</td>
<td>abort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>at_quick_exit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 The contents are the same as the Standard C library header <stdlib.h>, with the following changes:

void _Exit [[noreturn]] (int status)

3 The function _Exit(int status) has additional behavior in this International Standard:

   — The program is terminated without executing destructors for objects of automatic, thread, or static storage duration and without calling functions passed to atexit() (3.6.3).

void abort [[noreturn]] (void)
The function `abort()` has additional behavior in this International Standard:

— The program is terminated without executing destructors for objects of automatic, thread, or static storage duration and without calling the functions passed to `atexit()` (3.6.3).

```c
extern "C" int atexit(void (*f)(void))
extern "C++" int atexit(void (*f)(void))
```

**Effects:** The `atexit()` functions register the function pointed to by `f` to be called without arguments at normal program termination. It is unspecified whether a call to `atexit()` that does not happen-before (1.10) a call to `exit()` will succeed. [*Note:* the `atexit()` functions shall not introduce a data race (17.6.4.8). — *end note*]

**Implementation limits:** The implementation shall support the registration of at least 32 functions.

`atexit()` function returns zero if the registration succeeds, non-zero if it fails.

```c
void exit [[noreturn]] (int status)
```

The function `exit()` has additional behavior in this International Standard:

— First, objects with thread storage duration and associated with the current thread are destroyed. Next, objects with static storage duration are destroyed and functions registered by calling `atexit` are called. See 3.6.3 for the order of destructions and calls. (Automatic objects are not destroyed as a result of calling `exit()`.)

If control leaves a registered function called by `exit` because the function does not provide a handler for a thrown exception, `terminate()` shall be called.

— Next, all open C streams (as mediated by the function signatures declared in `<cstdio>`) with unwritten buffered data are flushed, all open C streams are closed, and all files created by calling `tmpfile()` are removed.

— Finally, control is returned to the host environment. If `status` is zero or `EXIT_SUCCESS`, an implementation-defined form of the status `successful termination` is returned. If `status` is `EXIT_FAILURE`, an implementation-defined form of the status `unsuccessful termination` is returned. Otherwise the status returned is implementation-defined.

The function `exit()` never returns to its caller.

```c
extern "C" int at_quick_exit(void (*f)(void));
extern "C++" int at_quick_exit(void (*f)(void));
```

**Effects:** The `at_quick_exit()` functions register the function pointed to by `f` to be called without arguments when `quick_exit` is called. It is unspecified whether a call to `at_quick_exit()` that does not happen-before (1.10) will succeed. [*Note:* the `at_quick_exit()` functions shall not introduce a data race (17.6.4.8). — *end note*]

**Implementation limits:** The implementation shall support the registration of at least 32 functions.

`at_quick_exit()` registrations are distinct from the `atexit` registrations, and applications may need to call both registration functions with the same argument.

**Returns:** zero if the registration succeeds, non-zero if it fails.

225) A function is called for every time it is registered.
226) Objects with automatic storage duration are all destroyed in a program whose function `main()` contains no automatic objects and executes the call to `exit()`. Control can be transferred directly to such a `main()` by throwing an exception that is caught in `main()`.
227) The macros `EXIT_FAILURE` and `EXIT_SUCCESS` are defined in `<cstdlib>`.
void quick_exit [[noreturn]] (int status)

Effects: Functions registered by calls to at_quick_exit are called in the reverse order of their registration, except that a function shall be called after any previously registered functions that had already been called at the time it was registered. Objects shall not be destroyed as a result of calling quick_exit.

If control leaves a registered function called by quick_exit because the function does not provide a handler for a thrown exception, terminate() shall be called.

After calling registered functions, quick_exit shall call _Exit(status). [Note: The standard file buffers are not flushed. See: ISO C 7.20.4.4. — end note]

The function quick_exit() never returns to its caller.

See also: 3.6, 3.6.3, ISO C 7.10.4.

18.6 Dynamic memory management

The header <new> defines several functions that manage the allocation of dynamic storage in a program. It also defines components for reporting storage management errors.

Header <new> synopsis

namespace std {
  class bad_alloc;
  bad_array_new_length;
  struct nothrow_t {};
  extern const nothrow_t nothrow;
  typedef void (*new_handler)();
  new_handler set_new_handler(new_handler new_p) throw();
}

void* operator new(std::size_t size) throw(std::bad_alloc);
void* operator new(std::size_t size, const std::nothrow_t&) throw();
void operator delete(void* ptr) throw();
void operator delete(void* ptr, const std::nothrow_t&) throw();
void* operator new[](std::size_t size) throw(std::bad_alloc);
void* operator new[](std::size_t size, const std::nothrow_t&) throw();
void operator delete[](void* ptr) throw();
void operator delete[](void* ptr, const std::nothrow_t&) throw();

void* operator new (std::size_t size, void* ptr) throw();
void* operator new[](std::size_t size, void* ptr) throw();
void operator delete (void* ptr, void*) throw();
void operator delete[](void* ptr, void*) throw();

See also: 1.7, 3.7.4, 5.3.4, 5.3.5, 12.5, 20.8.

18.6.1 Storage allocation and deallocation

Except where otherwise specified, the provisions of (3.7.4) apply to the library versions of operator new and operator delete.

18.6.1.1 Single-object forms

void* operator new(std::size_t size) throw(std::bad_alloc);
Effects: The *allocation function* (3.7.4.1) called by a *new-expression* (5.3.4) to allocate `size` bytes of storage suitably aligned to represent any object of that size.

Replaceable: a C++ program may define a function with this function signature that displaces the default version defined by the C++ standard library.

Required behavior: Return a non-null pointer to suitably aligned storage (3.7.4), or else throw a `bad_alloc` exception. This requirement is binding on a replacement version of this function.

Default behavior:

- Executes a loop: Within the loop, the function first attempts to allocate the requested storage. Whether the attempt involves a call to the Standard C library function `malloc` is unspecified.
- Returns a pointer to the allocated storage if the attempt is successful. Otherwise, if the argument in the most recent call to `set_new_handler()` (18.6.2.4) was a null pointer, throws `bad_alloc`.
- Otherwise, the function calls the current `new_handler` function (18.6.2.3). If the called function returns, the loop repeats.
- The loop terminates when an attempt to allocate the requested storage is successful or when a called `new_handler` function does not return.

```cpp
void* operator new(std::size_t size, const std::nothrow_t&) throw();
```

Effects: Same as above, except that it is called by a placement version of a *new-expression* when a C++ program prefers a null pointer result as an error indication, instead of a `bad_alloc` exception.

Replaceable: a C++ program may define a function with this function signature that displaces the default version defined by the C++ standard library.

Required behavior: Return a non-null pointer to suitably aligned storage (3.7.4), or else return a null pointer. This nothrow version of `operator new` returns a pointer obtained as if acquired from the (possibly replaced) ordinary version. This requirement is binding on a replacement version of this function.

Default behavior: Calls `operator new(size)`. If the call returns normally, returns the result of that call. Otherwise, returns a null pointer.

[Example:

```cpp
t* p1 = new T;  // throws bad_alloc if it fails
t* p2 = new(nothrow) T;  // returns 0 if it fails

— end example ]
```

```cpp
void operator delete(void* ptr) throw();
```

Effects: The *deallocation function* (3.7.4.2) called by a *delete-expression* to render the value of `ptr` invalid.

Replaceable: a C++ program may define a function with this function signature that displaces the default version defined by the C++ standard library.

Requires: `ptr` shall be a null pointer or its value shall be a value returned by an earlier call to the (possibly replaced) `operator new(std::size_t)` or `operator new(std::size_t, const std::nothrow_t&)` which has not been invalidated by an intervening call to `operator delete(void*)`.

Requires: If an implementation has strict pointer safety (3.7.4.3) then `ptr` shall be a safely-derived pointer.
Default behavior: If ptr is null, does nothing. Otherwise, reclaims the storage allocated by the earlier call to operator new.

Remarks: It is unspecified under what conditions part or all of such reclaimed storage will be allocated by subsequent calls to operator new or any of calloc, malloc, or realloc, declared in <cstdlib>.

```cpp
void operator delete(void* ptr, const std::nothrow_t&) throw();
```

Effects: The deallocation function (3.7.4.2) called by the implementation to render the value of ptr invalid when the constructor invoked from a nothrow placement version of the new-expression throws an exception.

Replaceable: a C++ program may define a function with this function signature that displaces the default version defined by the C++ standard library.

Requires: If an implementation has strict pointer safety (3.7.4.3) then ptr shall be a safely-derived pointer.

Default behavior: calls operator delete(ptr).

### 18.6.1.2 Array forms [new.delete.array]

```cpp
void* operator new[](std::size_t size) throw(std::bad_alloc);
```

Effects: The allocation function (3.7.4.1) called by the array form of a new-expression (5.3.4) to allocate size bytes of storage suitably aligned to represent any array object of that size or smaller.

Replaceable: a C++ program can define a function with this function signature that displaces the default version defined by the C++ standard library.

Required behavior: Same as for operator new(std::size_t). This requirement is binding on a replacement version of this function.

Default behavior: Returns operator new(size).

```cpp
void* operator new[](std::size_t size, const std::nothrow_t&) throw();
```

Effects: Same as above, except that it is called by a placement version of a new-expression when a C++ program prefers a null pointer result as an error indication, instead of a bad_alloc exception.

Replaceable: a C++ program can define a function with this function signature that displaces the default version defined by the C++ standard library.

Required behavior: Return a non-null pointer to suitably aligned storage (3.7.4), or return a null pointer. This requirement is binding on a replacement version of this function.

Default behavior: Calls operator new[](size). If the call returns normally, returns the result of that call. Otherwise, returns a null pointer.

```cpp
void operator delete[](void* ptr) throw();
```

Effects: The deallocation function (3.7.4.2) called by the array form of a delete-expression to render the value of ptr invalid.

---

228) It is not the direct responsibility of operator new[](std::size_t) or operator delete[](void*) to note the repetition count or element size of the array. Those operations are performed elsewhere in the array new and delete expressions. The array new expression, may, however, increase the size argument to operator new[](std::size_t) to obtain space to store supplemental information.

§ 18.6.1.2
Replaceable: a C++ program can define a function with this function signature that displaces the default version defined by the C++ standard library.

Requires: `ptr` shall be a null pointer or its value shall be the value returned by an earlier call to `operator new[]` (std::size_t) or `operator new[]` (std::size_t, const std::nothrow_t&) which has not been invalidated by an intervening call to `operator delete[]` (void*).

Requires: If an implementation has strict pointer safety (3.7.4.3) then `ptr` shall be a safely-derived pointer.

Default behavior: Calls `operator delete(ptr)`.

```cpp
void operator delete[](void* ptr, const std::nothrow_t&) throw();
```

Effects: The deallocation function (3.7.4.2) called by the implementation to render the value of `ptr` invalid when the constructor invoked from a noexcept placement version of the array `new-expression` throws an exception.

Replaceable: a C++ program may define a function with this function signature that displaces the default version defined by the C++ standard library.

Requires: If an implementation has strict pointer safety (3.7.4.3) then `ptr` shall be a safely-derived pointer.

Default behavior: Calls `operator delete[](ptr)`.

### 18.6.1.3 Placement forms

These functions are reserved, a C++ program may not define functions that displace the versions in the Standard C++ library (17.6.3). The provisions of (3.7.4) do not apply to these reserved placement forms of `operator new` and `operator delete`.

```cpp
void* operator new(std::size_t size, void* ptr) throw();
```

Returns: `ptr`.

Remarks: Intentionally performs no other action.

Example: This can be useful for constructing an object at a known address:

```cpp
void* place = operator new(sizeof(Something));
Something* p = new (place) Something();
```

— end example

```cpp
void* operator new[](std::size_t size, void* ptr) throw();
```

Returns: `ptr`.

Remarks: Intentionally performs no other action.

```cpp
void operator delete(void* ptr, void*) throw();
```

Effects: Intentionally performs no action.

Requires: If an implementation has strict pointer safety (3.7.4.3) then `ptr` shall be a safely-derived pointer.

Remarks: Default function called when any part of the initialization in a placement new expression that invokes the library’s non-array placement operator new terminates by throwing an exception (5.3.4).
void operator delete[](void* ptr, void*) throw();

**Effects:** Intentionally performs no action.

**Requires:** If an implementation has strict pointer safety (3.7.4.3) then `ptr` shall be a safely-derived pointer.

**Remarks:** Default function called when any part of the initialization in a placement new expression that invokes the library’s array placement operator new terminates by throwing an exception (5.3.4).

### 18.6.1.4 Data races

The library versions of `operator new` and `operator delete`, user replacement versions of global `operator new` and `operator delete`, and the C standard library functions `calloc`, `malloc`, `realloc`, and `free` shall not introduce data races (1.10) as a result of concurrent calls from different threads. Calls to these functions that allocate or deallocate a particular unit of storage shall occur in a single total order, and each such deallocation call shall happen before the next allocation (if any) in this order.

### 18.6.2 Storage allocation errors

#### 18.6.2.1 Class `bad_alloc` [bad.alloc]

```cpp
namespace std {
    class bad_alloc : public exception {
        public:
            bad_alloc() throw();
            bad_alloc(const bad_alloc&) throw();
            bad_alloc& operator=(const bad_alloc&) throw();
            virtual const char* what() const throw();
    };
}
```

The class `bad_alloc` defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions by the implementation to report a failure to allocate storage.

`bad_alloc() throw();`

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `bad_alloc`.

**Remarks:** The result of calling `what()` on the newly constructed object is implementation-defined.

`bad_alloc(const bad_alloc&) throw();`

`bad_alloc& operator=(const bad_alloc&) throw();`

**Effects:** Copies an object of class `bad_alloc`.

`virtual const char* what() const throw();`

**Returns:** An implementation-defined NTBS.

#### 18.6.2.2 Class `bad_array_new_length` [new.badlength]

```cpp
namespace std {
    class bad_array_new_length : public bad_alloc {
        public:
            bad_array_new_length() throw();
    };
}
```

§ 18.6.2.2
The class `bad_array_new_length` defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions by the implementation to report an attempt to allocate an array of size greater than an implementation-defined limit (5.3.4).

```cpp
bad_array_new_length() throw();
```

**Effects:** constructs an object of class `bad_array_new_length`.

**Remarks:** the result of calling `what()` on the newly constructed object is implementation-defined.

### 18.6.2.3 Type `new_handler`

```cpp
typedef void (*new_handler)();
```

The type of a *handler function* to be called by `operator new()` or `operator new[]()` (18.6.1) when they cannot satisfy a request for additional storage.

**Required behavior:** A `new_handler` shall perform one of the following:
- make more storage available for allocation and then return;
- throw an exception of type `bad_alloc` or a class derived from `bad_alloc`;
- terminate execution of the program without returning to the caller;

### 18.6.2.4 `set_new_handler`

```cpp
new_handler set_new_handler(new_handler new_p) throw();
```

**Effects:** Establishes the function designated by `new_p` as the current `new_handler`.

**Returns:** 0 on the first call, the previous `new_handler` on subsequent calls.

### 18.7 Type identification

The header `<typeinfo>` defines a type associated with type information generated by the implementation. It also defines two types for reporting dynamic type identification errors.

#### Header `<typeinfo>` synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    class type_info;
    class bad_cast;
    class bad_typeid;
}
```

**See also:** 5.2.7, 5.2.8.

### 18.7.1 Class `type_info`

```cpp
namespace std {
    class type_info {
        public:
            virtual ~type_info();
            bool operator==(const type_info& rhs) const;
            bool operator!=(const type_info& rhs) const;
            bool before(const type_info& rhs) const;
            size_t hash_code() const throw();
            const char* name() const;
    }
}
```
The class `type_info` describes type information generated by the implementation. Objects of this class effectively store a pointer to a name for the type, and an encoded value suitable for comparing two types for equality or collating order. The names, encoding rule, and collating sequence for types are all unspecified and may differ between programs.

```cpp
type_info(const type_info& rhs) = delete; // cannot be copied
type_info& operator=(const type_info& rhs) = delete; // cannot be copied
```

1. The class `type_info` describes type information generated by the implementation. Objects of this class effectively store a pointer to a name for the type, and an encoded value suitable for comparing two types for equality or collating order. The names, encoding rule, and collating sequence for types are all unspecified and may differ between programs.

```cpp
bool operator==(const type_info& rhs) const;
```

2. Effects: Compares the current object with `rhs`.
3. Returns: `true` if the two values describe the same type.

```cpp
bool operator!=(const type_info& rhs) const;
```

4. Returns: `!(*this == rhs)`.

```cpp
bool before(const type_info& rhs) const;
```

5. Effects: Compares the current object with `rhs`.
6. Returns: `true` if `*this` precedes `rhs` in the implementation’s collation order.

```cpp
size_t hash_code() const throw();
```

7. Returns: an unspecified value, except that within a single execution of the program, it shall return the same value for any two `type_info` objects which compare equal.
8. Remark: an implementation should return different values for two `type_info` objects which do not compare equal.

```cpp
const char* name() const;
```

9. Returns: an implementation-defined NTBS.
10. Remarks: The message may be a null-terminated multibyte string (17.5.2.1.4.2), suitable for conversion and display as a `wstring` (21.3, 22.4.1.4)

### 18.7.2 Class `bad_cast`

```cpp
namespace std {
    class bad_cast : public exception {
        public:
            bad_cast() throw();
            bad_cast(const bad_cast&) throw();
            bad_cast& operator=(const bad_cast&) throw();
            virtual const char* what() const throw();
        }
    }
}
```

1. The class `bad_cast` defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions by the implementation to report the execution of an invalid `dynamic-cast` expression (5.2.7).

```cpp
bad_cast() throw();
```
The class `bad_typeid` defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions by the implementation to report a null pointer in a `typeid` expression (5.2.8).

```cpp
class bad_typeid : public exception {
public:
    bad_typeid() throw();
    bad_typeid(const bad_typeid&) throw();
    bad_typeid& operator=(const bad_typeid&) throw();
    virtual const char* what() const throw();
};
```

Effects: Constructs an object of class `bad_typeid`.
Remarks: The result of calling `what()` on the newly constructed object is implementation-defined.

```cpp
bad_typeid(const bad_typeid&) throw();
bad_typeid& operator=(const bad_typeid&) throw();
```

Effects: Copies an object of class `bad_typeid`.
Returns: An implementation-defined NTBS.
Remarks: The message may be a null-terminated multibyte string (17.5.2.1.4.2), suitable for conversion and display as a `wstring` (21.3, 22.4.1.4)
class nested_exception;

typedef void (*unexpected_handler)();
unexpected_handler set_unexpected(unexpected_handler f) throw();
void unexpected [[noreturn]] () ;

typedef void (*terminate_handler)();
terminate_handler set_terminate(terminate_handler f) throw();
void terminate [[noreturn]] () ;

bool uncaught_exception() throw();

typedef unspecified exception_ptr;

exception_ptr current_exception();
void rethrow_exception [[noreturn]] (exception_ptr p);
template<class E> exception_ptr copy_exception(E e);

template <class T> void throw_with_nested [[noreturn]] (T& t);
template <class E> void rethrow_if_nested(const E& e);
}

See also: 15.5.

18.8.1 Class exception

namespace std {
    class exception {
        public:
            exception() throw();
            exception(const exception&) throw();
            exception& operator=(const exception&) throw();
            virtual ~exception() throw();
            virtual const char* what() const throw();
    };
}

1 The class exception defines the base class for the types of objects thrown as exceptions by C++ standard library components, and certain expressions, to report errors detected during program execution.

    exception() throw();
    Effects: Constructs an object of class exception.
    Remarks: Does not throw any exceptions.

2 exception(const exception&) throw();
exception& operator=(const exception&) throw();
    Effects: Copies an exception object.
    Remarks: The effects of calling what() after assignment are implementation-defined.

3 virtual ~exception() throw();
    Effects: Destroys an object of class exception.
    Remarks: Does not throw any exceptions.

§ 18.8.1
virtual const char* what() const throw();

Returns: An implementation-defined NTBS.

Remarks: The message may be a null-terminated multibyte string (17.5.2.1.4.2), suitable for conversion and display as a wstring (21.3, 22.4.1.4). The return value remains valid until the exception object from which it is obtained is destroyed or a non-const member function of the exception object is called.

18.8.2 Violating exception-specifications

18.8.2.1 Class bad_exception

namespace std {
    class bad_exception : public exception {
    public:
        bad_exception() throw();
        bad_exception(const bad_exception&) throw();
        bad_exception& operator=(const bad_exception&) throw();
        virtual const char* what() const throw();
    }
}

The class bad_exception defines the type of objects thrown as described in (15.5.2).

bad_exception() throw();

Effects: Constructs an object of class bad_exception.

Remarks: The result of calling what() on the newly constructed object is implementation-defined.

bad_exception(const bad_exception&) throw();
bad_exception& operator=(const bad_exception&) throw();

Effects: Copies an object of class bad_exception.

virtual const char* what() const throw();

Returns: An implementation-defined NTBS.

Remarks: The message may be a null-terminated multibyte string (17.5.2.1.4.2), suitable for conversion and display as a wstring (21.3, 22.4.1.4).

18.8.2.2 Type unexpected_handler

typedef void (*unexpected_handler)();

The type of a handler function to be called by unexpected() when a function attempts to throw an exception not listed in its exception-specification.

Required behavior: An unexpected_handler shall not return. See also 15.5.2.

Default behavior: The implementation’s default unexpected_handler calls terminate().

18.8.2.3 set_unexpected

unexpected_handler set_unexpected(unexpected_handler f) throw();
18.8.2.4 unexpected

```c
void unexpected [[noreturn]] ();
```

Called by the implementation when a function exits via an exception not allowed by its exception-specification (15.5.2). May also be called directly by the program.

**Effects:** Calls the `unexpected_handler` function in effect immediately after evaluating the `throw-expression` (18.8.2.2), if called by the implementation, or calls the current `unexpected_handler`, if called by the program.

18.8.3 Abnormal termination

18.8.3.1 Type terminate_handler

```c
typedef void (*terminate_handler)();
```

The type of a `handler function` to be called by `terminate()` when terminating exception processing.

**Required behavior:** A `terminate_handler` shall terminate execution of the program without returning to the caller.

**Default behavior:** The implementation’s default `terminate_handler` calls `abort()`.

18.8.3.2 set_terminate

```c
terminate_handler set_terminate(terminate_handler f) throw();
```

**Effects:** Establishes the function designated by `f` as the current `terminate_handler` function for terminating exception processing.

**Requires:** `f` shall not be a null pointer.

**Returns:** The previous `terminate_handler`.

18.8.3.3 terminate

```c
void terminate [[noreturn]] ();
```

Called by the implementation when exception handling must be abandoned for any of several reasons (15.5.1). May also be called directly by the program.

**Effects:** Calls the `terminate_handler` function in effect immediately after evaluating the `throw-expression` (18.8.3.1), if called by the implementation, or calls the current `terminate_handler` function, if called by the program.
18.8.4 uncaught_exception

    bool uncaught_exception() throw();

1    Returns: true after completing evaluation of a throw-expression until either completing initialization
2    of the exception-declaration in the matching handler or entering unexpected() due to the throw; or
3    after entering terminate() for any reason other than an explicit call to terminate(). [Note: This
4    includes stack unwinding (15.2). — end note]
5    Remarks: When uncaught_exception() returns true, throwing an exception can result in a call of
6    terminate() (15.5.1).

18.8.5 Exception Propagation

    typedef unspecified exception_ptr;
1    The type exception_ptr can be used to refer to an exception object.
2    exception_ptr shall be DefaultConstructible, CopyConstructible, CopyAssignable, and EqualityComparable.
3    exception_ptr’s operations shall not throw exceptions.
4    Two objects of type exception_ptr are equivalent and compare equal if and only if they refer to the
5    same exception.
6    The default constructor of exception_ptr produces the null value of the type. The null value is
7    equivalent only to itself.
8    An object of type exception_ptr can be compared for equality with a null pointer constant and
9    assigned a null pointer constant. The effect shall be as if exception_ptr() had been used in place of
10   the null pointer constant.
11   [Note: An implementation might use a reference-counted smart pointer as exception_ptr. — end
12   note]

    exception_ptr current_exception();
1    Returns: An exception_ptr object that refers to the currently handled exception (15.3) or a copy of
2    the currently handled exception, or a null exception_ptr object if no exception is being handled. The
3    referenced object shall remain valid at least as long as there is an exception_ptr object that refers to
4    it. If the function needs to allocate memory and the attempt fails, it returns an exception_ptr object
5    that refers to an instance of bad_alloc. It is unspecified whether the return values of two successive
6    calls to current_exception refer to the same exception object. [Note: that is, it is unspecified whether
7    current_exception creates a new copy each time it is called. — end note] If the attempt to copy
8    the current exception object throws an exception, the function returns an exception_ptr object that
9    refers to the thrown exception or, if this is not possible, to an instance of bad_exception. [Note: The
10   copy constructor of the thrown exception may also fail, so the implementation is allowed to substitute
11   a bad_exception object to avoid infinite recursion. — end note]
12    Throws: nothing.

    void rethrow_exception [[noreturn]] (exception_ptr p);
1    Requires: p shall not be a null pointer.
2    Throws: the exception object to which p refers.
3
4 template<class E> exception_ptr copy_exception(E e);
Effects: as if

```cpp
try {
    throw e;
} catch(...) {
    return current_exception();
}
```

[Note: this function is provided for convenience and efficiency reasons. — end note]

### 18.8.6 nested_exception

```cpp
namespace std {
    class nested_exception {
    public:
        nested_exception() throw();
        nested_exception(const nested_exception&) throw() = default;
        nested_exception& operator=(const nested_exception&) throw() = default;
        virtual ~nested_exception() = default;

        // access functions
        void rethrow_nested() const; // [[noreturn]]
        exception_ptr nested_ptr() const;
    }

    template<class T> void throw_with_nested [[noreturn]] (T&& t);
    template <class E> void rethrow_if_nested(const E& e);
}
```

1. The class `nested_exception` is designed for use as a mixin through multiple inheritance. It captures the currently handled exception and stores it for later use.

2. [Note: `nested_exception` has a virtual destructor to make it a polymorphic class. Its presence can be tested for with `dynamic_cast`. — end note]

```cpp
nested_exception() throw();
```

3. **Effects:** The constructor calls `current_exception()` and stores the returned value.

```cpp
void rethrow_nested() const; // [[noreturn]]
```

4. **Throws:** the stored exception captured by this `nested_exception` object.

```cpp
exception_ptr nested_ptr() const;
```

5. **Returns:** the stored exception captured by this `nested_exception` object.

```cpp
template <class T> void throw_with_nested [[noreturn]] (T&& t);
```

6. **Requires:** `T` shall be CopyConstructible.

7. **Throws:** If `T` is a non-union class type not derived from `nested_exception`, an exception of unspecified type that is publicly derived from both `T` and `nested_exception`, otherwise `t`.

```cpp
template <class E> void rethrow_if_nested(const E& e);
```

8. **Effects:** Calls `e.rethrow_nested()` only if `e` is publicly derived from `nested_exception`. 

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18.9 Initializer lists

The header `<initializer_list>` defines one type.

Header `<initializer_list>` synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<class E> class initializer_list {
        public:
            typedef E value_type;
            typedef const E& reference;
            typedef const E& const_reference;
            typedef size_t size_type;

            typedef const E* iterator;
            typedef const E* const_iterator;

            initializer_list();

            size_t size() const; // number of elements
            const E* begin() const; // first element
            const E* end() const; // one past the last element
    };

    // 18.9.3 initializer list range access
    template<class E> const E* begin(initializer_list<E> il);
    template<class E> const E* end(initializer_list<E> il);
}
```

An object of type `initializer_list<E>` provides access to an array of objects of type `const E`. [Note: A pair of pointers or a pointer plus a length would be obvious representations for `initializer_list`. `initializer_list` is used to implement initializer lists as specified in 8.5.4. Copying an initializer list does not copy the underlying elements. — end note]

18.9.1 Initializer list constructors

```cpp
initializer_list();
```

1

*Effects:* constructs an empty `initializer_list` object.

2

*Postcondition:* `size() == 0`

3

*Throws:* nothing.

18.9.2 Initializer list access

```cpp
const E* begin() const;
```

1

*Returns:* a pointer to the beginning of the array. If `size() == 0` the values of `begin()` and `end()` are unspecified but they shall be identical.

2

*Throws:* nothing.

```cpp
const E* end() const;
```

3

*Returns:* `begin() + size()`

4

*Throws:* nothing.
size_t size() const;
5     // Returns: the number of elements in the array.
6     // Throws: nothing.
7     // Complexity: constant time.

18.9.3 Initializer list range access
[18.9.3 support.initlist.range]

template<class E> const E* begin(initializer_list<E> il);
1     // Returns: il.begin().

template<class E> const E* end(initializer_list<E> il);
2     // Returns: il.end().

18.10 Other runtime support
[18.10 support.runtime]

1 Headers <cstdarg> (variable arguments), <csetjmp> (nonlocal jumps), <ctime> (system clock clock(),
time()), <csignal> (signal handling), <cstdlib> (runtime environment getenv(), system()), and <cstdbool> (__bool_true_false_are_defined).

2 The contents of these headers are the same as the Standard C library headers <stdarg.h>, <setjmp.h>,
<time.h>, <signal.h>, and <stdlib.h> respectively, with the following changes:

3 The restrictions that ISO C places on the second parameter to the va_start() macro in header <stdarg.h>
are different in this International Standard. The parameter parmN is the identifier of the rightmost parameter
in the variable parameter list of the function definition (the one just before the ...).229 If the parameter

229) Note that va_start is required to work as specified even if unary operator& is overloaded for the type of parmN.

§ 18.10
parmN is declared with a function, array, or reference type, or with a type that is not compatible with the type that results when passing an argument for which there is no parameter, the behavior is undefined.


4 The function signature `longjmp(jmp_buf jbuf, int val)` has more restricted behavior in this International Standard. A `setjmp/longjmp` call pair has undefined behavior if replacing the `setjmp` and `longjmp` by `catch` and `throw` would invoke any non-trivial destructors for any automatic objects.

SEE ALSO: ISO C 7.10.4, 7.8, 7.6, 7.12.

5 Calls to the function `getenv` shall not introduce a data race (17.6.4.8) provided that nothing modifies the environment. [Note: Calls to the POSIX functions `setenv` and `putenv` modify the environment. — end note]

6 The header `<cstdbool>` and the header `<stdbool.h>` shall not define macros named `bool`, `true`, and `false`.

7 The common subset of the C and C++ languages consists of all declarations, definitions, and expressions that may appear in a well formed C++ program and also in a conforming C program. A POF (“plain old function”) is a function that uses only features from this common subset, and that does not directly or indirectly use any function that is not a POF, except that it may use functions defined in Clause 29 that are not member functions. All signal handlers shall have C linkage. A POF that could be used as a signal handler in a conforming C program does not produce undefined behavior when used as a signal handler in a C++ program. The behavior of any other function used as a signal handler in a C++ program is implementation-defined.230

---

230) In particular, a signal handler using exception handling is very likely to have problems. Also, invoking `std::exit` may cause destruction of objects, including those of the standard library implementation, which, in general, yields undefined behavior in a signal handler (see 1.9).
19  Diagnostics library  [diagnostics]

19.1  General  [diagnostics.general]

1 This Clause describes components that C++ programs may use to detect and report error conditions.

2 The following subclauses describe components for reporting several kinds of exceptional conditions, documenting program assertions, and a global variable for error number codes, as summarized in Table 27.

Table 27 — Diagnostics library summary

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19.2  Exception classes  [std.exceptions]

1 The Standard C++ library provides classes to be used to report certain errors (17.6.4.11) in C++ programs. In the error model reflected in these classes, errors are divided into two broad categories: logic errors and runtime errors.

2 The distinguishing characteristic of logic errors is that they are due to errors in the internal logic of the program. In theory, they are preventable.

3 By contrast, runtime errors are due to events beyond the scope of the program. They cannot be easily predicted in advance. The header <stdexcept> defines several types of predefined exceptions for reporting errors in a C++ program. These exceptions are related by inheritance.

Header <stdexcept> synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    class logic_error;
    class domain_error;
    class invalid_argument;
    class length_error;
    class out_of_range;
    class runtime_error;
    class range_error;
    class overflow_error;
    class underflow_error;
}
```

19.2.1  Class logic_error  [logic.error]

```cpp
namespace std {
    class logic_error : public exception {
        public:
            explicit logic_error(const string& what_arg);
    }
}
```

§ 19.2.1
The class \texttt{logic\_error} defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions to report errors presumably detectable before the program executes, such as violations of logical preconditions or class invariants.

\begin{verbatim}
explicit logic_error(const char* what_arg);
;
}
\end{verbatim}

The class \texttt{logic\_error} defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions to report errors presumably detectable before the program executes, such as violations of logical preconditions or class invariants.

\begin{verbatim}
logic_error(const string& what_arg);

Effects: Constructs an object of class \texttt{logic\_error}.

Postcondition: strcmp(what(), what\_arg.c\_str()) == 0.
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
logic_error(const char* what_arg);

Effects: Constructs an object of class \texttt{logic\_error}.

Postcondition: strcmp(what(), what\_arg) == 0.
\end{verbatim}

\subsection*{19.2.2 Class \texttt{domain\_error} \[domain.error\]}

\begin{verbatim}
namespace std {
    class domain_error : public logic_error {
        public:
            explicit domain_error(const string& what_arg);
            explicit domain_error(const char* what_arg);
        };
    }
\end{verbatim}

The class \texttt{domain\_error} defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions by the implementation to report domain errors.

\begin{verbatim}
domain_error(const string& what_arg);

Effects: Constructs an object of class \texttt{domain\_error}.

Postcondition: strcmp(what(), what\_arg.c\_str()) == 0.
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
domain_error(const char* what_arg);

Effects: Constructs an object of class \texttt{domain\_error}.

Postcondition: strcmp(what(), what\_arg) == 0.
\end{verbatim}

\subsection*{19.2.3 Class \texttt{invalid\_argument} \[invalid.argument\]}

\begin{verbatim}
namespace std {
    class invalid_argument : public logic_error {
        public:
            explicit invalid_argument(const string& what_arg);
            explicit invalid_argument(const char* what_arg);
        };
    }
\end{verbatim}

The class \texttt{invalid\_argument} defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions to report an invalid argument.

\begin{verbatim}
invalid_argument(const string& what_arg);
\end{verbatim}
Effects: Constructs an object of class `invalid_argument`.

Postcondition: `strcmp(what(), what_arg.c_str()) == 0`.

```cpp
invalid_argument(const char* what_arg);
```

Effects: Constructs an object of class `invalid_argument`.

Postcondition: `strcmp(what(), what_arg) == 0`.

19.2.4 Class `length_error`  

```cpp
namespace std {
    class length_error : public logic_error {
        public:
            explicit length_error(const string& what_arg);
            explicit length_error(const char* what_arg);
    };
}
```

The class `length_error` defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions to report an attempt to produce an object whose length exceeds its maximum allowable size.

```cpp
length_error(const string& what_arg);
```

Effects: Constructs an object of class `length_error`.

Postcondition: `strcmp(what(), what_arg.c_str()) == 0`.

```cpp
length_error(const char* what_arg);
```

Effects: Constructs an object of class `length_error`.

Postcondition: `strcmp(what(), what_arg) == 0`.

19.2.5 Class `out_of_range`  

```cpp
namespace std {
    class out_of_range : public logic_error {
        public:
            explicit out_of_range(const string& what_arg);
            explicit out_of_range(const char* what_arg);
    };
}
```

The class `out_of_range` defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions to report an argument value not in its expected range.

```cpp
out_of_range(const string& what_arg);
```

Effects: Constructs an object of class `out_of_range`.

Postcondition: `strcmp(what(), what_arg.c_str()) == 0`.

```cpp
out_of_range(const char* what_arg);
```

Effects: Constructs an object of class `out_of_range`.

Postcondition: `strcmp(what(), what_arg) == 0`.
19.2.6 Class `runtime_error`

```cpp
namespace std {
    class runtime_error : public exception {
    public:
        explicit runtime_error(const string& what_arg);
        explicit runtime_error(const char* what_arg);
    };  
}
```

The class `runtime_error` defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions to report errors presumably detectable only when the program executes.

```cpp
runtime_error(const string& what_arg);
```

- **Effects:** Constructs an object of class `runtime_error`.
- **Postcondition:** `strcmp(what(), what_arg.c_str()) == 0`.

```cpp
runtime_error(const char* what_arg);
```

- **Effects:** Constructs an object of class `runtime_error`.
- **Postcondition:** `strcmp(what(), what_arg) == 0`.

19.2.7 Class `range_error`

```cpp
namespace std {
    class range_error : public runtime_error {
    public:
        explicit range_error(const string& what_arg);
        explicit range_error(const char* what_arg);
    }
}
```

The class `range_error` defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions to report range errors in internal computations.

```cpp
range_error(const string& what_arg);
```

- **Effects:** Constructs an object of class `range_error`.
- **Postcondition:** `strcmp(what(), what_arg.c_str()) == 0`.

```cpp
range_error(const char* what_arg);
```

- **Effects:** Constructs an object of class `range_error`.
- **Postcondition:** `strcmp(what(), what_arg) == 0`.

19.2.8 Class `overflow_error`

```cpp
namespace std {
    class overflow_error : public runtime_error {
    public:
        explicit overflow_error(const string& what_arg);
        explicit overflow_error(const char* what_arg);
    }
}
```

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The class `overflow_error` defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions to report an arithmetic overflow error.

```cpp
overflow_error(const string& what_arg);
```

*Effects:* Constructs an object of class `overflow_error`.

*Postcondition:* `strcmp(what(), what_arg.c_str()) == 0`.

```cpp
overflow_error(const char* what_arg);
```

*Effects:* Constructs an object of class `overflow_error`.

*Postcondition:* `strcmp(what(), what_arg) == 0`.

19.2.9 Class `underflow_error` [underflow.error]

```cpp
namespace std {
    class underflow_error : public runtime_error {
        public:
            explicit underflow_error(const string& what_arg);
            explicit underflow_error(const char* what_arg);
    };
}
```

The class `underflow_error` defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions to report an arithmetic underflow error.

```cpp
underflow_error(const string& what_arg);
```

*Effects:* Constructs an object of class `underflow_error`.

*Postcondition:* `strcmp(what(), what_arg.c_str()) == 0`.

```cpp
underflow_error(const char* what_arg);
```

*Effects:* Constructs an object of class `underflow_error`.

*Postcondition:* `strcmp(what(), what_arg) == 0`.

19.3 Assertions [assertions]

The header `<cassert>`, described in (Table 28), provides a macro for documenting C++ program assertions and a mechanism for disabling the assertion checks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macro:</td>
<td>assert</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The contents are the same as the Standard C library header `<assert.h>`.

See also: ISO C 7.2.
19.4 Error numbers

The header `<cerrno>` is described in Table 29. Its contents are the same as the POSIX header `<errno.h>`, except that `errno` shall be defined as a macro. [Note: The intent is to remain in close alignment with the POSIX standard. — end note] A separate `errno` value shall be provided for each thread.

Table 29 — Header `<cerrno>` synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macros:</td>
<td>ECONNREFUSED EIO ENODEV ENOTEMPTY ENOTRECOVERABLE EROFS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E2BIG ECONNRESET EISCONN ENOENT ENOTRECOVERABLE EROFS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EACCES EDEADLK EISDIR ENOEXEC ENOTSOCK EFILE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EADDRINUSE EDESTADDRREQ ELOOP ENOLCK ENOTSUP ESRCH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EADDRNOTAVAIL EDOM EMFILE ENOLINK ETTY ETIME</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EAFNOSUPPORT EXIST EMFILE ENOLINK ETTY ETIME</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EAGAIN EFAULT EMSIZE ENOMEM EXDEV ETIMEDOUT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EALREADY EBIG ENMETAOEOLOONG ENOPROTOOPT EOVERFLOW EWOULDDBLOCK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EBADF EHOSTUNREACH ENETDOWN ENOSPC EOWNERDEAD EXDEV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EBADMSG EIDRM ENETRESET ENOSR EPERM errno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EBUSY EISSEQ ENETUNREACH ENOSISTR EPIPE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECANCELED EINPROGRESS EMFILE ENOSYS EPROTO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECANCEL EINTR ENODIR ENOTCONN EPROTONOSUPPORT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECONNABORTED EINVAL ENODATA ENOTDIR EPROTOTYPE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19.5 System error support

This subclause describes components that the standard library and C++ programs may use to report error conditions originating from the operating system or other low-level application program interfaces. Components described in this subclause shall not change the value of `errno` (19.4). Implementations are encouraged but not required to leave unchanged the error states provided by other libraries.

Header `<system_error>` synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    class error_category;
    class error_code;
    class error_condition;
    class system_error;

    template <class T>
    struct is_error_code_enum : public false_type {};

    template <class T>
    struct is_error_condition_enum : public false_type {};

    enum class errc {
        address_family_not_supported, // EAFNOSUPPORT
        address_in_use, // EADDRINUSE
        address_not_available, // EADDRNOTAVAIL
        already_connected, // EISCONN
        argument_list_too_long, // E2BIG
        argument_out_of_domain, // EDOM
        bad_address, //EFAULT
    };
}
```

§ 19.5
bad_file_descriptor, // EBADF
bad_message, // EBADMSG
broken_pipe, // EPipe
connection_aborted, // ECONNABORTED
connection_already_in_progress, // EALREADY
connection_refused, // ECONNREFUSED
connection_reset, // ECONNRESET
cross_device_link, // EXDEV
destination_address_required, // EDESTADDRREQ
device_or_resource_busy, // EBUSY
directory_not_empty, // ENOTEMPTY
executable_format_error, // ENOEXEC
file_exists, // EXIST
file_too_large, // EFBIG
filename_too_long, // ENAMETOOLONG
function_not_supported, // ENOSYS
host_unreachable, // EHOSTUNREACH
identifier_removed, // EIDRM
illegal_byte_sequence, // EILSEQ
inappropriate_io_control_operation, // ENOTTY
interrupted, // EINTR
invalid_argument, // EINVAL
invalid_seek, // ESPIPE
io_error, // EIO
is_a_directory, // EISDIR
message_size, // EMSGSIZE
network_down, // ENETDOWN
network_reset, // ENETRESET
network_unreachable, // ENETUNREACH
no_buffer_space, // ENOBUFFS
no_child_process, // ECHILD
no_link, // ENOLINK
no_lock_available, // ENOLCK
no_message_available, // ENOMSG
no_message, // ENOMSG
no_protocol_option, // ENOPROTOOPT
no_space_on_device, // ENOSPC
no_stream_resources, // ENOSR
no_such_device_or_address, // ENXIO
no_such_device, // ENODEV
no_such_file_or_directory, // ENOTENT
no_such_process, // ESRCH
not_a_directory, // ENOTDIR
not_a_socket, // ENOTSOCK
not_a_stream, // ENOTSTR
not_connected, // ENOTCONN
not_enough_memory, // ENOMEM
not_supported, // ENOTSUP
operation_canceled, // ECANCELED
operation_in_progress, // EINPROGRESS
operation_not_permitted, // EPERM
operation_not_supported, // EOPNOTSUPP
operation_would_block, // EWOULDBLOCK
owner_dead, // EOWNERDEAD
permission_denied, // EACCES

protocol_error, // EPROTO
protocol_not_supported, // EPROTONOSUPPORT
read_only_file_system, // EROFS
resource_deadlock_would_occur, // EDEADLK
resource_unavailable_try_again, // EAGAIN
result_out_of_range, // ERANGE
state_not_recoverable, // ENOTRECOVERABLE
stream_timeout, // ETIME
text_file_busy, // ETXTBSY
timed_out, // ETIMEDOUT
too_many_files_open_in_system, // ENFILE
too_many_files_open, // EMFILE
too_many_links, // EMLINK
too_many_symbolic_link_levels, // ELOOP
value_too_large, // EOVERFLOW
wrong_protocol_type, // EPROTOTYPE

};

template <> struct is_error_condition_enum<errc> : true_type { }

error_code make_error_code(errc e);
error_condition make_error_condition(errc e);

// 19.5.4 Comparison operators:
bool operator==(const error_code& lhs, const error_code& rhs);
bool operator==(const error_code& lhs, const error_condition& rhs);
bool operator==(const error_condition& lhs, const error_code& rhs);
bool operator==(const error_condition& lhs, const error_condition& rhs);
bool operator!=(const error_code& lhs, const error_code& rhs);
bool operator!=(const error_code& lhs, const error_condition& rhs);
bool operator!=(const error_condition& lhs, const error_code& rhs);
bool operator!=(const error_condition& lhs, const error_condition& rhs);
} // namespace std

3 The value of each enum errc constant shall be the same as the value of the <cerrno> macro shown in the above synopsis. Whether or not the <system_error> implementation exposes the <cerrno> macros is unspecified.

19.5.1 Class error_category

19.5.1.1 Class error_category overview

The class error_category serves as a base class for types used to identify the source and encoding of a particular category of error code. Classes may be derived from error_category to support categories of errors in addition to those defined in this International Standard. Such classes shall behave as specified in this subclause. [Note: error_category objects are passed by reference, and two such objects are equal if they have the same address. This means that applications using custom error_category types should create a single object of each such type. — end note]

namespace std {
    class error_category {
        public:
            virtual ~error_category();
            error_category(const error_category&) = delete;
            error_category& operator=(const error_category&) = delete;

§ 19.5.1.1
virtual const char* name() const = 0;
virtual error_condition default_error_condition(int ev) const;
virtual bool equivalent(int code, const error_condition& condition) const;
virtual bool equivalent(const error_code& code, int condition) const;
virtual string message(int ev) const = 0;

bool operator==(const error_category& rhs) const;
bool operator!=(const error_category& rhs) const;
bool operator<(const error_category& rhs) const;

const error_category& generic_category();
const error_category& system_category();
}
   // namespace std

19.5.1.2 Class error_category virtual members

virtual const char* name() const = 0;
1      Returns: A string naming the error category.
2      Throws: Nothing.

virtual error_condition default_error_condition(int ev) const;
3      Returns: error_condition(ev, *this).
4      Throws: Nothing.

virtual bool equivalent(int code, const error_condition& condition) const;
5      Returns: default_error_condition(code) == condition.
6      Throws: Nothing.

virtual bool equivalent(const error_code& code, int condition) const;
7      Returns: *this == code.category() && code.value() == condition.
8      Throws: Nothing.

virtual string message(int ev) const = 0;
9      Returns: A string that describes the error condition denoted by ev.

19.5.1.3 Class error_category non-virtual members

bool operator==(const error_category& rhs) const;
1      Returns: this == &rhs.

bool operator!=(const error_category& rhs) const;
2      Returns: !(this == rhs).

bool operator<(const error_category& rhs) const;
3      Returns: less<error_category*>(this, &rhs).

§ 19.5.1.3
[Note: less (20.7.7) provides a total ordering for pointers. — end note]

Throws: Nothing.

19.5.1.4 Program defined classes derived from error_category

virtual const char *name() const = 0;

Returns: a string naming the error category.

Throws: Nothing.

virtual error_condition default_error_condition(int ev) const;

Returns: An object of type error_condition that corresponds to ev.

Throws: Nothing.

virtual bool equivalent(int code, const error_condition& condition) const;

Returns: true if, for the category of error represented by *this, code is considered equivalent to condition; otherwise, false.

Throws: Nothing.

virtual bool equivalent(const error_code& code, int condition) const;

Returns: true if, for the category of error represented by *this, code is considered equivalent to condition; otherwise, false.

Throws: Nothing.

19.5.1.5 Error category objects

const error_category& generic_category();

Returns: A reference to an object of a type derived from class error_category.

Remarks: The object’s default_error_condition and equivalent virtual functions shall behave as specified for the class error_category. The object’s name virtual function shall return a pointer to the string "generic".

const error_category& system_category();

Returns: A reference to an object of a type derived from class error_category.

Remarks: The object’s equivalent virtual functions shall behave as specified for class error_category. The object’s name virtual function shall return a pointer to the string "system". The object’s default_error_condition virtual function shall behave as follows:

If the argument ev corresponds to a POSIX errno value posv, the function shall return error_condition(posv, generic_category()). Otherwise, the function shall return error_condition(ev, system_category()). What constitutes correspondence for any given operating system is unspecified. [Note: The number of potential system error codes is large and unbounded, and some may not correspond to any POSIX errno value. Thus implementations are given latitude in determining correspondence. — end note]
19.5.2 Class error_code [syserr.errorcode]

19.5.2.1 Class error_code overview [syserr.errorcode.overview]

The class error_code describes an object used to hold error code values, such as those originating from the operating system or other low-level application program interfaces. [Note: Class error_code is an adjunct to error reporting by exception. — end note]

```cpp
namespace std {
    class error_code {
    public:
        // 19.5.2.2 constructors:
        error_code();
        error_code(int val, const error_category& cat);
        template <class ErrorCodeEnum>
        error_code(ErrorCodeEnum e,
                    typename enable_if<is_error_code_enum<ErrorCodeEnum>::value>::type * = 0);

        // 19.5.2.3 modifiers:
        void assign(int val, const error_category& cat);
        template <class ErrorCodeEnum>
        typename enable_if<is_error_code_enum<ErrorCodeEnum>::value>::type&
        operator=(ErrorCodeEnum e);
        void clear();

        // 19.5.2.4 observers:
        int value() const;
        const error_category& category() const;
        error_condition default_error_condition() const;
        string message() const;
        explicit operator bool() const;
    }

    private:
        int val_;  // exposition only
        const error_category* cat_;  // exposition only
    }

    // 19.5.2.5 non-member functions:
    bool operator<(const error_code& lhs, const error_code& rhs);

    template <class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>&
    operator<<(basic_ostream<charT,traits>& os, const error_code& ec);
} // namespace std
```

19.5.2.2 Class error_code constructors [syserr.errorcode.constructors]

error_code();

Effects: Constructs an object of type error_code.

Postconditions: val_ == 0 and cat_ == &system_category().

Throws: Nothing.
Effects: Constructs an object of type `error_code`.

Postconditions: val_ == val and cat_ == &cat.

Throws: Nothing.

template <class ErrorCodeEnum>
error_code(ErrorCodeEnum e,
    typename enable_if<is_error_code_enum<ErrorCodeEnum>::value>::type * = 0);

Effects: Constructs an object of type `error_code`.

Postconditions: *this == make_error_code(e).

Throws: Nothing.

19.5.2.3 Class `error_code` modifiers

    void assign(int val, const error_category& cat);

Postconditions: val_ == val and cat_ == &cat.

Throws: Nothing.

template <class ErrorCodeEnum>
    typename enable_if<is_error_code_enum<ErrorCodeEnum>::value>::type&
        operator=(ErrorCodeEnum e);

Postconditions: *this == make_error_code(e).

Returns: *this.

Throws: Nothing.

void clear();

Postconditions: value() == 0 and category() == system_category().

19.5.2.4 Class `error_code` observers

    int value() const;

Returns: val_.

Throws: Nothing.

const error_category& category() const;

Returns: *cat_.

Throws: Nothing.

error_condition default_error_condition() const;

Returns: category().default_error_condition(value()).

Throws: Nothing.

string message() const;

Returns: category().message(value()).

§ 19.5.2.4 [syserr.errcode.observers]
explicit operator bool() const;

Returns: value() != 0.

Throws: Nothing.

19.5.2.5 Class error_code non-member functions [syserr.errcode.nonmembers]

error_code make_error_code(errc e);

Returns: error_code(static_cast<int>(e), generic_category()).

bool operator<(const error_code& lhs, const error_code& rhs);

Returns: lhs.category() < rhs.category() || lhs.category() == rhs.category() && lhs.value() < rhs.value().

Throws: Nothing.

template <class charT, class traits>
basic_ostream<charT,traits>&
operator<<(basic_ostream<charT,traits>& os, const error_code& ec);

Effects: os << ec.category().name() << ':' << ec.value().

19.5.3 Class error_condition [syserr.errcondition]

19.5.3.1 Class error_condition overview [syserr.errcondition.overview]

The class error_condition describes an object used to hold values identifying error conditions. [Note: error_condition values are portable abstractions, while error_code values (19.5.2) are implementation specific. — end note]

namespace std {
    class error_condition {
        public:
            // 19.5.3.2 constructors:
            error_condition();
            error_condition(int val, const error_category& cat);
            template <class ErrorConditionEnum>
                error_condition(ErrorConditionEnum e,
                        typename enable_if<is_error_condition_enum<ErrorConditionEnum> >::type* = 0);

            // 19.5.3.3 modifiers:
            void assign(int val, const error_category& cat);
            template<typename ErrorConditionEnum>
            typename enable_if<is_error_condition_enum<ErrorConditionEnum>, error_code>::type &
            operator=(ErrorConditionEnum e);
            void clear();

            // 19.5.3.4 observers:
            int value() const;
            const error_category& category() const;
            string message() const;
            explicit operator bool() const;

        private:

    };

§ 19.5.3.1
int val_; // exposition only
const error_category* cat_; // exposition only
);

// 19.5.3.5 non-member functions:
bool operator<(const error_condition& lhs, const error_condition& rhs);
} // namespace std

19.5.3.2 Class error_condition constructors [syserr.errcondition.constructors]

error_condition();
1  Effects: Constructs an object of type error_condition.
2  Postconditions: val_ == 0 and cat_ == &generic_category().
3  Throws: Nothing.

error_condition(int val, const error_category& cat);
4  Effects: Constructs an object of type error_condition.
5  Postconditions: val_ == val and cat_ == &cat.
6  Throws: Nothing.

template <class ErrorConditionEnum>
error_condition(ErrorConditionEnum e,
               typename enable_if<is_error_condition_enum<ErrorConditionEnum>::value>::type * = 0);
7  Effects: Constructs an object of type error_condition.
8  Postcondition: *this == make_error_condition(e).
9  Throws: Nothing.

19.5.3.3 Class error_condition modifiers [syserr.errcondition.modifiers]

void assign(int val, const error_category& cat);
1  Postconditions: val_ == val and cat_ == &cat.
2  Throws: Nothing.

template <class ErrorConditionEnum>
typename enable_if<is_error_condition_enum<ErrorConditionEnum>::value>::type&
operator=(ErrorConditionEnum e);
3  Postcondition: *this == make_error_condition(e).
4  Throws: Nothing.

void clear();
5  Postconditions: value() == 0 and category() == generic_category().

19.5.3.4 Class error_condition observers [syserr.errcondition.observers]

int value() const;

§ 19.5.3.4
19.5.3.5 Class error_condition non-member functions

```cpp
error_condition make_error_condition(errc e);
    Returns: error_condition(static_cast<int>(e), generic_category()).
```

```cpp
bool operator<(const error_condition& lhs, const error_condition& rhs);
    Returns: lhs.category() < rhs.category() || lhs.category() == rhs.category() && lhs.value() < rhs.value().
```

19.5.4 Comparison operators

```cpp
bool operator==(const error_code& lhs, const error_code& rhs);
    Returns: lhs.category() == rhs.category() && lhs.value() == rhs.value().
```

```cpp
bool operator==(const error_code& lhs, const error_condition& rhs);
    Returns: lhs.category().equivalent(lhs.value(), rhs) || rhs.category().equivalent(lhs, rhs.value()).
```

```cpp
bool operator==(const error_condition& lhs, const error_code& rhs);
    Returns: rhs.category().equivalent(rhs.value(), lhs) || lhs.category.equivalent(rhs, lhs.value()).
```

```cpp
bool operator==(const error_condition& lhs, const error_condition& rhs);
    Returns: lhs.category() == rhs.category() && lhs.value() == rhs.value().
```

§ 19.5.4
bool operator!=(const error_code& lhs, const error_code& rhs);
bool operator!=(const error_code& lhs, const error_condition& rhs);
bool operator!=(const error_condition& lhs, const error_code& rhs);
bool operator!=(const error_condition& lhs, const error_condition& rhs);

Returns: !(lhs == rhs).
Throws: Nothing.

19.5.5 Class system_error

19.5.5.1 Class system_error overview

The class `system_error` describes an exception object used to report error conditions that have an associated error code. Such error conditions typically originate from the operating system or other low-level application program interfaces.

[Note: If an error represents an out-of-memory condition, implementations are encouraged to throw an exception object of type `bad_alloc` 18.6.2.1 rather than `system_error`. — end note]

namespace std {
    class system_error : public runtime_error {
        public:
            system_error(error_code ec, const string& what_arg);
            system_error(error_code ec, const char* what_arg);
            system_error(error_code ec);
            system_error(int ev, const error_category& ecat,
                         const string& what_arg);
            system_error(int ev, const error_category& ecat,
                         const char* what_arg);
            system_error(int ev, const error_category& ecat);
            system_error(error_code& code() const throw();
            const char* what() const throw();
    } // namespace std
}

19.5.5.2 Class system_error members

system_error(error_code ec, const string& what_arg);

Effects: Constructs an object of class `system_error`.
Postconditions: code() == ec.
        string(what()).find(what_arg) != string::npos.

system_error(error_code ec, const char* what_arg);

Effects: Constructs an object of class `system_error`.
Postconditions: code() == ec.
        string(what()).find(what_arg) != string::npos.

system_error(error_code ec);

Effects: Constructs an object of class `system_error`.
Postconditions: code() == ec.
system_error(int ev, const error_category& ecat,
    const string& what_arg);

    Effects: Constructs an object of class system_error.
    Postconditions: code() == error_code(ev, ecat).

    string(what()).find(what_arg) != string::npos.

system_error(int ev, const error_category& ecat,
    const char* what_arg);

    Effects: Constructs an object of class system_error.
    Postconditions: code() == error_code(ev, ecat).

    string(what()).find(what_arg) != string::npos.

system_error(int ev, const error_category& ecat);

    Effects: Constructs an object of class system_error.
    Postconditions: code() == error_code(ev, ecat).

const error_code& code() const throw();

    Returns: ec or error_code(ev, ecat), from the constructor, as appropriate.

const char *what() const throw();

    Returns: An NTBS incorporating and code().message() the arguments supplied in the constructor.

    [Note: The returned NTBS might be the contents of what_arg + ": " + code.message().—end note]
20  General utilities library  [utilities]

20.1  General  [utilities.general]

1  This Clause describes components used by other elements of the C++ standard library. These components may also be used by C++ programs.

2  The following subclauses describe utility and allocator requirements, utility components, compile-time rational arithmetic, tuples, type traits templates, function objects, dynamic memory management utilities, and date/time utilities, as summarized in Table 30.

Table 30 — General utilities library summary

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Header(s)</th>
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<td>20.2 Requirements</td>
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<tr>
<td>20.3 Utility components</td>
<td>&lt;utility&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.4 Compile-time rational arithmetic</td>
<td>&lt;ratio&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.5 Tuples</td>
<td>&lt;tuple&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.6 Type traits</td>
<td>&lt;type_traits&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.7 Function objects</td>
<td>&lt;functional&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.8 Memory</td>
<td>&lt;memory&gt; &lt;cstdlib&gt; &lt;cstring&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.9 Time utilities</td>
<td>&lt;chrono&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.10 Date and time functions</td>
<td>&lt;ctime&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.11 Type indexes</td>
<td>&lt;typeindex&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20.2  Requirements  [utility.requirements]

1  20.2.1 describes requirements on types used to instantiate templates defined in the C++ standard library. 20.2.2 describes the requirements on storage allocators.

20.2.1  Template argument requirements  [utility.arg.requirements]

1  The template definitions in the C++ standard library refer to various named requirements whose details are set out in tables 31–38. In these tables, T is a type to be supplied by a C++ program instantiating a template; a, b, and c are values of type const T; s and t are modifiable lvalues of type T; u is a value of type (possibly const) T; and rv is a non-const rvalue of type T.

2  In general, a default constructor is not required. Certain container class member function signatures specify the default constructor as a default argument. T() shall be a well-defined expression (8.5) if one of those signatures is called using the default argument (8.3.6).
Table 31 — EqualityComparable requirements [equalitycomparable]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Requirement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a == b</td>
<td>convertible to bool</td>
<td>== is an equivalence relation, that is, it has the following properties:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>— For all a, a == a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>— If a == b, then b == a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>— If a == b and b == c, then a == c.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 32 — LessThanComparable requirements [lessthancomparable]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Requirement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a &lt; b</td>
<td>convertible to bool</td>
<td>&lt; is a strict weak ordering relation (25.4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 33 — MoveConstructible requirements [moveconstructible]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Post-condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T t(rv)</td>
<td>t is equivalent to the value of rv before the construction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Note: There is no requirement on the value of rv after the construction. — end note]

Table 34 — CopyConstructible requirements [copyconstructible]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Post-condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T t(rv)</td>
<td>the value of u is unchanged and is equivalent to t</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Note: A type that satisfies the CopyConstructible requirements also satisfies the MoveConstructible requirements. — end note]

Table 35 — MoveAssignable requirements [moveassignable]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Return value</th>
<th>Post-condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t = rv</td>
<td>T&amp;</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>t is equivalent to the value of rv before the assignment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Note: There is no requirement on the value of rv after the assignment. — end note]
Table 36 — CopyAssignable requirements [copyassignable]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Return value</th>
<th>Post-condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t = u T&amp; t</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>t is equivalent to u, the value of u is unchanged</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Note: A type that satisfies the CopyAssignable requirements also satisfies the MoveAssignable requirements. — end note]

Table 37 — Swappable requirements [swappable]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Post-condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>swap(s, t)</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>t has the value originally held by s and s has the value originally held by t</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Swappable requirement is met by satisfying one or more of the following conditions:
- T is Swappable if T satisfies the MoveConstructible requirements (Table 33) and the MoveAssignable requirements (Table 35);
- T is Swappable if a namespace scope function named swap exists in the same namespace as the definition of T, such that the expression swap(s, t) is valid and has the semantics described in this table.
- T is Swappable if T is an array type whose element type is Swappable.

Table 38 — Destructible requirements [destructible]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Post-condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>u.∼T()</td>
<td>All resources owned by u are reclaimed, no exception is propagated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20.2.2 Allocator requirements [allocator.requirements]

1 The library describes a standard set of requirements for allocators, which are class-type objects that encapsulate the information about an allocation model. This information includes the knowledge of pointer types, the type of their difference, the type of the size of objects in this allocation model, as well as the memory allocation and deallocation primitives for it. All of the string types (Clause 21), containers (Clause 23) (except array (Clause 23)), string buffers and string streams (Clause 27), and match_results (Clause 28) are parameterized in terms of allocators.

2 The template struct allocator_traits (20.8.7) supplies a uniform interface to all allocator types. Table 39 describes the requirements on types manipulated through allocators. All the operations on the allocators are expected to be amortized constant time. Table 40 describes the requirements on allocator types and thus on types used to instantiate allocator_traits. A requirement is optional if the last column of Table 40 specifies a default for a given expression. Within the standard library allocator_traits template, an optional requirement that is not supplied by an allocator is replaced by the specified default expression. A user specialization of allocator_traits may provide different defaults and may provide defaults for different requirements than the primary template. Within Tables 39 and 40, the use of move and forward always refers to std::move and std::forward, respectively.
### Table 39 — Descriptive variable definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T, U, C</td>
<td>any non-const, non-reference <code>object</code> type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>a type convertible to T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>an Allocator class for type T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y</td>
<td>the corresponding Allocator class for type U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XX</td>
<td>the type <code>allocator_traits&lt;X&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YY</td>
<td>the type <code>allocator_traits&lt;Y&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>a value of type <code>const T</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a, a1, a2</td>
<td>values of type X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a3</td>
<td>an rvalue of type X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>a value of type Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>a dereferenceable pointer of type C*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>a value of type <code>X::pointer</code>, obtained by calling <code>a1.allocate</code>, where <code>a1 == a</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>a value of type <code>X::const_pointer</code> obtained by conversion from a value p.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w</td>
<td>a value of type <code>X::void_pointer</code> obtained by conversion from a value p.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z</td>
<td>a value of type <code>X::const_void_pointer</code> obtained by conversion from a value q or a value w.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>a value of type <code>X::reference</code> T&amp; obtained by the expression <code>*p</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>a value of type <code>X::const_reference</code> const T&amp; obtained by the expression <code>*q</code> or by conversion from a value r.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>a value of type <code>Y::const_pointer</code> obtained by calling <code>Y::allocate</code>, or else <code>nullptr</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v</td>
<td>a value of type V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>a value of type <code>X::size_type</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Args</td>
<td>a template parameter pack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>args</td>
<td>a function parameter pack with the pattern Args&amp;&amp;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 40 — Allocator requirements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
<th>Default</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X::pointer</td>
<td>Pointer to T: &amp;</td>
<td></td>
<td>X::pointer is convertible to X: &amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::const_pointer</td>
<td>Pointer to const T: &amp;</td>
<td>X::const_pointer</td>
<td>pointer_traits&lt;X: &amp;&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y::void_pointer</td>
<td>X::void_pointer</td>
<td>X::void_pointer are the same type</td>
<td>pointer_traits&lt;X: &amp;&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::const_void_pointer</td>
<td>X::const_void_pointer</td>
<td>X::const_void_pointer and X::void_pointer are the same type</td>
<td>pointer_traits&lt;X: &amp;&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::reference</td>
<td>T &amp;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::const_reference</td>
<td>T const &amp;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::value_type</td>
<td>Identical to T</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::size_type</td>
<td>unsigned integral type</td>
<td>a type that can represent the size of the largest object in the allocation model.</td>
<td>size_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::difference_type</td>
<td>signed integral type</td>
<td>a type that can represent the difference between any two pointers in the allocation model.</td>
<td>ptrdiff_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>typename</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>For all U (including T), static_cast&lt;X: &amp;&gt;::other is X.</td>
<td>See Note A, below.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::template rebind&lt;U&gt;::other</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*p</td>
<td>T &amp;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*q</td>
<td>const T &amp;</td>
<td>*q refers to the same object as *p</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p-&gt;m</td>
<td>type of T:: &amp;</td>
<td>pre: (*p).m is well-defined.</td>
<td>equivalent to (*p).m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q-&gt;m</td>
<td>type of T:: &amp;</td>
<td>pre: (*q).m is well-defined.</td>
<td>equivalent to (*q).m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>static_cast&lt;X::pointer&gt;(w)</td>
<td>X::pointer</td>
<td>static_cast&lt;X::pointer&gt;(w)</td>
<td>== p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>static_cast&lt;X::const_pointer&gt;(z)</td>
<td>X::const_pointer</td>
<td>static_cast&lt;X::const_pointer&gt;(z) == q</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 40 — Allocator requirements (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
<th>Default</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pointer d(nullptr)</td>
<td></td>
<td>d and e are null pointers and need not be dereferenceable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pointer d = nullptr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>const_pointer e(nullptr)</td>
<td></td>
<td>static_cast&lt;bool&gt;(d) == false, static_cast&lt;bool&gt;(e) == false</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>const_pointer e = nullptr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>const_void_pointer e(nullptr)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>const_void_pointer e = nullptr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>void_pointer d(nullptr)</td>
<td></td>
<td>d and e are null pointers and need not be dereferenceable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>void_pointer d = nullptr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>const_void_pointer e(nullptr)</td>
<td></td>
<td>static_cast&lt;bool&gt;(d) == false, static_cast&lt;bool&gt;(e) == false</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>const_void_pointer e = nullptr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!p</td>
<td>contextually convertible to bool</td>
<td>false only if p is a null pointer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!q</td>
<td>contextually convertible to bool</td>
<td>false only if q is a null pointer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!w</td>
<td>contextually convertible to bool</td>
<td>false only if w is a null pointer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!z</td>
<td>contextually convertible to bool</td>
<td>false only if z is a null pointer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.address(r)</td>
<td>X::pointer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.address(s)</td>
<td>X::const_pointer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.allocate(n)</td>
<td>X::pointer</td>
<td>Memory is allocated for n objects of type T but objects are not constructed. allocate may raise an appropriate exception. The result is a random access iterator.(^{231}) [Note: If n == 0, the return value is unspecified. — end note]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.allocate(n, u)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Same as a.allocate(n). The use of u is unspecified, but it is intended as an aid to locality.</td>
<td>a.allocate(n)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{231}\):
Table 40 — Allocator requirements (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
<th>Default</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.deallocate(p,n)</td>
<td>(not used)</td>
<td>All n T objects in the area pointed to by p shall be destroyed prior to this call. n shall match the value passed to allocate to obtain this memory. Does not throw exceptions. [Note:p shall not be null singular. — end note]</td>
<td>Default</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| a.max_size()                     | X::size_type | the largest value that can meaningfully be passed to X::allocate() | numeric_limits<
limits<
size type>::max() |
| a1 == a2                         | bool         | returns true only if storage allocated from each can be deallocated via the other. operator== shall be reflexive, symmetric, and transitive, and shall not exit via an exception. | Default                |
| a1 != a2                         | bool         | same as !(a1 == a2)                                  | Default                |
| a == b                           | bool         | same as a == Y::rebind<T>::other(b)                  | Default                |
| a1 != b                          | bool         | same as !(a == b)                                    | Default                |
| X()                              |              | creates a default instance. [Note: a destructor is assumed. — end note] | Default                |
| X a1(a);                         |              | Shall not exit via an exception. post: a1 == a        | Default                |
| X a(b);                          |              | Shall not exit via an exception. post: Y(a) == b, a == X(b) | Default                |
| X a1(move(a));                   |              | Shall not exit via an exception. post: a1 equals the prior value of a. | Default                |
| X a(move(b));                    |              | Shall not exit via an exception. post: a1 equals the prior value of X(b). | Default                |
| a.construct(p_c, args)           | (not used)   | Effect: Constructs an object of type T C at p_c by invoking T(forward<
Args>(args)...). | new ((void*)c)
C(forward<
Args>(args)....) |
| a.destroy(p_c)                   | (not used)   | Effect: Destroys the object at p_c. | c->~T()                |
| X::propagate_on_ container_copy_ construction() |              | Typically returns either a or X()                    | return a;              |
| X::propagate_on_ container_copy_ assignment |              | Identical to or derived from true_type or false_type | true_type only if an allocator of type X should be copied when the client container is copy-assignment. | false_type              |
Table 40 — Allocator requirements (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X::propagate_on_container_move_assignment</td>
<td>Identical to or derived from true_type or false_type</td>
<td>true_type only if an allocator of type X should be copied when the client container is move-assigned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::propagate_on_container_swap</td>
<td>Identical to or derived from true_type or false_type</td>
<td>true_type only if an allocator of type X should be swapped when the client container is swapped.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 **Note A:** The member class template `rebind` in the table above is effectively a typedef template. [Note: in general, if the name `Allocator` is bound to `SomeAllocator<T>`, then `Allocator::rebind<U>::other` is the same type as `SomeAllocator<U>`. where `SomeAllocator<T>::value_type` is `T` and `SomeAllocator<U>::value_type` is `U`. — end note] If `Allocator` is a class template instantiation of the form `SomeAllocator<T, Args>`, where `Args` is zero or more type arguments, and `Allocator` does not supply a `rebind` member template, the standard `allocator_traits` template uses `SomeAllocator<U, Args>` in place of `Allocator::rebind<U>::other` by default. For allocator types that are not template instantiations of the above form, no default is provided.

4 The `X::pointer`, `X::const_pointer`, `X::void_pointer`, and `X::const_void_pointer` types shall satisfy the requirements of `EqualityComparable`, `DefaultConstructible`, `CopyConstructible`, `CopyAssignable`, `Swappable`, and `Destructible (20.2.1)`. No constructor, comparison operator, copy operation, move operation, or swap operation on these types shall exit via an exception. A default-initialized object may have a singular value. A value-initialized object shall compare equal to `nullptr`. `X::pointer` and `X::const_pointer` shall also satisfy the requirements for a random access iterator (24.2).

5 An allocator may constrain the types on which it can be instantiated and the arguments for which its `construct` member may be called. If a type cannot be used with a particular allocator, the allocator class or the call to `construct` may fail to instantiate.

[Example: the following is an allocator class template supporting the minimal interface that satisfies the requirements of Table 40:

```cpp
template <class Tp>
struct SimpleAllocator {
    typedef Tp value_type;
    SimpleAllocator(ctor_args);
    template <class T> SimpleAllocator(const SimpleAllocator<T>& other);
    Tp *allocate(std::size_t n);
    void deallocate(Tp *p, std::size_t n);
};
```

— end example]

Implementations of containers described in this International Standard are permitted to assume that their `Allocator` template parameter meets the following requirement beyond those in Table 40.

---

231) It is intended that `a.allocate` be an efficient means of allocating a single object of type `T`, even when `sizeof(T)` is small. That is, there is no need for a container to maintain its own free list.
The typedef members `pointer`, `const_pointer`, `size_type`, and `difference_type` are required to be `T*`, `T const*`, `std::size_t`, and `std::ptrdiff_t`, respectively.

Implementors are encouraged to supply libraries that can accept allocators that encapsulate more general memory models. In such implementations, any requirements imposed on allocators by containers beyond those requirements that appear in Table 40 are implementation-defined.

If the alignment associated with a specific over-aligned type is not supported by an allocator, instantiation of the allocator for that type may fail. The allocator also may silently ignore the requested alignment.

[Note: additionally, the member function `allocate` for that type may fail by throwing an object of type `std::bad_alloc`. — end note]

## 20.3 Utility components

This subclause contains some basic function and class templates that are used throughout the rest of the library.

### Header `<utility>` synopsis

```cpp
#include <initializer_list>

namespace std {

  namespace rel_ops {
    template<class T> bool operator!=(const T&, const T&);
    template<class T> bool operator> (const T&, const T&);
    template<class T> bool operator<=(const T&, const T&);
    template<class T> bool operator>=(const T&, const T&);
  }

  template<class T> void swap(T& a, T& b);
  template<class T, size_t N> void swap(T (&a)[N], T (&b)[N]);

  template <class T1, class T2> struct pair;
  template <class T1, class T2> bool operator==(const pair<T1,T2>&, const pair<T1,T2>&);
  template <class T1, class T2> bool operator< (const pair<T1,T2>&, const pair<T1,T2>&);
  template <class T1, class T2> bool operator!=(const pair<T1,T2>&, const pair<T1,T2>&);
  template <class T1, class T2> bool operator> (const pair<T1,T2>&, const pair<T1,T2>&);
  template <class T1, class T2> bool operator>=(const pair<T1,T2>&, const pair<T1,T2>&);
  template <class T1, class T2> bool operator<=(const pair<T1,T2>&, const pair<T1,T2>&);
  template <class T1, class T2> void swap(pair<T1,T2>&, pair<T1,T2>&);

  template <class T> struct identity;
  template <class T, class U> T&& forward(typename identity<T>::type U&&);
  template <class T> typename remove_reference<T>::type&& move(T&&);

  template <class T1, class T2> struct pair;
  template <class T1, class T2> bool operator==(const pair<T1,T2>&, const pair<T1,T2>&);
  template <class T1, class T2> bool operator< (const pair<T1,T2>&, const pair<T1,T2>&);
  template <class T1, class T2> bool operator!=(const pair<T1,T2>&, const pair<T1,T2>&);
  template <class T1, class T2> bool operator> (const pair<T1,T2>&, const pair<T1,T2>&);
  template <class T1, class T2> bool operator>=(const pair<T1,T2>&, const pair<T1,T2>&);
  template <class T1, class T2> bool operator<=(const pair<T1,T2>&, const pair<T1,T2>&);
  template <class T1, class T2> void swap(pair<T1,T2>&, pair<T1,T2>&);

}```
// 20.3.4, tuple-like access to pair:
template <class T> class tuple_size;
template <size_t I, class T> class tuple_element;

template <class T1, class T2> struct tuple_size<std::pair<T1, T2> >;
template <class T1, class T2> struct tuple_element<0, std::pair<T1, T2> >;
template <class T1, class T2> struct tuple_element<1, std::pair<T1, T2> >;

// 20.3.6, pair range access:
template <class InputIterator>
InputIterator begin(const std::pair<InputIterator, InputIterator>& p);
template <class InputIterator>
InputIterator end(const std::pair<InputIterator, InputIterator>& p);

20.3.1 Operators

1 To avoid redundant definitions of operator!= out of operator== and operators >, <=, and >= out of operator<, the library provides the following:

    template <class T> bool operator!=(const T& x, const T& y);

2 Requires: Type T is EqualityComparable (31).
3 Returns: !(x == y).

    template <class T> bool operator>(const T& x, const T& y);

4 Requires: Type T is LessThanComparable (32).
5 Returns: y < x.

    template <class T> bool operator<=(const T& x, const T& y);

6 Requires: Type T is LessThanComparable (32).
7 Returns: !(y < x).

    template <class T> bool operator>=(const T& x, const T& y);

8 Requires: Type T is LessThanComparable (32).
9 Returns: !(x < y).

10 In this library, whenever a declaration is provided for an operator!=, operator>, operator>==, or operator<, and requirements and semantics are not explicitly provided, the requirements and semantics are as specified in this Clause.

20.3.2 swap

    template<class T> void swap(T& a, T& b);
    template <class T, size_t N> void swap(T (&a)[N], T (&b)[N]);
Requires: Type T shall be MoveConstructible (33) and MoveAssignable (35).

Effects: Exchanges values stored in two locations.

```cpp
template<
    ValueType T,
    size_t N
>
void swap(T (&a)[N], T (&b)[N]);
```

Requires: T is Swappable (37).

Effects: swap_ranges(a, a + N, b)

### 20.3.3 forward/move helpers

The library provides templated helper functions to simplify applying move semantics to an lvalue and to simplify the implementation of forwarding functions.

```cpp
template <class T> struct identity {
    typedef T type;

    const T& operator() (const T& x) const;
};

const T& operator() (const T& x) const;

Returns: x
```

```cpp
template <class T, class U> T&& forward(
    typename identity<T>::type U&& t);
```

[Note: The use of identity forces users to explicitly specify the template parameter. This is necessary to get the correct forwarding semantics. — end note]

Returns: static_cast<T&&>(t).

Remarks: if the following constraints are not met, this signature shall not participate in overload resolution:

- the type formed by remove_reference<U>::type* is implicitly convertible to the type remove_reference<T>::type*
  and
- if T is an lvalue reference type, then U is also an lvalue reference type.

[Example:

```cpp
template <class T, class A1, class A2>
shared_ptr<T> factory(A1&& a1, A2&& a2) {
    return shared_ptr<T>(new T(std::forward<A1>(a1), std::forward<A2>(a2)));
}

struct A {
    A(int&, const double&);
};

void g() {
    shared_ptr<A> sp1 = factory<A>(2, 1.414);  // error: 2 will not bind to int&
    int i = 2;
    shared_ptr<A> sp2 = factory<A>(i, 1.414);  // OK
}
```]
In the first call to `factory`, `A1` is deduced as `int`, so 2 is forwarded to `A`'s constructor as an rvalue. In the second call to `factory`, `A1` is deduced as `int&`, so i is forwarded to `A`'s constructor as an lvalue. In both cases, `A2` is deduced as `double`, so 1.414 is forwarded to `A`'s constructor as an rvalue.

— end example

```cpp
template <class T> typename remove_reference<T>::type&& move(T&& t);
```

Returns: t.

[Example:
```cpp
template <class T, class A1>
shared_ptr<T> factory(A1&& a1) {
    return shared_ptr<T>(new T(std::forward<A1>(a1)));}

struct A {
    A();
    A(const A&); // copies from lvalues
    A(A&&);     // moves from rvalues
};

void g() {
    A a;
    shared_ptr<A> sp1 = factory<A>(a);  // "a" binds to A(const A&)
    shared_ptr<A> sp1 = factory<A>(std::move(a)); // "a" binds to A(A&&)
}
```

In the first call to `factory`, `A1` is deduced as `A&`, so a is forwarded as a non-const lvalue. This binds to the constructor `A(const A&)`, which copies the value from a. In the second call to `factory`, because of the call `std::move(a)`, `A1` is deduced as `A`, so a is forwarded as an rvalue. This binds to the constructor `A(A&&)`, which moves the value from a.

— end example

### 20.3.4 Pairs

The library provides a template for heterogeneous pairs of values. The library also provides a matching function template to simplify their construction and several templates that provide access to `pair` objects as if they were `tuple` objects (see 20.5.2.5 and 20.5.2.6).

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class T1, class T2>
    struct pair {
        typedef T1 first_type;
        typedef T2 second_type;

        T1 first;
        T2 second;
        pair(const pair&) = default;
        constexpr pair();
        pair(const T1& x, const T2& y);
        template<class U, class V> pair(U&& x, V&& y);
        pair(pair&& p);
        template<class U, class V> pair(const pair<U, V>& p);
        template<class U, class V> pair(pair<U, V>&& p);
    }
}
```

§ 20.3.4
template<class U, class... Args> pair(U&& x, Args&&... args);

// allocator-extended constructors

 template <class Alloc> pair(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a);
 template <class Alloc>
 pair(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, const T1& x, const T2& y);
 template <class U, class V, class Alloc>
 pair(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, U&& x, V&& y);
 template <class Alloc>
 pair(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, pair&& p);
 template <class U, class V, class Alloc>
 pair(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, pair<U, V>&& p);
 template <class Alloc>
 pair(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, U&& x, V&& y, Args&&... args);

 pair& operator=(pair&& p);
 template <class U, class V> pair& operator=(pair<U, V>&& p);

 void swap(pair&& p);
};

template <class T1, class T2, class Alloc>
struct uses_allocator<pair<T1, T2>, Alloc> : true_type { }

 template <class T1, class T2, class Alloc>
 struct constructible_with_allocator_prefix<pair<T1, T2>> {
   struct uses_allocator<pair<T1, T2>, Alloc> : true_type { }

   Requires: Alloc shall be an Allocator (20.2.2).

   [ Note: Specialization of this trait informs other library components that pair can be constructed with an allocator, even though it does not have a nested allocator_type. — end note ]

 template <class T1, class T2, class Alloc>
 struct constructible_with_allocator_prefix<pair<T1, T2> > : true_type { }

   [ Note: Specialization of this trait informs other library components that pair can be constructed with an allocator prefix argument. — end note ]

 constexpr pair();

 Effects: Initializes its members as if implemented: pair() : first(), second() { }

 pair(const T1& x, const T2& y);

 Effects: The constructor initializes first with x and second with y.

 template <class U, class V> pair(U&& x, V&& y);

 Effects: The constructor initializes first with std::forward<U>(x) and second with std::forward<V>(y).

 template <class U, class... Args> pair(U&& x, Args&&... args);

 § 20.3.4
Effects: The constructor initializes first with `std::forward<U>(x)` and second with `std::forward<
Args>(args)`...

    pair(pair&& p);

    Effects: The constructor initializes first with `std::move(p.first)` and second with `std::move(p.second)`.

    template<class U, class V> pair(const pair<U, V>& p);

    Effects: Initializes members from the corresponding members of the argument, performing implicit
    conversions as needed.

    template<class U, class V> pair(pair<U, V>&& p);

    Effects: The constructor initializes first with `std::move(p.first)` and second with `std::move(p.second)`.

    template <class Alloc> pair(allocator_arg_t, const Alloc& a);
    template <class Alloc>
    pair(allocator_arg_t, const Alloc& a, const T1& x, const T2& y);
    template <class U, class V, class Alloc>
    pair(allocator_arg_t, const Alloc& a, U&& x, V&& y);
    template <class Alloc>
    pair(allocator_arg_t, const Alloc&, pair&& p);
    template <class U, class V, class Alloc>
    pair(allocator_arg_t, const Alloc& a, const pair<U, V>&& p);
    template <class U, class V, class Alloc>
    pair(allocator_arg_t, const Alloc& a, pair<U, V>&& p);
    template <class Alloc>
    pair(allocator_arg_t, const Alloc& a, U&& x, Args&&... args);

    Requires: Alloc shall be an Allocator (20.2.2).

    Effects: The members first and second are both allocator constructed (20.8.7) with a.

    pair& operator=(pair&& p);

    Effects: Assigns to first with `std::move(p.first)` and to second with `std::move(p.second)`.

    Returns: *this.

    template<class U, class V> pair& operator=(pair<U, V>&& p);

    Effects: Assigns to first with `std::move(p.first)` and to second with `std::move(p.second)`.

    Returns: *this.

    void swap(pair& p);

    Effects: Swaps first with p.first and second with p.second.

    Requires: first_type and second_type shall be Swappable.

    template <class T1, class T2>
    bool operator==(const pair<T1, T2>& x, const pair<T1, T2>& y);

    Returns: x.first == y.first && x.second == y.second.

    template <class T1, class T2>
    bool operator<(const pair<T1, T2>& x, const pair<T1, T2>& y);

    Returns: x.first < y.first || (!y.first < x.first) && x.second < y.second.

§ 20.3.4
template<class T1, class T2> void swap(pair<T1, T2>& x, pair<T1, T2>& y);

Effects: x.swap(y)

template <class T1, class T2>
pair<V1, V2> make_pair(T1&&, T2&&);

Returns:

pair<V1, V2>(std::forward<T1>(x), std::forward<T2>(y));

where V1 and V2 are determined as follows: Let Ui be decay<Ti>::type for each Ti. Then each Vi is
X& if Ui equals reference_wrapper<X>, otherwise Vi is Ui.

[Example: In place of:

return pair<int, double>(5, 3.1415926); // explicit types

a C++ program may contain:

return make_pair(5, 3.1415926); // types are deduced

— end example]

20.3.5 Tuple-like access to pair [pair.astuple]

tuple_size<pair<T1, T2> >::value

Returns: integral constant expression.

Value: 2.

tuple_element<0, pair<T1, T2> >::type

Value: the type T1.

tuple_element<1, pair<T1, T2> >::type

Value: the type T2.

template<size_t I, class T1, class T2>
typename tuple_element<I, std::pair<T1, T2> >::type& get(pair<T1, T2>&);

template<size_t I, class T1, class T2>
const typename tuple_element<I, std::pair<T1, T2> >::type& get(const pair<T1, T2>&);

Returns: If I == 0 returns p.first; if I == 1 returns p.second; otherwise the program is ill-formed.

Throws: nothing.

20.3.6 pair range access [pair.range]

template <class InputIterator>
InputIterator begin(const std::pair<InputIterator, InputIterator>& p);

Returns: p.first.

§ 20.3.6
template <class InputIterator>
    InputIterator end(const std::pair<InputIterator, InputIterator>& p);

    Returns: p.second.

## 20.3.7 Class template bitset

### Header <bitset> synopsis

```cpp
#include <string>
#include <stdexcept>
#include <iosfwd>

namespace std {
    template <size_t N> class bitset;
}
```

The header <bitset> defines a class template and several related functions for representing and manipulating fixed-size sequences of bits.

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <size_t N> class bitset {
        public:
            // bit reference:
            class reference {
                friend class bitset;
                reference();
                ~reference();
                reference& operator=(bool x); // for b[i] = x;
                reference& operator=(const reference&); // for b[i] = b[j];
                bool operator~() const; // flips the bit
                operator bool() const; // for x = b[i];
                reference& flip(); // for b[i].flip();
            };

            // 20.3.7.1 constructors:
            constexpr bitset();
            constexpr bitset(unsigned long long val);
            template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
                explicit bitset(
```

§ 20.3.7
The template class `bitset<N>` describes an object that can store a sequence consisting of a fixed number of bits, `N`.

Each bit represents either the value zero (reset) or one (set). To **toggle** a bit is to change the value zero to one, or the value one to zero. Each bit has a non-negative position `pos`. When converting between an object
of class \texttt{bitset<N>} and a value of some integral type, bit position \texttt{pos} corresponds to the bit value $1 \ll \texttt{pos}$. The integral value corresponding to two or more bits is the sum of their bit values.

The functions described in this subclause can report three kinds of errors, each associated with a distinct exception:

- an \textit{invalid-argument} error is associated with exceptions of type \texttt{invalid_argument} (19.2.3);
- an \textit{out-of-range} error is associated with exceptions of type \texttt{out_of_range} (19.2.5);
- an \textit{overflow} error is associated with exceptions of type \texttt{overflow_error} (19.2.8).

\section*{20.3.7.1 \texttt{bitset} constructors} \hfill \footnote{[bitset.cons]}

\begin{verbatim}
constexpr bitset();

constexpr bitset(unsigned long long val);

template <class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
explicit bitset(const basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>& str,
                typename basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>::size_type pos = 0,
                typename basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>::size_type n =
                basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>::npos,
                charT zero = charT('0'), charT one = charT('1'));

template <class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
explicit bitset(const char *str);
\end{verbatim}

1 \textit{Effects:} Constructs an object of class \texttt{bitset<N>}, initializing all bits to zero.

2 \textit{Effects:} Constructs an object of class \texttt{bitset<N>}, initializing the first $M$ bit positions to the corresponding bit values in \texttt{val}. $M$ is the smaller of $N$ and the number of bits in the value representation (section 3.9) of \texttt{unsigned long long}. If $M < N$, the remaining bit positions are initialized to zero.

3 \textit{Requires:} \texttt{pos} $\leq$ \texttt{str.size()}.

4 \textit{Throws:} \texttt{out_of_range} if \texttt{pos} > \texttt{str.size()}.

5 \textit{Effects:} Determines the effective length \texttt{rlen} of the initializing string as the smaller of \texttt{n} and \texttt{str.size()} - \texttt{pos}.

The function then throws \texttt{invalid_argument} if any of the \texttt{rlen} characters in \texttt{str} beginning at position \texttt{pos} is other than \texttt{zero} or \texttt{one}. The function uses \texttt{traits::eq()} to compare the character values.

Otherwise, the function constructs an object of class \texttt{bitset<N>}, initializing the first $M$ bit positions to values determined from the corresponding characters in the string \texttt{str}. $M$ is the smaller of $N$ and \texttt{rlen}.

An element of the constructed string has value zero if the corresponding character in \texttt{str}, beginning at position \texttt{pos}, is 0 \texttt{zero}. Otherwise, the element has the value 1. Character position \texttt{pos} + $M$ - 1 corresponds to bit position zero. Subsequent decreasing character positions correspond to increasing bit positions.

If $M < N$, remaining bit positions are initialized to zero.

6 \textit{Effects:} Constructs an object of class \texttt{bitset<N> as if by bitset(string(str)).}

\section*{20.3.7.2 \texttt{bitset} members} \hfill \footnote{[bitset.members]}

\begin{verbatim}
bitset<N>& operator&(const bitset<N>& rhs);
\end{verbatim}

\section*{§ 20.3.7.2}
Effects: Clears each bit in \*this for which the corresponding bit in rhs is clear, and leaves all other bits unchanged.

Returns: \*this.

bitset<N>& operator|=(const bitset<N>& rhs);

Effects: Sets each bit in \*this for which the corresponding bit in rhs is set, and leaves all other bits unchanged.

Returns: \*this.

bitset<N>& operator^=(const bitset<N>& rhs);

Effects: Toggles each bit in \*this for which the corresponding bit in rhs is set, and leaves all other bits unchanged.

Returns: \*this.

bitset<N>& operator<<=(size_t pos);

Effects: Replaces each bit at position I in \*this with a value determined as follows:
— If I < pos, the new value is zero;
— If I >= pos, the new value is the previous value of the bit at position I - pos.

Returns: \*this.

bitset<N>& operator>>=(size_t pos);

Effects: Replaces each bit at position I in \*this with a value determined as follows:
— If pos >= N - I, the new value is zero;
— If pos < N - I, the new value is the previous value of the bit at position I + pos.

Returns: \*this.

bitset<N>& set();

Effects: Sets all bits in \*this.

Returns: \*this.

bitset<N>& set(size_t pos, bool val = true);

Requires: pos is valid

Throws: out_of_range if pos does not correspond to a valid bit position.

Effects: Stores a new value in the bit at position pos in \*this. If val is nonzero, the stored value is one; otherwise it is zero.

Returns: \*this.

bitset<N>& reset();

Effects: Resets all bits in \*this.

Returns: \*this.

bitset<N>& reset(size_t pos);
19    Requires: pos is valid
20    Throws: out_of_range if pos does not correspond to a valid bit position.
21    Effects: Resets the bit at position pos in *this.
22    Returns: *this.

bitset<N> operator~() const;
    Effects: Constructs an object x of class bitset<N> and initializes it with *this.
24    Returns: x.flip().

bitset<N>& flip();
    Effects: Toggles all bits in *this.
26    Returns: *this.

bitset<N>& flip(size_t pos);
    Requires: pos is valid
28    Throws: out_of_range if pos does not correspond to a valid bit position.
29    Effects: Toggles the bit at position pos in *this.
30    Returns: *this.

unsigned long to_ulong() const;
32    Throws: overflow_error if the integral value x corresponding to the bits in *this cannot be repre-
33        sented as type unsigned long.
34    Returns: x.

unsigned long long to_ullong() const;
36    Throws: overflow_error if the integral value x corresponding to the bits in *this cannot be repre-
37        sented as type unsigned long long.
38    Returns: x.

template <class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
    basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>
    to_string(charT zero = charT('0'), charT one = charT('1')) const;
39    Effects: Constructs a string object of the appropriate type and initializes it to a string of length N
40        characters. Each character is determined by the value of its corresponding bit position in *this.
41        Character position N - 1 corresponds to bit position zero. Subsequent decreasing character positions
42        correspond to increasing bit positions. Bit value zero becomes the character zero, bit value one
43        becomes the character one.
44    Returns: The created object.

template <class charT, class traits>
    basic_string<charT, traits, allocator<charT> >
    to_string(charT zero = charT('0'), charT one = charT('1')) const;
46    Returns: to_string<charT, traits, allocator<charT> >(zero, one).
template <class charT>
    basic_string<charT, char_traits<charT>, allocator<charT> >
    to_string(charT zero = charT('0'), charT one = charT('1')) const;

    Returns: to_string<charT, char_traits<charT>, allocator<charT> >(zero, one).

basic_string<char, char_traits<char>, allocator<char> >
    to_string(charT zero = charT('0'), charT one = charT('1')) const;

    Returns: to_string<char, char_traits<char>, allocator<char> >(zero, one).

size_t count() const;

    Returns: A count of the number of bits set in *this.

cstexpr size_t size();

    Returns: N.

bool operator==(const bitset<N>& rhs) const;

    Returns: A nonzero value if the value of each bit in *this equals the value of the corresponding bit in rhs.

bool operator!=(const bitset<N>& rhs) const;

    Returns: A nonzero value if !(this == rhs).

bool test(size_t pos);

    Requires: pos is valid

    Throws: out_of_range if pos does not correspond to a valid bit position.

    Returns: true if the bit at position pos in *this has the value one.

bool all() const;

    Returns: count() == size()

bool any() const;

    Returns: count() != 0

bool none() const;

    Returns: count() == 0

bitset<N> operator<<(size_t pos) const;

    Returns: bitset<N>(*this) <<= pos.

bitset<N> operator>>(size_t pos) const;

    Returns: bitset<N>(*this) >>= pos.

constexpr bool operator[](size_t pos);

    Requires: pos shall be valid.

    Throws: nothing.

    Returns: true if the bit at position pos in *this has the value one, otherwise false.
bitset<N>::reference operator[](size_t pos);

Requires: pos shall be valid.

Throws: nothing.

Returns: An object of type bitset<N>::reference such that (*this)[pos] == this->test(pos), and such that (*this)[pos] = val is equivalent to this->set(pos, val).

20.3.7.3 bitset operators

bitset<N> operator&(const bitset<N>& lhs, const bitset<N>& rhs);

Returns: bitset<N>(lhs) &= rhs.

bitset<N> operator|(const bitset<N>& lhs, const bitset<N>& rhs);

Returns: bitset<N>(lhs) |= rhs.

bitset<N> operator^(const bitset<N>& lhs, const bitset<N>& rhs);

Returns: bitset<N>(lhs) ^= rhs.

template <class charT, class traits, size_t N>
basic_istream<charT, traits>&
operator>>(basic_istream<charT, traits>& is, bitset<N>& x);

A formatted input function (27.7.1.2).

Effects: Extracts up to N characters from is. Stores these characters in a temporary object str of type basic_string<charT, traits>; then evaluates the expression x = bitset<N>(str). Characters are extracted and stored until any of the following occurs:

— N characters have been extracted and stored;
— end-of-file occurs on the input sequence;
— the next input character is neither is.widen('0') nor is.widen('1') (in which case the input character is not extracted).

If no characters are stored in str, calls is.setstate(ios_base::failbit) (which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)).

Returns: is.

template <class charT, class traits, size_t N>
basic_ostream<charT, traits>&
operator<<(basic_ostream<charT, traits>& os, const bitset<N>& x);

Returns:

os << x.template to_string<charT,traits,allocator<charT>>(
    use_facet<ctype<charT>>>(os.getloc()).widen('0'),
    use_facet<ctype<charT>>>(os.getloc()).widen('1'))

(see 27.7.2.6).
20.4 Compile-time rational arithmetic

This subclause describes the ratio library. It provides a class template `ratio` which exactly represents any finite rational number with a numerator and denominator representable by compile-time constants of type `intmax_t`.

Throughout this subclause, the template argument types `R1` and `R2` shall be specializations of the `ratio` template. Diagnostic required.

Header `<ratio>` synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <intmax_t N, intmax_t D = 1> class ratio;

    // ratio arithmetic
    template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_add;
    template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_subtract;
    template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_multiply;
    template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_divide;

    // ratio comparison
    template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_equal;
    template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_not_equal;
    template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_less;
    template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_less_equal;
    template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_greater;
    template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_greater_equal;

    // convenience SI typedefs
    typedef ratio<1, 1000000000000000000000000> yocto; // see 20.4.4
    typedef ratio<1, 1000000000000000000000> zepto;   // see 20.4.4
    typedef ratio<1, 1000000000000000000> atto;
    typedef ratio<1, 1000000000000000> femto;
    typedef ratio<1, 10000000000000> pico;
    typedef ratio<1, 100000000000> nano;
    typedef ratio<1, 1000000000> micro;
    typedef ratio<1, 100000000> milli;
    typedef ratio<1, 1000000> centi;
    typedef ratio<1, 10000> deci;
    typedef ratio<1, 100> hecto;
    typedef ratio<1, 10> deca;
    typedef ratio<10, 1> hecto;
    typedef ratio<100, 1> kilo;
    typedef ratio<1000, 1> mega;
    typedef ratio<1000000, 1> giga;
    typedef ratio<1000000000, 1> tera;
    typedef ratio<1000000000000, 1> peta;
    typedef ratio<1000000000000000, 1> exa;
    typedef ratio<1000000000000000000000, 1> zetta; // see 20.4.4
    typedef ratio<1000000000000000000000000, 1> yotta; // see 20.4.4
}
```

20.4.1 Class template ratio

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <intmax_t N, intmax_t D = 1>
    class ratio {

    § 20.4.1
public:
    static constexpr intmax_t num;
    static constexpr intmax_t den;
};

1 The template argument D shall not be zero, and the absolute values of the template arguments N and D shall be representable by type intmax_t. Diagnostic required. [Note: These rules ensure that infinite ratios are avoided and that for any negative input, there exists a representable value of its absolute value which is positive. In a two's complement representation, this excludes the most negative value. — end note]

2 The static data members num and den shall have the following values, where gcd represents the greatest common divisor of the absolute values of N and D:
   — num shall have the value sign(N) * sign(D) * abs(N) / gcd.
   — den shall have the value abs(D) / gcd.

20.4.2 Arithmetic on ratio types

Implementations may use other algorithms to compute these values. If overflow occurs, a diagnostic shall be issued.

template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_add {
    typedef see below type;
};

2 The nested typedef type shall be a synonym for ratio<T1, T2> where T1 has the value R1::num * R2::den + R2::num * R1::den and T2 has the value R1::den * R2::den.

template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_subtract {
    typedef see below type;
};

3 The nested typedef type shall be a synonym for ratio<T1, T2> where T1 has the value R1::num * R2::den - R2::num * R1::den and T2 has the value R1::den * R2::den.

template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_multiply {
    typedef see below type;
};

4 The nested typedef type shall be a synonym for ratio<T1, T2> where T1 has the value R1::num * R2::num and T2 has the value R1::den * R2::den.

template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_divide {
    typedef see below type;
};

5 The nested typedef type shall be a synonym for ratio<T1, T2> where T1 has the value R1::num * R2::den and T2 has the value R1::den * R2::num.

20.4.3 Comparison of ratio types

template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_equal : integral_constant<bool, see below> { };
If \( \text{R1}::\text{num} == \text{R2}::\text{num} \) and \( \text{R1}::\text{den} == \text{R2}::\text{den} \), \( \text{ratio_equal<}\text{R1}, \text{R2}> \) shall be derived from \( \text{integral_constant<}\text{bool, true}> \); otherwise it shall be derived from \( \text{integral_constant<}\text{bool, false}> \).

```cpp
template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_not_equal : integral_constant<bool, !ratio_equal<R1, R2>::value> {
};
```

```cpp
template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_less : integral_constant<bool, ratio_less_equal<R2, R1>::value> {
};
```

If \( \text{R1}::\text{num} * \text{R2}::\text{den} < \text{R2}::\text{num} * \text{R1}::\text{den} \), \( \text{ratio_less<}\text{R1}, \text{R2}> \) shall be derived from \( \text{integral_constant<}\text{bool, true}> \); otherwise it shall be derived from \( \text{integral_constant<}\text{bool, false}> \). Implementations may use other algorithms to compute this relationship to avoid overflow. If overflow occurs, a diagnostic is required.

```cpp
template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_less_equal : integral_constant<bool, !ratio_less<R2, R1>::value> {
};
```

```cpp
template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_greater : integral_constant<bool, ratio_less<R2, R1>::value> {
};
```

```cpp
template <class R1, class R2> struct ratio_greater_equal : integral_constant<bool, !ratio_less<R1, R2>::value> {
};
```

### 20.4.4 SI types for ratio

For each of the typedefs \( \text{yocto}, \text{zepto}, \text{zetta}, \text{and yotta} \), if both of the constants used in its specification are representable by \( \text{intmax_t} \), the typedef shall be defined; if either of the constants is not representable by \( \text{intmax_t} \), the typedef shall not be defined.

### 20.5 Tuples

#### 20.5.1 In general

This subclause describes the tuple library that provides a tuple type as the class template \( \text{tuple} \) that can be instantiated with any number of arguments. Each template argument specifies the type of an element in the \( \text{tuple} \). Consequently, tuples are heterogeneous, fixed-size collections of values.

**Header \langle\text{tuple}\rangle synopsis**

```cpp
namespace std {
  // 20.5.2, class template tuple:
  template <class... Types> class tuple;

  // 20.5.2.4, tuple creation functions:
  const unspecified ignore;

  template <class... Types>
    tuple<TTypes...> make_tuple(Types&&...);

  template<class... Types>
    tuple<TTypes&&...> tie(Types&&...);

  template <class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
    tuple<TTypes..., UTypes...> tuple_cat(const tuple<TTypes...>&, const tuple<UTypes...>&);

template <class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
    tuple<TTypes..., UTypes...> tuple_cat(const tuple<TTypes...>&, const tuple<UTypes...>&);
```
tuple<TTypes..., UTypes...> tuple_cat(tuple<TTypes...>&&, const tuple<UTypes...>&&);
tuple<TTypes..., UTypes...> tuple_cat(const tuple<TTypes...>&, tuple<UTypes...>&&);
tuple<TTypes..., UTypes...> tuple_cat(tuple<TTypes...>&&, tuple<UTypes...>&&);

// 20.5.2.5, tuple helper classes:
template <class T> class tuple_size; // undefined
template <class... Types> class tuple_size<tuple<Types...>> ;

template <size_t I, class T> class tuple_element; // undefined
template <size_t I, class... Types> class tuple_element<I, tuple<Types...>> ;

// 20.5.2.6, element access:
template <size_t I, class... Types>
    typename tuple_element<I, tuple<Types...>>::type& get(tuple<Types...>&);
template <size_t I, class... types>
    typename tuple_element<I, tuple<Types...>>::type const& get(const tuple<Types...>&);

// 20.5.2.7, relational operators:
template<class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
    bool operator==(const tuple<TTypes...>&, const tuple<UTypes...>&);
template<class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
    bool operator<(const tuple<TTypes...>&, const tuple<UTypes...>&);
template<class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
    bool operator!=(const tuple<TTypes...>&, const tuple<UTypes...>&);
template<class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
    bool operator>(const tuple<TTypes...>&, const tuple<UTypes...>&);
template<class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
    bool operator<=(const tuple<TTypes...>&, const tuple<UTypes...>&);
template<class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
    bool operator>=(const tuple<TTypes...>&, const tuple<UTypes...>&);

// 20.5.2.8, allocator-related traits
template <class... Types, class Alloc>
    struct uses_allocator<tuple<Types...>, Alloc> ;
template <class... Types>
    struct constructible_with_allocator_prefix<tuple<Types...>> ;

// 20.5.2.9, specialized algorithms:
template <class... Types>
    void swap(tuple<Types...>& x, tuple<Types...>& y);
template <class... Types>
    void swap(tuple<Types...>&& x, tuple<Types...>& y);
template <class... Types>
    void swap(tuple<Types...>& x, tuple<Types...>&& y);

// 20.5.2.10, tuple range access:
template <class InputIterator>
    InputIterator begin(const std::tuple<InputIterator, InputIterator>& t);
template <class InputIterator>
    InputIterator end(const std::tuple<InputIterator, InputIterator>& t);
20.5.2 Class template tuple
	namespace std {
	
template <class... Types>

class tuple {
	public:

	// 20.5.2.1, tuple construction

constexpr tuple();
explicit tuple(const Types&...);
template <class... UTypes>
explicit tuple(UTypes&&...);

tuple(const tuple&) = default;
tuple(tuple&&);

template <class... UTypes>

tuple(const tuple<UTypes...>&);
template <class... UTypes>

tuple(const<UTypes...>&&);

template <class U1, class U2>

tuple(const pair<U1, U2>&); // iff sizeof...(Types) == 2

template <class U1, class U2>

tuple(pair<U1, U2>&&); // iff sizeof...(Types) == 2

// allocator-extended constructors

template <class Alloc>

tuple(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a);
template <class Alloc>

tuple(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, const Types&...);
template <class Alloc, class... UTypes>

tuple(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, const UTypes&...);
template <class Alloc>

tuple(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, const tuple&);
template <class Alloc>

tuple(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, tuple&&);
template <class Alloc, class... UTypes>

tuple(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, tuple<UTypes...>&);
template <class Alloc, class... UTypes>

tuple(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, tuple<UTypes...>&&);
template <class Alloc, class U1, class U2>

tuple(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, const pair<U1, U2>&);
template <class Alloc, class U1, class U2>

tuple(allocation_arg_t, const Alloc& a, pair<U1, U2>&);

// 20.5.2.2, tuple assignment

tuple& operator=(const tuple&);
tuple& operator=(tuple&&);

template <class... UTypes>

tuple& operator=(const tuple<UTypes...>&);
template <class... UTypes>

tuple& operator=(tuple<UTypes...>&&);

§ 20.5.2
template <class U1, class U2>
tuple& operator=(const pair<U1, U2>&); // iff sizeof...(Types) == 2
template <class U1, class U2>
tuple& operator=(pair<U1, U2>&&); // iff sizeof...(Types) == 2

// 20.5.2.3, tuple swap
void swap(tuple&);
};

20.5.2.1 Construction

For each tuple constructor, an exception is thrown only if the construction of one of the types in Types throws an exception.

1) `constexpr tuple();`  
   *Requires:* Each type in Types shall be default constructible.  
   *Effects:* Default Value initializes each element.

2) `explicit tuple(const Types&...);`  
   *Requires:* Each type in Types shall be copy constructible.  
   *Effects:* Copy initializes each element with the value of the corresponding parameter.

3) `template <class... UTypes>
   explicit tuple(UTypes&&... u);`  
   *Requires:* Each type in Types shall satisfy the requirements of MoveConstructible (Table 33) from the corresponding type in UTypes. sizeof...(Types) == sizeof...(UTypes).  
   *Effects:* Initializes the elements in the tuple with the corresponding value in std::forward<UTypes>(u).

4) `tuple(const tuple& u) = default;`  
   *Requires:* Each type in Types shall satisfy the requirements of CopyConstructible(Table 34).  
   *Effects:* Copy constructs each element of *this with the corresponding element of u.

5) `tuple(tuple&& u);`  
   *Requires:* Each type in Types shall satisfy the requirements of MoveConstructible (Table 33).  
   *Effects:* Move-constructs each element of *this with the corresponding element of u.

6) `template <class... UTypes> tuple(const tuple<UTypes...>& u);`  
   *Requires:* Each type in Types shall be constructible from the corresponding type in UTypes. sizeof...(Types) == sizeof...(UTypes).  
   *Effects:* Constructs each element of *this with the corresponding element of u.

[Note: enable_if can be used to make the converting constructor and assignment operator exist only in the cases where the source and target have the same number of elements. — end note]

7) `template <class... UTypes> tuple<UTypes...>&& u);`  
   *Requires:* Each type in Types shall satisfy the requirements of MoveConstructible (Table 33) from the corresponding type in UTypes. sizeof...(Types) == sizeof...(UTypes).
Effects: Move-constructs each element of *this with the corresponding element of u.

[Note: enable_if can be used to make the converting constructor and assignment operator exist only in the cases where the source and target have the same number of elements. — end note]

template <class U1, class U2> tuple(const pair<U1, U2>& u);

Requires: The first type in Types shall be constructible from U1 and the second type in Types shall be constructible from U2. sizeof...(Types) == 2.

Effects: Constructs the first element with u.first and the second element with u.second.

template <class U1, class U2> tuple(pair<U1, U2>&& u);

Requires: The first type in Types shall shall satisfy the requirements of MoveConstructible(Table 33) from U1 and the second type in Types shall be move-constructible from U2. sizeof...(Types) == 2.

Effects: Constructs the first element with std::move(u.first) and the second element with std::move(u.second).

21 Requires: Alloc shall be meet the requirements for an Allocator (20.2.2).

22 Effects: Equivalent to the preceding constructors except that each element is constructed with uses-allocator construction (20.8.3.2), the allocator argument is passed conditionally to the constructor of each element. Each member is allocator constructed (20.8.7) with a.

20.5.2.2 Assignment

tuple& operator=(const tuple& u);

Requires: Each type in Types shall be CopyAssignable (Table 36).

Effects: Assigns each element of u to the corresponding element of *this.

Returns: *this

tuple& operator=(tuple&& u);
5  
6  Requires: Each type in Types shall satisfy the requirements of MoveAssignable (Table 35).
7  Effects: Move-assigns each element of u to the corresponding element of *this.
8  Returns: *this.
9  
10 template <class... UTypes>
11   tuple& operator=(const tuple<UTypes...>& u);
12  Requires: Each type in Types shall be Assignable from the corresponding type in UTypes.
13  Effects: Assigns each element of u to the corresponding element of *this.
14  Returns: *this.
15  
16 template <class... UTypes>
17   tuple& operator=(tuple<UTypes...>&& u);
18  Requires: Each type in Types shall satisfy the requirements of MoveAssignable (Table 35) from the
19     corresponding type in UTypes. sizeof...(Types) == sizeof...(UTypes).
20  Effects: Move-assigns each element of u to the corresponding element of *this.
21  Returns: *this.
22  
23 template <class U1, class U2> tuple& operator=(const pair<U1, U2>& u);
24  Requires: The first type in Types shall satisfy the requirements of MoveAssignable (Table 35)
25     from U1 and the second type in Types shall satisfy the requirements of MoveAssignable (Table 35)
26     from U2. sizeof...(Types) == 2.
27  Effects: Assigns u.first to the first element of *this and u.second to the second element of *this.
28  Returns: *this.
29  [ Note: There are rare conditions where the converting copy constructor is a better match than the
30     element-wise construction, even though the user might intend differently. An example of this is if one
31     is constructing a one-element tuple where the element type is another tuple type T and if the parameter
32     passed to the constructor is not of type T, but rather a tuple type that is convertible to T. The effect of
33     the converting copy construction is most likely the same as the effect of the element-wise construction
34     would have been. However, it is possible to compare the “nesting depths” of the source and target tuples
35     and decide to select the element-wise constructor if the source nesting-depth is smaller than the target
36     nesting-depth. This can be accomplished using an enable_if template or other tools for constrained
37     templates. — end note ]
38  
39 template <class U1, class U2> tuple& operator=(pair<U1, U2>&& u);
40  Requires: The first type in Types shall be Assignable from U1 and the second type in Types shall be
41     Assignable from U2. sizeof...(Types) == 2.
42  Effects: Assigns std::move(u.first) to the first element of *this and std::move(u.second) to the
43     second element of *this.
44  Returns: *this.
45  
46 20.5.2.3 swap  [tuple.swap]
47  
48 void swap(tuple&& rhs);

§ 20.5.2.3 502
1. **Requires:** Each type in `Types` shall be **Swappable.**

2. **Effects:** Calls `swap` for each element in `*this` and its corresponding element in `rhs`.

3. **Throws:** Nothing unless one of the element-wise `swap` calls throws an exception.

### 20.5.2.4 Tuple creation functions

**template<class... Types>**

tuple<VTypes...> make_tuple(Types&&... t);

Let \( U_i \) be `decay<T_i>::type` for each \( T_i \) in `Types`. Then each \( V_i \) in `VTypes` is \( X & \) if \( U_i \) equals `reference_wrapper<X>`, otherwise \( V_i \) is \( U_i \).

**Returns:** `tuple<VTypes...>(std::forward<Types>(t)...)`.

**Example:**

```cpp
int i; float j;
make_tuple(1, ref(i), cref(j))
```

creates a tuple of type

```
tuple<int, int&, const float&>
```

---

**template<class... Types>**

tuple<Types&...> tie(Types&... t);

**Returns:** `tuple<Types&>(t...)`. When an argument in `t` is `ignore`, assigning any value to the corresponding tuple element has no effect.

**Example:** `tie` functions allow one to create tuples that unpack tuples into variables. `ignore` can be used for elements that are not needed:

```cpp
int i; std::string s;
tie(i, ignore, s) = make_tuple(42, 3.14, "C++");
  // i == 42, s == "C++"
```

---

**template <class... TTypes, class... UTypes>**

tuple<TTypes..., UTypes...> tuple_cat(const tuple<TTypes...>& t, const tuple<UTypes...>& u);

**Requires:** All the types in `TTypes` shall be CopyConstructible (Table 34). All the types in `UTypes` shall be CopyConstructible (Table 34).

**Returns:** A `tuple` object constructed by copy constructing its first `sizeof...(TTypes)` elements from the corresponding elements of `t` and copy constructing its last `sizeof...(UTypes)` elements from the corresponding elements of `u`.

**template <class... TTypes, class... UTypes>**

tuple<TTypes..., UTypes...> tuple_cat(tuple<TTypes...>&& t, const tuple<UTypes...>& u);

**Requires:** All the types in `TTypes` shall be MoveConstructible (Table 33). All the types in `UTypes` shall be CopyConstructible (Table 34).
template <class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
tuple<TTypes..., UTypes...> tuple_cat(const tuple<TTypes...>& t, tuple<UTypes...>&& u);

Requires: All the types in TTypes shall be CopyConstructible (Table 34). All the types in UTypes shall be MoveConstructible (Table 33).

Returns: A tuple object constructed by copy constructing its first sizeof...(TTypes) elements from the corresponding elements of t and move constructing its last sizeof...(UTypes) elements from the corresponding elements of u.

template <class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
tuple<TTypes..., UTypes...> tuple_cat(tuple<TTypes...>&& t, tuple<UTypes...>&& u);

Requires: All the types in TTypes shall be MoveConstructible (Table 33). All the types in UTypes shall be MoveConstructible (Table 33).

Returns: A tuple object constructed by move constructing its first sizeof...(TTypes) elements from the corresponding elements of t and move constructing its last sizeof...(UTypes) elements from the corresponding elements of u.

20.5.2.5 Tuple helper classes

template <class... Types>
class tuple_size<tuple<Types...> > : public integral_constant<size_t, sizeof...(Types)> { };

template <size_t I, class... Types>
class tuple_element<I, tuple<Types...> > { public:
    typedef TI type;
};

Requires: I < sizeof...(Types). The program is ill-formed if I is out of bounds.

Type: TI is the type of the Ith element of Types, where indexing is zero-based.

20.5.2.6 Element access

template <size_t I, class... Types>
typename tuple_element<I, tuple<Types...> >::type& get(tuple<Types...>& t);

Requires: I < sizeof...(Types). The program is ill-formed if I is out of bounds.

Returns: A reference to the Ith element of t, where indexing is zero-based.

Throws: nothing.

template <size_t I, class... Types>
typename tuple_element<I, tuple<Types...> >::type const& get(const tuple<Types...>& t);

Requires: I < sizeof...(Types). The program is ill-formed if I is out of bounds.

Returns: A const reference to the Ith element of t, where indexing is zero-based.

Throws: nothing.
[Note: Constness is shallow. If a T in Types is some reference type X&, the return type is X&; not const X&. However, if the element type is non-reference type T, the return type is const T&. This is consistent with how constness is defined to work for member variables of reference type. — end note]

[Note: The reason get is a nonmember function is that if this functionality had been provided as a member function, code where the type depended on a template parameter would have required using the template keyword. — end note]

20.5.2.7 Relational operators \[\text{tuple.rel}\]

\begin{verbatim}
template<class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
bool operator==(const tuple<TTypes...>& t, const tuple<UTypes...>& u);

Requires: For all i, where 0 <= i and i < sizeof...(Types), get<i>(t) == get<i>(u) is a valid expression returning a type that is convertible to bool. sizeof...(TTypes) == sizeof...(UTypes).

Returns: true iff get<i>(t) == get<i>(u) for all i. For any two zero-length tuples e and f, e == f returns true.

Effects: The elementary comparisons are performed in order from the zeroth index upwards. No comparisons or element accesses are performed after the first equality comparison that evaluates to false.

template<class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
bool operator<(const tuple<TTypes...>& t, const tuple<UTypes...>& u);

Requires: For all i, where 0 <= i and i < sizeof...(Types), get<i>(t) < get<i>(u) is a valid expression returning a type that is convertible to bool. sizeof...(TTypes) == sizeof...(UTypes).

Returns: The result of a lexicographical comparison between t and u. The result is defined as: (bool)(get<0>(t) < get<0>(u)) || (! bool)(get<0>(t) <= get<0>(u)) && t.tail < u.tail, where r.tail for some tuple r is a tuple containing all but the first element of r. For any two zero-length tuples e and f, e < f returns false.

template<class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
bool operator!=(const tuple<TTypes...>& t, const tuple<UTypes...>& u);

Returns: !(t == u).

template<class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
bool operator>(const tuple<TTypes...>& t, const tuple<UTypes...>& u);

Returns: u < t.

template<class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
bool operator<=(const tuple<TTypes...>& t, const tuple<UTypes...>& u);

Returns: !(u < t).

template<class... TTypes, class... UTypes>
bool operator>=(const tuple<TTypes...>& t, const tuple<UTypes...>& u);

Returns: !(t < u).

[Note: The above definitions for comparison operators do not require t.tail (or u.tail) to be constructed. It may not even be possible, as t and u are not required to be copy constructible. Also, all comparison operators are short circuited; they do not perform element accesses beyond what is required to determine the result of the comparison. — end note]
\end{verbatim}
20.5.2.8 Tuple traits

\[
\text{template } \langle \text{class... Types, class Alloc}\rangle \\
\text{struct uses_alloca}<\text{tor}<\text{tuple<Types...>, Alloc} : \text{true_type} \{ \}; \\
\text{Requires:} \text{Alloc shall be an Allocator (20.2.2).}
\]

\[\text{[Note: Specialization of this trait informs other library components that tuple can be constructed with an allocator, even though it does not have a nested allocator_type. — end note]}\]

\[
\text{template } \langle \text{class... Types}\rangle \\
\text{struct constructible_with_allocator_prefix<tuple<Types...> \rightarrow true_type \{ \}; \\
\text{[Note: Specialization of this trait informs other library components that tuple can be constructed with an allocator prefix argument. — end note]}
\]

20.5.2.9 Tuple specialized algorithms

\[
\text{template } \langle \text{class... Types}\rangle \\
\text{requires Swappable<Types...\rangle \rightarrow } \\
\text{void swap(tuple<Types...>& x, tuple<Types...>& y); }
\]

\[\text{Effects:} x.\text{swap}(y)\]

20.5.2.10 tuple range access

\[
\text{template } \langle \text{class InputIterator}\rangle \\
\text{InputIterator begin(const tuple<InputIterator, InputIterator>& t); }
\]

\[\text{Returns:} \text{std::get<0>(t).}\]

\[
\text{template } \langle \text{class InputIterator}\rangle \\
\text{InputIterator end(const tuple<InputIterator, InputIterator>& t); }
\]

\[\text{Returns:} \text{std::get<1>(t).}\]

20.6 Metaprogramming and type traits

This subclause describes components used by C++ programs, particularly in templates, to support the widest possible range of types, optimise template code usage, detect type related user errors, and perform type inference and transformation at compile time. It includes type classification traits, type property inspection traits, and type transformations. The type classification traits describe a complete taxonomy of all possible C++ types, and state where in that taxonomy a given type belongs. The type property inspection traits allow important characteristics of types or of combinations of types to be inspected. The type transformations allow certain properties of types to be manipulated.

20.6.1 Requirements

A UnaryTypeTrait describes a property of a type. It shall be a class template that takes one template type argument and, optionally, additional arguments that help define the property being described. It shall be DefaultConstructible, CopyConstructible, and publicly derived, directly or indirectly, from a specialization of the template integral_constant (20.6.3), with the arguments to the template integral_constant determined by the requirements for the particular property being described.
A \textit{BinaryTypeTrait} describes a relationship between two types. It shall be a class template that takes two template type arguments and, optionally, additional arguments that help define the relationship being described. It shall be \texttt{DefaultConstructible}, \texttt{CopyConstructible}, and publicly derived, directly or indirectly, from an instance of the template \texttt{integral\_constant} (20.6.3), with the arguments to the template \texttt{integral\_constant} determined by the requirements for the particular relationship being described.

A \textit{TransformationTrait} modifies a property of a type. It shall be a class template that takes one template type argument and, optionally, additional arguments that help define the modification. It shall define a nested type named \texttt{type}, which shall be a synonym for the modified type.

20.6.2 Header \texttt{<type\_traits> synopsis}

namespace std {
    // 20.6.3, helper class:
    template <class T, T v> struct integral_constant;
    typedef integral_constant<bool, true> true_type;
    typedef integral_constant<bool, false> false_type;

    // 20.6.4.1, primary type categories:
    template <class T> struct is_void;
    template <class T> struct is_integral;
    template <class T> struct is_floating_point;
    template <class T> struct is_array;
    template <class T> struct is_pointer;
    template <class T> struct is_lvalue_reference;
    template <class T> struct is_rvalue_reference;
    template <class T> struct is_member_object_pointer;
    template <class T> struct is_member_function_pointer;
    template <class T> struct is_enum;
    template <class T> struct is_union;
    template <class T> struct is_class;
    template <class T> struct is_function;

    // 20.6.4.2, composite type categories:
    template <class T> struct is_reference;
    template <class T> struct is_arithmetic;
    template <class T> struct is_fundamental;
    template <class T> struct is_object;
    template <class T> struct is_scalar;
    template <class T> struct is_compound;
    template <class T> struct is_member_pointer;

    // 20.6.4.3, type properties:
    template <class T> struct is_const;
    template <class T> struct is_volatile;
    template <class T> struct is_trivial;
    template <class T> struct is_trivially_copyable;
    template <class T> struct is_standard_layout;
    template <class T> struct is_pod;
    template <class T> struct is_literal_type;
    template <class T> struct is_empty;
    template <class T> struct is_polymorphic;
    template <class T> struct is_abstract;
    template <class T, class... Args> struct is_constructible;
    template <class T, class... Args> struct is_nothrow_constructible;
template <class T> struct has_trivial_default_constructor;
template <class T> struct has_trivial_copy_constructor;
template <class T> struct has_trivial_assign;
template <class T> struct has_trivialDestructor;
template <class T> struct has_nothrow_default_constructor;
template <class T> struct has_nothrow_copy_constructor;
template <class T> struct has_nothrow_assign;
template <class T> struct has_virtualDestructor;
template <class T> struct is_signed;
template <class T> struct is_unsigned;
template <class T> struct alignment_of;
template <class T> struct rank;
template <class T, unsigned I = 0> struct extent;

// 20.6.5, type relations:
template <class T, class U> struct is_same;
template <class Base, class Derived> struct is_base_of;
template <class From, class To> struct is_convertible;
template <class From, class To> struct is_explicitly_convertible;

// 20.6.6.1, const-volatile modifications:
template <class T> struct remove_const;
template <class T> struct remove_volatile;
template <class T> struct remove_cv;
template <class T> struct add_const;
template <class T> struct add_volatile;
template <class T> struct add_cv;

// 20.6.6.2, reference modifications:
template <class T> struct remove_reference;
template <class T> struct add_lvalue_reference;
template <class T> struct add_rvalue_reference;

// 20.6.6.3, sign modifications:
template <class T> struct make_signed;
template <class T> struct make_unsigned;

// 20.6.6.4, array modifications:
template <class T> struct remove_extent;
template <class T> struct remove_all_extents;

// 20.6.6.5, pointer modifications:
template <class T> struct remove_pointer;
template <class T> struct add_pointer;

// 20.6.7, other transformations:
template <std::size_t Len, std::size_t Align> struct aligned_storage;
template <std::size_t Len, class... Types> struct aligned_union;
template <class T> struct decay;
template <bool, class T = void> struct enable_if;
template <bool, class T, class F> struct conditional;
template <class... T> struct common_type;
template <class T> struct underlying_type;
} // namespace std

§ 20.6.2
The behavior of a program that adds specializations for any of the class templates defined in this subclause is undefined unless otherwise specified.

### 20.6.3 Helper classes

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class T, T v>
    struct integral_constant {
        static constexpr T value = v;
        typedef T value_type;
        typedef integral_constant<T,v> type;
        constexpr operator value_type() { return value; }
    };
    typedef integral_constant<bool, true> true_type;
    typedef integral_constant<bool, false> false_type;
}
```

The class template `integral_constant` and its associated typedefs `true_type` and `false_type` are used as base classes to define the interface for various type traits.

### 20.6.4 Unary Type Traits

This sub-clause contains templates that may be used to query the properties of a type at compile time.

Each of these templates shall be a `UnaryTypeTrait` (20.6.1), publicly derived directly or indirectly from `true_type` if the corresponding condition is true, otherwise from `false_type`.

#### 20.6.4.1 Primary Type Categories

The primary type categories correspond to the descriptions given in section 3.9 of the C++ standard.

For any given type `T`, the result of applying one of these templates to `T` and to `cv-qualified T` shall yield the same result.

[Note: For any given type `T`, exactly one of the primary type categories has a `value` member that evaluates to `true`. — end note]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_void;</code></td>
<td><code>T</code> is void</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_integral;</code></td>
<td><code>T</code> is an integral type (3.9.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_floating_point;</code></td>
<td><code>T</code> is a floating point type (3.9.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_array;</code></td>
<td><code>T</code> is an array type (3.9.2) of known or unknown extent</td>
<td>Class template <code>array</code> (23.3.1) is not an array type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_pointer;</code></td>
<td><code>T</code> is a pointer type (3.9.2)</td>
<td>Includes pointers to functions but not pointers to non-static members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_lvalue_reference;</code></td>
<td><code>T</code> is an lvalue reference type (8.3.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

§ 20.6.4.1
Table 41 — Primary type category predicates (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_rvalue_reference;</td>
<td>( T ) is an rvalue reference type (8.3.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_member_object_pointer;</td>
<td>( T ) is a pointer to non-static data member</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_member_function_pointer;</td>
<td>( T ) is a pointer to non-static member function</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_enum;</td>
<td>( T ) is an enumeration type (3.9.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_union;</td>
<td>( T ) is a union type (3.9.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_class;</td>
<td>( T ) is a class type but not a union type (3.9.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_function;</td>
<td>( T ) is a function type (3.9.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20.6.4.2 Composite type traits

1 These templates provide convenient compositions of the primary type categories, corresponding to the descriptions given in section 3.9.

2 For any given type \( T \), the result of applying one of these templates to \( T \), and to \( cv\)-qualified \( T \) shall yield the same result.

Table 42 — Composite type category predicates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_reference;</td>
<td>( T ) is an lvalue reference or an rvalue reference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_arithmetic;</td>
<td>( T ) is an arithmetic type (3.9.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_fundamental;</td>
<td>( T ) is a fundamental type (3.9.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_object;</td>
<td>( T ) is an object type (3.9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_scalar;</td>
<td>( T ) is a scalar type (3.9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_compound;</td>
<td>( T ) is a compound type (3.9.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_member_pointer;</td>
<td>( T ) is a pointer to non-static data member or non-static member function</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20.6.4.3 Type properties

These templates provide access to some of the more important properties of types.
2 It is unspecified whether the library defines any full or partial specialisations of any of these templates.

3 For all of the class templates \( X \) declared in this Clause, instantiating that template with a template-argument that is a class template specialization may result in the implicit instantiation of the template argument if and only if the semantics of \( X \) require that the argument must be a complete type.

Table 43 — Type property predicates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Preconditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_const;</td>
<td>( T ) is const-qualified (3.9.3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_volatile;</td>
<td>( T ) is volatile-qualified (3.9.3)</td>
<td>T shall be a complete type, (possibly cv-qualified) ( \text{void} ), or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) ( \text{void} ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_trivial;</td>
<td>( T ) is a trivial type (3.9)</td>
<td>T shall be a complete type, (possibly cv-qualified) ( \text{void} ), or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) ( \text{void} ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_trivially_copyable;</td>
<td>( T ) is a trivially copyable type (3.9)</td>
<td>T shall be a complete type, (possibly cv-qualified) ( \text{void} ), or an array of unknown bound.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_standard_layout;</td>
<td>( T ) is a standard-layout type (3.9)</td>
<td>T shall be a complete type, (possibly cv-qualified) ( \text{void} ), or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) ( \text{void} ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_pod;</td>
<td>( T ) is a POD type (3.9)</td>
<td>T shall be a complete type, (possibly cv-qualified) ( \text{void} ), or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) ( \text{void} ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_literal_type;</td>
<td>( T ) is a literal type (3.9)</td>
<td>T shall be a complete type, (possibly cv-qualified) ( \text{void} ), or an array of unknown bound.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_empty;</td>
<td>( T ) is a class type, but not a union type, with no non-static data members other than bit-fields of length 0, no virtual member functions, no virtual base classes, and no base class ( B ) for which ( \text{is_empty}&lt;B&gt;::\text{value} ) is false.</td>
<td>T shall be a complete type, an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) ( \text{void} ).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 43 — Type property predicates (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Preconditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| template `<class T>`  
struct is_polymorphic; | `T` is a polymorphic class (10.3) | `T` shall be a complete type, type, (possibly cv-qualified) `void`, or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) `void`. |
| template `<class T>`  
struct is_abstract; | `T` is an abstract class (10.4) | `T` shall be a complete type, type, (possibly cv-qualified) `void`, or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) `void`. |
| template `<class T, class... Args>`  
struct is_constructible; | `see below` | `T` and all types in the parameter pack `Args` shall be complete types, (possibly cv-qualified) `void`, or arrays of unknown bound. |
| template `<class T, class... Args>`  
struct is_nothrow_constructible; | `is_constructible<T, Args...>::value is true` and the expression `CE`, as defined below, is known not to throw any exceptions. | `T` and all types in the parameter pack `Args` shall be complete types, (possibly cv-qualified) `void`, or arrays of unknown bound. |
| template `<class T>`  
struct has_trivial_default_constructor; | `T` is a trivial type (3.9) or a class type with a trivial default constructor (12.1) or an array of such a class type. | `T` shall be a complete type, type, (possibly cv-qualified) `void`, or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) `void`. |
| template `<class T>`  
struct has_trivial_copy_constructor; | `T` is a trivial type (3.9) or a reference type or a class type whose copy constructors (12.8) are all trivial. | `T` shall be a complete type, type, (possibly cv-qualified) `void`, or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) `void`. |
| template `<class T>`  
struct has_trivial_assign; | `T` is neither `const` nor a reference type, and `T` is a trivial type (3.9) or a class type whose copy assignment operators (12.8) are all trivial. | `T` shall be a complete type, type, (possibly cv-qualified) `void`, or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) `void`. |
### Table 43 — Type property predicates (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Preconditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct has_trivial_destructor;</td>
<td>T is a trivial type (3.9) or a reference type or a class type with a trivial destructor (12.4) or an array of such a class type.</td>
<td>T shall be a complete type, type, (possibly cv-qualified) void, or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) void.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct has_nothrow_default_constructor;</td>
<td>has_trivial_default_constructor&lt;T&gt;::value is true or T is a class type with a default constructor that is known not to throw any exceptions or T is an array of such a class type.</td>
<td>T shall be a complete type, type, (possiblycv-qualified) void, or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) void.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct has_nothrow_copy_constructor;</td>
<td>has_trivial_copy_constructor&lt;T&gt;::value is true or T is a class type whose copy constructors are all known not to throw any exceptions or T is an array of such a class type.</td>
<td>T shall be a complete type, type, (possiblycv-qualified) void, or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) void.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct has_nothrow_assign;</td>
<td>T is neither const nor a reference type, and has_trivial_assign&lt;T&gt;::value is true or T is a class type whose copy assignment operators taking an lvalue of type T are all known not to throw any exceptions or T is an array of such a class type.</td>
<td>T shall be a complete type, type, (possiblycv-qualified) void, or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) void.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct has_virtualDestructor;</td>
<td>T has a virtual destructor (12.4)</td>
<td>T shall be a complete type, type, (possiblycv-qualified) void, or an array of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) void.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_signed;</td>
<td>is_arithmetic&lt;T&gt;::value &amp;&amp; T(-1) &lt; T(0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct is_unsigned;</td>
<td>is_arithmetic&lt;T&gt;::value &amp;&amp; T(0) &lt; T(-1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

4 Example:

- `is_const<const volatile int>::value` // true
- `is_const<const int*>::value` // false
- `is_const<const int&>::value` // false
is_const<int[3]>::value // false
is_const<const int[3]>::value // true

— end example ]

5 [ Example:

remove_const<const volatile int>::type // volatile int
remove_const<const int* const>::type // const int*
remove_const<const int&>::type // const int&

— end example ]

6 Given the following function prototype:

template <class T>
typename add_rvalue_reference<T>::type create();

the predicate condition for a template specialization is_constructible<T, Args...> shall be satisfied if and only if the following expression CE would be well-formed:

— if sizeof...(Args) == 1, the expression:
  static_cast<T>(create<Args>()...)

— otherwise, the expression:
  T(create<Args>()...)

Table 44 — Type property queries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt;</td>
<td>alignof(T).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>struct alignment_of;</td>
<td>Precondition: T shall be a complete type, a reference type, or an array of unknown bound, but shall not be a function type or (possibly cv-qualified) void.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt;</td>
<td>If T names an array type, an integer value representing the number of dimensions of T; otherwise, 0.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>struct rank;</td>
<td>If T is not an array type, or if it has rank less than or equal to I, or if I is 0 and T has type “array of unknown bound of U”, then 0; otherwise, the bound (8.3.4) of the I’th dimension of T, where indexing of I is zero-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T, unsigned I = 0&gt;</td>
<td>struct extent;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7 [ Example:

    // the following assertions hold:
    assert(rank<int>::value == 0);
    assert(rank<int[2]>::value == 1);
    assert(rank<int[]>::value == 2);

    — end example ]

8 [ Example:

    // the following assertions hold:

§ 20.6.4.3
assert(extent<int>::value == 0);
assert(extent<int[2]>::value == 2);
assert(extent<int[2][4]>::value == 2);
assert(extent<int[][4]>::value == 0);
assert((extent<int, 1>::value) == 0);
assert((extent<int[2], 1>::value) == 0);
assert((extent<int[2][4], 1>::value) == 4);
assert((extent<int[][4], 1>::value) == 4);

— end example]

20.6.5 Relationships between types [meta.rel]

1 This sub-clause contains templates that may be used to query relationships between types at compile time.

2 Each of these templates shall be a BinaryTypeTrait (20.6.1), publicly derived directly or indirectly from true_type if the corresponding condition is true, otherwise from false_type.

Table 45 — Type relationship predicates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T, class U&gt; struct is_same;</td>
<td>T and U name the same type with the same cv-qualifications</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class Base, class Derived&gt; struct is_base_of;</td>
<td>Base is a base class of Derived (10) without regard to cv-qualifiers or Base and Derived are not unions and name the same class type without regard to cv-qualifiers</td>
<td>If Base and Derived are class types and are different types (ignoring possible cv-qualifiers) then Derived shall be a complete type. [Note: Base classes that are private, protected, or ambiguous are, nonetheless, base classes. — end note]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class From, class To&gt; struct is_convertible;</td>
<td>see below</td>
<td>From and To shall be complete types, arrays of unknown bound, or (possibly cv-qualified) void types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class From, class To&gt; struct is_explicitly_convertible;</td>
<td>is_constructible&lt;To, From&gt;::value</td>
<td>is_explicitly_convertible is a synonym for a two-argument version of is_constructible. An implementation may define it as a template alias.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 [Example:

```cpp
struct B {}; 
struct B1 : B {}; 
struct B2 : B {}; 
struct D : private B1, private B2 {}; 

is_base_of<B, D>::value // true 
is_base_of<const B, D>::value // true 
is_base_of<B, const D>::value // true
```

§ 20.6.5
Given the following function prototype:

```cpp
template <class T>
    typename add_rvalue_reference<T>::type create();
```

the predicate condition for a template specialization `is_convertible<From, To>` shall be satisfied if and only if the return expression in the following code would be well-formed, including any implicit conversions to the return type of the function:

```cpp
To test() {
    return create<From>();
}
```

[Note: This requirement gives well defined results for reference types, void types, array types, and function types. — end note]

### 20.6.6 Transformations between types [meta.trans]

1. This subclause contains templates that may be used to transform one type to another following some predefined rule.
2. Each of the templates in this subclause shall be a TransformationTrait (20.6.1).

#### 20.6.6.1 Const-volatile modifications [meta.trans.cv]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| template <class T> struct remove_const; | The member typedef `type` shall name the same type as `T` except that any top-level const-qualifier has been removed.  
  `[Example: remove_const<const volatile int>::type evaluates to volatile int, whereas remove_const<const int*>::type evaluates to const int*. — end example]` |
| template <class T> struct remove_volatile; | The member typedef `type` shall name the same type as `T` except that any top-level volatile-qualifier has been removed.  
  `[Example: remove_volatile<const volatile int>::type evaluates to const int, whereas remove_volatile<volatile int*>::type evaluates to volatile int*. — end example]` |
| template <class T> struct remove_cv; | The member typedef `type` shall be the same as `T` except that any top-level cv-qualifier has been removed.  
  `[Example: remove_cv<const volatile int>::type evaluates to int, whereas remove_cv<const volatile int*>::type evaluates to const volatile int*. — end example]` |
| template <class T> struct add_const; | If `T` is a reference, function, or top-level const-qualified type, then `type` shall name the same type as `T`, otherwise `T const`. |
Table 46 — Const-volatile modifications (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>template <code>&lt;class T&gt;</code>&lt;br&gt;struct add_volatile;</td>
<td>If <code>T</code> is a reference, function, or top-level volatile-qualified type, then &lt;br&gt;type shall name the same type as <code>T</code>, otherwise <code>T volatile</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template <code>&lt;class T&gt;</code>&lt;br&gt;struct add_cv;</td>
<td>The member typedef type shall name the same type as &lt;br&gt;<code>add_const&lt;</code>typename add_volatile&lt;T&gt;::type&gt;::type`.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20.6.6.2 Reference modifications [meta.trans.ref]

Table 47 — Reference modifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>template <code>&lt;class T&gt;</code>&lt;br&gt;struct remove_reference;</td>
<td>If <code>T</code> has type “reference to <code>T1</code>” then the member typedef type shall name <code>T1</code>; otherwise, type shall name <code>T</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template <code>&lt;class T&gt;</code>&lt;br&gt;struct add_lvalue_reference;</td>
<td>If <code>T</code> names an object or function type then the member typedef type shall name <code>T</code>; otherwise, if <code>T</code> names a type “rvalue reference to <code>T1</code>” then the member typedef type shall name <code>T1</code>; otherwise, type shall name <code>T</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template <code>&lt;class T&gt;</code>&lt;br&gt;struct add_rvalue_reference</td>
<td>If <code>T</code> names an object or function type then the member typedef type shall name <code>T</code>; otherwise, if <code>T</code> names a type “rvalue reference to <code>T1</code>” then the member typedef type shall name <code>T1</code>; otherwise, type shall name <code>T</code>. [Note: This rule reflects the semantics of reference collapsing. For example, when a type <code>T</code> names a type <code>T1</code>, the type <code>add_rvalue_reference&lt;T&gt;::type</code> is not an rvalue reference. — end note]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20.6.6.3 Sign modifications [meta.trans.sign]

Table 48 — Sign modifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| template `<class T>`<br>struct make_signed; | If `T` names a (possibly cv-qualified) signed integral type (3.9.1) then the member typedef type shall name the `T`; otherwise, if `T` names a (possibly cv-qualified) unsigned integral type then type shall name the corresponding signed integral type, with the same cv-qualifiers as `T`; otherwise, type shall name the signed integral type with smallest rank (4.13) for which `sizeof(T) == sizeof(type)`, with the same cv-qualifiers as `T`.  
Requires: `T` shall be a (possibly cv-qualified) integral type or enumeration but not a bool type. |
| template `<class T>`<br>struct make_unsigned; | If `T` names a (possibly cv-qualified) unsigned integral type (3.9.1) then the member typedef type shall name the `T`; otherwise, if `T` names a (possibly cv-qualified) signed integral type then type shall name the corresponding unsigned integral type, with the same cv-qualifiers as `T`; otherwise, type shall name the unsigned integral type with smallest rank (4.13) for which `sizeof(T) == sizeof(type)`, with the same cv-qualifiers as `T`.  
Requires: `T` shall be a (possibly cv-qualified) integral type or enumeration but not a bool type. |
20.6.6.4 Array modifications

Table 49 — Array modifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct remove_extent;</td>
<td>If T names a type “array of U”, the member typedef type shall be U, otherwise T. [Note: For multidimensional arrays, only the first array dimension is removed. For a type “array of const U”, the resulting type is const U. — end note]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct remove_all_extents;</td>
<td>If T is “multi-dimensional array of U”, the resulting member typedef type is U, otherwise T.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 [Example]

// the following assertions hold:
assert((is_same<remove_extent<int>::type, int>::value));
assert((is_same<remove_extent<int[2]>::type, int>::value));
assert((is_same<remove_extent<int[2][3]>::type, int[3]>::value));
assert((is_same<remove_extent<int[][3]>::type, int[3]>::value));

— end example |

2 [Example]

// the following assertions hold:
assert((is_same<remove_all_extents<int>::type, int>::value));
assert((is_same<remove_all_extents<int[2]>::type, int>::value));
assert((is_same<remove_all_extents<int[2][3]>::type, int>::value));
assert((is_same<remove_all_extents<int[][3]>::type, int>::value));

— end example |

20.6.6.5 Pointer modifications

Table 50 — Pointer modifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct remove_pointer;</td>
<td>If T has type “(possibly cv-qualified) pointer to T1” then the member typedef type shall name T1; otherwise, it shall name T.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct add_pointer;</td>
<td>The member typedef type shall name the same type as remove_reference&lt;T&gt;::type*.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20.6.7 Other transformations
Table 51 — Other transformations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;std::size_t Len, std::size_t Align = default-alignment&gt; struct aligned_storage;</td>
<td>Len shall not be zero. Align shall be equal to alignment_of&lt;T&gt;::value for some type T or to default-alignment.</td>
<td>The value of default-alignment shall be the most stringent alignment requirement for any C++ object type whose size is no greater than Len (3.9). The member typedef type shall be a POD type suitable for use as uninitialized storage for any object whose size is at most Len and whose alignment is a divisor of Align.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct decay;</td>
<td></td>
<td>Let U be remove_reference&lt;T&gt;::type. If is_array&lt;U&gt;::value is true, the member typedef type shall equal remove_extent&lt;U&gt;::type*. If is_function&lt;U&gt;::value is true, the member typedef type shall equal add_pointer&lt;U&gt;::type. Otherwise the member typedef type equals remove_cv&lt;U&gt;::type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;bool B, class T = void&gt; struct enable_if;</td>
<td>If B is true, the member typedef type shall equal T; otherwise, there shall be no member typedef type.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;bool B, class T, class F&gt; struct conditional;</td>
<td>If B is true, the member typedef type shall equal T. If B is false, the member typedef type shall equal F.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class... T&gt; struct common_type;</td>
<td>The member typedef type shall be defined as set out below. All types in the parameter pack T shall be complete. A program may specialize this trait if at least one template parameter in the specialization is a user-defined type. [Note: Such specializations are needed when only explicit conversions are desired among the template arguments. — end note]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>template &lt;class T&gt; struct underlying_type;</td>
<td>T shall be an enumeration type (7.2)</td>
<td>The member typedef type shall name the underlying type of T.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 [Note: A typical implementation would define aligned_storage as:]

```cpp
template <std::size_t Len, std::size_t Alignment>
struct aligned_storage {
    typedef struct {
        unsigned char __data [ align(Alignment) ] [Len];
    } type;
};

— end note]

§ 20.6.7
It is implementation-defined whether any extended alignment is supported (3.11).

The nested typedef common_type::type shall be defined as follows:

```cpp
template <class ...T> struct common_type;

template <class T>
struct common_type<T> {
    typedef T type;
};

template <class T, class U>
struct common_type<T, U> {
    private:
        static T&& __t();
        static U&& __u();
    public:
        typedef decltype(true ? __t() : __u()) type;
};

template <class T, class U, class... V>
struct common_type<T, U, V...> {
    typedef typename common_type<typename common_type<T, U>::type, V...>::type type;
};
```

### 20.7 Function objects

Function objects are objects with an operator() defined. In the places where one would expect to pass a pointer to a function to an algorithmic template (Clause 25), the interface is specified to accept an object with an operator() defined. This not only makes algorithmic templates work with pointers to functions, but also enables them to work with arbitrary function objects.

#### Header `<functional>` synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    // 20.7.3, base:
    template <class Arg, class Result> struct unary_function;
    template <class Arg1, class Arg2, class Result> struct binary_function;

    // 20.7.4 result_of:
    template <class> class result_of; // undefined
    template <class F, class... Args> class result_of<F(Args...)>

    // 20.7.5, reference_wrapper:
    template <class T> class reference_wrapper;
    template <class T> reference_wrapper<T> ref(T&);
    template <class T> reference_wrapper<const T> cref(const T&);
    template <class T> void ref(const T&); // delete
    template <class T> void cref(const T&); // delete

    // 20.7.6, arithmetic operations:
    template <class T> struct plus;
```
template <class T> struct minus;
template <class T> struct multiplies;
template <class T> struct divides;
template <class T> struct modulus;
template <class T> struct negate;

// 20.7.7, comparisons:
template <class T> struct equal_to;
template <class T> struct not_equal_to;
template <class T> struct greater;
template <class T> struct less;
template <class T> struct greater_equal;
template <class T> struct less_equal;

// 20.7.8, logical operations:
template <class T> struct logical_and;
template <class T> struct logical_or;
template <class T> struct logical_not;

// 20.7.9, bitwise operations:
template <class T> struct bit_and;
template <class T> struct bit_or;
template <class T> struct bit_xor;

// 20.7.10, negators:
template <class Predicate> class unary_negate;
template <class Predicate>
    unary_negate<Predicate> not1(const Predicate&);
template <class Predicate> class binary_negate;
template <class Predicate>
    binary_negate<Predicate> not2(const Predicate&);

// 20.7.11, bind:
template<class T> struct is_bind_expression;
template<class T> struct is_placeholder;

template<class Fn, class... Types>
    unspecified bind(Fn, Types...);
template<class R, class Fn, class... Types>
    unspecified bind(Fn, Types...);

namespace placeholders {
    // M is the implementation-defined number of placeholders
    extern unspecified _1;
    extern unspecified _2;
    ...
    .
    .
    .
    extern unspecified _M;
}

// D.9, binders (deprecated):
template <class Fn> class binder1st;
template <class Fn, class T>
    binder1st<Fn> bindlist(const Fn&, const T&);

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template <class Fn> class binder2nd;
template <class Fn, class T>
binder2nd<Fn> bind2nd(const Fn&, const T&);

// 20.7.12, adaptors:
template <class Arg, class Result> class pointer_to_unary_function;
template <class Arg, class Result>
    pointer_to_unary_function<Arg,Result> ptr_fun(Result (*)(Arg));
template <class Arg1, class Arg2, class Result>
    class pointer_to_binary_function;
template <class Arg1, class Arg2, class Result>
    pointer_to_binary_function<Arg1,Arg2,Result>
        ptr_fun(Result (*)(Arg1,Arg2));

// 20.7.13, adaptors:
template<class S, class T> class mem_fun_t;
template<class S, class T, class A> class mem_fun1_t;
template<class S, class T>
    mem_fun_t<S,T> mem_fun(S (T::*f)());
template<class S, class T, class A>
    mem_fun1_t<S,T,A> mem_fun(S (T::*f)(A));
template<class S, class T> class mem_fun_ref_t;
template<class S, class T, class A> class mem_fun1_ref_t;
template<class S, class T>
    mem_fun_ref_t<S,T> mem_fun_ref(S (T::*f)());
template<class S, class T, class A>
    mem_fun1_ref_t<S,T,A> mem_fun_ref(S (T::*f)(A));

template <class S, class T> class const_mem_fun_t;
template <class S, class T, class A> class const_mem_fun1_t;
template <class S, class T>
    const_mem_fun_t<S,T> mem_fun(S (T::*f)() const);
template <class S, class T, class A>
    const_mem_fun1_t<S,T,A> mem_fun(S (T::*f)(A) const);

template<class S, class T> const_mem_fun_t;
template<class S, class T, class A> const_mem_fun1_t;
template<class S, class T>
    const_mem_fun_t<S,T> mem_fun(S (T::*f)() const);
template<class S, class T, class A>
    const_mem_fun1_t<S,T,A> mem_fun(S (T::*f)(A) const);

// 20.7.14, member function adaptors:
template<class R, class T> unspecified mem_fn(R T::*);

// 20.7.15 polymorphic function wrappers:
class bad_function_call;

template<class> class function; // undefined
template<class R, class... ArgTypes> class function<R(ArgTypes...)>;

template<class R, class... ArgTypes>
    void swap(function<R(ArgTypes...)>&, function<R(ArgTypes...)>&);

template<class R, class... ArgTypes>
    void swap(function<R(ArgTypes...)>&&, function<R(ArgTypes...)>&&);

template<class R, class... ArgTypes>
void swap(function<R(ArgTypes...)>&, function<R(ArgTypes...)>&);

// 20.7.16, hash function base template:
template <class T> struct hash;

// Hash function specializations
template <> struct hash<bool>;
template <> struct hash<char>;
template <> struct hash<signed char>;
template <> struct hash<unsigned char>;
template <> struct hash<char16_t>;
template <> struct hash<char32_t>;
template <> struct hash<wchar_t>;
template <> struct hash<short>;
template <> struct hash<unsigned short>;
template <> struct hash<int>;
template <> struct hash<unsigned int>;
template <> struct hash<long>;
template <> struct hash<unsigned long>;
template <> struct hash<long long>;
template <> struct hash<unsigned long long>;
template <> struct hash<float>;
template <> struct hash<double>;
template <> struct hash<long double>;
template <> struct hash<T*>;

3  [Example: If a C++ program wants to have a by-element addition of two vectors a and b containing double and put the result into a, it can do:

        transform(a.begin(), a.end(), b.begin(), a.begin(), plus<double>()));

        — end example]

4  [Example: To negate every element of a:
To enable adaptors and other components to manipulate function objects that take one or two arguments it is required that the function objects correspondingly provide typedefs `argument_type` and `result_type` for function objects that take one argument and `first_argument_type`, `second_argument_type`, and `result_type` for function objects that take two arguments.

### 20.7.1 Definitions

1. The following definitions apply to this Clause:
2. A *call signature* is the name of a return type followed by a parenthesized comma-separated list of zero or more argument types.
3. A *callable type* is a pointer to function, a pointer to member function, a pointer to member data, or a class type whose objects can appear immediately to the left of a function call operator.
4. A *callable object* is an object of a callable type.
5. A *call wrapper type* is a type that holds a callable object and supports a call operation that forwards to that object.
6. A *call wrapper* is an object of a call wrapper type.
7. A *target object* is the callable object held by a call wrapper.

### 20.7.2 Requirements

1. Define `INVOKE(f, t1, t2, ..., tN)` as follows:
   - `(t1.*f)(t2, ..., tN)` when `f` is a pointer to a member function of a class `T` and `t1` is an object of type `T` or a reference to an object of type `T` or a reference to an object of a type derived from `T`;
   - `((t1).*f)(t2, ..., tN)` when `f` is a pointer to a member function of a class `T` and `t1` is not one of the types described in the previous item;
   - `t1.*f` when `f` is a pointer to member data of a class `T` and `t1` is an object of type `T` or a reference to an object of type `T` or a reference to an object of a type derived from `T`;
   - `(*t1).*f` when `f` is a pointer to member data of a class `T` and `t1` is not one of the types described in the previous item;
   - `f(t1, t2, ..., tN)` in all other cases.
2. Define `INVOKE(f, t1, t2, ..., tN, R)` as `INVOKE(f, t1, t2, ..., tN)` implicitly converted to `R`.
3. If a call wrapper (20.7.1) has a *weak result type* the type of its member type `result_type` is based on the type `T` of the wrapper's target object (20.7.1):
   - if `T` is a function, reference to function, or pointer to function type, `result_type` shall be a synonym for the return type of `T`;
   - if `T` is a pointer to member function, `result_type` shall be a synonym for the return type of `T`;
   - if `T` is a class type with a member type `result_type`, then `result_type` shall be a synonym for `T::result_type`;
   - otherwise `result_type` shall not be defined.
Every call wrapper (20.7.1) shall be CopyConstructible. A *simple call wrapper* is a call wrapper that is CopyAssignable and whose copy constructor and assignment operator do not throw exceptions. A *forwarding call wrapper* is a call wrapper that can be called with an argument list. [Note: in a typical implementation forwarding call wrappers have an overloaded function call operator of the form]

```
template<class... ArgTypes>
R operator()(ArgTypes&&... args) cv-qual;
```

--- end note ---

### 20.7.3 Base

The following classes are provided to simplify the typedefs of the argument and result types:

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class Arg, class Result>
    struct unary_function {
        typedef Arg argument_type;
        typedef Result result_type;
    };
}

namespace std {
    template <class Arg1, class Arg2, class Result>
    struct binary_function {
        typedef Arg1 first_argument_type;
        typedef Arg2 second_argument_type;
        typedef Result result_type;
    };
}
```

### 20.7.4 Function object return types

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class> class result_of; // undefined

    template <class Fn, class... ArgTypes>
    class result_of<Fn(ArgTypes...)> {
    public:
        // types
        typedef see below type;
    };
}
```

1. Given an rvalue `fn` of type `Fn` and values `t1, t2, ..., tN` of types `T1, T2, ..., TN` in `ArgTypes`, respectively, the `type` member is the result type of the expression `fn(t1, t2, ..., tN)`. The values `ti` are lvalues when the corresponding type `Ti` is an lvalue-reference type, and rvalues otherwise.

### 20.7.5 Class template reference_wrapper

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class T> class reference_wrapper
        : public unary_function<T1, R> // see below
        : public binary_function<T1, T2, R> // see below
    {
```

§ 20.7.5
public:
   
   // types
   typedef T type;
   typedef see below result_type; // not always defined

   // construct/copy/destroy
   reference_wrapper(T&);
   
   // explicit reference_wrapper(T&) = delete; // do not bind to temporary objects
   reference_wrapper(const reference_wrapper<T>& x);

   // assignment
   reference_wrapper& operator=(const reference_wrapper<T>& x);

   // access
   T& get() const;
   
   // invocation
   template <class... ArgTypes>
   typename result_of<T(ArgTypes...)>::type
   operator() (ArgTypes&&...) const;
};

1. `reference_wrapper<T>` is a CopyConstructible and Assignable wrapper around a reference to an object of type T.
2. `reference_wrapper` has a weak result type (20.7.2).
3. The template instantiation `reference_wrapper<T>` shall be derived from `std::unary_function<T1, R>` only if the type T is any of the following:
   - a function type or a pointer to function type taking one argument of type T1 and returning R
   - a pointer to member function R T0::f cv (where cv represents the member function’s cv-qualifiers);
     the type T1 is cv T0*
   - a class type that is derived from `std::unary_function<T1, R>`
4. The template instantiation `reference_wrapper<T>` shall be derived from `std::binary_function<T1, T2, R>` only if the type T is any of the following:
   - a function type or a pointer to function type taking two arguments of types T1 and T2 and returning R
   - a pointer to member function R T0::f(T2) cv (where cv represents the member function’s cv-qualifiers);
     the type T1 is cv T0*
   - a class type that is derived from `std::binary_function<T1, T2, R>`
Effects: Constructs a `reference_wrapper` object that stores a reference to `x.get()`.

Throws: nothing.

### 20.7.5.2 reference_wrapper assignment

```cpp
reference_wrapper& operator=(const reference_wrapper&lt;T&gt;& x);
```

Postconditions: `*this` stores a reference to `x.get()`.

Throws: nothing.

### 20.7.5.3 reference_wrapper access

```cpp
operator T& () const;
```

Returns: The stored reference.

Throws: nothing.

```cpp
T& get() const;
```

Returns: The stored reference.

Throws: nothing.

### 20.7.5.4 reference_wrapper invocation

```cpp
template &lt;class... ArgTypes&gt;
typename result_of&lt;T(ArgTypes...)&gt;::type
operator()(ArgTypes&&... args) const;
```

Returns: `INVOKE(get(), std::forward&lt;ArgTypes&gt;(args)...).` (20.7.2)

Remark: `operator()` is described for exposition only. Implementations are not required to provide an actual `reference_wrapper::operator()`. Implementations are permitted to support `reference_wrapper` function invocation through multiple overloaded operators or through other means.

### 20.7.5.5 reference_wrapper helper functions

```cpp
template &lt;class T&gt; reference_wrapper&lt;T&gt; ref(T&amp; t);
```

Returns: `reference_wrapper&lt;T&gt;(t)`

Throws: nothing.

```cpp
template &lt;class T&gt; reference_wrapper&lt;T&gt; ref(reference_wrapper&lt;T&gt;t);
```

Returns: `ref(t.get())`

Throws: nothing.

```cpp
template &lt;class T&gt; reference_wrapper&lt;const T&gt; cref(const T&amp; t);
```

Returns: `reference_wrapper &lt;const T&gt;(t)`

Throws: nothing.

```cpp
template &lt;class T&gt; reference_wrapper&lt;const T&gt; cref(reference_wrapper&lt;T&gt;t);
```

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20.7.6 Arithmetic operations

The library provides basic function object classes for all of the arithmetic operators in the language (5.6, 5.7).

```cpp
template <class T> struct plus : binary_function<T,T,T> {
    T operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};

operator() returns \( x + y \).
```

```cpp
template <class T> struct minus : binary_function<T,T,T> {
    T operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};

operator() returns \( x - y \).
```

```cpp
template <class T> struct multiplies : binary_function<T,T,T> {
    T operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};

operator() returns \( x \times y \).
```

```cpp
template <class T> struct divides : binary_function<T,T,T> {
    T operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};

operator() returns \( x / y \).
```

```cpp
template <class T> struct modulus : binary_function<T,T,T> {
    T operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};

operator() returns \( x \% y \).
```

```cpp
template <class T> struct negate : unary_function<T,T> {
    T operator()(const T& x) const;
};

operator() returns \(-x\).
```

20.7.7 Comparisons

The library provides basic function object classes for all of the comparison operators in the language (5.9, 5.10).

```cpp
template <class T> struct equal_to : binary_function<T,T,bool> {
    bool operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};

operator() returns \( x == y \).
```

```cpp
template <class T> struct not_equal_to : binary_function<T,T,bool> {
    bool operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};
```

§ 20.7.7
3 operator() returns \( x \neq y \).

```cpp
template <class T> struct greater : binary_function<T,T,bool> {
    bool operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};
```

4 operator() returns \( x > y \).

```cpp
template <class T> struct less : binary_function<T,T,bool> {
    bool operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};
```

5 operator() returns \( x < y \).

```cpp
template <class T> struct greater_equal : binary_function<T,T,bool> {
    bool operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};
```

6 operator() returns \( x \geq y \).

```cpp
template <class T> struct less_equal : binary_function<T,T,bool> {
    bool operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};
```

7 operator() returns \( x \leq y \).

8 For templates `greater`, `less`, `greater_equal`, and `less_equal`, the specializations for any pointer type yield a total order, even if the built-in operators `<`, `>`, `<=`, `>=` do not.

### 20.7.8 Logical operations

The library provides basic function object classes for all of the logical operators in the language (5.14, 5.15, 5.3.1).

```cpp
template <class T> struct logical_and : binary_function<T,T,bool> {
    bool operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};
```

2 operator() returns \( x \&\& y \).

```cpp
template <class T> struct logical_or : binary_function<T,T,bool> {
    bool operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};
```

3 operator() returns \( x \|\| y \).

```cpp
template <class T> struct logical_not : unary_function<T,bool> {
    bool operator()(const T& x) const;
};
```

4 operator() returns \( \neg x \).

### 20.7.9 Bitwise operations

The library provides basic function object classes for all of the bitwise operators in the language (5.11, 5.13, 5.12).

```cpp
template <class T> struct bit_and : binary_function<T,T,T> {
```

§ 20.7.9
T operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};

operator() returns x & y.

```
template <class T> struct bit_or : binary_function<T,T,T> {
    T operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};
```

operator() returns x | y.

```
template <class T> struct bit_xor : binary_function<T,T,T> {
    T operator()(const T& x, const T& y) const;
};
```

operator() returns x ˆ y.

### 20.7.10 Negators [negators]

Negators not1 and not2 take a unary and a binary predicate, respectively, and return their complements (5.3.1).

```
template <class Predicate>
class unary_negate

    : public unary_function<typename Predicate::argument_type,bool> {
public:
    explicit unary_negate(const Predicate& pred);
    bool operator()(const typename Predicate::argument_type& x) const;
};
```

operator() returns !pred(x).

```
template <class Predicate>
unary_negate<Predicate> not1(const Predicate& pred);
```

Returns: unary_negate<Predicate>(pred).

```
template <class Predicate>
class binary_negate

    : public binary_function<typename Predicate::first_argument_type,
                              typename Predicate::second_argument_type, bool> {
public:
    explicit binary_negate(const Predicate& pred);
    bool operator()(const typename Predicate::first_argument_type& x,
                    const typename Predicate::second_argument_type& y) const;
};
```

operator() returns !pred(x,y).

```
template <class Predicate>
binary_negate<Predicate> not2(const Predicate& pred);
```

Returns:

binary_negate<Predicate>(pred).
20.7.11 Function template bind

1 The function template bind returns an object that binds a function object passed as an argument to additional arguments.

20.7.11.1 Function object binders

1 This subclause describes a uniform mechanism for binding arguments of function objects.

20.7.11.1.1 Class template is_bind_expression

namespace std {
    template<class T> struct is_bind_expression {
        static const bool value = see below;
    };
}

1 is_bind_expression can be used to detect function objects generated by bind. bind uses is_bind_expression to detect subexpressions. Users may specialize this template to indicate that a type should be treated as a subexpression in a bind call.

static const bool value;

2 true if T is a type returned from bind, false otherwise.

20.7.11.1.2 Class template is_placeholder

namespace std {
    template<class T> struct is_placeholder {
        static const int value = see below;
    };
}

1 is_placeholder can be used to detect the standard placeholders _1, _2, and so on. bind uses is_placeholder to detect placeholders. Users may specialize this template to indicate a placeholder type.

static const int value;

2 value is J if T is the type of std::placeholders::_J, 0 otherwise.

20.7.11.1.3 Function template bind

template<class F, class... BoundArgs>
    unspecified bind(F f, BoundArgs... bound_args);

1 Requires: F and each Ti in BoundArgs shall be CopyConstructible. INVOKE (f, w1, w2, ..., wN) (20.7.2) shall be a valid expression for some values w1, w2, ..., wN, where N == sizeof...(bound_args).

2 Returns: A forwarding call wrapper g with a weak result type (20.7.2). The effect of g(u1, u2, ..., uM) shall be INVOKE(f, v1, v2, ..., vN, result_of<F cv (V1, V2, ..., VN>::type), where cv represents the cv-qualifiers of g and the values and types of the bound arguments v1, v2, ..., vN are determined as specified below.

3 Throws: Nothing unless the copy constructor of F or of one of the types in the BoundArgs... pack expansion throws an exception.

§ 20.7.11.1.3
template<class R, class F, class... BoundArgs>
unspecified bind(F f, BoundArgs... bound_args);

4 Requires: F and each Ti in BoundArgs shall be CopyConstructible. \texttt{INVOKE}(f, w1, w2, \ldots, wN) shall be a valid expression for some values w1, w2, \ldots, wN, where N == sizeof...(bound_args).

5 Returns: A forwarding call wrapper g with a nested type \texttt{result\_type} defined as a synonym for R. The effect of g(u1, u2, \ldots, uM) shall be \texttt{INVOKE}(f, v1, v2, \ldots, vN, R), where the values and types of the bound arguments v1, v2, \ldots, vN are determined as specified below.

6 Throws: Nothing unless the copy constructor of F or of one of the types in the BoundArgs... pack expansion throws an exception.

7 The values of the \textit{bound arguments} v1, v2, \ldots, vN and their corresponding types V1, V2, \ldots, VN depend on the type of the corresponding argument ti in bound_args of type Ti in BoundArgs in the call to bind and the cv-qualifiers cv of the call wrapper g as follows:

   — if ti is of type \texttt{reference\_wrapper<T>} the argument is ti.get() and its type V1 is T&:
   
   — if the value of std::is\_bind\_expression<Ti>::value is true the argument is ti(u1, u2, \ldots, uM) and its type V1 is result\_of<\texttt{cv}<T1\texttt{cv}(U1\&, U2\&, \ldots, UM\&)\texttt{>::type}:
   
   — if the value j of std::is\_placeholder<Ti>::value is not zero the argument is std::forward<Uj>(uj) and its type V1 is Uj&&;

   — otherwise the value is ti and its type V1 is Ti cv &.

20.7.11.1.4 Placeholders

namespace std {
namespace placeholders {
   // M is the implementation-defined number of placeholders
   extern unspecified _1;
   extern unspecified _2;
   .
   .
   .
   extern unspecified _M;
}
}

1 All placeholder types shall be DefaultConstructible and CopyConstructible, and their default constructors and copy constructors shall not throw exceptions. It is implementation-defined whether placeholder types are Assignable. Assignable placeholders’ copy assignment operators shall not throw exceptions.

20.7.12 Adaptors for pointers to functions

1 To allow pointers to (unary and binary) functions to work with function adaptors the library provides:

template <class Arg, class Result>
class pointer_to_unary_function : public unary_function<Arg, Result> {
   public:
      explicit pointer_to_unary_function(Result (*f)(Arg));
      Result operator()(Arg x) const;
   }

   operator() returns f(x).
template <class Arg, class Result>
pointer_to_unary_function<Arg, Result> ptr_fun(Result (*)(Arg));

Returns: pointer_to_unary_function<Arg, Result>(f).

template <class Arg1, class Arg2, class Result>
class pointer_to_binary_function : public binary_function<Arg1,Arg2,Result> {
public:
    explicit pointer_to_binary_function(Result (*)(Arg1, Arg2));
    Result operator()(Arg1 x, Arg2 y) const;
};

operator() returns f(x,y).

template <class Arg1, class Arg2, class Result>
pointer_to_binary_function<Arg1,Arg2,Result> ptr_fun(Result (*)(Arg1, Arg2));

Returns: pointer_to_binary_function<Arg1,Arg2,Result>(f).

[Example:
  int compare(const char*, const char*);
  replace_if(v.begin(), v.end(),
      not1(bind2nd(ptr_fun(compare), "abc")), "def");

  replaces each abc with def in sequence v. — end example]

20.7.13 Adaptors for pointers to members

The purpose of the following is to provide the same facilities for pointer to members as those provided for
pointers to functions in 20.7.12.

template <class S, class T> class mem_fun_t
  : public unary_function<T*, S> {
public:
    explicit mem_fun_t(S (T::*p)());
    S operator()(T* p) const;
};

mem_fun_t calls the member function it is initialized with given a pointer argument.

template <class S, class T, class A> class mem_fun1_t
  : public binary_function<T*, A, S> {
public:
    explicit mem_fun1_t(S (T::*p)(A));
    S operator()(T* p, A x) const;
};

mem_fun1_t calls the member function it is initialized with given a pointer argument and an additional
argument of the appropriate type.

template<class S, class T> mem_fun_t<S,T>
  mem_fun(S (T::*f)());

template<class S, class T, class A> mem_fun1_t<S,T,A>
  mem_fun(S (T::*f)(A));
mem_fun(&X::f) returns an object through which X::f can be called given a pointer to an X followed by the argument required for f (if any).

template <class S, class T> class mem_fun_ref_t
    : public unary_function<T, S> {
public:
    explicit mem_fun_ref_t(S (T::*p)());
    S operator()(T& p) const;
};

mem_fun_ref_t calls the member function it is initialized with given a reference argument.

template <class S, class T, class A> class mem_fun1_ref_t
    : public binary_function<T, A, S> {
public:
    explicit mem_fun1_ref_t(S (T::*p)(A));
    S operator()(T& p, A x) const;
};

mem_fun1_ref_t calls the member function it is initialized with given a reference argument and an additional argument of the appropriate type.

template <class S, class T> mem_fun_ref_t<S,T> mem_fun_ref(S (T::*f)());
template <class S, class T, class A> mem_fun1_ref_t<S,T,A> mem_fun_ref(S (T::*f)(A));

mem_fun_ref(&X::f) returns an object through which X::f can be called given a pointer to an X followed by the argument required for f (if any).

template <class S, class T> class const_mem_fun_t
    : public unary_function<const T*, S> {
public:
    explicit const_mem_fun_t(S (T::*p)() const);
    S operator()(const T* p) const;
};

const_mem_fun_t calls the member function it is initialized with given a pointer argument.

template <class S, class T, class A> class const_mem_fun1_t
    : public binary_function<const T*, A, S> {
public:
    explicit const_mem_fun1_t(S (T::*p)(A) const);
    S operator()(const T* p, A x) const;
};

const_mem_fun1_t calls the member function it is initialized with given a pointer argument and an additional argument of the appropriate type.

template <class S, class T> const_mem_fun_t<S,T> mem_fun(S (T::*f)() const);
template <class S, class T, class A> const_mem_fun1_t<S,T,A> mem_fun(S (T::*f)(A) const);

mem_fun(&X::f) returns an object through which X::f can be called given a pointer to an X followed by the argument required for f (if any).

template <class S, class T> class const_mem_fun_ref_t
template <class S, class T, class A> class const_mem_fun1_ref_t
: public binary_function<T, A, S> {
  public:
  explicit const_mem_fun1_ref_t(S (T::*p)(A) const);
  S operator()(const T& p, A x) const;
};

const_mem_fun1_ref_t calls the member function it is initialized with given a reference argument and an additional argument of the appropriate type.

template<class S, class T> const_mem_fun_ref_t<S,T>
mem_fun_ref(S (T::*f)() const);

mem_fun_ref(&X::f) returns an object through which X::f can be called given a reference to an X followed by the argument required for f (if any).

20.7.14 Function template mem_fn

template<class R, class T> unspecified mem_fn(R T::* pm);

Returns: A simple call wrapper (20.7.1) fn such that the expression fn(t, a2, ..., aN) is equivalent to INVoke(pm, t, a2, ..., aN) (20.7.2). fn shall have a nested type result_type that is a synonym for the return type of pm when pm is a pointer to member function.

The simple call wrapper shall be derived from std::unary_function<cv T*, Ret> when pm is a pointer to member function with cv-qualifier cv and taking no arguments, where Ret is pm's return type.

The simple call wrapper shall be derived from std::binary_function<cv T*, T1, Ret> when pm is a pointer to member function with cv-qualifier cv and taking one argument of type T1, where Ret is pm's return type.

Throws: Nothing.

Remarks: Implementations may implement mem_fn as a set of overloaded function templates.

20.7.15 Polymorphic function wrappers

This subclause describes a polymorphic wrapper class that encapsulates arbitrary function objects.

20.7.15.1 Class bad_function_call

An exception of type bad_function_call is thrown by function::operator() (20.7.15.2.4) when the function wrapper object has no target.

namespace std {
  class bad_function_call : public std::exception {

§ 20.7.15.1
20.7.15.11  **bad_function_call constructor**  [func.wrap.badcall.const]

```cpp
bad_function_call();
```

*Effects:* constructs a `bad_function_call` object.

### 20.7.15.2  Class template `function`  [func.wrap.func]

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<class R, class... ArgTypes>
    class function<R(ArgTypes...)> : public unary_function<T1, R>
    // iff sizeof...(ArgTypes) == 1 and ArgTypes contains T1
    : public binary_function<T1, T2, R>
    // iff sizeof...(ArgTypes) == 2 and ArgTypes contains T1 and T2
    {
        public:
            typedef R result_type;

            // 20.7.15.2.1, construct/copy/destroy:
            explicit function();
            function(nullptr_t);
            function(const function&);
            function(function&&);
            template<class F> function(F);
            template<class A> function(allocator_arg_t, const A&);
            template<class A> function(allocator_arg_t, const A&, nullptr_t);
            template<class A> function(allocator_arg_t, const A&,
                                      const function&);
            template<class A> function(allocator_arg_t, const A&,
                                      function&);
            template<class F, class A> function(allocator_arg_t, const A&,
                                                  const F);
            function& operator=(const function&);
            function& operator=(function&&);
            function& operator=(nullptr_t);
            template<class F> function& operator=(F);
            template<class F> function& operator=(reference_wrapper<F>);
            ~function();

            // 20.7.15.2.2, function modifiers:
            void swap(function&);
            template<class F, class A> void assign(F, const A&);

            // 20.7.15.2.3, function capacity:
            explicit operator bool() const;
```

§ 20.7.15.2  536
// deleted overloads close possible hole in the type system
template<class R2, class... ArgTypes2>
  bool operator==(const function<R2(ArgTypes2...)>&) = delete;
template<class R2, class... ArgTypes2>
  bool operator!=(const function<R2(ArgTypes2...)>&) = delete;

// 20.7.15.2.4, function invocation:
R operator()(ArgTypes...) const;

// 20.7.15.2.5, function target access:
const std::type_info& target_type() const;
template <typename T> T* target();
template <typename T> const T* target() const;

// 20.7.15.2.6, Null pointer comparisons:
template <class R, class... ArgTypes>
  bool operator==(const function<R(ArgTypes...)>&, nullptr_t);
template <class R, class... ArgTypes>
  bool operator==(nullptr_t, const function<R(ArgTypes...)>&);

// 20.7.15.2.7, specialized algorithms:
template <class R, class... ArgTypes>
  void swap(function<R(ArgTypes...)>&, function<R(ArgTypes...)>&);
template <class R, class... ArgTypes>
  void swap(function<R(ArgTypes...)>&, function<R(ArgTypes...)>&);
template <class R, class... ArgTypes>
  void swap(function<R(ArgTypes...)>&&, function<R(ArgTypes...)>&);

template<class R, class... ArgTypes>
struct constructible_with_allocator_prefix<
  function<R(ArgTypes...)>> { 
    true_type {};
  
  template<class R, class... ArgTypes, class Alloc>
  struct uses_allocator<function<R(ArgTypes...)>>, Alloc>
    : true_type {};

1 The function class template provides polymorphic wrappers that generalize the notion of a function pointer. Wrappers can store, copy, and call arbitrary callable objects (20.7.1), given a call signature (20.7.1), allowing functions to be first-class objects.

2 A function object \( f \) of type \( F \) is Callable for argument types \( T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_N \) in \( \text{ArgTypes} \) and a return type \( R \), if, given lvalues \( t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_N \) of types \( T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_N \), respectively, \( \text{INVOKE}(f, t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_N) \) is well formed (20.7.2) and, if \( R \) is not void, convertible to \( R \).
The function class template is a call wrapper (20.7.1) whose call signature (20.7.1) is \( \text{R}(\text{ArgTypes}...) \).

20.7.15.2.1 function construct/copy/destroy

When any function constructor that takes a first argument of type allocator_arg_t is invoked, the second argument shall have a type that conforms to the requirements for Allocator (Table 20.2.2). A copy of the allocator argument is used to allocate memory, if necessary, for the internal data structures of the constructed function object.

```cpp
explicit function();
template <class A> function(allocator_arg_t, const A& a);

Postconditions: !*this.

Throws: nothing.
```

```cpp
function(nullptr_t);
template <class A> function(allocator_arg_t, const A& a, nullptr_t);

Postconditions: !*this.

Throws: nothing.
```

```cpp
function(const function& f);
template <class A> function(allocator_arg_t, const A& a, const function& f);

Postconditions: !*this if !f; otherwise, *this targets a copy of f.target().

Throws: shall not throw exceptions if f’s target is a function pointer or a function object passed via reference_wrapper. Otherwise, may throw bad_alloc or any exception thrown by the copy constructor of the stored function object. [Note: Implementations are encouraged to avoid the use of dynamically allocated memory for small function objects, e.g., where f’s target is an object holding only a pointer or reference to an object and a member function pointer. — end note]
```

```cpp
function(function&& f);
template <class A> function(allocator_arg_t, const A& a, function&& f);

effects: If !f, *this has no target; otherwise, move-constructs the target of f into the target of *this, leaving f in a valid state with an unspecified value.
```

```cpp
template <class F> function(F f);
template <class F, class A> function(allocator_arg_t, const A& a, F f);

template <class F, class A> function(F f, const A& a);

Requires: f shall be callable for argument types ArgTypes and return type R. The copy constructor and destructor of A shall not throw exceptions.

Postconditions: !*this if any of the following hold:

- f is a NULL function pointer.
- f is a NULL member function pointer.
- F is an instance of the function class template, and !f

Otherwise, *this targets a copy of f or std::move(f) if f is not a pointer to member function, and targets a copy of mem_fn(f) if f is a pointer to member function. [Note: Implementations are encouraged to avoid the use of dynamically allocated memory for small function objects, for example, where f’s target is an object holding only a pointer or reference to an object and a member function pointer. — end note]

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Throws: shall not throw exceptions when \( f \) is a function pointer or a `reference_wrapper<T>` for some T. Otherwise, may throw `bad_alloc` or any exception thrown by \( F \)'s copy or move constructor.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{function\& operator=}(\text{const function\& } f); \\
\text{Effects: function}(f)\text{.swap(*this)}; \\
\text{Returns: *this}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{function\& operator=}(\text{function\& } f); \\
\text{Effects: Replaces the target of *this with the target of } f, \text{ leaving } f \text{ in a valid but unspecified state.} \\
\text{Returns: *this}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{function\& operator=}(\text{nullptr}_t); \\
\text{Effects: If *this } \neq \text{ NULL, destroys the target of this.} \\
\text{Postconditions: !(*this).} \\
\text{Returns: *this}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{template<class } F\text{> function\& operator=}(F f); \\
\text{Effects: function}(f)\text{.swap(*this)}; \\
\text{Returns: *this}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{template<class } F\text{> function\& operator=}(\text{reference_wrapper}<F> f); \\
\text{Effects: function}(f)\text{.swap(*this)}; \\
\text{Returns: *this} \\
\text{Throws: nothing.}
\end{align*}
\]

20.7.15.2.2 function modifiers

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{void swap(function\& other);} \\
\text{Effects: interchanges the targets of *this and other.} \\
\text{Throws: nothing.}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{template<class } F, \text{ Allocator Alloc}> \\
\text{requires Callable}<F, \text{ ArgTypes...}> \\
\text{& Convertible<Callable}<F, \text{ ArgTypes...}>::\text{result\_type, R}> \\
\text{void assign}(F, \text{ const Alloc&}); \\
\text{Effects: function}(f, a)\text{.swap(*this)}
\end{align*}
\]

20.7.15.2.3 function capacity

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{explicit operator bool()} \text{ const}
\end{align*}
\]
Returns: true if \*this has a target, otherwise false.

Throws: nothing.

20.7.15.2.4 function invocation

R operator() (ArgTypes... args) const

Effects: INVOKE(f, t1, t2, ..., tN, R) (20.7.2), where f is the target object (20.7.1) of \*this and t1, t2, ..., tN are the values in args....

Returns: Nothing if R is void, otherwise the return value of INVOKE(f, t1, t2, ..., tN, R).

Throws: bad_function_call if !\*this; otherwise, any exception thrown by the wrapped function object.

20.7.15.2.5 function target access

const std::type_info& target_type() const;

R operator==(const function<R(ArgTypes...)>& f, nullptr_t);

Returns: !f.

Throws: nothing.

template<typename T>
T* target();

template<typename T>
const T* target() const;

Requires: T shall be a function object type that is Callable (20.7.15.2) for parameter types ArgTypes and return type R.

Returns: If target_type() == typeid(T) a pointer to the stored function target; otherwise a null pointer.

Throws: nothing.

20.7.15.2.6 null pointer comparison operators

template <class R, class... ArgTypes>
bool operator==(nullptr_t, const function<R(ArgTypes...)>& f);

Returns: (bool) f.

Throws: nothing.
20.7.15.2.7 specialized algorithms

```cpp
template<class R, class... ArgTypes>
void swap(function<R(ArgTypes...)>& f1, function<R(ArgTypes...)>& f2);

template<class R, class... ArgTypes>
void swap(function<R(ArgTypes...)>&& f1, function<R(ArgTypes...)>& f2);

template<class R, class... ArgTypes>
void swap(function<R(ArgTypes...)>& f1, function<R(ArgTypes...)>&& f2);
```

Effects: f1.swap(f2);

20.7.16 Class template hash

The unordered associative containers defined in Clause 23.5 use specializations of `hash` as the default hash function. This class template is only required to be instantiable for integer types (3.9.1), floating-point types (3.9.1), pointer types (8.3.1), `std::string`, `std::u16string`, `std::u32string`, `std::wstring`, `std::error_code`, `std::thread::id`, `std::bitset`, and `std::vector<bool>`.

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class T>
    struct hash : public std::unary_function<T, std::size_t> {
        std::size_t operator()(T val) const;
    }
}
```

The return value of `operator()` is unspecified, except that equal arguments shall yield the same result. `operator()` shall not throw exceptions.

20.8 Memory

Header `<memory>` synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    // 20.8.1, allocator argument tag
    struct allocator_arg_t { };
    constexpr allocator_arg_t allocator_arg = allocator_arg_t();

    // 20.8.3, allocator-related traits uses_allocator
    template <class T, class Alloc> struct uses_allocator;
    template <class Alloc> struct is_scoped_allocator;
    template <class T> struct constructible_with_allocator_suffix;
    template <class T> struct constructible_with_allocator_prefix;

    // 22. allocation propagation traits
    template <class Alloc> struct allocator_propagate_never;
    template <class Alloc> struct allocator_propagate_on_copy_construction;
    template <class Alloc> struct allocator_propagate_on_move_assignment;
    template <class Alloc> struct allocator_propagate_on_copy_assignment;
    template <class Alloc> struct allocator_propagation_map;

    // 20.8.6, pointer traits
    template <class Ptr> struct pointer_traits;
    template <class T> struct pointer_traits<T>;

    // 20.8.7, allocator traits template <class Alloc> struct allocator_traits;
```
// 20.8.8, the default allocator:
template <class T> class allocator;
template <> class allocator<void>;
template <class T, class U>
  bool operator==(const allocator<T>&, const allocator<U>&) throw();
template <class T, class U>
  bool operator!=(const allocator<T>&, const allocator<U>&) throw();

// 20.8.9, scoped allocator adaptor
template <class OuterAlloc, class... InnerAlloc,... void>
  class scoped_allocator_adaptor;
template <class Alloc>
  class scoped_allocator_adaptor<Alloc, void>;
template <class OuterA, class InnerA>
  struct is_scoped_allocator<scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA, InnerA>>
    : true_type{};
template <class OuterA, class InnerA>
  struct allocator_propagate_never<scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA, InnerA>>
    : true_type{};
template <class OuterA1, class OuterA2, class... InnerAllocs>
  bool operator==(const scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA1, InnerAllocs...>& a,)
    const scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA2, InnerAllocs...>& b);
template <class OuterA1, class OuterA2, class... InnerAllocs>
  bool operator!=(const scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA1, InnerAllocs...>& a,)
    const scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA2, InnerAllocs...>& b);

// 20.8.10, raw storage iterator:
template <class OutputIterator, class T> class raw_storage_iterator;

// 20.8.11, temporary buffers:
template <class T>
  pair<T*,ptrdiff_t> get_temporary_buffer(ptrdiff_t n);
template <class T>
  void return_temporary_buffer(T* p);

// 20.8.12, construct element
template <class Alloc, class T, class... Args>
  void construct_element(Alloc& alloc, T& r, Args&&... args);

// 20.8.13, specialized algorithms:
template <class T> T* addressof(T& r);
template <class InputIterator, class ForwardIterator>
  ForwardIterator uninitialized_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, ForwardIterator result);
template <class InputIterator, class Size, class ForwardIterator>
  ForwardIterator uninitialized_copy_n(InputIterator first, Size n, ForwardIterator result);
template <class ForwardIterator, class T>
  void uninitialized_fill(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, const T& x);
template <class ForwardIterator, class Size, class T>
  void uninitialized_fill_n(ForwardIterator first, Size n, const T& x);

// 20.8.14 Class unique_ptr:
template <class X> class default_delete;
    template <class X> class default_delete<T[]>
    template <class X, class D = default_delete<T>> class unique_ptr;
    template <class X, class D> class unique_ptr<T[], D>:

    template <class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
    bool operator==(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
    template <class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
    bool operator!=(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
    template <class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
    bool operator<(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
    template <class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
    bool operator<=(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
    template <class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
    bool operator>(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
    template <class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
    bool operator>=(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);

    // 20.8.15.1, Class bad_weak_ptr:
class bad_weak_ptr;

    // 20.8.15.2, Class template shared_ptr:
template<class T> class shared_ptr;

    // 20.8.15.2.7, shared_ptr comparisons:
template<class T, class U>
    bool operator==(shared_ptr<T> const& a, shared_ptr<U> const& b);
    template<class T, class U>
    bool operator!=(shared_ptr<T> const& a, shared_ptr<U> const& b);
    template<class T, class U>
    bool operator<(shared_ptr<T> const& a, shared_ptr<U> const& b);
    template<class T, class U>
    bool operator>(shared_ptr<T> const& a, shared_ptr<U> const& b);
    template<class T, class U>
    bool operator<=(shared_ptr<T> const& a, shared_ptr<U> const& b);
    template<class T, class U>
    bool operator>=(shared_ptr<T> const& a, shared_ptr<U> const& b);

    // 20.8.15.2.9, shared_ptr specialized algorithms:
template<class T> void swap(shared_ptr<T>& a, shared_ptr<T>& b);

    // 20.8.15.2.10, shared_ptr casts:
template<class T, class U>
    shared_ptr<T> static_pointer_cast(shared_ptr<U> const& r);
    template<class T, class U>
    shared_ptr<T> dynamic_pointer_cast(shared_ptr<U> const& r);
    template<class T, class U>
    shared_ptr<T> const_pointer_cast(shared_ptr<U> const& r);

    // 20.8.15.2.8, shared_ptr I/O:
template<class E, class T, class Y>
    basic_ostream<E, T>& operator<< (basic_ostream<E, T>& os, shared_ptr<Y> const& p);

    // 20.8.15.2.11, shared_ptr get_deleter:
template<class D, class T, class D* get_deleter(shared_ptr<T> const& p);
// 20.8.15.3, Class template weak_ptr:
template<class T> class weak_ptr;

// 20.8.15.3.6, weak_ptr specialized algorithms:
template<class T> void swap(weak_ptr<T>& a, weak_ptr<T>& b);

// 20.8.15.3.7, class owner_less:
template<class T> class owner_less;

// 20.8.15.4, Class enable_shared_from_this:
template<class T> class enable_shared_from_this;

// 20.8.15.5, shared_ptr atomic access:
template<class T>
  bool atomic_is_lock_free(const shared_ptr<T>* p);

  template<class T>
  shared_ptr<T> atomic_load(const shared_ptr<T>* p);
  template<class T>
  shared_ptr<T> atomic_load_explicit(const shared_ptr<T>* p, memory_order mo);

  template<class T>
  void atomic_store(shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T> r);
  template<class T>
  void atomic_store_explicit(shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T> r, memory_order mo);

  template<class T>
  shared_ptr<T> atomic_exchange(shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T> r);
  template<class T>
  shared_ptr<T> atomic_exchange_explicit(shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T> r, memory_order mo);

  template<class T>
  bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak(
    shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T>* v, shared_ptr<T> w);
  template<class T>
  bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong(
    shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T>* v, shared_ptr<T> w);
  template<class T>
  bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak_explicit(
    shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T>* v, shared_ptr<T> w,
    memory_order success, memory_order failure);
  template<class T>
  bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(
    shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T>* v, shared_ptr<T> w,
    memory_order success, memory_order failure);

// 20.8.15.6, Pointer safety
enum class pointer_safety { relaxed, preferred, strict }; void declare_reachable(void *p);
template <class T> T *undeclare_reachable(T *p); void declare_no_pointers(char *p, size_t n);
void undeclare_no_pointers(char *p, size_t n);
pointer_safety get_pointer_safety();
void *align(std::size_t alignment, std::size_t size, void * &ptr, std::size_t &space);

20.8.1 Allocator argument tag

namespace std {
    struct allocator_arg_t { }
    const allocator_arg_t allocator_arg = allocator_arg_t();
}

The allocator_arg_t struct is an empty structure type used as a unique type to disambiguate constructor and function overloading. Specifically, several types (see pair 20.3.4 tuple 20.5) have constructors with allocator_arg_t as the first argument, immediately followed by an argument of a type that satisfies the Allocator requirements 20.2.2.

20.8.2 Allocator-related traits

20.8.3 uses_allocator

20.8.3.1 uses_allocator trait

template <class T, class Alloc> struct uses_allocator;

Remark: automatically detects whether T has a nested allocator_type that is convertible from Alloc. Meets the BinaryTypeTrait requirements (20.6.1). The implementation shall provide a definition that is derived from true_type if a type T::allocator_type exists and is_convertible<Alloc, T::allocator_type>::value != false, otherwise it shall be derived from false_type. A program may specialize this template to derive from true_type for a user-defined type T that does not have a nested allocator_type but nonetheless can be constructed with an allocator where either:
    — the first argument of a constructor has type allocator_arg_t and the second argument has type Alloc or
    — the last argument of a constructor has type Alloc.

20.8.3.2 uses-allocator construction

Uses-allocator construction with allocator Alloc refers to the construction of an object obj of type T, using constructor arguments v1, v2, ..., vN of types V1, V2, ..., VN, respectively, and an allocator alloc of type Alloc, according to the following rules:
    — if uses_allocator<T, Alloc>::value is false and is_constructible<T, V1, V2, ..., VN>::value is true, then obj is initialized as obj(v1, v2, ..., vN);
    — otherwise, if uses_allocator<T, Alloc>::value is true and is_constructible<T, allocator_arg_t, Alloc, V1, V2, ..., VN>::value is true, then obj is initialized as obj(allocator_arg, alloc, v1, v2, ..., vN);
    — otherwise, if uses_allocator<T, Alloc>::value is true and is_constructible<T, V1, V2, ..., VN, Alloc>::value is true, then obj is initialized as obj(v1, v2, ..., vN, alloc);
— otherwise, the request for uses-allocator construction is ill-formed. [Note: an error will result if
uses_allocator<T, Alloc>::value is true but the specific constructor does not take an allocator. This
definition prevents a silent failure to pass the allocator to an element. — end note]

20.8.4 Allocator propagation traits

20.8.5 Allocator-related element concepts

20.8.6 Pointer traits

The template class pointer_traits supplies a uniform interface to certain attributes of pointer-like types.

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class Ptr> struct pointer_traits {
        typedef Ptr pointer;
        typedef see below element_type;
        typedef see below difference_type;

        template <class U> using rebind = see below;

        static pointer pointer_to(see below);
    };

    template <class T> struct pointer_traits<T*> {
        typedef T element_type;
        typedef T* pointer;
        typedef ptrdiff_t difference_type;

        template <class U> using rebind = U*;

        static pointer pointer_to(see below);
    };
}
```

20.8.6.1 Pointer traits member types

```cpp
typedef see below element_type;

Type: Ptr::element_type if such a type exists; otherwise, T if Ptr is a class template instantiation of the
form SomePointer<T, Args>, where Args is zero or more type arguments; otherwise, the specialization
is ill-formed.

typedef see below difference_type;

Type: Ptr::difference_type if such a type exists; otherwise, std::ptrdiff_t.
```

```cpp
template <class U> using rebind = see below;

Template alias: Ptr::rebind<U> if such a type exists; otherwise, T [Editor's note: T is not in N2982,
but it seems like the logical choice...] if Ptr is a class template instantiation of the form SomePointer<T, Args>,
where Args is zero or more type arguments; otherwise, the instantiation of rebind is ill-formed.
```
20.8.6.2 Pointer traits member functions

static pointer pointer_traits::pointer_to(see below r);
static pointer pointer_traits<T*>::pointer_to(see below r);

Remark: if element_type is (possibly cv-qualified) void, the type of r is unspecified; otherwise, it is T&. [Editor's note: please check that this rewording is correct]

Returns: the first template function returns a dereferenceable pointer to r obtained by calling Pointer_to(r); an instantiation of this function is ill-formed if Pointer_to does not have a matching pointer_to static member function. The second template function returns std::addressof(r).

20.8.7 Allocator traits

The template class allocator_traits supplies a uniform interface to all allocator types. A user specialization of allocator_traits in the std namespace for a specific set of allocators, X shall implement the interface described below in such a way that allocator_traits<X> meets the requirements of Table 40 (see 20.2.2). [Editor's note: sic. I don't know what this is trying to say.] An allocator cannot be a non-class type, however, even if allocator_traits supplies the entire required interface. [Note: thus, it is always possible to create a derived class from an allocator. —end note]

namespace std {
    template <class Alloc> struct allocator_traits {
        typedef Alloc allocator_type;

        typedef typename Alloc::value_type value_type;
        typedef see below pointer;
        typedef see below const_pointer;
        typedef see below void_pointer;
        typedef see below const_void_pointer;

        typedef see below difference_type;
        typedef see below size_type;

        typedef see below propagate_on_container_copy_assignment;
        typedef see below propagate_on_container_move_assignment;
        typedef see below propagate_on_container_swap;

        template <class T> using rebind_alloc = see below;
        template <class T> using rebind_traits = allocator_traits<rebind_alloc<T> >;

        static pointer allocate(Alloc& a, size_type n);
        static pointer allocate(Alloc& a, size_type n, const_void_pointer hint);

        static void deallocate(Alloc& a, pointer p, size_type n);

        template <class T, class... Args>
        static void construct(Alloc& a, T* p, Args&&... args);

        template <class T>
        static void destroy(Alloc& a, T* p);

        static size_type max_size(const Alloc& a);
    };
}
static Alloc select_on_container_copy_construction(const Alloc& rhs);
};

20.8.7.1 Allocator traits member types

typedef see below pointer;
1 Type: Alloc::pointer if such a type exists; otherwise, value_type*.

typedef see below const_pointer;
2 Type: Alloc::const_pointer if such a type exists; otherwise, pointer_traits<pointer>::rebind<const value_type>.

typedef see below void_pointer;
3 Type: Alloc::void_pointer if such a type exists; otherwise, pointer_traits<pointer>::rebind<void>.

typedef see below const_void_pointer;
4 Type: Alloc::const_void_pointer if such a type exists; otherwise, pointer_traits<pointer>::rebind<const void>.

typedef see below difference_type;
5 Type: Alloc::difference_type if such a type exists; otherwise, ptrdiff_t.

typedef see below size_type;
6 Type: Alloc::size_type if such a type exists; otherwise, size_t.

typedef see below propagate_on_container_copy_assignment;
7 Type: Alloc::propagate_on_container_copy_assignment if such a type exits, otherwise false_type.

typedef see below propagate_on_container_move_assignment;
8 Type: Alloc::propagate_on_container_move_assignment if such a type exits, otherwise false_type.

typedef see below propagate_on_container_swap;
9 Type: Alloc::propagate_on_container_swap if such a type exits, otherwise false_type.

template <class T> using rebind_alloc = see below;
10 Template alias: Alloc::rebind<T>::other if such a type exists; otherwise, [Editor's note: what type goes here?] if Alloc is a class template instantiation of the form Alloc<T, Args>, where Args is zero or more type arguments; otherwise, the instantiation of rebind_alloc is ill-formed.

20.8.7.2 Allocator traits static member functions

static pointer allocate(Alloc a, size_type n);
1 Returns: a.allocate(n).

static pointer allocate(Alloc a, size_type n, const void_pointer hint);
2 Returns: a.allocate(n, hint) if that expression is well-formed; otherwise, a.allocate(n).

static void deallocate(Alloc a, pointer p, size_type n);
3 Effects: calls a.deallocate(p, n).
template <class T, class... Args>
    static void construct(Alloc& a, T* p, Args&&... args);

Effects: calls a.construct(p, std::forward<Args>(args)...) if that call is well-formed; otherwise, invokes new (static_cast<void*>(p)) T(std::forward<Args>(args)...).

template <class T>
    static void destroy(Alloc& a, T* p);

Effects: calls a.destroy(p) if that call is well-formed; otherwise, invokes p->T().

static size_type max_size(Alloc& a);

Returns: a.max_size() if that expression is well-formed; otherwise, numeric_limits<size_type>::max().

static Alloc select_on_container_copy_construction(const Alloc& rhs);

Returns: rhs.select_on_container_copy_construction(a) if that expression is well-formed; otherwise, rhs.

20.8.8 The default allocator

namespace std {
    template <class T> class allocator;

    // specialize for void:
    template <> class allocator<void> {
        public:
            typedef void* pointer;
            typedef const void* const_pointer;
            // reference-to-void members are impossible.
            typedef void value_type;
            template <class U> struct rebind { typedef allocator<U> other; };
    };

    template <class T> class allocator {
        public:
            typedef size_t size_type;
            typedef ptrdiff_t difference_type;
            typedef T* pointer;
            typedef const T* const_pointer;
            typedef T& reference;
            typedef const T& const_reference;
            typedef T value_type;
            template <class U> struct rebind { typedef allocator<U> other; };

            allocator() throw();
            allocator(const allocator&) throw();
            template <class U> allocator(const allocator<U>&) throw();
            ~allocator() throw();

            pointer address(reference x) const;
            const_pointer address(const_reference x) const;

            pointer allocate( size_type, allocator<void>::const_pointer hint = 0);
            void deallocate(pointer p, size_type n);

    };

§ 20.8.8
size_type max_size() const throw();

template<class U, class... Args>
  void construct(pointer U* p, Args&&... args);
template <class U>
  void destroy(pointer U* p);
};

20.8.8.1 allocator members

Except for the destructor, member functions of the default allocator shall not introduce data races (1.10) as a result of concurrent calls to those member functions from different threads. Calls to these functions that allocate or deallocate a particular unit of storage shall occur in a single total order, and each such deallocation call shall happen before the next allocation (if any) in this order.

pointer address(reference x) const;

Returns: The actual address of the object referenced by x, even in the presence of an overloaded operator&.

const_pointer address(const_reference x) const;

Returns: The actual address of the object referenced by x, even in the presence of an overloaded operator&.

pointer allocate(size_type n, allocator<void>::const_pointer hint=0);

[ Note: In a container member function, the address of an adjacent element is often a good choice to pass for the hint argument. — end note ]

Returns: a pointer to the initial element of an array of storage of size n * sizeof(T), aligned appropriately for objects of type T. It is implementation-defined whether over-aligned types are supported (3.11).

Remark: the storage is obtained by calling ::operator new(std::size_t) (18.6.1), but it is unspecified when or how often this function is called. The use of hint is unspecified, but intended as an aid to locality if an implementation so desires.

Throws: bad_alloc if the storage cannot be obtained.

void deallocate(pointer p, size_type n);

Requires: p shall be a pointer value obtained from allocate(). n shall equal the value passed as the first argument to the invocation of allocate which returned p.

Effects: Deallocates the storage referenced by p.

Remarks: Uses ::operator delete(void*) (18.6.1), but it is unspecified when this function is called.

size_type max_size() const throw();

Returns: the largest value N for which the call allocate(N,0) might succeed.

template <class U, class... Args>
  void construct(pointer U* p, Args&&... args);

Effects: ::new((void*)p) T(P)(std::forward<Args>(args)...)

template <class U>
  void destroy(pointer U* p);

§ 20.8.8.1
20.8.8.2 allocator globals

```cpp
template <class T1, class T2>
    bool operator==(const allocator<T1>&, const allocator<T2>&) throw();
Returns: true.
```

```cpp
template <class T1, class T2>
    bool operator!=(const allocator<T1>&, const allocator<T2>&) throw();
Returns: false.
```

20.8.9 Scoped allocator adaptor

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class OuterAlloc, class... InnerAllocs>
    class scoped_allocator_adaptor : public OuterAlloc {
        public:
            typedef OuterAlloc outer_allocator_type;
            typedef see below inner_allocator_type;

            typedef typename OuterTraits::size_type size_type;
            typedef typename OuterTraits::difference_type difference_type;
            typedef typename OuterTraits::pointer pointer;
            typedef typename OuterTraits::const_pointer const_pointer;
            typedef typename OuterTraits::void_pointer void_pointer;
            typedef typename OuterTraits::const_void_pointer const_void_pointer;

            typedef see below propagate_on_container_copy_assignment;
            typedef see below propagate_on_container_move_assignment;
            typedef see below propagate_on_container_swap;

            template <class Tp>
            struct rebind {
                typedef scoped_allocator_adaptor<
                    OuterTraits::template rebind_alloc<Tp>, InnerAllocs...> other;
            };
```
scoped_allocator_adaptor();
template <class OuterA2>
  scoped_allocator_adaptor(OuterA2&& outerAlloc,
                          const InnerAllocs&&... innerAllocs)
scoped_allocator_adaptor(const scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA2, InnerAllocs...>& other);

template <class OuterA2>
  scoped_allocator_adaptor(const scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA2, InnerAllocs...>&& other);
~scoped_allocator_adaptor();

inner_allocator_type& inner_allocator();
const inner_allocator_type& inner_allocator() const;
outer_allocator_type& outer_allocator();
const outer_allocator_type& outer_allocator() const;

pointer allocate(size_type n);
pointer allocate(size_type n, const void_pointer hint);
void deallocate(pointer p, size_type n);
size_type max_size() const;

template <class T, class... Args>
  void construct(T* p, Args&& args);

template <class T>
  void destroy(T* p);

scoped_allocator_adaptor select_on_container_copy_construction() const;

private:
typedef allocator_traits<OuterAlloc> OuterTraits; // exposition only
scoped_allocator_adaptor<InnerAllocs...> inner; // exposition only
};

template <class OuterA1, class OuterA2, class... InnerAllocs>
  bool operator==(const scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA1, InnerAllocs...>& a, 
                 const scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA2, InnerAllocs...>& b);

template <class OuterA1, class OuterA2, class... InnerAllocs>
  bool operator!=(const scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA1, InnerAllocs...>& a, 
                 const scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA2, InnerAllocs...>& b);

[Editor’s note: The various template member functions are all templated on the outer allocator type, but use the list of inner allocators that was specified for the allocator itself. This seems wrong; shouldn’t the inner allocators also be template parameters for these member functions? operator== and operator!= present a similar issue: they take two outer allocator template arguments, one for each function argument, but require both function arguments to take the same list of types for their inner allocators.]

20.8.9.1 Scoped allocator adaptor member types [allocator.adaptor.types]

typedef see below inner_allocator_type;
Type: scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterAlloc> if sizeof...(InnerAllocs) is zero; otherwise, scoped_allocator_adaptor<InnerAllocs>..

typedef see below propagate_on_container_copy_assignment;

Type: true_type if allocator_traits<A>::propagate_on_container_copy_assignment::value is true for any A in the set of OuterAlloc and InnerAllocs...; otherwise, false_type.

typedef see below propagate_on_container_move_assignment;

Type: true_type if allocator_traits<A>::propagate_on_container_move_assignment::value is true for any A in the set of OuterAlloc and InnerAllocs...; otherwise, false_type.

typedef see below propagate_on_container_swap;

Type: true_type if allocator_traits<A>::propagate_on_container_swap::value is true for any A in the set of OuterAlloc and InnerAllocs...; otherwise, false_type.

20.8.9.2 Scoped allocator adaptor constructors

scoped_allocator_adaptor();

Effects: value-initializes the OuterAlloc base class and the inner allocator object.

template <class OuterA2>
scoped_allocator_adaptor(OuterA2& outerAlloc,
const InnerAllocs&... innerAllocs);

Requires: OuterAlloc shall be constructible from OuterA2.

Effects: initializes the OuterAlloc base class with std::forward<OuterA2>(outerAlloc) and inner with innerAllocs... (hence recursively initializing each allocator within the adaptor with the corresponding allocator from the argument list).

scoped_allocator_adaptor(const scoped_allocator_adaptor& other);

Effects: initializes each allocator within the adaptor with the corresponding allocator from other.

template <class OuterA2>
scoped_allocator_adaptor(const scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA2,
InnerAllocs...>& other);

Requires: OuterAlloc shall be constructible from OuterA2.

Effects: initializes each allocator within the adaptor with the corresponding allocator from other.

template <class OuterA2>
scoped_allocator_adaptor(const scoped_allocator_adaptor<OuterA2,
InnerAllocs...>&& other);

Requires: OuterAlloc shall be constructible from OuterA2.

Effects: initializes each allocator within the adaptor with the corresponding allocator rvalue from other.

20.8.9.3 Scoped allocator adaptor members

inner_allocator_type& inner_allocator();
const inner_allocator_type& inner_allocator() const;

§ 20.8.9.3
Returns: *this if sizeof...(InnerAllocs) is zero; otherwise, inner.

```cpp
outer_allocator_type& outer_allocator();
```

Returns: static_cast<Outer&>(*this).

```cpp
const outer_allocator_type& outer_allocator() const;
```

Returns: static_cast<const Outer&>(*this).

```cpp
pointer allocate(size_type n);
```

Returns: allocator_traits<OuterAlloc>::allocate(outer_allocator(), n).

```cpp
pointer allocate(size_type n, const void* p);
```

Returns: allocator_traits<OuterAlloc>::allocate(outer_allocator(), n, hint).

```cpp
void deallocate(pointer p, size_type n);
```

Effects: calls outer_allocator().deallocate(p).

```cpp
scoped_allocator_adaptor select_on_container_copy_construction() const;
```

Returns: a new scoped_allocator_adaptor object where each allocator A in the adaptor is initialized from the result of calling allocator_traits<A>::select_on_container_copy_construction() on the corresponding allocator in *this.
20.8.10 Raw storage iterator

`raw_storage_iterator` is provided to enable algorithms to store their results into uninitialized memory. The formal template parameter `OutputIterator` is required to have its `operator*` return an object for which `operator&` is defined and returns a pointer to `T`, and is also required to satisfy the requirements of an output iterator (24.2.2).

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class OutputIterator, class T>
    class raw_storage_iterator
        : public iterator<output_iterator_tag,void,void,void,void> {
    public:
        explicit raw_storage_iterator(OutputIterator x);

        raw_storage_iterator<OutputIterator,T>& operator*();
        raw_storage_iterator<OutputIterator,T>& operator=(const T& element);
        raw_storage_iterator<OutputIterator,T>& operator++();
        raw_storage_iterator<OutputIterator,T> operator++(int);
    }
}
```

`raw_storage_iterator(OutputIterator x);`

**Effects:** Initializes the iterator to point to the same value to which `x` points.

`raw_storage_iterator<OutputIterator,T>& operator*();`

**Returns:** `*this`

`raw_storage_iterator<OutputIterator,T>& operator=(const T& element);`

**Effects:** Constructs a value from `element` at the location to which the iterator points.

**Returns:** A reference to the iterator.

`raw_storage_iterator<OutputIterator,T>& operator++();`

**Effects:** Pre-increment: advances the iterator and returns a reference to the updated iterator.

`raw_storage_iterator<OutputIterator,T> operator++(int);`

**Effects:** Post-increment: advances the iterator and returns the old value of the iterator.

20.8.11 Temporary buffers

```cpp
template <class T>
pair<T*, ptrdiff_t> get_temporary_buffer(ptrdiff_t n);
```

**Effects:** Obtains a pointer to storage sufficient to store up to `n` adjacent `T` objects. It is implementation-defined whether over-aligned types are supported (3.11).

**Returns:** A pair containing the buffer’s address and capacity (in the units of `sizeof(T)`), or a pair of 0 values if no storage can be obtained or if `n <= 0`.

```cpp
template <class T> void return_temporary_buffer(T* p);
```

**Effects:** Deallocates the buffer to which `p` points.

**Requires:** The buffer shall have been previously allocated by `get_temporary_buffer`. 

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20.8.12 construct_element

removed

20.8.13 Specialized algorithms

All the iterators that are used as formal template parameters in the following algorithms are required to have their `operator*` return an object for which `operator&` is defined and returns a pointer to `T`. In the algorithm `uninitialized_copy`, the formal template parameter `InputIterator` is required to satisfy the requirements of an input iterator (24.2.1). In all of the following algorithms, the formal template parameter `ForwardIterator` is required to satisfy the requirements of a forward iterator (24.2.3), and is required to have the property that no exceptions are thrown from increment, assignment, comparison, or dereference of valid iterators. In the following algorithms, if an exception is thrown there are no effects.

20.8.13.1 addressof

`template <class T> T* addressof(T& r);`

1. **Returns:** the actual address of the object referenced by `r`, even in the presence of an overloaded `operator&`.  
   **Throws:** nothing.

20.8.13.2 uninitialized_copy

`template <class InputIterator, class ForwardIterator> ForwardIterator uninitialized_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, ForwardIterator result);`

1. **Effects:**
   ```
   for (; first != last; ++result, ++first)
       ::new (static_cast<void*>(&*result))
           typename iterator_traits<ForwardIterator>::value_type(*first);
   ```

2. **Returns:** `result`

`template <class InputIterator, class Size, class ForwardIterator> ForwardIterator uninitialized_copy_n(InputIterator first, Size n, ForwardIterator result);`

3. **Effects:**
   ```
   for ( ; n > 0; ++result, ++first, --n) {
       ::new (static_cast<void*>(&*result))
           typename iterator_traits<ForwardIterator>::value_type(*first);
   }
   ```

4. **Returns:** `result`

20.8.13.3 uninitialized_fill

`template <class ForwardIterator, class T> void uninitialized_fill(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, const T& x);`

1. **Effects:**

§ 20.8.13.3
for (; first != last; ++first)
::new (static_cast<void*>(&*first))
typename iterator_traits<ForwardIterator>::value_type(x);

20.8.13.4 uninitialized_fill_n

template <class ForwardIterator, class Size, class T>
void uninitialized_fill_n(ForwardIterator first, Size n, const T& x);

Effects:
for (; n--; ++first)
::new (static_cast<void*>(&*first))
typename iterator_traits<ForwardIterator>::value_type(x);

20.8.14 Class template unique_ptr

Template unique_ptr stores a pointer to an object and deletes that object using the associated deleter when it is itself destroyed (such as when leaving block scope (6.7)).

The unique_ptr provides a semantics of strict ownership. A unique_ptr owns the object it holds a pointer to. A unique_ptr is not CopyConstructible, nor CopyAssignable, however it is MoveConstructible and MoveAssignable. The template parameter T of unique_ptr may be an incomplete type. [Note: The uses of unique_ptr include providing exception safety for dynamically allocated memory, passing ownership of dynamically allocated memory to a function, and returning dynamically allocated memory from a function. — end note]

namespace std {
  template<class T> struct default_delete;
  template<class T> struct default_delete<T[]>;

  template<class T, class D = default_delete<T>> class unique_ptr;
  template<class T, class D> class unique_ptr<T[], D>;

  template<class T, class D> void swap(unique_ptr<T, D>& x, unique_ptr<T, D>& y);

  template<class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
  bool operator==(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
  template<class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
  bool operator!=(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
  template<class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
  bool operator<(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
  template<class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
  bool operator<=(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
  template<class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
  bool operator>(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
  template<class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
  bool operator>=(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
}

20.8.14.1 Default deleters

20.8.14.1.1 default_delete

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namespace std {
    template <class T> struct default_delete {
        constexpr default_delete();
        template <class U> default_delete(const default_delete<U>& other);
        void operator()(T* ptr) const;
    }

    constexpr default_delete();
    Effects: Default constructs a default_delete.

    template <class U> default_delete(const default_delete<U>& other);
    Effects: Constructs a default_delete from a default_delete<U>.

    void operator()(T* ptr) const;
    Effects: calls delete on ptr. A diagnostic is required if T is an incomplete type.
}

20.8.14.1.2 default_delete<T[]>

namespace std {
    template <class T> struct default_delete<T[]> {
        constexpr default_delete();
        void operator()(T* ptr) const;
        template <class U> void operator()(U* ptr) const = delete;
    }

    void operator()(T* ptr) const;
    operator() calls delete[] on ptr. A diagnostic is required if T is an incomplete type.
}

20.8.14.2 unique_ptr for single objects

namespace std {
    template <class T, class D = default_delete<T>> class unique_ptr {
        public:
            typedef see below pointer;
            typedef T element_type;
            typedef D deleter_type;

            // constructors
            constexpr unique_ptr();
            explicit unique_ptr(pointer p);
            unique_ptr(pointer p, implementation-defined d1);
            unique_ptr(pointer p, implementation-defined d2);
            unique_ptr(unique_ptr&& u);
            unique_ptr(nullptr_t) : unique_ptr() {}
            template <class U, class E> unique_ptr(unique_ptr<U, E>&& u);

            // destructor
            ~unique_ptr();

            // assignment

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unique_ptr& operator=(unique_ptr&& u);

// observers
typename add_lvalue_reference<T>::type operator*() const;
pointer operator->() const;
pointer get() const;
deleter_type& get_deleter();
const deleter_type& get_deleter() const;
explicit operator bool() const;

// modifiers
pointer release();
void reset(pointer p = pointer());
void swap(unique_ptr& u);

// disable copy from lvalue
unique_ptr(const unique_ptr&) = delete;
template <class U, class E> unique_ptr(const unique_ptr<U, E>&) = delete;
unique_ptr& operator=(const unique_ptr&) = delete;

1 The default type for the template parameter D is default_delete. A client-supplied template argument D shall be a function pointer or functor for which, given a value d of type D and a pointer ptr of type T*, the expression d(ptr) is valid and has the effect of deallocating the pointer as appropriate for that deleter. D may also be an lvalue-reference to a deleter.

2 If the deleter D maintains state, it is intended that this state stay with the associated pointer as ownership is transferred from unique_ptr to unique_ptr. The deleter state need never be copied, only moved or swapped as pointer ownership is moved around. That is, the deleter need only be MoveConstructible, MoveAssignable, and Swappable, and need not be CopyConstructible (unless copied into the unique_ptr) nor CopyAssignable.

3 If the type remove_reference<D>::type::pointer exists, then unique_ptr<T, D>::pointer shall be a synonym for remove_reference<D>::type::pointer. Otherwise unique_ptr<T, D>::pointer shall be a synonym for T*. The type unique_ptr<T, D>::pointer shall be CopyConstructible (Table 34) and CopyAssignable (Table 36).

20.8.14.2.1 unique_ptr constructors

constexpr unique_ptr();

Requires: D shall be default constructible, and that construction shall not throw an exception. D shall not be a reference type or pointer type (diagnostic required).

Effects: Constructs a unique_ptr which owns nothing.

Postconditions: get() == 0. get_deleter() returns a reference to a default-constructed value-initialized deleter D.

Throws: nothing.

unique_ptr(pointer p);
Requires: D shall be default constructible, and that construction shall not throw an exception.

Effects: Constructs a unique_ptr which owns p.

Postconditions: get() == p. get_deleter() returns a reference to a default constructed deleter D.

Throws: nothing.

unique_ptr(pointer p, implementation-defined d1);
unique_ptr(pointer p, implementation-defined d2);

The signature of these constructors depends upon whether D is a reference type or not. If D is non-reference type A, then the signatures are:

unique_ptr(pointer p, const A& d);
unique_ptr(pointer p, A&& d);

If D is an lvalue-reference type A&, then the signatures are:

unique_ptr(pointer p, A& d);
unique_ptr(pointer p, A&& d);

If D is an lvalue-reference type const A&, then the signatures are:

unique_ptr(pointer p, const A& d);
unique_ptr(pointer p, const A&& d);

Requires: If D is not an lvalue-reference type then
— If d is an lvalue or const rvalue then the first constructor of this pair will be selected. D must be
  CopyConstructible (Table 34), and this unique_ptr will hold a copy of d. The copy constructor
  of D shall not throw an exception.
— Otherwise d is a non-const rvalue and the second constructor of this pair will be selected. D need
  only be MoveConstructible (Table 33), and this unique_ptr will hold a value move constructed
  from d. The move constructor of D shall not throw an exception.

Otherwise D is an lvalue-reference type. d shall be reference-compatible with one of the constructors.
If d is an rvalue, it will bind to the second constructor of this pair. That constructor shall emit a
diagnostic. [ Note: The diagnostic could be implemented using a static_assert which assures that D
is not a reference type. — end note ] Else d is an lvalue and will bind to the first constructor of this
pair. The type which D references need not be CopyConstructible nor MoveConstructible. This
unique_ptr will hold a D which refers to the lvalue d. [ Note: D may not be an rvalue-reference type.
— end note ]

Postconditions: get() == p. get_deleter() returns a reference to the internally stored deleter. If D
is a reference type then get_deleter() returns a reference to the lvalue d.

Throws: nothing.

[ Example: ]

D d;
unique_ptr<int, D> p1(new int, D()); // D must be MoveConstructible
unique_ptr<int, D> p2(new int, d); // D must be CopyConstructible
unique_ptr<int, D&> p3(new int, d); // p3 holds a reference to d
unique_ptr<int, const D&> p4(new int, D()); // error: rvalue deleter object combined
  // with reference deleter type
unique_ptr(unique_ptr&& u);

Requires: If the deleter is not a reference type, construction of the deleter D from an rvalue D shall not throw an exception.

Effects: Constructs a unique_ptr which owns the pointer which u owns (if any). If the deleter is not a reference type, it is move constructed from u’s deleter, otherwise the reference is copy constructed from u’s deleter. After the construction, u no longer owns a pointer. [Note: The deleter constructor can be implemented with std::forward<D>. — end note]

Postconditions: get() == value u.get() had before the construction. get_deleter() returns a reference to the internally stored deleter which was constructed from u.get_deleter(). If D is a reference type then get_deleter() and u.get_deleter() both reference the same lvalue deleter.

Throws: nothing.

template <class U, class E> unique_ptr(unique_ptr<U, E>&& u);

Requires: If D is not a reference type, construction of the deleter D from an rvalue of type E shall be well formed and shall not throw an exception. If D is a reference type, then E shall be the same type as D (diagnostic required). unique_ptr<U, E>::pointer shall be implicitly convertible to pointer. [Note: These requirements imply that T and U are complete types. — end note]

Effects: Constructs a unique_ptr which owns the pointer which u owns (if any). If the deleter is not a reference type, it is move constructed from u’s deleter, otherwise the reference is copy constructed from u’s deleter. After the construction, u no longer owns a pointer. [Note: The deleter constructor can be implemented with std::forward<D>. — end note]

Postconditions: get() == value u.get() had before the construction, modulo any required offset adjustments resulting from the cast from unique_ptr<U, E>::pointer to pointer. get_deleter() returns a reference to the internally stored deleter which was constructed from u.get_deleter().

Throws: nothing.

20.8.14.2.2 unique_ptr destructor

~unique_ptr();

Requires: The expression get_deleter()(get()) shall be well formed, shall have well-defined behavior, and shall not throw exceptions. [Note: The use of default_delete requires T to be a complete type. — end note]

Effects: If get() == 0 there are no effects. Otherwise get_deleter()(get()).

Throws: nothing.

20.8.14.2.3 unique_ptr assignment

unique_ptr& operator=(unique_ptr&& u);

Requires: Assignment of the deleter D from an rvalue D shall not throw an exception.

Effects: reset(u.release()) followed by a move assignment from u’s deleter to this deleter.

Postconditions: This unique_ptr now owns the pointer which u owned, and u no longer owns it. [Note: If D is a reference type, then the referenced lvalue deleters are move assigned. — end note]

Returns: *this.
template <class U, class E> unique_ptr& operator=(unique_ptr<U, E>&& u);

Requires: Assignment of the deleter \( D \) from an rvalue \( D \) shall not throw an exception. unique_ptr\<U, E\>::pointer shall be implicitly convertible to pointer. \[ Note: These requirements imply that \( T \) and \( U \) are complete types. \] — end note \]

Effects: reset(u.release()) followed by a move assignment from u’s deleter to this deleter. If either \( D \) or \( E \) is a reference type, then the referenced lvalue deleter participates in the move assignment.

Postconditions: This unique_ptr now owns the pointer which \( u \) owned, and \( u \) no longer owns it.

Returns: \*this.

Throws: nothing.

unique_ptr& operator=(nullptr_t);

Effects: reset().

Postcondition: get() == 0

Returns: \*this.

Throws: nothing.

20.8.14.2.4 unique_ptr observers

[unique.ptr.single.observers]

typename add_lvalue_reference<T>::type operator*() const;

Requires: get() != 0.

Returns: \*get().

Throws: nothing.

pointer operator->() const;

Requires: get() != 0.

Returns: get().

Throws: nothing.

Note: use typically requires that \( T \) be a complete type.

pointer get() const;

Returns: The stored pointer.

Throws: nothing.

deleter_type& get_deleter();

const deleter_type& get_deleter() const;

Returns: A reference to the stored deleter.

Throws: nothing.

explicit operator bool() const;
Returns: \texttt{get()} \neq 0.

Throws: nothing.

\textbf{20.8.14.2.5 unique\_ptr modifiers} \hfill [unique.ptr.single.modifiers]

\begin{verbatim}
pointer release();

Postcondition: \texttt{get()} == 0.

Returns: The value \texttt{get()} had at the start of the call to \texttt{release}.

Throws: nothing.

void reset(pointer p = pointer());

Requires: The expression \texttt{get\_deleter()(**get**)} shall be well formed, shall have well-defined behavior, and shall not throw exceptions.

Effects: assigns \texttt{p} to the stored pointer, and then if the old value of the stored pointer, \texttt{old\_p}, was not equal to \texttt{nullptr}, calls \texttt{get\_deleter()(**old\_p**)}. [\textit{Note:} the order of these operations is significant because the call to \texttt{get\_deleter()} may destroy \texttt{*this}. --- end note]

Postconditions: \texttt{get()} == \texttt{p}.

Throws: nothing.

void swap(unique\_ptr& u);

Requires: The deleter \texttt{D} shall be Swappable and shall not throw an exception under \texttt{swap}.

Effects: The stored pointers of \texttt{this} and \texttt{u} are exchanged. The stored deleters are \texttt{swap\_d\_qualified} (unqualified).

Throws: nothing.
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{20.8.14.3 unique\_ptr for array objects with a runtime length} \hfill [unique.ptr.runtime]

\begin{verbatim}
namespace std {
    template <class T, class D> class unique\_ptr\langle T\rangle, D> {
public:
    typedef implementation-defined pointer;
    typedef T element_type;
    typedef D deleter_type;

    // constructors
    constexpr unique\_ptr();
    explicit unique\_ptr(pointer p);
    unique\_ptr(pointer p, implementation-defined d);
    unique\_ptr(pointer p, implementation-defined d);
    unique\_ptr(unique\_ptr&& u);
    unique\_ptr(nullptr_t) : unique\_ptr() { }

    // destructor
    ~unique\_ptr();

    // assignment
    unique\_ptr& operator=(unique\_ptr&& u);
    unique\_ptr& operator=(unspec\_ptr\_type);

\} \hfill \textsection 20.8.14.3
\end{verbatim}
// observers
T& operator[](size_t i) const;
pointer get() const;
delete_type& get_deleter();
const delete_type& get_deleter() const;
explicit operator bool() const;

// modifiers
pointer release();
void reset(pointer p = pointer());
void reset(nullptr_t)
template <class U> void reset(U) = delete;
void swap(unique_ptr& u);

// disable copy from lvalue
unique_ptr(const unique_ptr&) = delete;
unique_ptr& operator=(const unique_ptr&) = delete;
}

1 A specialization for array types is provided with a slightly altered interface.
   — Conversions among different types of unique_ptr<T[], D> or to or from the non-array forms of
     unique_ptr are disallowed (diagnostic required).
   — Pointers to types derived from T are rejected by the constructors, and by reset.
   — The observers operator* and operator-> are not provided.
   — The indexing observer operator[] is provided.
   — The default deleter will call delete[].

2 Descriptions are provided below only for member functions that have behavior different from the primary
   template.

3 The template argument T shall be a complete type.

20.8.14.3.1 unique_ptr constructors

unique_ptr(pointer p);
unique_ptr(pointer p, implementation-defined d);
unique_ptr(pointer p, implementation-defined d);

These constructors behave the same as in the primary template except that they do not accept pointer
   types which are convertible to pointer. [Note: One implementation technique is to create private
   templated overloads of these members. — end note]

20.8.14.3.2 unique_ptr observers

T& operator[](size_t i) const;
   Requires: i < the size of the array to which the stored pointer points.
   Returns: get()[i].
   Throws: nothing.
20.8.14.3.3 unique_ptr modifiers

```cpp
void reset(pointer p = pointer());
void reset(nullptr_t p);
```

1. **Effects:** If `get() == 0` there are no effects. Otherwise `get_deleter()(get())`.
2. **Postcondition:** `get() == p`.
3. **Throws:** nothing.

20.8.14.4 unique_ptr specialized algorithms

```cpp
template <class T, class D> void swap(unique_ptr<T, D>& x, unique_ptr<T, D>& y);
```

1. **Effects:** Calls `x.swap(y)`.

```cpp
template <class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
bool operator==(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
```

2. **Returns:** `x.get() == y.get()`.

```cpp
template <class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
bool operator!=(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
```

3. **Returns:** `x.get() != y.get()`.

```cpp
template <class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
bool operator<(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
```

4. **Returns:** `x.get() < y.get()`.

```cpp
template <class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
bool operator<=(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
```

5. **Returns:** `x.get() <= y.get()`.

```cpp
template <class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
bool operator>(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
```

6. **Returns:** `x.get() > y.get()`.

```cpp
template <class T1, class D1, class T2, class D2>
bool operator>=(const unique_ptr<T1, D1>& x, const unique_ptr<T2, D2>& y);
```

7. **Returns:** `x.get() >= y.get()`.

20.8.15 Smart pointers

20.8.15.1 Class bad_weak_ptr

```cpp
namespace std {
    class bad_weak_ptr: public std::exception {
    public:
        bad_weak_ptr();
    }
} // namespace std
```

1. An exception of type `bad_weak_ptr` is thrown by the `shared_ptr` constructor taking a `weak_ptr`. 

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bad_weak_ptr();

Postconditions: what() returns "bad_weak_ptr".

Throws: nothing.

20.8.15.2 Class template shared_ptr  [util.smartptr.shared]

The shared_ptr class template stores a pointer, usually obtained via new. shared_ptr implements semantics of shared ownership; the last remaining owner of the pointer is responsible for destroying the object, or otherwise releasing the resources associated with the stored pointer. A shared_ptr object is empty if it does not own a pointer.

namespace std {
    template<class T> class shared_ptr {
        public:
            typedef T element_type;

            // 20.8.15.2.1, constructors:
            constexpr shared_ptr();
            template<class Y> explicit shared_ptr(Y* p);
            template<class Y, class D> shared_ptr(Y* p, D d);
            template<class Y, class D, class A> shared_ptr(Y* p, D d, A a);
            template<class D> shared_ptr(nullptr_t p, D d)
            template<class Y> shared_ptr(const shared_ptr<Y>& r, T *p);
            shared_ptr(const shared_ptr& r);
            template<class Y> shared_ptr(const shared_ptr<Y>& r);
            shared_ptr(shared_ptr&& r);
            template<class Y> explicit shared_ptr(const weak_ptr<Y>& r);
            template<class Y> shared_ptr(auto_ptr<Y>&& r);
            template <class Y, class D> explicit shared_ptr(const unique_ptr<Y, D>& r) = delete;
            template <class Y, class D> shared_ptr(unique_ptr<Y, D>&& r);
            shared_ptr(nullptr_t) : shared_ptr() { }

            // 20.8.15.2.2, destructor:
            ~shared_ptr();

            // 20.8.15.2.3, assignment:
            shared_ptr& operator=(const shared_ptr& r);
            template<class Y> shared_ptr& operator=(const shared_ptr<Y>& r);
            shared_ptr& operator=(shared_ptr&& r);
            template<class Y> shared_ptr& operator=(shared_ptr<Y>&& r);
            template<class Y> shared_ptr& operator=(auto_ptr<Y>&& r);
            template <class Y, class D> shared_ptr& operator=(const unique_ptr<Y, D>&& r) = delete;
            template <class Y, class D> shared_ptr& operator=(unique_ptr<Y, D>&& r);

            // 20.8.15.2.4, modifiers:
            void swap(shared_ptr&& r);
            void reset();
            template<class Y> void reset(Y* p);
            template<class Y, class D> void reset(Y* p, D d);
            template<class Y, class D, class A> void reset(Y* p, D d, A a);

            // 20.8.15.2.5, observers:
        }  // class shared_ptr
    }  // template
}  // namespace std

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T* get() const;
T& operator*() const;
T* operator->() const;
long use_count() const;
bool unique() const;
explicit operator bool() const;

// 20.8.15.2.6, shared_ptr creation
template<class U> bool owner_before(shared_ptr<U> const& b) const;
template<class U> bool owner_before(weak_ptr<U> const& b) const;
};

// 20.8.15.2.6, shared_ptr creation
template<class T, class... Args> shared_ptr<T> make_shared(Args&&... args);
template<class T, class A, class... Args>
    shared_ptr<T> allocate_shared(const A& a, Args&&... args);

// 20.8.15.2.7, shared_ptr comparisons:
template<class T, class U>
    bool operator==(const shared_ptr<T>& a, const shared_ptr<U>& b);
template<class T, class U>
    bool operator!=(const shared_ptr<T>& a, const shared_ptr<U>& b);
template<class T, class U>
    bool operator<(const shared_ptr<T>& a, const shared_ptr<U>& b);

// 20.8.15.2.8, shared_ptr I/O:
template<class E, class T, class Y>
    basic_ostream<E, T>& operator<<(basic_ostream<E, T>& os, const shared_ptr<Y>& p);

// 20.8.15.2.9, shared_ptr specialized algorithms:
template<class T> void swap(shared_ptr<T>& a, shared_ptr<T>& b);
template<class T> void swap(shared_ptr<T>&& a, shared_ptr<T>& b);
template<class T> void swap(shared_ptr<T>& a, shared_ptr<T>&& b);

// 20.8.15.2.10, shared_ptr casts:
template<class T, class U>
    shared_ptr<T> static_pointer_cast(const shared_ptr<U>& r);
template<class T, class U>
    shared_ptr<T> dynamic_pointer_cast(const shared_ptr<U>& r);
template<class T, class U>
    shared_ptr<T> const_pointer_cast(const shared_ptr<U>& r);

// 20.8.15.2.11, shared_ptr get_deleter:
template<class D, class T> D* get_deleter(const shared_ptr<T>& p);
} // namespace std

2 Specializations of shared_ptr shall be CopyConstructible, CopyAssignable, and LessThanComparable, allowing their use in standard containers. Specializations of shared_ptr shall be convertible to bool, allowing their use in boolean expressions and declarations in conditions. The template parameter T of shared_ptr may be an incomplete type.

3 [Example:
    
    if(shared_ptr<X> px = dynamic_pointer_cast<X>(py)) {
        // do something with px
    }

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constexpr shared_ptr();

    Effects: Constructs an **empty** `shared_ptr` object.
    
    Postconditions: `use_count() == 0 && get() == 0`.
    
    Throws: nothing.

    template<class Y> explicit shared_ptr(Y* p);

        Requires: `p` shall be convertible to `T*`. `Y` shall be a complete type. The expression `delete p` shall be well formed, shall have well defined behavior, and shall not throw exceptions.
        
        Effects: Constructs a `shared_ptr` object that **owns** the pointer `p`.
        
        Postconditions: `use_count() == 1 && get() == p`.
        
        Throws: `bad_alloc`, or an implementation-defined exception when a resource other than memory could not be obtained.
        
        Exception safety: If an exception is thrown, `delete p` is called.

    template<class Y, class D> shared_ptr(Y* p, D d);
    template<class Y, class A> shared_ptr(Y* p, A a);
    template <class D> shared_ptr(nullptr_t p, D d);
    template <class A> shared_ptr(nullptr_t p, A a);

        Requires: `p` shall be convertible to `T*`. `D` shall be `CopyConstructible`. The copy constructor and destructor of `D` shall not throw exceptions. The expression `d(p)` shall be well formed, shall have well defined behavior, and shall not throw exceptions. `A` shall be an allocator (20.2.2). The copy constructor and destructor of `A` shall not throw exceptions.
        
        Effects: Constructs a `shared_ptr` object that **owns** the object `p` and the deleter `d`. The second and fourth constructors shall use a copy of `a` to allocate memory for internal use.
        
        Postconditions: `use_count() == 1 && get() == p`.
        
        Throws: `bad_alloc`, or an implementation-defined exception when a resource other than memory could not be obtained.
        
        Exception safety: If an exception is thrown, `d(p)` is called.

    template<class Y> shared_ptr(const shared_ptr<Y>& r, T *p);

        Effects: Constructs a `shared_ptr` instance that stores `p` and **shares ownership** with `r`.
        
        Postconditions: `get() == p && use_count() == r.use_count()`.
        
        Throws: nothing.

        [Note: to avoid the possibility of a dangling pointer, the user of this constructor must ensure that `p` remains valid at least until the ownership group of `r` is destroyed. — end note]

        [Note: this constructor allows creation of an **empty** `shared_ptr` instance with a non-NULL stored pointer. — end note]

    shared_ptr(const shared_ptr& r);
    template<class Y> shared_ptr(const shared_ptr<Y>& r);
Requires: The second constructor shall not participate in the overload resolution unless \(Y^*\) is implicitly convertible to \(T^*\).

Effects: If \(r\) is empty, constructs an empty shared_ptr object; otherwise, constructs a shared_ptr object that shares ownership with \(r\).

Postconditions: \(\text{get()} == r.get() \&\& \text{use_count()} == r.use_count()\).

Throws: nothing.

\[
\text{shared_ptr(shared_ptr&& r);} \\
\text{template<class Y> shared_ptr(shared_ptr<Y>&& r);} \\
\text{Requires: For the second constructor \(Y^*\) shall be convertible to \(T^*\).}
\]

Remark: The second constructor shall not participate in overload resolution unless \(Y^*\) is convertible to \(T^*\).

Effects: Move-constructs a shared_ptr instance from \(r\).

Postconditions: \(*\text{this} \) shall contain the old value of \(r\). \(r\) shall be empty. \(r.get() == 0\).

Throws: nothing.

\[
\text{template<class Y> explicit shared_ptr(const weak_ptr<Y>& r);} \\
\text{Requires: \(Y^*\) shall be convertible to \(T^*\).}
\]

Effects: Constructs a shared_ptr object that shares ownership with \(r\) and stores a copy of the pointer stored in \(r\).

Postconditions: \(\text{use_count()} == r.use_count()\).

Throws: bad_weak_ptr when \(r.expired()\).

Exception safety: If an exception is thrown, the constructor has no effect.

\[
\text{template<class Y> shared_ptr(auto_ptr<Y>&& r);} \\
\text{Requires: \(r.release()\) shall be convertible to \(T^*\). \(Y\) shall be a complete type. The expression delete} \\
\text{\(r.release()\) shall be well formed, shall have well defined behavior, and shall not throw exceptions.} \\
\text{Effects: Constructs a shared_ptr object that stores and owns \(r.release()\).} \\
\text{Postconditions: \(\text{use_count()} == 1 \&\& r.get() == 0\).} \\
\text{Throws: bad_alloc, or an implementation-defined exception when a resource other than memory} \\
\text{could not be obtained.} \\
\text{Exception safety: If an exception is thrown, the constructor has no effect.}
\]

\[
\text{template<class Y, class D> shared_ptr(unique_ptr<Y, D>&&r);} \\
\text{Effects: Equivalent to shared_ptr(r.release(), r.get_deleter()) when D is not a reference type,} \\
\text{otherwise shared_ptr(r.release(), ref(r.get_deleter()))}. \\
\text{Exception safety: If an exception is thrown, the constructor has no effect.}
\]
Effects:

— If *this is empty or shares ownership with another shared_ptr instance (use_count() > 1), there are no side effects.
— Otherwise, if *this owns an object p and a deleter d, d(p) is called.
— Otherwise, *this owns a pointer p, and delete p is called.

Throws: nothing.

[Note: Since the destruction of *this decreases the number of instances that share ownership with *this by one, after *this has been destroyed all shared_ptr instances that shared ownership with *this will report a use_count() that is one less than its previous value. — end note]

20.8.15.2.3 shared_ptr assignment

shared_ptr& operator=(const shared_ptr& r);
template<class Y> shared_ptr& operator=(const shared_ptr<Y>& r);
template<class Y> shared_ptr& operator=(auto_ptr<Y>&& r);

Effects: Equivalent to shared_ptr(r).swap(*this).

Returns: *this.

[Note: The use count updates caused by the temporary object construction and destruction are not observable side effects, so the implementation may meet the effects (and the implied guarantees) via different means, without creating a temporary. In particular, in the example:

shared_ptr<int> p(new int);
shared_ptr<void> q(p);
p = p;
q = p;

both assignments may be no-ops. — end note]

shared_ptr& operator=(shared_ptr&& r);
template<class Y> shared_ptr& operator=(shared_ptr<Y>&& r);

Effects: Equivalent to shared_ptr(std::move(r)).swap(*this).

Returns: *this.

template <class Y, class D> shared_ptr& operator=(unique_ptr<Y, D>&& r);

Effects: Equivalent to shared_ptr(std::move(r)).swap(*this).

Returns: *this

20.8.15.2.4 shared_ptr modifiers

void swap(shared_ptr& r);

Effects: Exchanges the contents of *this and r.

Throws: nothing.

void reset();

Effects: Equivalent to shared_ptr().swap(*this).

§ 20.8.15.2.4
template<class Y> void reset(Y* p);

Effects: Equivalent to \texttt{shared\_ptr(p).swap(*this)}.

template<class Y, class D> void reset(Y* p, D d);

Effects: Equivalent to \texttt{shared\_ptr(p, d).swap(*this)}.

template<class Y, class D, class A> void reset(Y* p, D d, A a);

Effects: Equivalent to \texttt{shared\_ptr(p, d, a).swap(*this)}.

20.8.15.2.5 \texttt{shared\_ptr} observers

\begin{verbatim}
T* get() const;
  Requires: \texttt{get() != 0}.
  Returns: \texttt{get()}.
  Throws: nothing.

T& operator*() const;
  Requires: \texttt{get() != 0}.
  Returns: \texttt{*get()}.
  Throws: nothing.

T* operator->() const;
  Requires: \texttt{get() != 0}.
  Returns: \texttt{get()}.
  Throws: nothing.

long use_count() const;
  Returns: the number of \texttt{shared\_ptr} objects, \texttt{*this} included, that share ownership with \texttt{*this}, or 0 when \texttt{*this} is empty.
  Throws: nothing.

[ Note: use\_count() is not necessarily efficient. — end note ]

bool unique() const;
  Returns: \texttt{use\_count()} == 1.
  Throws: nothing.

[ Note: unique() may be faster than use\_count(). If you are using unique() to implement copy on write, do not rely on a specific value when \texttt{get() == 0}. — end note ]

explicit operator bool() const;
  Returns: \texttt{get() != 0}.
  Throws: nothing.
\end{verbatim}
template<class U> bool owner_before(shared_ptr<U> const& b) const;
template<class U> bool owner_before(weak_ptr<U> const& b) const;

Returns: an unspecified value such that

— x.owner_before(y) defines a strict weak ordering as defined in 25.4;
— under the equivalence relation defined by owner_before, !a.owner_before(b) && !b.owner_-
before(a), two shared_ptr or weak_ptr instances are equivalent if and only if they share own-
ership or are both empty.

20.8.15.2.6 shared_ptr creation

[util.smartptr.shared.create]

template<class T, class... Args> shared_ptr<T> make_shared(Args&&... args);

Returns: A shared_ptr instance that stores and owns the address of the newly constructed object of
type T.

Postconditions: get() != 0 && use_count() == 1

Throws: bad_alloc, or an exception thrown from A::allocate or from the constructor of T.

Remarks: Implementations are encouraged, but not required, to perform no more than one memory
allocation. [Note: this provides efficiency equivalent to an intrusive smart pointer. — end note]

[Note: these functions will typically allocate more memory than sizeof(T) to allow for internal
bookkeeping structures such as the reference counts. — end note]

20.8.15.2.7 shared_ptr comparison

[util.smartptr.shared.cmp]

template<class T, class U> bool operator==(const shared_ptr<T>& a, const shared_ptr<U>& b);

Returns: a.get() == b.get().

Throws: nothing.

template<class T, class U> bool operator<(const shared_ptr<T>& a, const shared_ptr<U>& b);

Returns: x.get() < y.get().

Throws: nothing.

For templates greater, less, greater_equal, and less_equal, the partial specializations for shared_-
ptr shall yield a total order, even if the built-in operators <, >, <=, and => do not. Moreover,
less<shared_ptr<T> >::operator()(a, b) shall return std::less<T*>::operator()(a.get(), b.get()).

[Note: Defining a comparison operator allows shared_ptr objects to be used as keys in associative
containers. — end note]
20.8.15.2.8  shared_ptr I/O

```cpp
template<class E, class T, class Y>
    basic_ostream<E, T>& operator<< (basic_ostream<E, T>& os, shared_ptr<Y> const& p);
```

**Effects:** os << p.get();

**Returns:** os.

20.8.15.2.9  shared_ptr specialized algorithms

```cpp
template<class T> void swap(shared_ptr<T>& a, shared_ptr<T>& b);
```

**Effects:** Equivalent to a.swap(b).

**Throws:** nothing.

20.8.15.2.10  shared_ptr casts

```cpp
template<class T, class U> shared_ptr<T> static_pointer_cast(const shared_ptr<U>& r);
```

**Requires:** The expression `static_cast<T*>(r.get())` shall be well formed.

**Returns:** If r is empty, an empty shared_ptr<T>; otherwise, a shared_ptr<T> object that stores `static_cast<T*>(r.get())` and shares ownership with r.

**Postconditions:** w.get() == static_cast<T*>(r.get()) and w.use_count() == r.use_count(), where w is the return value.

**Throws:** nothing.

[Note: The seemingly equivalent expression `shared_ptr<T>(static_cast<T*>(r.get()))` will eventually result in undefined behavior, attempting to delete the same object twice. — end note]

```cpp
template<class T, class U> shared_ptr<T> dynamic_pointer_cast(const shared_ptr<U>& r);
```

**Requires:** The expression `dynamic_cast<T*>(r.get())` shall be well formed and shall have well defined behavior.

**Returns:**

- When `dynamic_cast<T*>(r.get())` returns a nonzero value, a shared_ptr<T> object that stores a copy of it and shares ownership with r;
- Otherwise, an empty shared_ptr<T> object.

**Postcondition:** w.get() == dynamic_cast<T*>(r.get()), where w is the return value.

**Throws:** nothing.

[Note: The seemingly equivalent expression `shared_ptr<T>(dynamic_cast<T*>(r.get()))` will eventually result in undefined behavior, attempting to delete the same object twice. — end note]

```cpp
template<class T, class U> shared_ptr<T> const_pointer_cast(const shared_ptr<U>& r);
```

**Requires:** The expression `const_cast<T*>(r.get())` shall be well formed.

**Returns:** If r is empty, an empty shared_ptr<T>; otherwise, a shared_ptr<T> object that stores `const_cast<T*>(r.get())` and shares ownership with r.
Postconditions: \( w . \text{get()} == \text{const \char`\^{}cast\char`\^{}T\char`\^{}*>(r . \text{get()})) \) and \( w . \text{use\_count()} == r . \text{use\_count()} \), where \( w \) is the return value.

Throws: nothing.

[Note: The seemingly equivalent expression \( \text{shared\_ptr\char`\^{}T\char`\^{}>(\text{const \char`\^{}cast\char`\^{}T\char`\^{}*>(r . \text{get()})) } \) will eventually result in undefined behavior, attempting to delete the same object twice. — end note]

20.8.15.2.11 get_deleter

\[
\text{template<class D, class T> D\* get_deleter(const shared\_ptr\char`\^{}T\char`\^{}>& p);}
\]

Returns: If \( p \) owns a deleter \( d \) of type cv-unqualified \( D \), returns \&\( d \); otherwise returns 0. The returned pointer remains valid as long as there exists a shared\_ptr instance that owns \( d \). [Note: It is unspecified whether the pointer remains valid longer than that. This can happen if the implementation doesn’t destroy the deleter until all weak\_ptr instances that share ownership with \( p \) have been destroyed. — end note]

Throws: nothing.

20.8.15.3 Class template weak\_ptr

The weak\_ptr class template stores a weak reference to an object that is already managed by a shared\_ptr. To access the object, a weak\_ptr can be converted to a shared\_ptr using the member function lock.

namespace std {
    template<class T> class weak\_ptr {
        public:
            typedef T element\_type;

            // constructors
            constexpr weak\_ptr();
            template<class Y> weak\_ptr(shared\_ptr\char`\^{}Y> const\& r);
            weak\_ptr(weak\_ptr const\& r);
            template<class Y> weak\_ptr(weak\_ptr<Y> const\& r);

            // destructor
            ~weak\_ptr();

            // assignment
            weak\_ptr\& operator=(weak\_ptr const\& r);
            template<class Y> weak\_ptr\& operator=(weak\_ptr<Y> const\& r);
            template<class Y> weak\_ptr\& operator=(shared\_ptr<Y> const\& r);

            // modifiers
            void swap(weak\_ptr\& r);
            void reset();

            // observers
            long use\_count() const;
            bool expired() const;
            shared\_ptr\char`\^{}T> lock() const;
            template<class U> bool owner\_before(shared\_ptr\char`\^{}U> const\& b);
            template<class U> bool owner\_before(weak\_ptr<U> const\& b);

            // comparisons

§ 20.8.15.3
Specializations of `weak_ptr` shall be `CopyConstructible`, `CopyAssignable`, and `LessThanComparable`, allowing their use in standard containers. The template parameter `T` of `weak_ptr` may be an incomplete type.

### 20.8.15.3.1 `weak_ptr` constructors

```cpp
cconstexpr weak_ptr();
```

**Effects:** Constructs an empty `weak_ptr` object.

**Postconditions:** `use_count() == 0`.

**Throws:** nothing.

```cpp
weak_ptr(const weak_ptr& r);
template<class Y> weak_ptr(const weak_ptr<Y>& r);
template<class Y> weak_ptr(const shared_ptr<Y>& r);
```

**Requires:** The second and third constructors shall not participate in the overload resolution unless `Y*` is implicitly convertible to `T*`.

**Effects:** If `r` is empty, constructs an empty `weak_ptr` object; otherwise, constructs a `weak_ptr` object that shares ownership with `r` and stores a copy of the pointer stored in `r`.

**Postconditions:** `use_count() == r.use_count()`.

**Throws:** nothing.

### 20.8.15.3.2 `weak_ptr` destructor

```cpp
~weak_ptr();
```

**Effects:** Destroys this `weak_ptr` object but has no effect on the object its stored pointer points to.

**Throws:** nothing.

### 20.8.15.3.3 `weak_ptr` assignment

```cpp
weak_ptr& operator=(const weak_ptr& r);
template<class Y> weak_ptr& operator=(const weak_ptr<Y>& r);
template<class Y> weak_ptr& operator=(const shared_ptr<Y>& r);
```

**Effects:** Equivalent to `weak_ptr(r).swap(*this)`.

**Throws:** nothing.

**Remarks:** The implementation may meet the effects (and the implied guarantees) via different means, without creating a temporary.
20.8.15.3.4 weak_ptr modifiers [util.smartptr.weak.mod]

```cpp
void swap(weak_ptr r);
```

1. **Effects:** Exchanges the contents of *this and r.
2. **Throws:** nothing.

```cpp
void reset();
```

3. **Effects:** Equivalent to weak_ptr().swap(*this).

20.8.15.3.5 weak_ptr observers [util.smartptr.weak.obs]

```cpp
long use_count() const;
```

1. **Returns:** 0 if *this is empty; otherwise, the number of shared_ptr instances that share ownership with *this.
2. **Throws:** nothing.
3. **[Note: use_count() is not necessarily efficient. —end note]**

```cpp
bool expired() const;
```

4. **Returns:** use_count() == 0.
5. **Throws:** nothing.
6. **[Note: expired() may be faster than use_count(). —end note]**

```cpp
shared_ptr<T> lock() const;
```

7. **Returns:** expired() ? shared_ptr<T>() : shared_ptr<T>(*this).
8. **Throws:** nothing.

```cpp
template<class T, class U> bool operator<(const weak_ptr<T>& a, const weak_ptr<U>& b);
```

9. **Returns:** an unspecified value such that
   — operator< is a strict weak ordering as described in 25.4;
   — under the equivalence relation defined by operator<, !(a < b) && !(b < a), two weak_ptr instances are equivalent if and only if they share ownership or are both empty.
10. **Throws:** nothing.
11. **[Note: Allows weak_ptr objects to be used as keys in associative containers. —end note]**

```cpp
template<class U> bool owner_before(shared_ptr<U> const& b);
```

12. **Returns:** an unspecified value such that
   — x.owner_before(y) defines a strict weak ordering as defined in 25.4;
   — under the equivalence relation defined by owner_before, !a.owner_before(b) && !b.owner_before(a), two shared_ptr or weak_ptr instances are equivalent if and only if they share ownership or are both empty.
20.8.15.3.6 weak_ptr specialized algorithms

```
template<class T> void swap(weak_ptr<T>& a, weak_ptr<T>& b)
1       Effects: Equivalent to a.swap(b).
2       Throws: nothing.
```

20.8.15.3.7 Class template owner_less

```
The class template owner_less allows ownership-based mixed comparisons of shared and weak pointers.
```
```
namespace std {
    template<class T> struct owner_less;
    template<class T> struct owner_less<shared_ptr<T> > : binary_function<shared_ptr<T>, shared_ptr<T>, bool> {
        typedef bool result_type;
        bool operator()(shared_ptr<T> const& x, shared_ptr<T> const& y) const;
        bool operator()(shared_ptr<T> const& x, weak_ptr<T> const& y) const;
        bool operator()(weak_ptr<T> const& x, shared_ptr<T> const& y) const;
    };
    template<class T> struct owner_less<weak_ptr<T> > : binary_function<weak_ptr<T>, weak_ptr<T>, bool> {
        typedef bool result_type;
        bool operator()(weak_ptr<T> const& x, weak_ptr<T> const& y) const;
        bool operator()(shared_ptr<T> const& x, weak_ptr<T> const& y) const;
        bool operator()(weak_ptr<T> const& x, shared_ptr<T> const& y) const;
    };
}
```
```
operator()(x,y) shall return x.owner_before(y). [Note: Note that
1
    — operator() defines a strict weak ordering as defined in 25.4;
    — under the equivalence relation defined by operator(), !operator()(a, b) && !operator()(b, a),
      two shared_ptr or weak_ptr instances are equivalent if and only if they share ownership or are both
      empty.
```

20.8.15.4 Class template enable_shared_from_this

```
A class T can inherit from enable_shared_from_this<T> to inherit the shared_from_this member functions that obtain a shared_ptr instance pointing to *this.
```
```
[Example:
1
struct X: public enable_shared_from_this<X> {
};
```
```
int main() {
    shared_ptr<X> p(new X);
    shared_ptr<X> q = p->shared_from_this();
    assert(p == q);
    assert(!(p < q) && !(q < p));  // p and q share ownership
```

§ 20.8.15.4
template<class T> class enable_shared_from_this {
    protected:
        constexpr enable_shared_from_this();
        enable_shared_from_this(enable_shared_from_this const &);
        enable_shared_from_this & operator=(enable_shared_from_this const &);
    public:
        shared_ptr<T> shared_from_this();
        shared_ptr<T const> shared_from_this() const;
};

The template parameter T of enable_shared_from_this may be an incomplete type.

constexpr enable_shared_from_this();

Effects: Constructs an enable_shared_from_this<T> object.

Throws: nothing.

enable_shared_from_this<T>& operator=(const enable_shared_from_this<T>&);

Returns: *this.

Throws: nothing.

~enable_shared_from_this();

Effects: Destroys *this.

Throws: nothing.

shared_ptr<T> shared_from_this();
shared_ptr<T const> shared_from_this() const;

Requires: enable_shared_from_this<T> shall be an accessible base class of T. *this shall be a subobject of an object t of type T. There shall be at least one shared_ptr instance p that owns &t.

Returns: A shared_ptr<T> object r that shares ownership with p.

Postconditions: r.get() == this.

[Note: a possible implementation is shown below:

template<class T> class enable_shared_from_this {
    private:
        weak_ptr<T> __weak_this;
    protected:
        constexpr enable_shared_from_this() : __weak_this() { }
        enable_shared_from_this(enable_shared_from_this const &) { }
        enable_shared_from_this & operator=(enable_shared_from_this const &) { return *this; }
        ~enable_shared_from_this() { }
    public:
        shared_ptr<T> shared_from_this() { return shared_ptr<T>(__weak_this); }
};
The `shared_ptr` constructors that create unique pointers can detect the presence of an `enable_shared_from_this` base and assign the newly created `shared_ptr` to its `__weak_this` member. — end note

### 20.8.15.5 `shared_ptr` atomic access

Concurrent access to a `shared_ptr` object from multiple threads does not introduce a data race if the access is done exclusively via the functions in this section and the instance is passed as their first argument.

The meaning of the arguments of type `memory_order` is explained in 29.3.

#### Template Functions

```cpp
template<class T>
bool atomic_is_lock_free(const shared_ptr<T>* p);
```

*Returns:* `true` if atomic access to `*p` is lock-free, `false` otherwise.

*Throws:* nothing.

```cpp
template<class T>
shared_ptr<T> atomic_load(const shared_ptr<T>* p);
```

*Returns:* `atomic_load_explicit(p, memory_order_seq_cst)`.

```cpp
template<class T>
shared_ptr<T> atomic_load_explicit(const shared_ptr<T>* p, memory_order mo);
```

*Requires:* `mo` shall not be `memory_order_release` or `memory_order_acq_rel`.

*Returns:* `*p`.

*Throws:* nothing.

```cpp
template<class T>
void atomic_store(shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T> r);
```

*Effects:* `atomic_store_explicit(p, r, memory_order_seq_cst)`.

```cpp
template<class T>
void atomic_store_explicit(shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T> r, memory_order mo);
```

*Requires:* `mo` shall not be `memory_order_acquire` or `memory_order_acq_rel`.

*Effects:* `p->swap(r)`.

*Throws:* nothing.

```cpp
template<class T>
shared_ptr<T> atomic_exchange(shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T> r);
```

*Returns:* `atomic_exchange_explicit(p, r, memory_order_seq_cst)`.

```cpp
template<class T>
shared_ptr<T> atomic_exchange_explicit(shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T> r, memory_order mo);
```

*Effects:* `p->swap(r)`.

*Returns:* the previous value of `*p`.

*Throws:* nothing.

§ 20.8.15.5
template<class T>
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak(
    shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T>* v, shared_ptr<T> w);

Returns: atomic_compare_exchange_weak_explicit(p, v, w, memory_order_seq_cst, memory_order_seq_cst).

template<class T>
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong(
    shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T>* v, shared_ptr<T> w);

Returns: atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(p, v, w, memory_order_seq_cst, memory_order_seq_cst).

template<class T>
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak_explicit(
    shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T>* v, shared_ptr<T> w,
    memory_order success, memory_order failure);
template<class T>
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(
    shared_ptr<T>* p, shared_ptr<T>* v, shared_ptr<T> w,
    memory_order success, memory_order failure);

Requires: failure shall not be memory_order_release, memory_order_acq_rel, or stronger than success.

Effects: If *p is equivalent to *v, assigns w to *p and has synchronization semantics corresponding to the value of success, otherwise assigns *p to *v and has synchronization semantics corresponding to the value of failure.

Returns: true if *p was equivalent to *v, false otherwise.

Throws: nothing.

Remarks: two shared_ptr objects are equivalent if they store the same pointer value and share ownership.

Remarks: the weak forms may fail spuriously. See 29.6.

20.8.15.6 Pointer safety [util.dynamic.safety]

A complete object is declared reachable while the number of calls to declare_reachable with an argument referencing the object exceeds the number of calls to undeclare_reachable with an argument referencing the object.

void declare_reachable(void *p);

Requires: p shall be a safely-derived pointer (3.7.4.3) or a null pointer value.

Effects: If p is not null, the complete object referenced by p is subsequently declared reachable (3.7.4.3).

Throws: May throw std::bad_alloc if the system cannot allocate additional memory that may be required to track objects declared reachable.

template <class T> T *undeclare_reachable(T *p);

Requires: If p is not null, the complete object referenced by p shall have been previously declared reachable, and shall be live (3.8) from the time of the call until the last undeclare_reachable(p) call on the object.
Returns: a safely derived copy of \( p \) which shall compare equal to \( p \).

Throws: nothing.

[Note: It is expected that calls to \texttt{declarereachable}(\( p \)) will consume a small amount of memory in addition to that occupied by the referenced object until the matching call to \texttt{undeclarereachable}(\( p \)) is encountered. Long running programs should arrange that calls are matched. — end note]

\begin{verbatim}
void declare_no_pointers(char *p, size_t n);
\end{verbatim}

Requires: No bytes in the specified range have been previously registered with \texttt{declare_no_pointers}(). If the specified range is in an allocated object, then it must be entirely within a single allocated object. The object must be live until the corresponding \texttt{undeclare_no_pointers}() call. [Note: In a garbage-collecting implementation, the fact that a region in an object is registered with \texttt{declare_no_pointers}() should not prevent the object from being collected. — end note]

Effects: The \( n \) bytes starting at \( p \) no longer contain traceable pointer locations, independent of their type. Hence pointers located there may not be dereferenced if the object they point to was created by global \texttt{operator new} and not previously declared reachable. [Note: This may be used to inform a garbage collector or leak detector that this region of memory need not be traced. — end note]

Throws: nothing. [Note: Under some conditions implementations may need to allocate memory. However, the request can be ignored if memory allocation fails. — end note]

\begin{verbatim}
void undeclare_no_pointers(char *p, size_t n);
\end{verbatim}

Requires: The same range must previously have been passed to \texttt{declare_no_pointers}().

Effects: Unregisters a range registered with \texttt{declare_no_pointers}() for destruction. It must be called before the lifetime of the object ends.

Throws: nothing.

\begin{verbatim}
pointer_safety get_pointer_safety();
\end{verbatim}

Returns: an enumeration value indicating the implementation’s treatment of pointers that are not safely derived (3.7.4.3). Returns \texttt{pointer_safety::relaxed} if pointers that are not safely derived will be treated the same as pointers that are safely derived for the duration of the program. Returns \texttt{pointer_safety::preferred} if pointers that are not safely derived will be treated the same as pointers that are safely derived for the duration of the program but allows the implementation to hint that it could be desirable to avoid dereferencing pointers that are not safely derived as described. [Example: \texttt{pointer_safety::preferred} might be returned to detect if a leak detector is running to avoid spurious leak reports. — end note] Returns \texttt{pointer_safety::strict} if pointers that are not safely derived might be treated differently than pointers that are safely derived.

20.8.16 Align \quad [\texttt{ptr.align}]

\begin{verbatim}
void *align(std::size_t alignment, std::size_t size, void *&ptr, std::size_t& space);
\end{verbatim}

Effects: If it is possible to fit \( size \) bytes of storage aligned by \texttt{alignment} into the buffer pointed to by \( ptr \) with length \( space \), the function updates \( ptr \) to point to the first possible address of such storage and decreases \( space \) by the number of bytes used for alignment. Otherwise, the function does nothing.

Requires:
alignment shall be a fundamental alignment value or an extended alignment value supported by the implementation in this context.

ptr shall point to contiguous storage of at least space bytes

Returns: a null pointer if the requested aligned buffer would not fit into the available space, otherwise the adjusted value of ptr.

[Note: the function updates its ptr and space arguments so that it can be called repeatedly with possibly different alignment and size arguments for the same buffer.]

20.8.17 C Library

1 Table 52 describes the header <stdlib.h>.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td>calloc malloc free realloc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The contents are the same as the Standard C library header <stdlib.h>, with the following changes:

3 The functions calloc(), malloc(), and realloc() do not attempt to allocate storage by calling ::operator new() (18.6).

4 The function free() does not attempt to deallocate storage by calling ::operator delete().

See also: ISO C Clause 7.11.2.

5 Storage allocated directly with malloc(), calloc(), or realloc() is implicitly declared reachable (see 3.7.4.3) on allocation, ceases to be declared reachable on deallocation, and need not cease to be declared reachable as the result of an undeclare_reachable() call. [Note: This allows existing C libraries to remain unaffected by restrictions on pointers that are not safely derived, at the expense of providing far fewer garbage collection and leak detection options for malloc()-allocated objects. It also allows malloc() to be implemented with a separate allocation arena, bypassing the normal declare_reachable() implementation. The above functions should never intentionally be used as a replacement for declare_reachable(), and newly written code is strongly encouraged to treat memory allocated with these functions as though it were allocated with operator new. — end note]

6 Table 53 describes the header <cstring>.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macro:</td>
<td>NULL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type:</td>
<td>size_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td>memchr memcmp memcpy memmove memset</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The contents are the same as the Standard C library header <string.h>, with the change to memchr() specified in 21.6.

See also: ISO C Clause 7.11.2.
20.9 Time utilities

This subclause describes the chrono library that provides generally useful time utilities.

Header <chrono> synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    namespace chrono {

        template <class Rep, class Period = ratio<1>> class duration;
        template <class Clock, class Duration = typename Clock::duration> class time_point;
    } // namespace chrono

    // common_type traits
    template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    struct common_type<chrono::duration<Rep1, Period1>, chrono::duration<Rep2, Period2>>;

    template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
    struct common_type<chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration1>, chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration2>>;
}
```

// customization traits

```cpp
namespace chrono {

    template <class Rep> struct treat_as_floating_point;
    template <class Rep> struct duration_values;

    // duration arithmetic
    template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    typename common_type<duration<Rep1, Period1>, duration<Rep2, Period2>>::type
    operator+(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);

    template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    typename common_type<duration<Rep1, Period1>, duration<Rep2, Period2>>::type
    operator-(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);

    template <class Rep1, class Period, class Rep2>
    duration<typename common_type<Rep1, Rep2>::type, Period>
    operator*(const duration<Rep1, Period>& d, const Rep2& s);

    template <class Rep1, class Period, class Rep2>
    duration<typename common_type<Rep1, Rep2>::type, Period>
    operator*(const Rep1& s, const duration<Rep2, Period>& d);

    template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    typename common_type<duration<Rep1, Period1>, duration<Rep2, Period2>>::type
    operator%(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);

    // duration comparisons
    template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    bool operator==(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

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template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
bool operator!=(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
bool operator< (const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
bool operator<=(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
bool operator> (const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
bool operator>=(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);

// duration_cast

template <class ToDuration, class Rep, class Period>
ToDuration duration_cast(const duration<Rep, Period>& d);

// convenience typedefs

typedef duration<signed integral type of at least 64 bits, nano> nanoseconds;
typedef duration<signed integral type of at least 55 bits, micro> microseconds;
typedef duration<signed integral type of at least 45 bits, milli> milliseconds;
typedef duration<signed integral type of at least 35 bits> seconds;
typedef duration<signed integral type of at least 29 bits, ratio<60>> minutes;
typedef duration<signed integral type of at least 23 bits, ratio<3600>> hours;

// time_point arithmetic

template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Rep2, class Period2>
time_point<Clock, typename common_type<Duration1, duration<Rep2, Period2>>::type>
operator+(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Clock, class Duration2>
time_point<Clock, typename common_type<duration<Rep1, Period1>, Duration2>>::type
operator+(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Rep2, class Period2>
time_point<Clock, typename common_type<Duration1, duration<Rep2, Period2>>::type>
operator-(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
typename common_type<Duration1, Duration2>::type
operator-(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);

// time_point comparisons

template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
bool operator===(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
bool operator!==(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
bool operator==(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
bool operator<(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
bool operator<=(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
bool operator>=(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);

// time_point_cast

template <class ToDuration, class Clock, class Duration>
time_point<Clock, ToDuration> time_point_cast(const time_point<Clock, Duration>& t);
// Clocks
class system_clock;
class monotonic_clock;
class high_resolution_clock;
}
} // namespace std

20.9.1 Clock requirements

1. A clock is a bundle consisting of a native duration, a native time_point, and a function now() to get the current time_point. A clock shall meet the requirements in Table 54.

2. In Table 54 C1 and C2 denote clock types. t1 and t2 are values returned by C1::now() where the call returning t1 happens before (1.10) the call returning t2 and both of these calls happen before C1::time_point::max().

Table 54 — Clock requirements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Operational semantics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1::rep</td>
<td>An arithmetic type or a class emulating an arithmetic type</td>
<td>The representation type of the native duration and time_point.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1::period</td>
<td>ratio</td>
<td>The tick period of the clock in seconds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1::duration</td>
<td>chrono::duration&lt;C1::rep, C1::period&gt;</td>
<td>The native duration type of the clock.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1::time_point</td>
<td>chrono::time_point&lt;C1&gt; or chrono::time_point&lt;C2, C1::duration&gt;</td>
<td>The native time_point type of the clock. Different clocks may share a time_point definition if it is valid to compare their time_points by comparing their respective durations. C1 and C2 shall refer to the same epoch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1::is_monotonic</td>
<td>const bool</td>
<td>true if t1 &lt;= t2 is always true, otherwise false. [Note: A clock that can be adjusted backwards is not monotonic. — end note]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1::now()</td>
<td>C1::time_point</td>
<td>Returns a time_point object representing the current point in time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20.9.2 Time-related traits

20.9.2.1 treat_as_floating_point

```cpp
template <class Rep> struct treat_as_floating_point
  : is_floating_point<Rep> { };```
The duration template uses the treat_as_floating_point trait to help determine if a duration object can be converted to another duration with a different tick period. If treat_as_floating_point<Rep>::value is true, then Rep is a floating-point type and implicit conversions are allowed among durations. Otherwise, the implicit convertibility depends on the tick periods of the durations. If Rep is a class type which emulates a floating-point type, the author of Rep can specialize treat_as_floating_point so that duration will treat this Rep as if it were a floating-point type. Otherwise Rep is assumed to be an integral type or a class emulating an integral type.

20.9.2.2 duration_values

template <class Rep>
struct duration_values {
    public:
        static constexpr Rep zero();
        static constexpr Rep min();
        static constexpr Rep max();
};

The duration template uses the duration_values trait to construct special values of the durations representation (Rep). This is done because the representation might be a class type with behavior which requires some other implementation to return these special values. In that case, the author of that class type should specialize duration_values to return the indicated values.

static constexpr Rep zero();
Returns: Rep(0). [Note: Rep(0) is specified instead of Rep() because Rep() may have some other meaning, such as an uninitialized value. — end note]
Remark: The value returned shall be the additive identity.

static constexpr Rep min();
Returns: numeric_limits<Rep>::lowest().
Remark: The value returned shall compare less than or equal to zero().

static constexpr Rep max();
Returns: numeric_limits<Rep>::max().
Remark: The value returned shall compare greater than zero().

20.9.2.3 Specializations of common_type

template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
struct common_type<chrono::duration<Rep1, Period1>, chrono::duration<Rep2, Period2>> {
    typedef chrono::duration<typename common_type<Rep1, Rep2>::type, see below> type;
};

The period of the duration indicated by this specialization of common_type shall be the greatest common divisor of Period1 and Period2. [Note: This can be computed by forming a ratio of the greatest common divisor of Period1::num and Period2::num and the least common multiple of Period1::den and Period2::den. — end note]

[Note: The typedef name type is a synonym for the duration with the largest tick period possible where both duration arguments will convert to it without requiring a division operation. The representation of
this type is intended to be able to hold any value resulting from this conversion with no truncation error, although floating-point durations may have round-off errors. — end note]

template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
struct common_type<chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration1>, chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration2>> {  
    typedef chrono::time_point<Clock, typename common_type<Duration1, Duration2>::type> type;
};

3 The common type of two time_point types is a time_point with the same clock as the two types and the common type of their two durations.

20.9.3 Class template duration

1 A duration type measures time between two points in time (time_points). A duration has a representation which holds a count of ticks and a tick period. The tick period is the amount of time which occurs from one tick to the next, in units of seconds. It is expressed as a rational constant using the template ratio.

template <class Rep, class Period = ratio<1>>
class duration {
public:
    typedef Rep rep;
    typedef Period period;
private:
    rep rep_;  // exposition only
public:
    // 20.9.3.1, construct/copy/destroy:
    constexpr duration() = default;
    template <class Rep2>
    constexpr explicit
        duration(const Rep2& r);
    template <class Rep2, class Period2>
    constexpr duration(const
duration<Rep2, Period2>& d);
    ~duration() = default;
    duration(const duration&) = default;
    duration& operator=(const duration&);

    // 20.9.3.2, observer:
    constexpr rep count() const;

    // 20.9.3.3, arithmetic:
    constexpr duration operator+() const;
    constexpr duration operator-() const;
    duration& operator++();
    duration operator++(int);
    duration& operator++(int);
    duration operator--();
    duration operator--(int);
    duration& operator+=(const duration& d);
    duration& operator-=(const duration& d);
    duration& operator*=(const rep& rhs);
    duration& operator/=(const rep& rhs);
    duration& operator%=(const rep& rhs);
    duration& operator%=(const duration& rhs);

    // 20.9.3.4, special values:
    static constexpr duration zero();
static constexpr duration min();
static constexpr duration max();
};

Requires: Rep shall be an arithmetic type or a class emulating an arithmetic type. If a program instantiates duration with a duration type for the template argument Rep a diagnostic is required.

Requires: Period shall be a specialization of ratio, diagnostic required.

Requires: Period::num shall be positive, diagnostic required.

Requires: Members of duration shall not throw exceptions other than those thrown by the indicated operations on their representations.

[ Example:
  duration<long, ratio<60>> d0; // holds a count of minutes using a long
duration<long long, milli> d1; // holds a count of milliseconds using a long long
duration<double, ratio<1, 30>> d2; // holds a count with a tick period of \( \frac{1}{30} \) of a second
  // (30 Hz) using a double
— end example ]

20.9.3.1 duration constructors

[time.duration.cons]
template <class Rep2>
constexpr explicit duration(const Rep2& r);

Requires: Rep2 shall be implicitly convertible to rep and
— treat_as_floating_point<rep>::value shall be true or
— treat_as_floating_point<Rep2>::value shall be false.

Diagnostic required. [ Example:
  duration<int, milli> d(3); // OK
duration<int, milli> d(3.5); // error
— end example ]

Effects: Constructs an object of type duration.

Postcondition: count() == static_cast<rep>(r).

template <class Rep2, class Period2>
constexpr duration(const duration<Rep2, Period2>& d);

Requires: treat_as_floating_point<rep>::value shall be true or ratio_divide<Period2, period>::type::den shall be 1. Diagnostic required. [ Note: This requirement prevents implicit truncation error when converting between integral-based duration types. Such a construction could easily lead to confusion about the value of the duration. — end note ] [ Example:
  duration<int, milli> ms(3);
duration<int, micro> us = ms; // OK
duration<int, milli> ms2 = us; // error
— end example ]

Effects: Constructs an object of type duration, constructing rep_from duration_cast<duration>(d).count().
20.9.3.2 duration observer

```cpp
constexpr rep count() const;
```

1. **Returns:** rep_.

20.9.3.3 duration arithmetic

```cpp
constexpr duration operator+() const;
```

1. **Returns:** *this.

```cpp
constexpr duration operator-() const;
```

2. **Returns:** duration(-rep_);

```cpp
duration& operator++();
```

3. **Effects:** ++rep_.

4. **Returns:** *this.

```cpp
duration operator++(int);
```

5. **Returns:** duration(rep_++);

```cpp
duration& operator--();
```

6. **Effects:** --rep_.

7. **Returns:** *this.

```cpp
duration operator--(int);
```

8. **Returns:** duration(rep_--);

```cpp
duration& operator+=(const duration& d);
```

9. **Effects:** rep_ += d.count().

10. **Returns:** *this.

```cpp
duration& operator-=(const duration& d);
```

11. **Effects:** rep_ -= d.count().

12. **Returns:** *this.

```cpp
duration& operator*=(const rep& rhs);
```

13. **Effects:** rep_ *= rhs.

14. **Returns:** *this.

```cpp
duration& operator/=(const rep& rhs);
```

15. **Effects:** rep_ /= rhs.

16. **Returns:** *this.
**20.9.3.4 duration special values** [time.duration.special]

```cpp
static constexpr duration zero();
```

*Returns:* `duration(duration_values<rep>::zero())`.

```cpp
static constexpr duration min();
```

*Returns:* `duration(duration_values<rep>::min())`.

```cpp
static constexpr duration max();
```

*Returns:* `duration(duration_values<rep>::max())`.

**20.9.3.5 duration non-member arithmetic** [time.duration.nonmember]

In the function descriptions that follow, `CD` represents the return type of the function. `CR(A,B)` represents `common_type<A, B>::type`.

```cpp
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
type common_type<duration<Rep1, Period1>, duration<Rep2, Period2>{>}::type
operator+(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

*Returns:* `CD(lhs) += rhs`.

```cpp
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
type common_type<duration<Rep1, Period1>, duration<Rep2, Period2>{>}::type
operator-(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

*Returns:* `CD(lhs) -= rhs`.

```cpp
template <class Rep1, class Period, class Rep2>
duration<typename common_type<Rep1, Rep2>::type, Period>
operator*(const duration<Rep1, Period>& d, const Rep2& s);
```

*Requires:* `Rep2` shall be implicitly convertible to `CR(Rep1, Rep2)`. Diagnostic required.

*Returns:* `duration<CR(Rep1, Rep2), Period>(d) *= s`.

```cpp
template <class Rep1, class Period, class Rep2>
duration<typename common_type<Rep1, Rep2>::type, Period>
operator/(const duration<Rep1, Period>& d, const Rep2& s);
```

*Requires:* `Rep1` shall be implicitly convertible to `CR(Rep1, Rep2)`. Diagnostic required.

*Returns:* `d * s`. 

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8. **Requires:** Rep2 shall be implicitly convertible to CR(Rep1, Rep2) and Rep2 shall not be an instantiation of duration. Diagnostic required.

9. **Returns:** duration<CR, Period>(d) /= s.

```
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    typename common_type<Rep1, Rep2>::type
    operator/(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

10. **Returns:** CD(lhs).count() / CD(rhs).count().

```
template <class Rep1, class Period, class Rep2>
    duration<typename common_type<Rep1, Rep2>::type, Period>
    operator%(const duration<Rep1, Period>& d, const Rep2& s);
```

11. **Requires:** Rep2 shall be implicitly convertible to CR(Rep1, Rep2) and Rep2 shall not be an instantiation of duration. Diagnostic required.

12. **Returns:** duration<CR, Period>(d) %= s.

```
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    typename common_type<duration<Rep1, Period1>, duration<Rep2, Period2>>::type
    operator%(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

13. **Returns:** common_type<duration<Rep1, Period1>, duration<Rep2, Period2> >::type(lhs) %= rhs.

### 20.9.3.6 duration comparisons

In the function descriptions that follow, CT represents common_type<A, B>::type, where A and B are the types of the two arguments to the function.

```
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    bool operator==(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

1. **Returns:** CT(lhs).count() == CT(rhs).count().

```
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    bool operator!=(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

2. **Returns:** !(lhs == rhs).

```
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    bool operator<(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

3. **Returns:** CT(lhs).count() < CT(rhs).count().

```
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    bool operator<=(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

4. **Returns:** !(rhs < lhs).

```
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    bool operator>(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

5. **Returns:** rhs < lhs.

```
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Rep2, class Period2>
    bool operator>=(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

6. **Returns:** !(lhs < rhs).

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20.9.3.7 duration_cast

```
template <class ToDuration, class Rep, class Period>
ToDuration duration_cast(const duration<Rep, Period>& d);
```

Requires: ToDuration shall be an instantiation of duration. Diagnostic required.

Returns: Let $CF$ be $\text{ratio_divide<Period, typename ToDuration::period>::type}$, and $CR$ be $\text{common_type<typename ToDuration::rep, Rep, intmax_t>::type}$.

- If $CF::\text{num} == 1$ and $CF::\text{den} == 1$, returns $\text{ToDuration(static_cast<typename ToDuration::rep>(d.count()))}$
- Otherwise, if $CF::\text{num} != 1$ and $CF::\text{den} == 1$, returns $\text{ToDuration(static_cast<typename ToDuration::rep>(static_cast<CR>(d.count()) * static_cast<CR>(CF::num)))}$
- Otherwise, if $CF::\text{num} == 1$ and $CF::\text{den} != 1$, returns $\text{ToDuration(static_cast<typename ToDuration::rep>(static_cast<CR>(d.count()) / static_cast<CR>(CF::den)))}$
- Otherwise, returns $\text{ToDuration(static_cast<typename ToDuration::rep>(static_cast<CR>(d.count()) * static_cast<CR>(CF::num) / static_cast<CR>(CF::den)))}$

Notes: This function does not use any implicit conversions; all conversions are done with static_cast. It avoids multiplications and divisions when it is known at compile time that one or more arguments is 1. Intermediate computations are carried out in the widest representation and only converted to the destination representation at the final step.

20.9.4 Class template time_point

```
template <class Clock, class Duration = typename Clock::duration>
class time_point {
public:
    typedef Clock clock;
    typedef Duration duration;
    typedef typename duration::rep rep;
    typedef typename duration::period period;
private:
    duration d_; // exposition only

public:
    // 20.9.4.1, construct
    time_point(); // has value epoch
    explicit time_point(const duration& d); // same as time_point() + d
    template <class Duration2>
        time_point(const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& t);

    // 20.9.4.2, observer:
    duration time_since_epoch() const;

    // 20.9.4.3, arithmetic:

§ 20.9.4
```cpp
time_point& operator+=(const duration& d);
time_point& operator-=(const duration& d);

// 20.9.4.4, special values:
static constexpr time_point min();
static constexpr time_point max();
```

1. Clock shall meet the Clock requirements (20.9.5).
2. Duration shall be an instance of duration. Diagnostic required.

### 20.9.4.1 time_point constructors

```
time_point();
```

1. **Effects**: Constructs an object of type `time_point`, initializing `d_` with `duration::zero()`. Such a `time_point` object represents the epoch.
2. `time_point(const duration& d);`

1. **Effects**: Constructs an object of type `time_point`, initializing `d_` with `d`. Such a `time_point` object represents the epoch + d.

```
template <class Duration2>
time_point(const time_point<clock, Duration2>& t);
```

3. **Requires**: `Duration2` shall be implicitly convertible to `duration`. Diagnostic required.
4. **Effects**: Constructs an object of type `time_point`, initializing `d_` with `t.time_since_epoch()`.

### 20.9.4.2 time_point observer

```
duration time_since_epoch() const;
```

1. **Returns**: `d_`.

### 20.9.4.3 time_point arithmetic

```
time_point& operator+=(const duration& d);
```

1. **Effects**: `d_ += d`.
2. **Returns**: `*this`.

```
time_point& operator-=(const duration& d);
```

3. **Effects**: `d_ -= d`.
4. **Returns**: `*this`.

### 20.9.4.4 time_point special values

```
static constexpr time_point min();
```

1. **Returns**: `time_point(duration::min())`.

```
static constexpr time_point max();
```

§ 20.9.4.4
20.9.4.5 time_point non-member arithmetic

```cpp
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Rep2, class Period2>
time_point<Clock, typename common_type<Duration1, duration<Rep2, Period2>>::type>
operator+(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

Returns: `CT(lhs) += rhs`, where `CT` is the type of the return value.

```cpp
template <class Rep1, class Period1, class Clock, class Duration2>
time_point<Clock, typename common_type<duration<Rep1, Period1>, Duration2>::type>
operator+(const duration<Rep1, Period1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
```

Returns: `rhs + lhs`.

```cpp
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Rep2, class Period2>
time_point<Clock, typename common_type<Duration1, duration<Rep2, Period2>>::type>
operator-(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const duration<Rep2, Period2>& rhs);
```

Returns: `lhs + (-rhs)`.

```cpp
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
type common_type<duration<Rep1, Period1>, Duration2>::type
operator-(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
```

Returns: `lhs.time_since_epoch() - rhs.time_since_epoch()`.

20.9.4.6 time_point comparisons

```cpp
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
bool operator==(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
```

Returns: `lhs.time_since_epoch() == rhs.time_since_epoch()`.

```cpp
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
bool operator!=(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
```

Returns: `!(lhs == rhs)`.

```cpp
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
bool operator<(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
```

Returns: `lhs.time_since_epoch() < rhs.time_since_epoch()`.

```cpp
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
bool operator<=(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
```

Returns: `!(rhs < lhs)`.

```cpp
template <class Clock, class Duration1, class Duration2>
bool operator>(const time_point<Clock, Duration1>& lhs, const time_point<Clock, Duration2>& rhs);
```

Returns: `!(lhs < rhs)`.

Returns: `!(lhs <= rhs)`.
20.9.4.7 time_point_cast

```
template <class ToDuration, class Clock, class Duration>
  time_point<Clock, ToDuration> time_point_cast(const time_point<Clock, Duration>& t);
```

1. **Requires**: ToDuration shall be an instance of duration. Diagnostic required.
2. **Returns**: time_point<Clock, ToDuration>(duration_cast<ToDuration>(t.time_since_epoch())).

20.9.5 Clocks

1. The types defined in this subclause shall satisfy the Clock requirements (20.9.1).

20.9.5.1 Class system_clock

1. Objects of class system_clock represent wall clock time from the system-wide realtime clock.

   ```
class system_clock {
  public:
    typedef see below rep;
    typedef ratio<unspecified, unspecified> period;
    typedef chrono::duration<rep, period> duration;
    typedef chrono::time_point<system_clock> time_point;
    static const bool is_monotonic = unspecified;

    static time_point now();

    // Map to C API
    static time_t to_time_t (const time_point& t);
    static time_point from_time_t(time_t t);
  }
```

typedef unspecified system_clock::rep;

2. **Requires**: system_clock::duration::min() < system_clock::duration::zero() shall be true. [Note: This implies that rep is a signed type. — end note]

```
time_t to_time_t(const time_point& t);
```

3. **Returns**: A time_t object that represents the same point in time as t when both values are truncated to the coarser of the precisions of time_t and time_point.

```
time_point from_time_t(time_t t);
```

4. **Returns**: A time_point object that represents the same point in time as t when both values are truncated to the coarser of the precisions of time_t and time_point.

20.9.5.2 Class monotonic_clock

1. Objects of class monotonic_clock represent clocks for which values of time_point never decrease as physical time advances. monotonic_clock may be a synonym for system_clock if system_clock::is_monotonic is true.

2. The class monotonic_clock is conditionally supported.
typedef unspecified rep;
typedef ratio<unspecified, unspecified> period;
typedef chrono::duration<rep, period> duration;
typedef chrono::time_point<unspecified, duration> time_point;
static const bool is_monotonic = true;

static time_point now();
};

20.9.5.3 Class high_resolution_clock

1 Objects of class high_resolution_clock represent clocks with the shortest tick period. high_resolution_clock may be a synonym for system_clock or monotonic_clock.

class high_resolution_clock {
public:
    typedef unspecified rep;
typedef ratio<unspecified, unspecified> period;
typedef chrono::duration<rep, period> duration;
typedef chrono::time_point<unspecified, duration> time_point;
    static const bool is_monotonic = unspecified;

    static time_point now();
};

20.10 Date and time functions

1 Table 55 describes the header <ctime>.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macros:</td>
<td>NULL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types:</td>
<td>size_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Struct:</td>
<td>tm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td>asctime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ctime</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 The contents are the same as the Standard C library header <time.h>.\(^{232}\) The functions asctime, ctime, gmtime, and localtime are not required to avoid data races (17.6.4.8).

SEE ALSO: ISO C Clause 7.12, Amendment 1 Clause 4.6.4.

20.11 Class type_index

20.11.1 Header <typeindex> synopsis

namespace std {
    class type_index;
    template <class T> struct hash;
    template<

\(^{232}\) strftime supports the C99 conversion specifiers C, D, e, F, g, G, h, r, R, t, T, u, V, and z, and the modifiers E and U.
20.11.2 type_index overview

namespace std {

    class type_index {

        type_index(const type_info& rhs);
        bool operator==(const type_index& rhs) const;
        bool operator!=(const type_index& rhs) const;
        bool operator<(const type_index& rhs) const;
        bool operator<=(const type_index& rhs) const;
        bool operator>(const type_index& rhs) const;
        bool operator>=(const type_index& rhs) const;
        size_t hash_code() const;
        const char* name() const;

    private:
        const type_info* target;    // exposition only
        // Note that the use of a pointer here, rather than a reference,
        // means that the default copy constructor and assignment
        // operator will be provided and work as expected.
    };

}

The class type_index provides a simple wrapper for type_info which can be used as an index type in associative containers (23.4) and in unordered associative containers (23.5).

20.11.3 type_index members

type_index(const type_info& rhs);

    Effects: constructs a type_index object, the equivalent of target = &rhs.

    bool operator==(const type_index& rhs) const;
    Returns: *target == *rhs.target

    bool operator!=(const type_index& rhs) const;
    Returns: *target != *rhs.target

    bool operator<(const type_index& rhs) const;
    Returns: target->before(*rhs.target)

    bool operator<=(const type_index& rhs) const;
    Returns: !rhs.target->before(*target)

    bool operator>(const type_index& rhs) const;
    Returns: rhs.target->before(*target)

    bool operator>=(const type_index& rhs) const;
    Returns: !target->before(*rhs.target)
size_t hash_code() const;

8  Returns: target->hash_code()

const char* name() const;

9  Returns: target->name()

20.11.4 Template specialization hash<type_index> [type.index.templ]

size_t operator()(type_index index) const;

1  Returns: index.hash_code()
21 Strings library

21.1 General

This Clause describes components for manipulating sequences of any literal (3.9) type. In this Clause such types are called char-like types, and objects of char-like types are called char-like objects or simply characters.

The following subclauses describe a character traits class, a string class, and null-terminated sequence utilities, as summarized in Table 56.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subclause</th>
<th>Header(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21.2 Character traits</td>
<td>&lt;string&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.3 String classes</td>
<td>&lt;string&gt;, &lt;ctype&gt;, &lt;cwctype&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.6 Null-terminated sequence utilities</td>
<td>&lt;cstring&gt;, &lt;cwchar&gt;, &lt;cstdlib&gt;, &lt;cuchar&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21.2 Character traits

This subclause defines requirements on classes representing character traits, and defines a class template char_traits<charT>, along with four specializations, char_traits<char>, char_traits<char16_t>, char_traits<char32_t>, and char_traits<wchar_t>, that satisfy those requirements.

Most classes specified in Clauses 21.3 and 27 need a set of related types and functions to complete the definition of their semantics. These types and functions are provided as a set of member typedefs and functions in the template parameter ‘traits’ used by each such template. This subclause defines the semantics guaranteed by these members.

To specialize those templates to generate a string or iostream class to handle a particular character container type CharT, that and its related character traits class Traits are passed as a pair of parameters to the string or iostream template as formal parameters charT and traits. Traits::char_type shall be the same as CharT.

This subclause specifies a struct template, char_traits<charT>, and four explicit specializations of it, char_traits<char>, char_traits<char16_t>, char_traits<char32_t>, and char_traits<wchar_t>, all of which appear in the header <string> and satisfy the requirements below.

21.2.1 Character traits requirements

In Table 57, X denotes a Traits class defining types and functions for the character container type CharT; c and d denote values of type CharT; p and q denote values of type const CharT*; s denotes a value of type CharT*; n, i and j denote values of type std::size_t; e and f denote values of type X::int_type;
pos denotes a value of type `X::pos_type`; state denotes a value of type `X::state_type`; and r denotes an lvalue of type `CharT`. Operations on Traits shall not throw exceptions.

Table 57 — Character traits requirements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>X::char_type</code></td>
<td><code>charT</code></td>
<td>(described in 21.2.2)</td>
<td>compile-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::int_type</code></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>compile-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::off_type</code></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>compile-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::pos_type</code></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>compile-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::state_type</code></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>compile-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::eq(c,d)</code></td>
<td><code>bool</code></td>
<td>yields: whether c is to be treated as equal to d.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::lt(c,d)</code></td>
<td><code>bool</code></td>
<td>yields: whether c is to be treated as less than d.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::compare(p,q,n)</code></td>
<td><code>int</code></td>
<td>yields: 0 if for each i in [0,n), <code>X::eq(p[i],q[i])</code> is true; else, a negative value if, for some j in [0,n), <code>X::lt(p[j],q[j])</code> is true and for each i in [0,j) <code>X::eq(p[i],q[i])</code> is true; else a positive value.</td>
<td>linear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::length(p)</code></td>
<td><code>std::size_t</code></td>
<td>yields: the smallest i such that <code>X::eq(p[i],charT())</code> is true.</td>
<td>linear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::find(p,n,c)</code></td>
<td><code>const X::char_type*</code></td>
<td>yields: the smallest q in <code>[p,p+n)</code> such that <code>X::eq(*q,c)</code> is true, zero otherwise.</td>
<td>linear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::move(s,p,n)</code></td>
<td><code>X::char_type*</code></td>
<td>for each i in [0,n), performs <code>X::assign(s[i],p[i])</code>. Copies correctly even where the ranges <code>[p,p+n)</code> and <code>[s,s+n)</code> overlap. yields: s.</td>
<td>linear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::copy(s,p,n)</code></td>
<td><code>X::char_type*</code></td>
<td>pre: p not in <code>[s,s+n)</code>. yields: s. for each i in [0,n), performs <code>X::assign(s[i],p[i])</code>.</td>
<td>linear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::assign(r,d)</code></td>
<td>(not used)</td>
<td>assigns r=d.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::assign(s,n,c)</code></td>
<td><code>X::char_type*</code></td>
<td>for each i in [0,n), performs <code>X::assign(s[i],c)</code>. yields: s.</td>
<td>linear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::not_eof(e)</code></td>
<td><code>int_type</code></td>
<td>yields: e if <code>X::eq_int_type(e,X::eof())</code> is false, otherwise a value f such that <code>X::eq_int_type(f,X::eof())</code> is false.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::to_char_type(e)</code></td>
<td><code>X::char_type</code></td>
<td>yields: if for some c, <code>X::eq_int_type(e,X::to_int_type(c))</code> is true, c; else some unspecified value.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

§ 21.2.1
Table 57 — Character traits requirements (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X::to_int_type(c)</td>
<td>X::int_type</td>
<td>yields: some value e, constrained by the definitions of X::to_char_type and X::eq_int_type.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::eq_int_type(e,f)</td>
<td>bool</td>
<td>yields: for all c and d, X::eq(c,d) is equal to X::eq_int_type(X::to_int_type(c), X::to_int_type(d)); otherwise, yields true if e and f are both copies of X::eof(); otherwise, yields false if one of e and f is a copy of X::eof() and the other is not; otherwise the value is unspecified.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::eof()</td>
<td>X::int_type</td>
<td>yields: a value e such that X::eq_int_type(e,X::to_int_type(c)) is false for all values c.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 The struct template

```cpp
template<class charT> struct char_traits;
```

shall be provided in the header `<string>` as a basis for explicit specializations.

21.2.2 traits typedefs

typedef CHAR_T char_type;

1 The type `char_type` is used to refer to the character container type in the implementation of the library classes defined in 21.3 and Clause 27.

typedef INT_T int_type;

2 Requires: For a certain character container type `char_type`, a related container type `INT_T` shall be a type or class which can represent all of the valid characters converted from the corresponding `char_type` values, as well as an end-of-file value, `eof()`. The type `int_type` represents a character container type which can hold end-of-file to be used as a return type of the iostream class member functions.233

typedef implementation-defined off_type;

typedef implementation-defined pos_type;

3 Requires: Requirements for `off_type` and `pos_type` are described in 27.2.2.

typedef STATE_T state_type;

4 Requires: `state_type` shall meet the requirements of CopyAssignable, CopyConstructible (34), and DefaultConstructible types.

233) If `eof()` can be held in `char_type` then some iostreams operations may give surprising results.
21.2.3 char_traits specializations

namespace std {
    template<> struct char_traits<char> {
        typedef char char_type;
        typedef int int_type;
        typedef streamoff off_type;
        typedef streampos pos_type;
        typedef mbstate_t state_type;

        static void assign(char_type& c1, const char_type& c2);
        static constexpr bool eq(char_type c1, char_type c2);
        static constexpr bool lt(char_type c1, char_type c2);
        static int compare(const char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static size_t length(const char_type* s);
        static const char_type* find(const char_type* s, size_t n, const char_type& a);
        static char_type* move(char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static char_type* copy(char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static char_type* assign(char_type* s, size_t n, char_type a);

        static constexpr int_type not_eof(int_type c);
        static constexpr char_type to_char_type(int_type c);
        static constexpr int_type to_int_type(char_type c);
        static constexpr bool eq_int_type(int_type c1, int_type c2);
        static constexpr int_type eof();
    };
}

1 The header <string> shall define four specializations of the template struct char_traits: char_traits<char>, char_traits<char16_t>, char_traits<char32_t>, and char_traits<wchar_t>.

2 The requirements for the members of these specializations are given in Clause 21.2.1.

21.2.3.1 struct char_traits<char>

namespace std {
    template<> struct char_traits<char> {
        typedef char char_type;
        typedef int int_type;
        typedef streamoff off_type;
        typedef streampos pos_type;
        typedef mbstate_t state_type;

        static void assign(char_type& c1, const char_type& c2);
        static constexpr bool eq(char_type c1, char_type c2);
        static constexpr bool lt(char_type c1, char_type c2);
        static int compare(const char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static size_t length(const char_type* s);
        static const char_type* find(const char_type* s, size_t n, const char_type& a);
        static char_type* move(char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static char_type* copy(char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static char_type* assign(char_type* s, size_t n, char_type a);

        static constexpr int_type not_eof(int_type c);
        static constexpr char_type to_char_type(int_type c);
        static constexpr int_type to_int_type(char_type c);
        static constexpr bool eq_int_type(int_type c1, int_type c2);
        static constexpr int_type eof();
    };
}

1 The defined types for int_type, pos_type, off_type, and state_type shall be int, streampos, streamoff, and mbstate_t respectively.

2 The type streampos shall be an implementation-defined type that satisfies the requirements for pos_type in 21.2.2.

3 The type streamoff shall be an implementation-defined type that satisfies the requirements for off_type in 21.2.2.

4 The type mbstate_t is defined in <cwchar> and can represent any of the conversion states that can occur in an implementation-defined set of supported multibyte character encoding rules.
The two-argument member `assign` shall be defined identically to the built-in operator `=`. The two-argument members `eq` and `lt` shall be defined identically to the built-in operators `==` and `<` for type `unsigned char`

The member `eof()` shall return EOF.

### 21.2.3.2 struct char_traits<char16_t> [char.traits.specializations.char16_t]

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<> struct char_traits<char16_t> {
        typedef char16_t char_type;
        typedef uint_least16_t int_type;
        typedef streamoff off_type;
        typedef u16streampos pos_type;
        typedef mbstate_t state_type;

        static void assign(char_type& c1, const char_type& c2);
        static constexpr bool eq(char_type c1, char_type c2);
        static constexpr bool lt(char_type c1, char_type c2);

        static int compare(const char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static size_t length(const char_type* s);
        static const char_type* find(const char_type* s, size_t n,
                                      const char_type& a);
        static char_type* move(char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static char_type* copy(char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static char_type* assign(char_type* s, size_t n, char_type a);

        static constexpr int_type not_eof(int_type c);
        static constexpr char_type to_char_type(int_type c);
        static constexpr int_type to_int_type(char_type c);
        static constexpr bool eq_int_type(int_type c1, int_type c2);
        static constexpr int_type eof();
    };
}
```

1. The type `u16streampos` shall be an implementation-defined type that satisfies the requirements for `POS_T` in 21.2.2.
2. The two-argument members `assign`, `eq`, and `lt` shall be defined identically to the built-in operators `=`, `==`, and `<` respectively.
3. The member `eof()` shall return an implementation-defined constant that cannot appear as a valid UTF-16 code unit.

### 21.2.3.3 struct char_traits<char32_t> [char.traits.specializations.char32_t]

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<> struct char_traits<char32_t> {
        typedef char32_t char_type;
        typedef uint_least32_t int_type;
        typedef streamoff off_type;
        typedef u32streampos pos_type;
        typedef mbstate_t state_type;

        static void assign(char_type& c1, const char_type& c2);
        static constexpr bool eq(char_type c1, char_type c2);
        static constexpr bool lt(char_type c1, char_type c2);

        static int compare(const char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static size_t length(const char_type* s);
        static const char_type* find(const char_type* s, size_t n,
                                      const char_type& a);
        static char_type* move(char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static char_type* copy(char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static char_type* assign(char_type* s, size_t n, char_type a);

        static constexpr int_type not_eof(int_type c);
        static constexpr char_type to_char_type(int_type c);
        static constexpr int_type to_int_type(char_type c);
        static constexpr bool eq_int_type(int_type c1, int_type c2);
        static constexpr int_type eof();
    };
}
```

§ 21.2.3.3 603
static int compare(const char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
static size_t length(const char_type* s);
static const char_type* find(const char_type* s, size_t n,
    const char_type& a);
static char_type* move(char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
static char_type* copy(char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
static char_type* assign(char_type* s, size_t n, char_type a);

static constexpr int_type not_eof(int_type c);
static constexpr char_type to_char_type(int_type c);
static constexpr int_type to_int_type(char_type c);
static constexpr bool eq_int_type(int_type c1, int_type c2);
static constexpr int_type eof();
}

The type u32streampos shall be an implementation-defined type that satisfies the requirements for POS_T in 21.2.2.

The two-argument members assign, eq, and lt shall be defined identically to the built-in operators =, ==, and < respectively.

The member eof() shall return an implementation-defined constant that cannot appear as a Unicode code point.

21.2.3.4 struct char_traits<wchar_t> [char.traits.specializations.wchar.t]

namespace std {
    template<> struct char_traits<wchar_t> {
        typedef wchar_t char_type;
        typedef wint_t int_type;
        typedef streamoff off_type;
        typedef wstreampos pos_type;
        typedef mbstate_t state_type;

        static void assign(char_type& c1, const char_type& c2);
        static constexpr bool eq(char_type c1, char_type c2);
        static constexpr bool lt(char_type c1, char_type c2);

        static int compare(const char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static size_t length(const char_type* s);
        static const char_type* find(const char_type* s, size_t n,
            const char_type& a);
        static char_type* move(char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static char_type* copy(char_type* s1, const char_type* s2, size_t n);
        static char_type* assign(char_type* s, size_t n, char_type a);

        static constexpr int_type not_eof(int_type c);
        static constexpr char_type to_char_type(int_type c);
        static constexpr int_type to_int_type(char_type c);
        static constexpr bool eq_int_type(int_type c1, int_type c2);
        static constexpr int_type eof();
    };
}

§ 21.2.3.4
The defined types for `int_type`, `pos_type`, and `state_type` shall be `wint_t`, `wstreampos`, and `mbstate_t` respectively.

The type `wstreampos` shall be an implementation-defined type that satisfies the requirements for `POS_T` in 21.2.2.

The type `mbstate_t` is defined in `<cwchar>` and can represent any of the conversion states that can occur in an implementation-defined set of supported multibyte character encoding rules.

The two-argument members `assign`, `eq`, and `lt` shall be defined identically to the built-in operators `=`, `==`, and `<` respectively.

The member `eof()` shall return `WEOF`.

### 21.3 String classes

The header `<string>` defines the `basic_string` class template for manipulating varying-length sequences of char-like objects and four typedefs, `string`, `u16string`, `u32string`, and `wstring`, that name the specializations `basic_string<char>`, `basic_string<char16_t>`, `basic_string<char32_t>`, and `basic_string<wchar_t>`, respectively.

#### Header `<string>` synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    #include <initializer_list>

    // 21.2, character traits:
    template<class charT> struct char_traits;
    template <> struct char_traits<char>;
    template <> struct char_traits<char16_t>;
    template <> struct char_traits<char32_t>;
    template <> struct char_traits<wchar_t>;

    // 21.4, basic_string:
    template<class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
             class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
        class basic_string;

    template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
        basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>
            operator+(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
                      const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);
    template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
        basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
            operator+(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&& lhs,
                      const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);
    template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
        basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
            operator+(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
                      basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&& rhs);
    template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
        basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
            operator+(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&& lhs,
                      basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&& rhs);

    template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
        basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>
            operator+(const charT* lhs,
                      const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);
    template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
        basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>
            operator+(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>*,
                      const charT* lhs);
```

§ 21.3 605
const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>&& rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>&
operator+(const charT* lhs,
basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>&& rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
operator+(charT lhs, const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>&& rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
operator+(charT lhs, basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>&& rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
operator+(const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& lhs,
const charT* rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
operator+(basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>&& lhs,
const charT* rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
operator+(const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& lhs,
const charT* rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
operator+(const charT* lhs,
basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
operator+(const charT* lhs,
const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
operator+(const charT* lhs,
const charT* rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& lhs,
const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const charT* lhs,
const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& lhs,
const charT* rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator!=(const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& lhs,
const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator!=(const charT* lhs,
const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator!=(const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& lhs,
const charT* rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator<(const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& lhs,
const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator<(const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& lhs,
const charT* rhs);

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator<(const charT* lhs,
const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& rhs);

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bool operator> (const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
    const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator> (const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
    const charT* rhs);

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator> (const charT* lhs,
    const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator<= (const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
    const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator<= (const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
    const charT* rhs);

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator<= (const charT* lhs,
    const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator>= (const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
    const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator>= (const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
    const charT* rhs);

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator>= (const charT* lhs,
    const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);

// 21.4.8.8: swap
template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
void swap(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
    basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
void swap(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&& lhs,
    basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&&& rhs);

// 21.4.8.9: inserters and extractors
template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(basic_istream<charT,traits>&& is,
    basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str);

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<charT, traits>&& os,
    const basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>& str);

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_istream<charT, traits>& getline(basic_istream<charT, traits>&& is,
    basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>& str,
    charT delim);

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_istream<charT,traits>&
```cpp
getline(basic_istream<charT,traits>&& is,  
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str);

// basic_string typedef names
typedef basic_string<char> string;
typedef basic_string<char16_t> u16string;
typedef basic_string<char32_t> u32string;
typedef basic_string<wchar_t> wstring;

// 21.5: numeric conversions
int stoi(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
long stol(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
unsigned long stoul(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
long long stoll(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
float stof(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0);
double stod(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0);
string to_string(long long val);
string to_string(unsigned long long val);
string to_string(long double val);

int stoi(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
long stol(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
unsigned long stoul(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
long long stoll(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
float stof(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0);
double stod(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0);
wstring to_wstring(long long val);
wstring to_wstring(unsigned long long val);
wstring to_wstring(long double val);
```

### 21.4 Class template basic_string

The class template `basic_string` describes objects that can store a sequence consisting of a varying number of arbitrary char-like objects with the first element of the sequence at position zero. Such a sequence is also called a “string” if the type of the char-like objects that it holds is clear from context. In the rest of this Clause, the type of the char-like objects held in a `basic_string` object is designated by `charT`.

The member functions of `basic_string` use an object of the `Allocator` class passed as a template parameter to allocate and free storage for the contained char-like objects.

The class template `basic_string` conforms to the requirements for a Sequence Container (23.2.3), for a Reversible Container (23.2), and for an Allocator-aware container (93), except that `basic_string` does not construct or destroy its elements using `allocator_traits<Alloc>::construct` and `allocator_traits<Alloc>::destroy`.

The iterators supported by `basic_string` are random access iterators (24.2.5).

In all cases, `size() <= capacity()`.

The functions described in this Clause can report two kinds of errors, each associated with an exception type:

---

[Note: Allocator::value_type must name the same type as charT (21.4.1). — end note]
— a length error is associated with exceptions of type length_error (19.2.4);
— an out-of-range error is associated with exceptions of type out_of_range (19.2.5).

namespace std {

    template<class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
             class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_string {
    public:
        // types:
        typedef traits traits_type;
        typedef typename traits::char_type value_type;
        typedef Allocator allocator_type;
        typedef allocator_traits<Allocator>::size_type size_type;
        typedef allocator_traits<Allocator>::difference_type difference_type;
        typedef allocator_traits<Allocator>::reference reference;
        typedef allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_reference const_reference;
        typedef allocator_traits<Allocator>::pointer pointer;
        typedef allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_pointer const_pointer;
        typedef implementation-defined iterator;  // See 23.2
        typedef implementation-defined const_iterator;  // See 23.2
        typedef reverse_iterator<iterator> reverse_iterator;
        typedef reverse_iterator<const_iterator> const_reverse_iterator;
        static const size_type npos = -1;

        // 21.4.2 construct/copy/destroy:
        explicit basic_string(const Allocator& a = Allocator());
        basic_string(const basic_string& str);
        basic_string(basic_string&& str);
        basic_string(const basic_string& str, size_type pos, size_type n = npos,
                     const Allocator& a = Allocator());
        basic_string(const charT* s,
                     size_type n, const Allocator& a = Allocator());
        basic_string(const charT* s, const Allocator& a = Allocator());
        basic_string(const charT c, const Allocator& a = Allocator());
        template<class InputIterator>
        basic_string(InputIterator begin, InputIterator end,
                     const Allocator& a = Allocator());
        basic_string(initializer_list<charT>, const Allocator& = Allocator());
        basic_string(const basic_string&, const Allocator&);
        basic_string(basic_string&&, const Allocator&);
        ~basic_string();
        basic_string& operator=(const basic_string& str);
        basic_string& operator=(basic_string&& str);
        basic_string& operator=(const charT* s);
        basic_string& operator=(charT c);
        basic_string& operator=(initializer_list<charT>);

        // 21.4.3 iterators:
        iterator begin();
        const_iterator begin() const;
        iterator end();
        const_iterator end() const;
    }
}
reverse_iterator rbegin();
const_reverse_iterator rbegin() const;
reverse_iterator rend();
const_reverse_iterator rend() const;

const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;
const_reverse_iterator crbegin() const;
const_reverse_iterator crend() const;

// 21.4.4 capacity:
size_type size() const;
size_type length() const;
size_type max_size() const;
void resize(size_type n, charT c);
void resize(size_type n);
size_type capacity() const;
void reserve(size_type res_arg = 0);
void shrink_to_fit();
void clear();
bool empty() const;

// 21.4.5 element access:
const_reference operator[](size_type pos) const;
reference operator[](size_type pos);
const_reference at(size_type n) const;
reference at(size_type n);

const charT& front() const;
charT& front();
const charT& back() const;
charT& back();

// 21.4.6 modifiers:
basic_string& operator+=(const basic_string& str);
basic_string& operator+=(const charT* s);
basic_string& operator+=(charT c);
basic_string& append(const basic_string& str);
basic_string& append(const basic_string& str, size_type pos,
                     size_type n);
basic_string& append(const charT* s, size_type n);
basic_string& append(size_type n, charT c);
template<class InputIterator>
    basic_string& append(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
basic_string& append(initializer_list<charT>);
void push_back(charT c);
basic_string& assign(const basic_string& str);
basic_string& assign(basic_string&& str);
basic_string& assign(const basic_string& str, size_type pos,
                     size_type n);
basic_string& assign(const charT* s, size_type n);
basic_string& assign(const charT* s);
basic_string& assign(size_type n, charT c);
template<class InputIterator>
basic_string& assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
basic_string& assign(initializer_list<charT>); 

basic_string& insert(size_type pos1, const basic_string& str);
basic_string& insert(size_type pos1, const basic_string& str, 
                     size_type pos2, size_type n);
basic_string& insert(size_type pos, const charT* s, size_type n);
basic_string& insert(size_type pos, const charT* s);
basic_string& insert(size_type pos, size_type n, charT c);
iterator insert(const_iterator p, charT c);
void iterator insert(const_iterator p, size_type n, charT c);
template<class InputIterator> 
void iterator insert(const_iterator p, InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void iterator insert(const_iterator p, initializer_list<charT>);

basic_string& erase(size_type pos = 0, size_type n = npos);
iterator erase(const_iterator p);
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);

void pop_back();

basic_string& replace(size_type pos1, size_type n1, 
                      const basic_string& str);
basic_string& replace(size_type pos1, size_type n1, 
                      const basic_string& str, 
                      size_type pos2, size_type n2);
basic_string& replace(size_type pos, size_type n1, const charT* s, 
                      size_type n2);
basic_string& replace(size_type pos, size_type n1, const charT* s);
basic_string& replace(size_type pos, size_type n1, size_type n2, 
                      charT c);

basic_string& replace(iterator i1, iterator i2, 
                       const basic_string& str);
basic_string& replace(iterator i1, iterator i2, const charT* s, 
                       size_type n);
basic_string& replace(iterator i1, iterator i2, const charT* s);
basic_string& replace(iterator i1, iterator i2, 
                       size_type n, charT c);
template<class InputIterator>
basic_string& replace(iterator i1, iterator i2, 
                      InputIterator j1, InputIterator j2);
basic_string& replace(iterator, iterator, initializer_list<charT>);

size_type copy(charT* s, size_type n, size_type pos = 0) const;
void swap(basic_string& str);

// 21.4.7 string operations:
const charT* c_str() const; // explicit
const charT* data() const;
allocator_type get_allocator() const;
size_type find (const basic_string& str, size_type pos = 0) const;
size_type find (const charT* s, size_type pos, size_type n) const;
size_type find (const charT* s, size_type pos = 0) const;
size_type find (charT c, size_type pos = 0) const;
size_type rfind(const basic_string& str, size_type pos = npos) const;
size_type rfind(const charT* s, size_type pos, size_type n) const;
size_type rfind(const charT* s, size_type pos = npos) const;
size_type rfind(charT c, size_type pos = npos) const;
size_type find_first_of(const basic_string& str,
   size_type pos = 0) const;
size_type find_first_of(const charT* s,
   size_type pos, size_type n) const;
size_type find_first_of(const charT* s, size_type pos = 0) const;
size_type find_last_of (const basic_string& str,
   size_type pos = npos) const;
size_type find_last_of (const charT* s, size_type pos, size_type n) const;
size_type find_last_of (const charT* s, size_type pos = npos) const;
size_type find_last_of (charT c, size_type pos = npos) const;
size_type find_first_not_of(const basic_string& str,
   size_type pos = 0) const;
size_type find_first_not_of(const charT* s, size_type pos,
   size_type n) const;
size_type find_first_not_of(const charT* s, size_type pos = 0) const;
size_type find_first_not_of(charT c, size_type pos = 0) const;
size_type find_last_not_of (const basic_string& str,
   size_type pos = npos) const;
size_type find_last_not_of (const charT* s, size_type pos,
   size_type n) const;
size_type find_last_not_of (const charT* s, size_type pos = npos) const;
size_type find_last_not_of (charT c, size_type pos = npos) const;
basic_string substr(size_type pos = 0, size_type n = npos) const;
int compare(const basic_string& str) const;
int compare(size_type pos1, size_type n1,
   const basic_string& str) const;
int compare(size_type pos1, size_type n1,
   const basic_string& str,
   size_type pos2, size_type n2) const;
int compare(const charT* s) const;
int compare(size_type pos1, size_type n1,
   const charT* s) const;
int compare(size_type pos1, size_type n1,
   const charT* s, size_type n2) const;
};

21.4.1 basic_string general requirements  [string.require]

1 If any operation would cause size() to exceed max_size(), that operation shall throw an exception object
of type length_error.

2 If any member function or operator of basic_string throws an exception, that function or operator shall have no other effect.

3 No erase() or pop_back() member function shall throw any exceptions.

4 In every specialization basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>, the nested type allocator_traits<Allocator>::value_type shall name the same type as charT. Every object of type basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator> shall use an object of type Allocator to allocate and free storage for the contained charT objects as needed. The Allocator object used shall be obtained as described in 23.2.1. A copy of the Allocator object passed to the basic_string object’s constructor or, if the constructor does not take an Allocator argument, a copy of a default-constructed Allocator object.

5 The char-like objects in a basic_string object shall be stored contiguously. That is, for any basic_string object s, the identity &*(s.begin() + n) == &*s.begin() + n shall hold for all values of n such that 0 <= n < s.size().

6 References, pointers, and iterators referring to the elements of a basic_string sequence may be invalidated by the following uses of that basic_string object:

   — as an argument to any standard library function taking a reference to non-const basic_string as an argument.

   — Calling non-const member functions, except operator[], at, front, back, begin, rbegin, end, and rend.

21.4.2 basic_string constructors and assignment operators

[string.cons]

explicit basic_string(const Allocator& a = Allocator());

1 Effects: Constructs an object of class basic_string. The postconditions of this function are indicated in Table 58.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>data()</td>
<td>a non-null pointer that is copyable and can have 0 added to it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size()</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity()</td>
<td>an unspecified value</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

basic_string(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str);

2 Effects: Constructs an object of class basic_string as indicated in Table 59. In the first form, the stored Allocator value is copied from str.get_allocator(). In the second form, the stored Allocator value is move constructed from str.get_allocator(), and str is left in a valid state with an unspecified value.

3 Throws: The second form throws nothing if the allocator’s move constructor throws nothing.

235 For example, as an argument to non-member functions swap() (21.4.8.8), operator>>() (21.4.8.9), and getline() (21.4.8.9), or as an argument to basic_string::swap()
Table 59 — basic_string(const basic_string&) effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>data()</td>
<td>points at the first element of an allocated copy of the array whose first element is pointed at by str.data()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size()</td>
<td>str.size()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity()</td>
<td>a value at least as large as size()</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

basic_string(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str,
             size_type pos, size_type n = npos,
             const Allocator& a = Allocator());

Requires: pos <= str.size()

Throws: out_of_range if pos > str.size().

Effects: Constructs an object of class basic_string and determines the effective length rlen of the initial string value as the smaller of n and str.size() - pos, as indicated in Table 60.

Table 60 — basic_string(const basic_string&, size_type, size_type, const Allocator&) effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>data()</td>
<td>points at the first element of an allocated copy of rlen consecutive elements of the string controlled by str beginning at position pos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size()</td>
<td>rlen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity()</td>
<td>a value at least as large as size()</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

basic_string(const charT* s, size_type n,
             const Allocator& a = Allocator());

Requires: s shall not be a null pointer and n < npos.

Effects: Constructs an object of class basic_string and determines its initial string value from the array of charT of length n whose first element is designated by s, as indicated in Table 61.

Table 61 — basic_string(const charT*, size_type, const Allocator&) effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>data()</td>
<td>points at the first element of an allocated copy of the array whose first element is pointed at by s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size()</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity()</td>
<td>a value at least as large as size()</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

basic_string(const charT* s, const Allocator& a = Allocator());

Requires: s shall not be a null pointer.

Effects: Constructs an object of class basic_string and determines its initial string value from the array of charT of length traits::length(s) whose first element is designated by s, as indicated in Table 62.

Remarks: Uses traits::length().
Table 62 — `basic_string(const charT*, const Allocator&)` effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>data()</code></td>
<td>points at the first element of an allocated copy of the array whose first element is pointed at by <code>s</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>size()</code></td>
<td><code>traits::length(s)</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>capacity()</code></td>
<td>a value at least as large as <code>size()</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`basic_string(size_type n, charT c, const Allocator& a = Allocator());`

12 Requires: `n < npos`
13 Effects: Constructs an object of class `basic_string` and determines its initial string value by repeating the char-like object `c` for all `n` elements, as indicated in Table 63.

Table 63 — `basic_string(size_t, charT, const Allocator&)` effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>data()</code></td>
<td>points at the first element of an allocated array of <code>n</code> elements, each storing the initial value <code>c</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>size()</code></td>
<td><code>n</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>capacity()</code></td>
<td>a value at least as large as <code>size()</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`template<class InputIterator>
  basic_string(InputIterator begin, InputIterator end, const Allocator& a = Allocator());`

14 Effects: If `InputIterator` is an integral type, equivalent to

`basic_string(static_cast<size_type>(begin), static_cast<value_type>(end), a)`

Otherwise constructs a string from the values in the range `[begin, end)`, as indicated in the Sequence Requirements table (see 23.2.3).

`basic_string(initializer_list<charT> il, const Allocator& a = Allocator());`

16 Effects: Same as `basic_string(il.begin(), il.end(), a)`.

`basic_string(const basic_string& str, const Allocator& alloc);
basic_string(basic_string&& str, const Allocator& alloc);`

Effects: Constructs an object of class `basic_string` as indicated in Table 64. The stored allocator is constructed from `alloc`. In the second form, `str` is left in a valid state with an unspecified value.

Table 64 — `basic_string(const basic_string&, const Allocator&)` and `basic_string(basic_string&&, const Allocator&)` effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>data()</code></td>
<td>points at the first element of an allocated copy of the array whose first element is pointed at by the original value of <code>str.data()</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>size()</code></td>
<td>the original value of <code>str.size()</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>capacity()</code></td>
<td>a value at least as large as <code>size()</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>get_allocator()</code></td>
<td><code>alloc</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Throws: The second form throws nothing if `alloc == str.get_allocator()` unless the copy constructor for `Allocator` throws.

```cpp
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
operator=(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str);
```

Effects: If `*this` and `str` are not the same object, modifies `*this` as shown in Table 65. If `*this` and `str` are the same object, the member has no effect.

Returns: `*this`

Table 65 — `operator=(const basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>&)` effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>data()</td>
<td>points at the first element of an allocated copy of the array whose first element is pointed at by <code>str.data()</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size()</td>
<td><code>str.size()</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity()</td>
<td>a value at least as large as <code>size()</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```cpp
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
operator=(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&& str);
```

Effects: If `*this` and `str` are not the same object, modifies `*this` as shown in Table 66. The constructor leaves `str` in a valid but unspecified state. [Note: A valid implementation is `swap(str). — end note]

If `*this` and `str` are the same object, the member has no effect.

Throws: Nothing.

Returns: `*this`

Table 66 — `operator=(const basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>&&)` effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>data()</td>
<td>points at the array whose first element was pointed at by <code>str.data()</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size()</td>
<td>previous value of <code>str.size()</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity()</td>
<td>a value at least as large as <code>size()</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```cpp
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
operator=(const charT* s);
```

Returns: `*this = basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s)`.

Remarks: Uses `traits::length()`.

```cpp
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
operator=(charT c);
```

Returns: `*this = basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(1, c)`.

```cpp
basic_string&
operator=(initializer_list<charT> il);
```

Effects: `*this = basic_string(il)`.

Returns: `*this`.

§ 21.4.2
21.4.3 basic_string iterator support

iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
const_iterator cbegin() const;

Returns: an iterator referring to the first character in the string.

iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;
const_iterator cend() const;

Returns: an iterator which is the past-the-end value.

reverse_iterator rbegin();
const_reverse_iterator rbegin() const;
const_reverse_iterator crbegin() const;

Returns: an iterator which is semantically equivalent to reverse_iterator(end()).

reverse_iterator rend();
const_reverse_iterator rend() const;
const_reverse_iterator crend() const;

Returns: an iterator which is semantically equivalent to reverse_iterator(begin()).

21.4.4 basic_string capacity

size_type size() const;

Returns: a count of the number of char-like objects currently in the string.

Throws: nothing.

Complexity: constant time.

size_type length() const;

Returns: size().

size_type max_size() const;

Returns: The size of the largest possible string.

Complexity: constant time.

void resize(size_type n, charT c);

Requires: n <= max_size()

Throws: length_error if n > max_size().

Effects: Alters the length of the string designated by *this as follows:

— If n <= size(), the function replaces the string designated by *this with a string of length n whose elements are a copy of the initial elements of the original string designated by *this.

— If n > size(), the function replaces the string designated by *this with a string of length n whose first size() elements are a copy of the original string designated by *this, and whose remaining elements are all initialized to c.
void resize(size_type n);

   Effects: resize(n,charT()).

size_type capacity() const;

   Returns: the size of the allocated storage in the string.

void reserve(size_type res_arg=0);

   The member function reserve() is a directive that informs a basic_string object of a planned change in size, so that it can manage the storage allocation accordingly.

   Effects: After reserve(), capacity() is greater or equal to the argument of reserve. [ Note: Calling reserve() with a res_arg argument less than capacity() is in effect a non-binding shrink request. A call with res_arg <= size() is in effect a non-binding shrink-to-fit request. — end note ]

   Throws: length_error if res_arg > max_size().

void shrink_to_fit();

   Remarks: shrink_to_fit is a non-binding request to reduce capacity() to size(). [ Note: The request is non-binding to allow latitude for implementation-specific optimizations. — end note ]

void clear();

   Effects: Behaves as if the function calls:

   erase(begin(), end());

bool empty() const;

   Returns: size() == 0.

21.4.5 basic_string element access [string.access]

const_reference operator[](size_type pos) const;
reference     operator[](size_type pos);

   Returns: If pos < size(), returns *(begin() + pos). Otherwise, if pos == size(), the const version returns charT(). Otherwise, the behavior is undefined.

   Requires: pos <= size().

   Returns: *(begin() + pos) if pos < size(), otherwise a reference to an object of type charT() that shall not be modified.

   Throws: nothing.

   Complexity: constant time.

const_reference at(size_type pos) const;
reference     at(size_type pos);

   Requires: pos < size()

   Throws: out_of_range if pos >= size().

   Returns: operator[]() (pos).

236) reserve() uses allocator_traits<Allocator>::allocate() which may throw an appropriate exception.
const charT& front() const;
charT& front();

Requires: !empty()
Effects: Equivalent to operator[](0).

const charT& back() const;
charT& back();

Requires: !empty()
Effects: Equivalent to operator[](size() - 1).

21.4.6 basic_string modifiers

21.4.6.1 basic_string::operator+=

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
operator+=(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str);
Returns: append(str).

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& operator+=(const charT* s);
Returns: *this += basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s).
Remarks: Uses traits::length().

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& operator+=(charT c);
Returns: *this += basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(1,c).

basic_string& operator+=(initializer_list<charT> il);
Returns: The result of append(il).

21.4.6.2 basic_string::append

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
append(const basic_string<charT,traits>& str);
Returns: append(str, 0, npos).

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
append(const basic_string<charT,traits>& str, size_type pos, size_type n);
Requires: pos <= str.size()
Throws: out_of_range if pos > str.size().
Effects: Determines the effective length rlen of the string to append as the smaller of n and str.size() - pos. The function then throws length_error if size() >= npos - rlen. Otherwise, the function replaces the string controlled by *this with a string of length size() + rlen whose first size() elements are a copy of the original string controlled by *this and whose remaining elements are a copy of the initial elements of the string controlled by str beginning at position pos.

Returns: *this.
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
    append(const charT* s, size_type n);
6     \textit{Returns:} append(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s,n)).

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& append(const charT* s);
7     \textit{Returns:} append(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s)).

\textit{Remarks:} Uses traits::length().

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
    append(size_type n, charT c);
9     \textit{Returns:} append(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(n,c)).

template<class InputIterator>
    basic_string& append(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
10 \textit{Returns:} append(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(first,last)).

basic_string& append(initializer_list<charT> il);
11 \textit{Returns:} append(basic_string(il)).

void push_back(charT c)
12 \textit{Effects:} Equivalent to append(static_cast<size_type>(1), c).

21.4.6.3 \texttt{basic\_string::assign} \hfill [string::assign]

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
    assign(const basic_string<charT,traits>&& str);
1 \textit{Returns:} assign(str, 0, npos).

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
    assign(const basic_string<charT,traits>& str);
2 The function replaces the string controlled by *this with a string of length str.size() whose elements are a copy of the string controlled by str. Leaves str in a valid but unspecified state. [\textit{Note:} A valid implementation is swap(str). —end note]
3 \textit{Throws:} Nothing.
4 \textit{Returns:} *this.

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
    assign(const basic_string<charT,traits>& str, size_type pos, size_type n);
5 \textit{Requires:} pos <= str.size()
6 \textit{Throws:} out_of_range if pos > str.size().
7 \textit{Effects:} Determines the effective length rlen of the string to assign as the smaller of n and str.size() - pos.
8 The function then replaces the string controlled by *this with a string of length rlen whose elements are a copy of the string controlled by str beginning at position pos.
9 \textit{Returns:} *this.

§ 21.4.6.3
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
    assign(const charT* s, size_type n);

Returns: assign(basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>(s,n)).

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& assign(const charT* s);

Returns: assign(basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>(s)).

Remarks: Uses traits::length().

basic_string& assign(initializer_list<charT> il);

Returns: assign(basic_string(il)).

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
    assign(size_type n, charT c);

Returns: assign(basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>(n,c)).

template<class InputIterator>
    basic_string& assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);

Returns: assign(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(first,last)).

21.4.6.4  basic_string::insert

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
    insert(size_type pos1,
            const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str);

Returns: insert(pos1,str,0,npos).

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
    insert(size_type pos1,
            const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str,
            size_type pos2, size_type n);

Requires: pos1 <= size() and pos2 <= str.size()

Throws: out_of_range if pos1 > size() or pos2 > str.size().

Effects: Determines the effective length rlen of the string to insert as the smaller of
n and str.size() - pos2. Then throws length_error if size() >= npos - rlen.
Otherwise, the function replaces the string controlled by *this with a string of length
size() + rlen whose first pos1 elements are a copy of the initial elements of the original
string controlled by *this, whose next rlen elements are a copy of the elements of the string
controlled by str beginning at position pos2, and whose remaining elements are a copy of the
remaining elements of the original string controlled by *this.

Returns: *this.

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
    insert(size_type pos, const charT* s, size_type n);

Returns: insert(pos,basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s,n)).

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
    insert(size_type pos, const charT* s);

§ 21.4.6.4
Returns: insert(pos,basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s)).
Remarks: Uses traits::length().

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
insert(size_type pos, size_type n, charT c);
Returns: insert(pos,basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(n,c)).

iterator insert(const_iterator p, charT c);
Requires: p is a valid iterator on *this.
Effects: inserts a copy of c before the character referred to by p.
Returns: an iterator which refers to the copy of the inserted character.

void iterator insert(const_iterator p, size_type n, charT c);
Requires: p is a valid iterator on *this.
Effects: inserts n copies of c before the character referred to by p.
Returns: an iterator which refers to the copy of the first inserted character, or p if n == 0.

template<class InputIterator>
void iterator insert(const_iterator p, InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
Requires: p is a valid iterator on *this. [first,last) is a valid range.
Effects: Equivalent to insert(p - begin(), basic_string(first, last)).
Returns: an iterator which refers to the copy of the first inserted character, or p if first == last.

void iterator insert(const_iterator p, initializer_list<charT> il);
Effects: insert(p, il.begin(), il.end()).
Returns: an iterator which refers to the copy of the first inserted character, or p if il is empty.

21.4.6.5 basic_string::erase [string::erase]

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
erase(size_type pos = 0, size_type n = npos);
Requires: pos <= size()
Throws: out_of_range if pos > size().
Effects: Determines the effective length xlen of the string to be removed as the smaller of n and size() - pos.
The function then replaces the string controlled by *this with a string of length size() - xlen whose first pos elements are a copy of the initial elements of the original string controlled by *this, and whose remaining elements are a copy of the elements of the original string controlled by *this beginning at position pos + xlen.
Returns: *this.

iterator erase(const_iterator p);
6 \textbf{Effects:} removes the character referred to by \texttt{p}.

7 \textbf{Returns:} an iterator which points to the element immediately following \texttt{p} prior to the element being erased. If no such element exists, \texttt{end()} is returned.

8 \begin{verbatim}
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
\end{verbatim}
9 \textbf{Requires:} \texttt{first} and \texttt{last} are valid iterators on \texttt{*this}, defining a range \([\texttt{first},\texttt{last})\).

10 \textbf{Effects:} removes the characters in the range \([\texttt{first},\texttt{last})\).

11 \textbf{Returns:} an iterator which points to the element pointed to by \texttt{last} prior to the other elements being erased. If no such element exists, \texttt{end()} is returned.

12 \begin{verbatim}
void pop_back();
\end{verbatim}
13 \textbf{Requires:} \texttt{!empty()}

14 \textbf{Effects:} Equivalent to \texttt{erase(size() - 1, 1)}.

\textbf{21.4.6.6} \texttt{basic_string::replace} \hfill [\texttt{string::replace}]

15 \begin{verbatim}
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
 replace(size_type pos1, size_type n1,
 const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str);
\end{verbatim}
16 \textbf{Returns:} \texttt{replace(pos1, n1, \texttt{str}).}

17 \begin{verbatim}
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
 replace(size_type pos1, size_type n1,
 const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str,
 size_type pos2, size_type n2);
\end{verbatim}
18 \textbf{Requires:} \texttt{pos1 \leq size() && pos2 \leq str.size().}

19 \textbf{Throws:} \texttt{out_of_range} if \texttt{pos1 > size()} or \texttt{pos2 > str.size()}, or \texttt{length_error} if the length of the resulting string would exceed \texttt{max_size()} (see below).

20 \textbf{Effects:} Determines the effective length \texttt{xlen} of the string to be removed as the smaller of \texttt{n1} and \texttt{size() - pos1}. Also determines the effective length \texttt{rlen} of the string to be inserted as the smaller of \texttt{n2} and \texttt{str.size() - pos2}. If \texttt{size() - xlen > max_size() - rlen}, throws \texttt{length_error}. Otherwise, the function replaces the string controlled by \texttt{*this} with a string of length \texttt{size() - xlen + rlen} whose first \texttt{pos1} elements are a copy of the initial elements of the original string controlled by \texttt{*this}, whose next \texttt{rlen} elements are a copy of the initial elements of the string controlled by \texttt{str} beginning at position \texttt{pos2}, and whose remaining elements are a copy of the elements of the original string controlled by \texttt{*this} beginning at position \texttt{pos1 + xlen}.

21 \textbf{Returns:} \texttt{*this}.

22 \begin{verbatim}
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
 replace(size_type pos, size_type n1, const charT* s, size_type n2);
\end{verbatim}
23 \textbf{Returns:} \texttt{replace(pos,n1,basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s,n2)).}

24 \begin{verbatim}
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
 replace(size_type pos, size_type n1, const charT* s);
\end{verbatim}
25 \textbf{Returns:} \texttt{replace(pos,n1,basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s)).}

26 \textbf{Remarks:} Uses \texttt{traits::length}. 

\textbf{§ 21.4.6.6}
basic_string<
replace(size_type pos, size_type n1,
size_type n2, charT c);
  
    Returns: replace(pos,n1,basic_string<

basic_string& replace(iterator i1, iterator i2, const basic_string& str);
  
    Requires: The iterators i1 and i2 are valid iterators on *this, defining a range [i1,i2).

    Effects: Replaces the string controlled by *this with a string of length size() - (i2 - i1) +
str.size() whose first i1 - begin() elements are a copy of the initial elements of the original
string controlled by *this, whose next str.size() elements are a copy of the string controlled by
str, and whose remaining elements are a copy of the elements of the original string controlled by *this
beginning at position i2.

    Returns: *this.

    Remarks: After the call, the length of the string will be changed by: str.size() - (i2 - i1).

basic_string&
replace(iterator i1, iterator i2, const charT* s, size_type n);
  
    Returns: replace(i1,i2,basic_string(s,n)).

    Remarks: Length change: n - (i2 - i1).

basic_string&
replace(iterator i1, iterator i2, const charT* s);
  
    Returns: replace(i1,i2,basic_string(s)).

    Remarks: Length change: traits::length(s) - (i2 - i1).

    Uses traits::length().

basic_string&
replace(iterator i1, iterator i2, size_type n,
charT c);
  
    Returns: replace(i1,i2,basic_string(n,c)).

    Remarks: Length change: n - (i2 - i1).

template<class InputIterator>
basic_string&
replace(iterator i1, iterator i2,
InputIterator j1, InputIterator j2);
  
    Returns: replace(i1,i2,basic_string(j1,j2)).

    Remarks: Length change: j2 - j1 - (i2 - i1).

basic_string&
replace(iterator i1, iterator i2,
initializer_list<charT> il);
  
    Returns: replace(i1, i2, il.begin(), il.end()).

21.4.6.7 basic_string::copy

    Requires: pos <= size()}

§ 21.4.6.7
Effects: Determines the effective length $rlen$ of the string to copy as the smaller of $n$ and $\text{size()} - \text{pos}$. $s$ shall designate an array of at least $rlen$ elements.

The function then replaces the string designated by $s$ with a string of length $rlen$ whose elements are a copy of the string controlled by $\*\text{this}$ beginning at position $\text{pos}$.

The function does not append a null object to the string designated by $s$.

Returns: $rlen$.

21.4.6.8 basic_string::swap

void swap(basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& $s$);

1

Throws: Nothing.

2

Postcondition: $\*\text{this}$ contains the same sequence of characters that was in $s$, $s$ contains the same sequence of characters that was in $\*\text{this}$.

3

Complexity: constant time.

21.4.7 basic_string string operations

21.4.7.1 basic_string accessors

const charT* c_str() const;
const charT* data() const;

Returns: A pointer to the initial element of an array of length $\text{size()} + 1$ whose first $\text{size()}$ elements equal the corresponding elements of the string controlled by $\*\text{this}$ and whose last element is a null character specified by $\text{charT}()$.

Returns: a pointer $p$ such that $p + i == \&\text{operator[]}(i)$ for each $i$ in $[0,\text{size()}]$.

1

Throws: nothing.

2

Complexity: constant time.

Requires: The program shall not alter any of the values stored in the character array.

allocator_type get_allocator() const;

5

Returns: a copy of the Allocator object used to construct the string or, if that allocator has been replaced, a copy of the most recent replacement.

21.4.7.2 basic_string::find

size_type find(const basic_string<
charT, traits, Allocator>& $str$,
size_type pos = 0) const;

1

Effects: Determines the lowest position $xpos$, if possible, such that both of the following conditions obtain:

- $pos <= xpos$ and $xpos + \text{str.size()} <= \text{size}()$;
- $\text{traits::eq}(\text{at}(xpos+1), \text{str.at}(1))$ for all elements $I$ of the string controlled by $\text{str}$.
Returns: xpos if the function can determine such a value for xpos. Otherwise, returns npos.

Remarks: Uses traits::eq().

size_type find(const charT* s, size_type pos, size_type n) const;

Returns: find(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s,n),pos).

size_type find(const charT* s, size_type pos = 0) const;

Returns: find(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s),pos).

Remarks: Uses traits::length().

size_type find(charT c, size_type pos = 0) const;

Returns: find(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(1,c),pos).

21.4.7.3 basic_string::rfind

size_type rfind(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str,
size_type pos = npos) const;

Effects: Determines the highest position xpos, if possible, such that both of the following conditions obtain:
— xpos <= pos and xpos + str.size() <= size();
— traits::eq(at(xpos+I), str.at(I)) for all elements I of the string controlled by str.

Returns: xpos if the function can determine such a value for xpos. Otherwise, returns npos.

Remarks: Uses traits::eq().

size_type rfind(const charT* s, size_type pos, size_type n) const;

Returns: rfind(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s,n),pos).

size_type rfind(const charT* s, size_type pos = npos) const;

Returns: rfind(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s),pos).

Remarks: Uses traits::length().

size_type rfind(charT c, size_type pos = npos) const;

Returns: rfind(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(1,c),pos).

21.4.7.4 basic_string::find_first_of

size_type

find_first_of(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str,
size_type pos = 0) const;

Effects: Determines the lowest position xpos, if possible, such that both of the following conditions obtain:
— pos <= xpos and xpos < size();
— traits::eq(at(xpos), str.at(I)) for some element I of the string controlled by str.
21.4.7.5 basic_string::find_last_of

Returns: xpos if the function can determine such a value for xpos. Otherwise, returns npos.

Remarks: Uses traits::eq().

size_type
find_last_of(const charT* s, size_type pos, size_type n) const;

Returns: find_last_of(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s,n),pos).

size_type find_last_of(const charT* s, size_type pos = 0) const;

Returns: find_last_of(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s),pos).

Remarks: Uses traits::length().

size_type find_last_of(charT c, size_type pos = 0) const;

Returns: find_last_of(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(1,c),pos).

21.4.7.6 basic_string::find_first_not_of

Returns: xpos if the function can determine such a value for xpos. Otherwise, returns npos.

Remarks: Uses traits::eq().

size_type
find_first_not_of(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str, size_type pos = npos) const;

Effects: Determines the lowest position xpos, if possible, such that both of the following conditions obtain:

— pos <= xpos and xpos < size();
— traits::eq(at(xpos), str.at(I)) for some element I of the string controlled by str.

size_type find_first_not_of(const charT* s, size_type pos, size_type n) const;

Returns: find_first_not_of(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s,n),pos).

size_type find_first_not_of(const charT* s, size_type pos = 0) const;

Returns: find_first_not_of(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s),pos).

Remarks: Uses traits::length().

size_type find_first_not_of(charT c, size_type pos = npos) const;

Returns: find_first_not_of(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(1,c),pos).
— traits::eq(at(xpos), str.at(I)) for no element I of the string controlled by str.

Returns: xpos if the function can determine such a value for xpos. Otherwise, returns npos.

Remarks: Uses traits::eq().

size_type
find_first_not_of(const charT* s, size_type pos, size_type n) const;

Returns: find_first_not_of(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s,n),pos).

size_type find_first_not_of(const charT* s, size_type pos = 0) const;
Returns: find_first_not_of(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s),pos).

Remarks: Uses traits::length().

size_type find_first_not_of(charT c, size_type pos = 0) const;
Returns: find_first_not_of(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(1,c),pos).

21.4.7.7 basic_string::find_last_not_of
[static:find.last.not.of]

size_type
find_last_not_of(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str,
size_type pos = npos) const;

Effects: Determines the highest position xpos, if possible, such that both of the following conditions obtain:
— xpos <= pos and xpos < size();
— traits::eq(at(xpos), str.at(I)) for no element I of the string controlled by str.

Returns: xpos if the function can determine such a value for xpos. Otherwise, returns npos.

Remarks: Uses traits::eq().

size_type find_last_not_of(const charT* s, size_type pos,
size_type n) const;

Returns: find_last_not_of(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s,n),pos).

size_type find_last_not_of(const charT* s, size_type pos = npos) const;
Returns: find_last_not_of(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(s),pos).

Remarks: Uses traits::length().

size_type find_last_not_of(charT c, size_type pos = npos) const;
Returns: find_last_not_of(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(1,c),pos).

21.4.7.8 basic_string::substr
[static:substr]

basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>
substr(size_type pos = 0, size_type n = npos) const;

Requires: pos <= size()

Throws: out_of_range if pos > size().
3 Effects: Determines the effective length \( rlen \) of the string to copy as the smaller of \( n \) and \( \text{size()} - \text{pos} \).

4 Returns: \( \text{basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>}(\text{data()}+\text{pos},rlen) \).

21.4.7.9 basic_string::compare

int compare(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str) const

1 Effects: Determines the effective length \( rlen \) of the strings to compare as the smallest of \( \text{size()} \) and \( \text{str.size()} \). The function then compares the two strings by calling \( \text{traits::compare(data()}, \text{str.data()},rlen) \).

2 Returns: the nonzero result if the result of the comparison is nonzero. Otherwise, returns a value as indicated in Table 67.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Return Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \text{size()} &lt; \text{str.size()} )</td>
<td>( &lt; 0 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{size()} == \text{str.size()} )</td>
<td>( 0 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{size()} &gt; \text{str.size()} )</td>
<td>( &gt; 0 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 Returns: \( \text{basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>}(*\text{this},\text{pos},\text{n1}).\text{compare(str)} \).

4 Returns: \( \text{basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>}(*\text{this},\text{pos},\text{n1}).\text{compare(} \text{basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>}(*\text{str},\text{pos2},\text{n2}) \). \)

5 Returns: \( \text{this->compare(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>}(\text{s})) \).

6 Returns: \( \text{basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>}(*\text{this},\text{pos},\text{n1}).\text{compare(} \text{basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>}(*\text{s}) \). \)

7 Returns: \( \text{basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>}(*\text{this},\text{pos},\text{n1}).\text{compare(} \text{basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>}(*\text{s},\text{n2}) \). \)

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21.4.8 basic_string non-member functions

21.4.8.1 operator+

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>
operator+(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);

Returns: basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(lhs).append(rhs)

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
operator+(basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&& lhs,
const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&& rhs);

Returns: lhs.append(rhs)

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
operator+(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&& lhs,
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&& rhs);

Returns: rhs.insert(0, lhs)

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
operator+(const charT* lhs,
const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);

Returns: basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(lhs) + rhs.

Remarks: Uses traits::length().

template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&
operator+(const charT* lhs,
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>&& rhs);

Returns: rhs.insert(0, lhs).

Remarks: Uses traits::length().
basic_string<
class T, traits, Allocator>&& rhs);  

10  Returns: rhs.insert(0, 1, lhs).

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_string<
class T, traits, Allocator>
operator+(const basic_string<class T, traits, Allocator>& lhs,
const charT* rhs);

11  Returns: lhs + basic_string<class T, traits, Allocator>(rhs).

Remarks: Uses traits::length().

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_string<
class T, traits, Allocator>&
operator+(basic_string<class T, traits, Allocator>&& lhs,
const charT* rhs);

13  Returns: lhs.append(rhs).

Remarks: Uses traits::length().

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_string<
class T, traits, Allocator>
operator+(const basic_string<class T, traits, Allocator>& lhs,
charT rhs);

15  Returns: lhs + basic_string<class T, traits, Allocator>(1, rhs).

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_string<
class T, traits, Allocator>&
operator+(basic_string<class T, traits, Allocator>&& lhs,
charT rhs);

16  Returns: lhs.append(1, rhs).

21.4.8.2 operator==  

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const basic_string<class T, traits, Allocator>& lhs,
const basic_string<class T, traits, Allocator>& rhs);

1  Returns: lhs.compare(rhs) == 0.

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const charT* lhs,
const basic_string<class T, traits, Allocator>& rhs);

2  Returns: basic_string<class T, traits, Allocator>(lhs) == rhs.

template<
class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const basic_string<class T, traits, Allocator>& lhs,
const charT* rhs);

3  Returns: lhs == basic_string<class T, traits, Allocator>(rhs).

Remarks: Uses traits::length().


### 21.4.8.3 operator!=

```cpp
template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator!=(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
               const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);
```

1 Returns: !(lhs == rhs).

```cpp
template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator!=(const charT* lhs,
               const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);
```

2 Returns: basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(lhs) != rhs.

```cpp
template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator!=(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
               const charT* rhs);
```

3 Returns: lhs != basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(rhs).

Remarks: Uses traits::length().

### 21.4.8.4 operator<

```cpp
template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator< (const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
               const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);
```

1 Returns: lhs.compare(rhs) < 0.

```cpp
template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator< (const charT* lhs,
               const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);
```

2 Returns: basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(lhs) < rhs.

```cpp
template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator< (const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
               const charT* rhs);
```

3 Returns: lhs < basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(rhs).

### 21.4.8.5 operator>

```cpp
template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator> (const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& lhs,
               const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);
```

1 Returns: lhs.compare(rhs) > 0.

```cpp
template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
bool operator> (const charT* lhs,
               const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& rhs);
```

2 Returns: basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>(lhs) > rhs.
Returns: \( \text{lhs} \) > \text{basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>(\text{rhs}).

21.4.8.6 operator<=

\[
\text{template}<\text{class charT, class traits, class Allocator}>
\text{bool } \text{operator}<=((\text{const basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>& \text{lhs},
\text{const basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>& \text{rhs});
\]

Returns: \( \text{lhs}.\text{compare}(\text{rhs}) \leq 0 \).

\[
\text{template}<\text{class charT, class traits, class Allocator}>
\text{bool } \text{operator}<=(\text{const charT* } \text{lhs},
\text{const basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>& \text{rhs});
\]

Returns: \( \text{basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>(\text{lhs}) \leq \text{rhs} \).

\[
\text{template}<\text{class charT, class traits, class Allocator}>
\text{bool } \text{operator}<=(\text{const basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>& \text{lhs},
\text{const charT* } \text{rhs});
\]

Returns: \( \text{lhs} \leq \text{basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>(\text{rhs}) \).

21.4.8.7 operator>=

\[
\text{template}<\text{class charT, class traits, class Allocator}>
\text{bool } \text{operator}>=((\text{const basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>& \text{lhs},
\text{const basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>& \text{rhs});
\]

Returns: \( \text{lhs}.\text{compare}(\text{rhs}) \geq 0 \).

\[
\text{template}<\text{class charT, class traits, class Allocator}>
\text{bool } \text{operator}>=((\text{const charT* } \text{lhs},
\text{const basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>& \text{rhs});
\]

Returns: \( \text{basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>(\text{lhs}) \geq \text{rhs} \).

\[
\text{template}<\text{class charT, class traits, class Allocator}>
\text{bool } \text{operator}>=((\text{const basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>& \text{lhs},
\text{const charT* } \text{rhs});
\]

Returns: \( \text{lhs} \geq \text{basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>(\text{rhs}) \).

21.4.8.8 swap

\[
\text{template}<\text{class charT, class traits, class Allocator}>
\text{void } \text{swap}((\text{basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>& \text{lhs},
\text{basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>& \text{rhs});
\]

Effects: \( \text{lhs}.\text{swap}(\text{rhs}) \);

21.4.8.9 Inserters and extractors

\[
\text{template}<\text{class charT, class traits, class Allocator}>
\text{basic_istream}<\text{charT},\text{traits}>& \text{operator}>>((\text{basic_istream}<\text{charT},\text{traits}>& \text{is},
\text{basic_string}<\text{charT},\text{traits},\text{Allocator}>& \text{str});
\]

§ 21.4.8.9
Effects: Behaves as a formatted input function (27.7.1.2.1). After constructing a sentry object, if the sentry converts to true, calls \texttt{str.erase()} and then extracts characters from \texttt{is} and appends them to \texttt{str} as if by calling \texttt{str.append(1, c)}. If \texttt{is.width()} is greater than zero, the maximum number \(n\) of characters appended is \texttt{is.width()}; otherwise \(n\) is \texttt{str.max_size()}. Characters are extracted and appended until any of the following occurs:

- \(n\) characters are stored;
- end-of-file occurs on the input sequence;
- \(\text{isspace}(c, \text{is.getloc()})\) is true for the next available input character \(c\).

After the last character (if any) is extracted, \texttt{is.width(0)} is called and the sentry object \(k\) is destroyed.

If the function extracts no characters, it calls \texttt{is.setstate(ios::failbit)}, which may throw \texttt{ios_base::failure} (27.5.4.3).

Returns: \(is\)

\begin{verbatim}
template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_istream<charT, traits>&
getline(basic_istream<charT, traits>& is,
   const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str,
   charT delim);
\end{verbatim}

Effects: Behaves as an unformatted input function (27.7.1.3), except that it does not affect the value returned by subsequent calls to \texttt{basic_istream<>::gcount()}. After constructing a sentry object, if the sentry converts to true, calls \texttt{str.erase()} and then extracts characters from \texttt{is} and appends them to \texttt{str} as if by calling \texttt{str.append(1, c)} until any of the following occurs:

- end-of-file occurs on the input sequence (in which case, the \texttt{getline} function calls \texttt{is.setstate(ios_base::eofbit)}).
- \(\text{traits::eq}(c, \text{delim})\) for the next available input character \(c\) (in which case, \(c\) is extracted but not appended) (27.5.4.3)
- \texttt{str.max_size()} characters are stored (in which case, the function calls \texttt{is.setstate(ios_base::failbit)}) (27.5.4.3)

The conditions are tested in the order shown. In any case, after the last character is extracted, the sentry object \(k\) is destroyed.
If the function extracts no characters, it calls `is.setstate(ios_base::failbit)` which may throw `ios_base::failure` (27.5.4.3).

Returns: `is`.

```cpp
template<class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
basic_istream<charT, traits>&
getline(basic_istream<charT, traits>& is, basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>& str)
```

Returns: `getline(is, str, is.widen('\n'))`

### 21.5 Numeric Conversions

```cpp
int stoi(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
long stol(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
unsigned long stoul(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
long long stoll(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
unsigned long long stoull(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
```

Effects: the first two functions call `strtol(str.c_str(), ptr, base)`, and the last three functions call `strtoul(str.c_str(), ptr, base), strtoll(str.c_str(), ptr, base), and strtoull(str.c_str(), ptr, base)`, respectively. Each function returns the converted result, if any. The argument `ptr` designates a pointer to an object internal to the function that is used to determine what to store at `*idx`. If the function does not throw an exception and `idx` != 0, the function stores in `*idx` the index of the first unconverted element of `str`.

Returns: the converted result.

Throws: `invalid_argument` if `strtol`, `strtoul`, `strtoll`, or `strtoull` reports that no conversion could be performed. Throws `out_of_range` if the converted value is outside the range of representable values for the return type.

```cpp
float stof(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0);
double stod(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0);
long double stold(const string& str, size_t *idx = 0);
```

Effects: the first two functions call `strtod(str.c_str(), ptr)` and the third function calls `strtold(str.c_str(), ptr)`. Each function returns the converted result, if any. The argument `ptr` designates a pointer to an object internal to the function that is used to determine what to store at `*idx`. If the function does not throw an exception and `idx` != 0, the function stores in `*idx` the index of the first unconverted element of `str`.

Returns: the converted result.

Throws: `invalid_argument` if `strtod` or `strtold` reports that no conversion could be performed. Throws `out_of_range` if `strtod` or `strtold` sets `errno` to `ERANGE`.

```cpp
string to_string(long long val);
string to_string(unsigned long long val);
string to_string(long double val);
```


Returns: each function returns a string object holding the character representation of the value of its argument that would be generated by calling sprintf(buf, fmt, val) with a format specifier of "%lld", "%llu", or "%Lf", respectively, where buf designates an internal character buffer of sufficient size.

int stoi(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
long stol(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
unsigned long stoul(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
long long stoll(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);
unsigned long long stoull(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0, int base = 10);

Effects: the first two functions call wcstol(str.c_str(), ptr, base), and the last three functions call wcstoul(str.c_str(), ptr, base), wcstoll(str.c_str(), ptr, base), and wcstoull(str.c_str(), ptr, base), respectively. Each function returns the converted result, if any. The argument ptr designates a pointer to an object internal to the function that is used to determine what to store at *idx. If the function does not throw an exception and idx != 0, the function stores in *idx the index of the first unconverted element of str.

Returns: the converted result.

Throws: invalid_argument if wcstol, wcstoul, wcstoll, or wcstoull reports that no conversion could be performed. Throws out_of_range if the converted value is outside the range of representable values for the return type.

float stof(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0);
double stod(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0);
long double stold(const wstring& str, size_t *idx = 0);

Effects: the first two functions call wcstod(str.c_str(), ptr) and the third function calls wcstold(str.c_str(), ptr). Each function returns the converted result, if any. The argument ptr designates a pointer to an object internal to the function that is used to determine what to store at *idx. If the function does not throw an exception and idx != 0, the function stores in *idx the index of the first unconverted element of str.

Returns: the converted result.

Throws: invalid_argument if wcstod or wcstold reports that no conversion could be performed. Throws out_of_range if wcstod or wcstold sets errno to ERANGE.

wstring to_wstring(long long val);
wstring to_wstring(unsigned long long val);
wstring to_wstring(long double val);

Returns: Each function returns a wstring object holding the character representation of the value of its argument that would be generated by calling swprintf(buf, buffsz, fmt, val) with a format specifier of L"%lld", L"%llu", or L"%Lf", respectively, where buf designates an internal character buffer of sufficient size buffsz.

21.6 Null-terminated sequence utilities [c.strings]

Tables 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, and 74 describe headers <cctype>, <cwctype>, <cstring>, <cwchar>, <cstdlib>, and <uchar>, respectively.

The contents of these headers shall be the same as the Standard C Library headers <ctype.h>, <wctype.h>, <string.h>, <uchar.h>, and <stdlib.h> and the C Unicode TR header <uchar.h>, respectively, with the following modifications:
The headers shall not define the types `char16_t`, `char32_t`, and `wchar_t` (2.12).

The function signature `strchr(const char*, int)` shall be replaced by the two declarations:

```c
const char* strchr(const char* s, int c);
char* strchr( char* s, int c);
```
both of which shall have the same behavior as the original declaration.

The function signature `strpbrk(const char*, const char*)` shall be replaced by the two declarations:

```c
const char* strpbrk(const char* s1, const char* s2);
char* strpbrk( char* s1, const char* s2);
```
both of which shall have the same behavior as the original declaration.

The function signature `strrchr(const char*, int)` shall be replaced by the two declarations:

```c
const char* strrchr(const char* s, int c);
char* strrchr( char* s, int c);
```
both of which shall have the same behavior as the original declaration.

The function signature `strstr(const char*, const char*)` shall be replaced by the two declarations:

```c
const char* strstr(const char* s1, const char* s2);
char* strstr( char* s1, const char* s2);
```
both of which shall have the same behavior as the original declaration.

The function signature `memchr(const void*, int, size_t)` shall be replaced by the two declarations:

```c
const void* memchr(const void* s, int c, size_t n);
void* memchr( void* s, int c, size_t n);
```
both of which shall have the same behavior as the original declaration.

The function signature `wcschr(const wchar_t*, wchar_t)` shall be replaced by the two declarations:

```c
const wchar_t* wcschr(const wchar_t* s, wchar_t c);
wchar_t* wcschr( wchar_t* s, wchar_t c);
```
both of which shall have the same behavior as the original declaration.

The function signature `wcspbrk(const wchar_t*, const wchar_t*)` shall be replaced by the two declarations:

```c
const wchar_t* wcspbrk(const wchar_t* s1, const wchar_t* s2);
wchar_t* wcspbrk( wchar_t* s1, const wchar_t* s2);
```
both of which shall have the same behavior as the original declaration.

The function signature `wcsrchr(const wchar_t*, wchar_t)` shall be replaced by the two declarations:

```c
const wchar_t* wcsrchr(const wchar_t* s, wchar_t c);
wchar_t* wcsrchr( wchar_t* s, wchar_t c);
```
both of which shall have the same behavior as the original declaration.

The function signature `wcsstr(const wchar_t*, const wchar_t*)` shall be replaced by the two declarations:

```c
const wchar_t* wcsstr(const wchar_t* s1, const wchar_t* s2);
wchar_t* wcsstr( wchar_t* s1, const wchar_t* s2);
```
both of which shall have the same behavior as the original declaration.
const wchar_t* wcsstr(const wchar_t* s1, const wchar_t* s2);
 wchar_t* wcsstr( wchar_t* s1, const wchar_t* s2);

both of which shall have the same behavior as the original declaration.

The function signature wmemchr(const wchar_t*, int, size_t) shall be replaced by the two declarations:

const wchar_t* wmemchr(const wchar_t* s, wchar_t c, size_t n);
wchar_t* wmemchr( wchar_t* s, wchar_t c, size_t n);

both of which shall have the same behavior as the original declaration.

The functions strerror and strtok are not required to avoid data races (17.6.4.8).

Calling the functions listed in Table 68 with an mbstate_t* argument of NULL may introduce a data race (17.6.4.8) with other calls to these functions with an mbstate_t* argument of NULL.

Table 68 — Potential mbstate_t data races

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mbrlen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mbtowc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mbsrtowc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mbtowc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wcrtomb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wcsrtomb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wctomb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also: ISO C 7.3, 7.10.7, 7.10.8, and 7.11. Amendment 1 4.4, 4.5, and 4.6.

Table 69 — Header <cctype> synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isalnum</td>
<td>isblank isdigit isprint isupper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tolower</td>
<td>isalpha isgraph ispunct isxdigit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toupper</td>
<td>iscntrl islower isspace</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 70 — Header <cwctype> synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macro:</td>
<td>WEOF &lt;cwctype&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types:</td>
<td>wctrans_t wctype_t wint_t &lt;cwctype&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iswalnum</td>
<td>iswcntrl iswgraph iswpunct iswxdigit towupper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iswalpha</td>
<td>iswctype iswlower iswspace towctrans wctrans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iswblank</td>
<td>iswdigit iswprint iswupper towlower wctype</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

§ 21.6
Table 71 — Header `<cstring>` synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macro:</td>
<td>NULL <code>&lt;cstring&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type:</td>
<td>size_t <code>&lt;cstring&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td>memchr strocat strcspn strncpy strpbrk strxfrm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>memcpy strchr strerror strpbrk strxfrm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>memmove strcoll strncat strspn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>memset strcpu strncmp strstr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 72 — Header `<cwchar>` synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macros:</td>
<td>NULL <code>&lt;cwchar&gt;</code> WCHAR_MAX WCHAR_MIN WEOF <code>&lt;cwchar&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types:</td>
<td>mbstate_t wint_t <code>&lt;cwchar&gt;</code> size_t tm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td>btowc mbrcen vfwscanf wcsncpy wcsstr wcsxfrm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fgetwc mbrtoc wsvscanf wcsncpy wcsstr wctob</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fgetws mbsinit vswprintf wcftime wcstod wmemchr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fputwc mbstowcs vvprintf wcslen wcstof wmemcmp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fwide putwchar wcrtomb wcsncmp wcstol wmemmove</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fwprintf swprintf wcsat wcscpy wcstok wmemcmp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>getwc ungetwc wcscoll wcstombs wcstoull</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 73 — Header `<cstdlib>` synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macros:</td>
<td>MB_CUR_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td>atof mblen strtof strtoul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>atoi mbtowc strtoi strtoul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>atol mbstowcs strtol wcstomb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>atoll strtdol strtol wcstombs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 74 — Header `<cuchar>` synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macros:</td>
<td><strong>STDC_UTF_16</strong> <strong>STDC_UTF_32</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td>mbtouc16 c16rtomb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mbtouc32 c32rtomb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
22 Localization library

22.1 General

1 This Clause describes components that C++ programs may use to encapsulate (and therefore be more portable when confronting) cultural differences. The locale facility includes internationalization support for character classification and string collation, numeric, monetary, and date/time formatting and parsing, and message retrieval.

2 The following subclauses describe components for locales themselves, the standard facets, and facilities from the ISO C library, as summarized in Table 75.

## Table 75 — Localization library summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subclause</th>
<th>Header(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>&lt;locale&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>Standard locale Categories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>Standard code conversion facets &lt;codecvt&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>C library locales &lt;locale&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

22.2 Header <locale> synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    // 22.3.1, locale:
    class locale;
    template <class Facet> const Facet& use_facet(const locale&);
    template <class Facet> bool has_facet(const locale&); throw();

    // 22.3.3, convenience interfaces:
    template <class charT> bool isspace(charT c, const locale& loc);
    template <class charT> bool isprint(charT c, const locale& loc);
    template <class charT> bool iscntrl(charT c, const locale& loc);
    template <class charT> bool isupper(charT c, const locale& loc);
    template <class charT> bool islower(charT c, const locale& loc);
    template <class charT> bool isalpha(charT c, const locale& loc);
    template <class charT> bool isdigit(charT c, const locale& loc);
    template <class charT> bool ispunct(charT c, const locale& loc);
    template <class charT> charT toupper(charT c, const locale& loc);
    template <class charT> charT tolower(charT c, const locale& loc);

    // 22.4.1 and 22.4.1.3, ctype:
    class ctype_base;
    template <class charT> class ctype;

    template <class Codecvt, class Elem = wchar_t> class wstring_convert;
    template <class Codecvt, class Elem = wchar_t, class Tr = char_traits<Elem>> class wbuffer_convert;
}
```

§ 22.2
The header `<locale>` defines classes and declares functions that encapsulate and manipulate the information peculiar to a locale.\(^{237}\)

### 22.3 Locales

#### 22.3.1 Class locale

```cpp
namespace std {
    class locale {
        public:
        // types:
        class facet;
        class id;
        typedef int category; // values assigned here are for exposition only
        static const category none = 0,
    }
}
```

\(^{237}\) In this subclause, the type name `struct tm` is an incomplete type that is defined in `<ctime>`.

§ 22.3.1
collate = 0x010, ctype = 0x020,
monetary = 0x040, numeric = 0x080,
time = 0x100, messages = 0x200,
all = collate | ctype | monetary | numeric | time | messages;

// construct/copy/destroy:
locale() throw();
locale(const locale& other) throw();
explicit locale(const char* std_name);
explicit locale(const string& std_name);
locale(const locale& other, const char* std_name, category);
locale(const locale& other, const string& std_name, category);
template <class Facet> locale(const locale& other, Facet* f);
locale(const locale& other, const locale& one, category);
~locale() throw(); // not virtual
const locale& operator=(const locale& other) throw();
template <class Facet> locale combine(const locale& other) const;

// locale operations:
basic_string<char> name() const;
bool operator==(const locale& other) const;
bool operator!=(const locale& other) const;

template <class charT, class Traits, class Allocator>
bool operator()(const basic_string<charT,Traits,Allocator>& s1,
                const basic_string<charT,Traits,Allocator>& s2) const;

// global locale objects:
static locale global(const locale&);
static const locale& classic();
};

Class locale implements a type-safe polymorphic set of facets, indexed by facet type. In other words, a
facet has a dual role: in one sense, it’s just a class interface; at the same time, it’s an index into a locale’s
set of facets.

Access to the facets of a locale is via two function templates, use_facet<> and has_facet<>.

[Example: An iostream operator<< might be implemented as:]238

template <class charT, class traits>
basic_ostream<charT,traits>&
operator<<(basic_ostream<charT,traits>& s, Date d) {
    typename basic_ostream<charT,traits>::sentry cerberos(s);
    if (cerberos) {
        ios_base::iostate err = ios_base::iostate::goodbit;
        tm tmbuf; d.extract(tmbuf);
        use_facet< time_put<charT,ostreambuf_iterator<charT,traits> > > >(s,
            getloc()).put(s, s, s.fill(), err, &tmbuf, 'x');
        s.setstate(err); // might throw
    }
    return s;
}

238) Notice that, in the call to put, the stream is implicitly converted to an ostreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>.

§ 22.3.1
In the call to use_facet<Facet>(loc), the type argument chooses a facet, making available all members of the named type. If Facet is not present in a locale, it throws the standard exception bad_cast. A C++ program can check if a locale implements a particular facet with the function template has_facet<Facet>(). User-defined facets may be installed in a locale, and used identically as may standard facets (22.4.8).

[Note: All locale semantics are accessed via use_facet<> and has_facet<>, except that:

— A member operator template operator()(const basic_string<C,T,A> &, const basic_string<C,T,A> &) is provided so that a locale may be used as a predicate argument to the standard collections, to collate strings.

— Convenient global interfaces are provided for traditional ctype functions such as isdigit() and isspace(), so that given a locale object loc a C++ program can call isspace(c,loc). (This eases upgrading existing extractors (27.7.1.2).) — end note]

Once a facet reference is obtained from a locale object by calling use_facet<>, that reference remains usable, and the results from member functions of it may be cached and re-used, as long as some locale object refers to that facet.

In successive calls to a locale facet member function on a facet object installed in the same locale, the returned result shall be identical.

A locale constructed from a name string (such as "POSIX"), or from parts of two named locales, has a name; all others do not. Named locales may be compared for equality; an unnamed locale is equal only to (copies of) itself. For an unnamed locale, locale::name() returns the string "*".

Whether there is one global locale object for the entire program or one global locale object per thread is implementation-defined. Implementations are encouraged but not required to provide one global locale object per thread. If there is a single global locale object for the entire program, implementations are not required to avoid data races on it (17.6.4.8).

22.3.1.1 locale types

22.3.1.1.1 Type locale::category

typedef int category;

Valid category values include the locale member bitmask elements collate, ctype, monetary, numeric, time, and messages, each of which represents a single locale category. In addition, locale member bitmask constant none is defined as zero and represents no category. And locale member bitmask constant all is defined such that the expression

(collate | ctype | monetary | numeric | time | messages | all) == all

is true, and represents the union of all categories. Further, the expression (X | Y), where X and Y each represent a single category, represents the union of the two categories.

locale member functions expecting a category argument require one of the category values defined above, or the union of two or more such values. Such a category value identifies a set of locale categories. Each locale category, in turn, identifies a set of locale facets, including at least those shown in Table 76.

For any locale loc either constructed, or returned by locale::classic(), and any facet Facet shown in Table 76, has_facet<Facet>(loc) is true. Each locale member function which takes a locale::category argument operates on the corresponding set of facets.
Table 76 — Locale category facets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Includes facets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>collate</td>
<td>collate&lt;char&gt;, collate&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ctype</td>
<td>ctype&lt;char&gt;, ctype&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>codecvt&lt;char,char,mbstate_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>codecvt&lt;char16_t,char,mbstate_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>codecvt&lt;char32_t,char,mbstate_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>codecvt&lt;wchar_t,char,mbstate_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monetary</td>
<td>money_punct&lt;char&gt;, money_punct&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>money_punct&lt;char,true&gt;, money_punct&lt;wchar_t,true&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>money_get&lt;char&gt;, money_get&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>money_put&lt;char&gt;, money_put&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numeric</td>
<td>numpunct&lt;char&gt;, numpunct&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>num_get&lt;char&gt;, num_get&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>num_put&lt;char&gt;, num_put&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>time_get&lt;char&gt;, time_get&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time_put&lt;char&gt;, time_put&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>messages</td>
<td>messages&lt;char&gt;, messages&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 An implementation is required to provide those specializations for facet templates identified as members of a category, and for those shown in Table 77.

5 The provided implementation of members of facets `num_get<char>` and `num_put<char>` calls `use_facet<F>` (1) only for facet F of types numpunct<charT> and ctype<charT>, and for locale l the value obtained by calling member `getloc()` on the `ios_base&` argument to these functions.

6 In declarations of facets, a template formal parameter with name `InputIterator` or `OutputIterator` indicates the set of all possible specializations on parameters that satisfy the requirements of an Input Iterator or an Output Iterator, respectively (24.2). A template formal parameter with name `C` represents the set of all possible specializations on a parameter that satisfies the requirements for a character on which any of the iostream components can be instantiated. A template formal parameter with name `International` represents the set of all possible specializations on a bool parameter.

22.3.1.1.2 Class `locale::facet` [locale.facet]

```cpp
namespace std {
    class locale::facet {
        protected:
            explicit facet(size_t refs = 0);
            virtual ~facet();
            facet(const facet&) = delete;
            void operator=(const facet&) = delete;
    };
}
```

1 Template parameters in this Clause which are required to be facets are those named `Facet` in declarations. A program that passes a type that is not a facet, or a type that refers to a volatile-qualified facet, as an (explicit or deduced) template parameter to a locale function expecting a facet, is ill-formed. A const-qualified facet is a valid template argument to any locale function that expects a `Facet` template parameter.

2 The `refs` argument to the constructor is used for lifetime management.
Table 77 — Required specializations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Includes facets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>collate</td>
<td>collate_byname&lt;char&gt;, collate_byname&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ctype</td>
<td>ctype_byname&lt;char&gt;, ctype_byname&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>codecvt_byname&lt;char, char, mbstate_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>codecvt_byname&lt;char16_t, char, mbstate_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>codecvt_byname&lt;char32_t, char, mbstate_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>codecvt_byname&lt;wchar_t, char, mbstate_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monetary</td>
<td>moneypunct_byname&lt;char, International&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>moneypunct_byname&lt;wchar_t, International&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>money_get&lt;C, InputIterator&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>money_put&lt;C, OutputIterator&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numeric</td>
<td>numpunct_byname&lt;char&gt;, numpunct_byname&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>num_get&lt;C, InputIterator&gt;, num_put&lt;C, OutputIterator&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>time_get&lt;char, InputIterator&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time_get_byname&lt;char, InputIterator&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time_get&lt;wchar_t, InputIterator&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time_get_byname&lt;wchar_t, InputIterator&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time_put&lt;char, OutputIterator&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time_put_byname&lt;char, OutputIterator&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time_put&lt;wchar_t, OutputIterator&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time_put_byname&lt;wchar_t, OutputIterator&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>messages</td>
<td>messages_byname&lt;char&gt;, messages_byname&lt;wchar_t&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

— For \texttt{refs} == 0, the implementation performs \texttt{delete static_cast<locale::facet*>(f)} (where \texttt{f} is a pointer to the facet) when the last \texttt{locale} object containing the facet is destroyed; for \texttt{refs} == 1, the implementation never destroys the facet.

3 Constructors of all facets defined in this Clause take such an argument and pass it along to their \texttt{facet} base class constructor. All one-argument constructors defined in this Clause are \textit{explicit}, preventing their participation in automatic conversions.

4 For some standard facets a standard “...\_byname” class, derived from it, implements the virtual function semantics equivalent to that facet of the locale constructed by \texttt{locale(const char*)} with the same name. Each such facet provides a constructor that takes a \texttt{const char\*} argument, which names the locale, and a \texttt{refs} argument, which is passed to the base class constructor. Each such facet also provides a constructor that takes a \texttt{string} argument \texttt{str} and a \texttt{refs} argument, which has the same effect as calling the first constructor with the two arguments \texttt{str.c\_str()} and \texttt{refs}. If there is no “...\_byname” version of a facet, the base class implements named locale semantics itself by reference to other facets.

22.3.1.1.3 Class \texttt{locale::id} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{[locale.id]}

```cpp
define std {
  define class locale::id {
    public:
      id();
      void operator=(const id&) = delete;
    id(const id&) = delete;
  };
}
```

§ 22.3.1.1.3 645
The class locale::id provides identification of a locale facet interface, used as an index for lookup and to encapsulate initialization.

[Note: Because facets are used by iostreams, potentially while static constructors are running, their initialization cannot depend on programmed static initialization. One initialization strategy is for locale to initialize each facet’s id member the first time an instance of the facet is installed into a locale. This depends only on static storage being zero before constructors run (3.6.2). — end note]

22.3.1.2 locale constructors and destructor

locale() throw();

1 Default constructor: a snapshot of the current global locale.

2 Effects: Constructs a copy of the argument last passed to locale::global(locale&), if it has been called; else, the resulting facets have virtual function semantics identical to those of locale::classic().

[Note: This constructor is commonly used as the default value for arguments of functions that take a const locale& argument. — end note]

locale(const locale& other) throw();

3 Effects: Constructs a locale which is a copy of other.

const locale& operator=(const locale& other) throw();

4 Effects: Creates a copy of other, replacing the current value.

Returns: *this

explicit locale(const char* std_name);

6 Effects: Constructs a locale using standard C locale names, e.g., "POSIX". The resulting locale implements semantics defined to be associated with that name.

7 Throws: runtime_error if the argument is not valid, or is null.

8 Remarks: The set of valid string argument values is “C”, “”, and any implementation-defined values.

explicit locale(const string& std_name);

9 Effects: The same as locale(std_name.c_str()).

locale(const locale& other, const char* std_name, category);

10 Effects: Constructs a locale as a copy of other except for the facets identified by the category argument, which instead implement the same semantics as locale(std_name).

11 Throws: runtime_error if the argument is not valid, or is null.

12 Remarks: The locale has a name if and only if other has a name.

locale(const locale& other, const string& std_name, category cat);

13 Effects: The same as locale(other, std_name.c_str(), cat).

template <class Facet> locale(const locale& other, Facet* f);

14 Effects: Constructs a locale incorporating all facets from the first argument except that of type Facet, and installs the second argument as the remaining facet. If f is null, the resulting object is a copy of other.

15 Remarks: The resulting locale has no name.
locale(const locale& other, const locale& one, category cats);

Effects: Constructs a locale incorporating all facets from the first argument except those that implement cats, which are instead incorporated from the second argument.

Remarks: The resulting locale has a name if and only if the first two arguments have names.

~locale() throw();

A non-virtual destructor that throws no exceptions.

22.3.1.3 locale members

template <class Facet> locale combine(const locale& other) const;

Effects: Constructs a locale incorporating all facets from *this except for that one facet of other that is identified by Facet.

Returns: The newly created locale.

Throws: runtime_error if has_facet<Facet>(other) is false.

Remarks: The resulting locale has no name.

basic_string<char> name() const;

Returns: The name of *this, if it has one; otherwise, the string "*". If *this has a name, then locale(name().c_str()) is equivalent to *this. Details of the contents of the resulting string are otherwise implementation-defined return value of locale::name.

22.3.1.4 locale operators

bool operator==(const locale& other) const;

Returns: true if both arguments are the same locale, or one is a copy of the other, or each has a name and the names are identical; false otherwise.

bool operator!=(const locale& other) const;

Returns: The result of the expression: !(*this == other).

template <class charT, class Traits, class Allocator>
bool operator()(const basic_string<charT,Traits,Allocator>& s1, const basic_string<charT,Traits,Allocator>& s2) const;

Effects: Compares two strings according to the collate<charT> facet.

Remarks: This member operator template (and therefore locale itself) satisfies requirements for a comparator predicate template argument (Clause 25) applied to strings.

Returns: The result of the following expression:

use_facet< collate<charT> >>(*this).compare
(s1.data(), s1.data()+s1.size(), s2.data(), s2.data()+s2.size()) < 0;

[Example: A vector of strings v can be collated according to collation rules in locale loc simply by (25.4.1, 23.3.6):

std::sort(v.begin(), v.end(), loc);]
22.3.1.5 locale static members

static locale global(const locale& loc);

Sets the global locale to its argument.

Effects: Causes future calls to the constructor locale() to return a copy of the argument. If the argument has a name, does

```cpp
std::setlocale(LC_ALL, loc.name().c_str());
```

otherwise, the effect on the C locale, if any, is implementation-defined. No library function other than locale::global() shall affect the value returned by locale(). [Note: see 22.6 for data race considerations when setlocale is invoked. — end note]

Returns: The previous value of locale().

static const locale& classic();

The "C" locale.

Returns: A locale that implements the classic "C" locale semantics, equivalent to the value locale("C").

Remarks: This locale, its facets, and their member functions, do not change with time.

22.3.2 locale globals

template <class Facet> const Facet& use_facet(const locale& loc);

Requires: Facet is a facet class whose definition contains the public static member id as defined in 22.3.1.1.2.

Returns: a reference to the corresponding facet of loc, if present.

Throws: bad_cast if has_facet<Facet>(loc) is false.

Remarks: The reference returned remains valid at least as long as any copy of loc exists.

template <class Facet> bool has_facet(const locale& loc) throw();

Returns: true if the facet requested is present in loc; otherwise false.

22.3.3 Convenience interfaces

22.3.3.1 Character classification

template <class charT> bool isspace (charT c, const locale& loc);
template <class charT> bool isprint (charT c, const locale& loc);
template <class charT> bool iscntrl (charT c, const locale& loc);
template <class charT> bool isupper (charT c, const locale& loc);
template <class charT> bool islower (charT c, const locale& loc);
template <class charT> bool isalpha (charT c, const locale& loc);
template <class charT> bool isdigit (charT c, const locale& loc);
template <class charT> bool ispunct (charT c, const locale& loc);
template <class charT> bool isxdigit(charT c, const locale& loc);
template <class charT> bool isalnum (charT c, const locale& loc);
template <class charT> bool isgraph (charT c, const locale& loc);

Each of these functions is\texttt{F} returns the result of the expression:

\begin{verbatim}
use_facet< ctype<charT> >(loc).is(ctype_base::\texttt{F}, c)
\end{verbatim}

where \texttt{F} is the \texttt{ctype_base::mask} value corresponding to that function (22.4.1).\footnote{When used in a loop, it is faster to cache the \texttt{ctype<>} facet and use it directly, or use the vector form of \texttt{ctype<>::is}.}

### 22.3.3.2 Conversions

#### 22.3.3.2.1 Character conversions

```cpp
template <class charT> charT toupper(charT c, const locale& loc);
```

\textit{Returns:} \texttt{use_facet<ctype<charT> >(loc).toupper(c)}.

```cpp
template <class charT> charT tolower(charT c, const locale& loc);
```

\textit{Returns:} \texttt{use_facet<ctype<charT> >(loc).tolower(c)}.

### 22.3.3.2.2 String conversions

1. Class template \texttt{wstring_convert} performs conversions between a wide string and a byte string. It lets you specify a code conversion facet (like class template \texttt{codecvt}) to perform the conversions, without affecting any streams or locales. \textit{Example:} Say, for example, you have a code conversion facet called \texttt{codecvt_utf8} that you want to use to output to \texttt{cout} a UTF-8 multibyte sequence corresponding to a wide string, but you don’t want to alter the locale for \texttt{cout}. You can write something like:

```cpp
wstring_convert<codecvt_utf8<wchar_t>> myconv;
std::string mbstring = myconv.to_bytes(L"Hello\n");
std::cout << mbstring;
```

--- end example ---

2. Class template \texttt{wstring_convert} synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<class Codecvt, class Elem = wchar_t, 
            class Wide_alloc = std::allocator<Elem>, 
            class Byte_alloc = std::allocator<char> > class wstring_convert {
        public:
            typedef std::basic_string<char, char_traits<char>, Byte_alloc> byte_string;
            typedef std::basic_string<Elem, char_traits<char>, Wide_alloc> wide_string;
            typedef typename Codecvt::state_type state_type;
            typedef typename wide_string::traits_type::int_type int_type;

            wstring_convert(Codecvt *pcvt = new Codecvt);
            wstring_convert(Codecvt *pcvt, state_type state);
            wstring_convert(const byte_string& byte_err, 
                            const wide_string& wide_err = wide_string());
            ~wstring_convert();

            wide_string from_bytes(char byte);
            wide_string from_bytes(const char *ptr);
            wide_string from_bytes(const byte_string& str);
            wide_string from_bytes(const char *first, const char *last);
        }
    }
}
```

\footnote{When used in a loop, it is faster to cache the \texttt{ctype<>} facet and use it directly, or use the vector form of \texttt{ctype<>::is}.}
byte_string to_bytes(Elem wchar);
byte_string to_bytes(const Elem *wptr);
byte_string to_bytes(const wide_string& wstr);
byte_string to_bytes(const Elem *first, const Elem *last);

size_t converted() const;
state_type state() const;
private:
  byte_string byte_err_string;  // exposition only
  wide_string wide_err_string;  // exposition only
  Codecvt *cvtptr;               // exposition only
  state_type cvtstate;          // exposition only
  size_t cvtcount;              // exposition only
};

The class template describes an object that controls conversions between wide string objects of class `std::basic_string<Elem, char_traits<Elem>, Wide_alloc>` and byte string objects of class `std::basic_string<char, char_traits<char>, Byte_alloc>`. The class template defines the types `wide_string` and `byte_string` as synonyms for these two types. Conversion between a sequence of `Elem` values (stored in a `wide_string` object) and multibyte sequences (stored in a `byte_string` object) is performed by an object of class `Codecvt<Elem, char, std::mbstate_t>`, which meets the requirements of the standard code-conversion facet `std::codecvt<Elem, char, std::mbstate_t>`, which meets the requirements of the standard code-conversion facet `std::codecvt<Elem, char, std::mbstate_t>`.

An object of this class template stores:

- `byte_err_string` — a byte string to display on errors
- `wide_err_string` — a wide string to display on errors
- `cvtptr` — a pointer to the allocated conversion object (which is freed when the `wstring_convert` object is destroyed)
- `cvtstate` — a conversion state object
- `cvtcount` — a conversion count

typedef `std::basic_string<char>` `byte_string`;

The type shall be a synonym for `std::basic_string<char>`

size_t converted() const;

Returns: `cvtcount`.

`wide_string from_bytes(char byte);`
`wide_string from_bytes(const char *ptr);`
`wide_string from_bytes(const byte_string& str);`
`wide_string from_bytes(const char *first, const char *last);`

Effects: The first member function shall convert the single-element sequence `byte` to a wide string. The second member function shall convert the nul-terminated sequence beginning at `ptr` to a wide string. The third member function shall convert the sequence stored in `str` to a wide string. The fourth member function shall convert the sequence defined by the range `[first,last)` to a wide string.

In all cases:
— If the cvtstate object was not constructed with an explicit value, it shall be set to its default value (the initial conversion state) before the conversion begins. Otherwise it shall be left unchanged.

— The number of input elements successfully converted shall be stored in cvtcount.

Returns: If no conversion error occurs, the member function shall return the converted wide string. Otherwise, if the object was constructed with a wide-error string, the member function shall return the wide-error string. Otherwise, the member function throws an object of class std::range_error.

typedef typename wide_string::traits_type::int_type int_type;

The type shall be a synonym for wide_string::traits_type::int_type.

state_type state() const;

returns cvtstate.

typedef typename Codecvt::state_type state_type;

The type shall be a synonym for Codecvt::state_type.

byte_string to_bytes(Elem wchar);
byte_string to_bytes(const Elem *wptr);
byte_string to_bytes(const wide_string& wstr);
byte_string to_bytes(const Elem *first, const Elem *last);

Effects: The first member function shall convert the single-element sequence wchar to a byte string. The second member function shall convert the nul-terminated sequence beginning at wptr to a byte string. The third member function shall convert the sequence stored in wstr to a byte string. The fourth member function shall convert the sequence defined by the range [first, last) to a byte string.

In all cases:
— If the cvtstate object was not constructed with an explicit value, it shall be set to its default value (the initial conversion state) before the conversion begins. Otherwise it shall be left unchanged.

— The number of input elements successfully converted shall be stored in cvtcount.

Returns: If no conversion error occurs, the member function shall return the converted byte string. Otherwise, if the object was constructed with a byte-error string, the member function shall return the byte-error string. Otherwise, the member function shall throw an object of class std::range_error.

typedef std::basic_string<Elem> wide_string;

The type shall be a synonym for std::basic_string<Elem>.

wstring_convert(Codecvt *pcvt = new Codecvt);
wstring_convert(Codecvt *pcvt, state_type state);
wstring_convert(const byte_string& byte_err, const wide_string& wide_err = wide_string());

Effects: The first constructor shall store pcvt in cvtptr and default values in cvtstate, byte_err_string, and wide_err_string. The second constructor shall store pcvt in cvtptr, state in cvtstate, and default values in byte_err_string and wide_err_string; moreover the stored state shall be retained between calls to from_bytes and to_bytes. The third constructor shall store new Codecvt in cvtptr, state_type() in cvtstate, byte_err in byte_err_string, and wide_err in wide_err_string.

~wstring_convert();
Effects: The destructor shall delete `cvtptr`.

22.3.3.2.3 Buffer conversions

Class template `wbuffer_convert` looks like a wide stream buffer, but performs all its I/O through an underlying byte stream buffer that you specify when you construct it. Like class template `wstring_convert`, it lets you specify a code conversion facet to perform the conversions, without affecting any streams or locales.

The class template describes a stream buffer that controls the transmission of elements of type `Elem`, whose character traits are described by the class `Tr`, to and from a byte stream buffer of type `std::streambuf`. Conversion between a sequence of `Elem` values and multibyte sequences is performed by an object of class `Codecvt<Elem, char, std::mbstate_t>`, which shall meet the requirements of the standard code-conversion facet `std::codecvt<Elem, char, std::mbstate_t>`. An object of this class template stores:

- `bufptr` — a pointer to its underlying byte stream buffer
- `cvtptr` — a pointer to the allocated conversion object (which is freed when the `wbuffer_convert` object is destroyed)
- `cvtstate` — a conversion state object

Returns: `cvtstate`.

Returns: `bufptr`.

§ 22.3.3.2.3
std::streambuf *rdbuf(std::streambuf *bytebuf);

Effects: stores bytebuf in bufptr.

Returns: the previous value of bufptr.

typedef typename Codecvt::state_type state_type;

The type shall be a synonym for Codecvt::state_type.

wbuffer_convert(std::streambuf *bytebuf = 0,
    Codecvt *pcvt = new Codecvt, state_type state = state_type());

Effects: The constructor constructs a stream buffer object, initializes bufptr to bytebuf, initializes cvtptr to pcvt, and initializes cvtstate to state.

~wbuffer_convert();

Effects: The destructor shall delete cvtptr.

22.4 Standard locale categories

Each of the standard categories includes a family of facets. Some of these implement formatting or parsing of a datum, for use by standard or users’ iostream operators << and >>, as members put() and get(), respectively. Each such member function takes an ios_base& argument whose members flags(), precision(), and width(), specify the format of the corresponding datum (27.5.2). Those functions which need to use other facets call its member getloc() to retrieve the locale imbued there. Formatting facets use the character argument fill to fill out the specified width where necessary.

The put() members make no provision for error reporting. (Any failures of the OutputIterator argument must be extracted from the returned iterator.) The get() members take an ios_base::iostate& argument whose value they ignore, but set to ios_base::failbit in case of a parse error.

22.4.1 The ctype category

namespace std {
    class ctype_base {
    public:
        typedef T mask;

        // numeric values are for exposition only.
        static const mask space = 1 << 0;
        static const mask print = 1 << 1;
        static const mask cntrl = 1 << 2;
        static const mask upper = 1 << 3;
        static const mask lower = 1 << 4;
        static const mask alpha = 1 << 5;
        static const mask digit = 1 << 6;
        static const mask punct = 1 << 7;
        static const mask xdigit = 1 << 8;
        static const mask alnum = alpha | digit;
        static const mask graph = alnum | punct;
    }
}
The type `mask` is a bitmask type (17.5.2.1.3).

### 22.4.1.1 Class template `ctype`

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT>
    class ctype : public locale::facet, public ctype_base {
public:
    typedef charT char_type;

    explicit ctype(size_t refs = 0);

    bool is(mask m, charT c) const;
    const charT* is(const charT* low, const charT* high, mask* vec) const;
    const charT* scan_is(mask m,
                          const charT* low, const charT* high) const;
    const charT* scan_not(mask m,
                          const charT* low, const charT* high) const;
    charT toupper(charT c) const;
    const charT* toupper(charT* low, const charT* high) const;
    charT tolower(charT c) const;
    const charT* tolower(charT* low, const charT* high) const;
    charT widen(char c) const;
    const char* widen(const char* low, const char* high, charT* dest) const;
    char narrow(charT c, char dfault) const;
    const charT* narrow(const charT* low, const charT* high, charT* dest) const;

    static locale::id id;
}
```

Class `ctype` encapsulates the C library `<cctype>` features. `istream` members are required to use `ctype<>` for character classing during input parsing.

§ 22.4.1.1
The specializations required in Table 76 (22.3.1.1.1), namely `ctype<char>` and `ctype<wchar_t>`, implement character classing appropriate to the implementation’s native character set.

### 22.4.1.1.1 ctype members

#### Returns: do_is(m,c) or do_is(low,high,vec)

```cpp
bool is(mask m, charT c) const;
const charT* is(const charT* low, const charT* high,
    mask* vec) const;
```

#### Returns: do_scan_is(m,low,high)

```cpp
const charT* scan_is(mask m,
    const charT* low, const charT* high) const;
```

#### Returns: do_scan_not(m,low,high)

```cpp
const charT* scan_not(mask m,
    const charT* low, const charT* high) const;
```

#### Returns: do_toupper(c) or do_toupper(low,high)

```cpp
charT toupper(charT c) const;
const charT* toupper(charT* low, const charT* high) const;
```

#### Returns: do_tolower(c) or do_tolower(low,high)

```cpp
charT tolower(charT c) const;
const charT* tolower(charT* low, const charT* high) const;
```

#### Returns: do_widen(c) or do_widen(low,high,to)

```cpp
charT widen(char c) const;
const char* widen(const char* low, const charT* high, charT* to) const;
```

#### Returns: do_narrow(c,dfault) or do_narrow(low,high,dfault,to)

```cpp
charT narrow(charT c, char dfault) const;
const charT* narrow(const charT* low, const charT* high, charT* to) const;
```

### 22.4.1.1.2 ctype virtual functions

#### Returns: The first form returns the result of the expression (M & m) != 0; i.e., true if the character has the characteristics specified. The second form returns high.

```cpp
bool do_is(mask m, charT c) const;
const charT* do_is(const charT* low, const charT* high,
    mask* vec) const;
```

#### Effects: Locates a character in a buffer that conforms to a classification m.

```cpp
const charT* do_scan_is(mask m,
    const charT* low, const charT* high) const;
```
Returns: The smallest pointer \( p \) in the range \([\text{low}, \text{high})\) such that \( \text{is}(m, *p) \) would return \text{true}; otherwise, returns \text{high}.

const charT* do_scan_not(mask m,  
    const charT* low, const charT* high) const;

Effects: Locates a character in a buffer that fails to conform to a classification \( m \).

Returns: The smallest pointer \( p \), if any, in the range \([\text{low}, \text{high})\) such that \( \text{is}(m, *p) \) would return \text{false}; otherwise, returns \text{high}.

charT do_toupper(charT c) const;  
const charT* do_toupper(charT* low, const charT* high) const;

Effects: Converts a character or characters to upper case. The second form replaces each character \(*p\) in the range \([\text{low}, \text{high})\) for which a corresponding upper-case character exists, with that character.

Returns: The first form returns the corresponding upper-case character if it is known to exist, or its argument if not. The second form returns \text{high}.

charT do_tolower(charT c) const;  
const charT* do_tolower(charT* low, const charT* high) const;

Effects: Converts a character or characters to lower case. The second form replaces each character \(*p\) in the range \([\text{low}, \text{high})\) and for which a corresponding lower-case character exists, with that character.

Returns: The first form returns the corresponding lower-case character if it is known to exist, or its argument if not. The second form returns \text{high}.

do_toupper(0)

charT do_widen(char c) const;  
const charT* do_widen(const char* low, const charT* high,  
    charT* dest) const;

Effects: Applies the simplest reasonable transformation from a char value or sequence of char values to the corresponding charT value or values. The only characters for which unique transformations are required are those in the basic source character set (2.3).

For any named ctype category with a ctype<charT> facet \( \text{ctc} \) and valid \( \text{ctype}_\text{base}::\text{mask} \) value \( M \),

\[
\text{ctc}\text{.is}(M, \, c) \mid \mid \text{!is}(M, \, \text{do_widen}(c)) \text{ is \text{true}}.241
\]

The second form transforms each character \(*p\) in the range \([\text{low}, \text{high})\), placing the result in \( \text{dest}[p-\text{low}] \).

Returns: The first form transforms each character \(*p\) in the range \([\text{low}, \text{high})\), placing the result in \( \text{dest}[p-\text{low}] \).

char do_narrow(charT c, char dfault) const;  
const charT* do_narrow(const charT* low, const charT* high,  
    char dfault, charT* dest) const;

Effects: Applies the simplest reasonable transformation from a charT value or sequence of charT values to the corresponding char value or values.

For any character \( c \) in the basic source character set (2.3) the transformation is such that

\[
\text{do_widen}(\text{do_narrow}(c,0)) == c
\]

For any named ctype category with a ctype<char> facet \( \text{ctc} \) however, and \( \text{ctype}_\text{base}::\text{mask} \) value \( M \),

\[
\text{do_widen} \text{ is intended to accept values derived from character literals for conversion to the locale's encoding.}
\]

\[
\text{In other words, the transformed character is not a member of any character classification that \( c \) is not also a member of.}
\]
is true (unless do_narrow returns dfault). In addition, for any digit character c, the expression (do_narrow(c, dfault) - '0') evaluates to the digit value of the character. The second form transforms each character *p in the range [low,high), placing the result (or dfault if no simple transformation is readily available) in dest[p-low].

Returns: The first form returns the transformed value; or dfault if no mapping is readily available. The second form returns high.

22.4.1.2 Class template ctype_byname

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT>
    class ctype_byname : public ctype<charT> {
    public:
        typedef typename ctype<charT>::mask mask;
        explicit ctype_byname(const char*, size_t refs = 0);
        explicit ctype_byname(const string&, size_t refs = 0);
    protected:
        ~ctype_byname();
    }
}
```

22.4.1.3 ctype specializations

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <> class ctype<char>
        : public locale::facet, public ctype_base {
    public:
        typedef char char_type;
        explicit ctype(const mask* tab = 0, bool del = false, size_t refs = 0);

        bool is(mask m, char c) const;
        const char* is(const char* low, const char* high, mask* vec) const;
        const char* scan_is (mask m,
            const char* low, const char* high) const;
        const char* scan_not(mask m,
            const char* low, const char* high) const;

        char toupper(char c) const;
        const char* toupper(char* low, const char* high) const;
        char tolower(char c) const;
        const char* tolower(char* low, const char* high) const;

        char widen(char c) const;
        const char* widen(const char* low, const char* high, char* to) const;
        char narrow(char c, char dfault) const;
        const char* narrow(const char* low, const char* high, char dfault,
            char* to) const;

        static locale::id id;
        static const size_t table_size = implementation-defined;
    }
}
```
const mask* table() const throw();
static const mask* classic_table() throw();

protected:
~ctype();
virtual char do_toupper(char c) const;
virtual const char* do_toupper(char* low, const char* high) const;
virtual char do_tolower(char c) const;
virtual const char* do_tolower(char* low, const char* high) const;
virtual char do_widen(char c) const;
virtual const char* do_widen(char* low, const char* high, char* to) const;
virtual char do_narrow(char c, char dfault) const;
virtual const char* do_narrow(char* low, const char* high, char* dfault, char* to) const;

};

A specialization ctype<char> is provided so that the member functions on type char can be implemented inline.\phantom{1111} The implementation-defined value of member table_size is at least 256.

22.4.1.3.1 ctype<char> destructor

~ctype();

Effects: If the constructor's first argument was nonzero, and its second argument was true, does delete [] table().

22.4.1.3.2 ctype<char> members

In the following member descriptions, for unsigned char values v where v >= table_size, table[v] is assumed to have an implementation-specific value (possibly different for each such value v) without performing the array lookup.

explicit ctype(const mask* tbl = 0, bool del = false, size_t refs = 0);

Precondition: tbl either 0 or an array of at least table_size elements.

Effects: Passes its refs argument to its base class constructor.

bool is(mask m, char c) const;
const char* is(const char* low, const char* high, mask* vec) const;

Effects: The second form, for all *p in the range [low,high), assigns into vec[p-low] the value table[(unsigned char)*p].

Returns: The first form returns table[(unsigned char)c] & m; the second form returns high.

\cite{1111} Only the char (not unsigned char and signed char) form is provided. The specialization is specified in the standard, and not left as an implementation detail, because it affects the derivation interface for ctype<char>.
const char* scan_is(mask m,
const char* low, const char* high) const;

Returns: The smallest p in the range [low,high) such that

\[ \text{table()}[(\text{unsigned char}) *p] \& m \]

is true.

const char* scan_not(mask m,
const char* low, const char* high) const;

Returns: The smallest p in the range [low,high) such that

\[ \text{table()}[(\text{unsigned char}) *p] \& m \]

is false.

char toupper(char c) const;
const char* toupper(char* low, const char* high) const;

Returns: do_toupper(c) or do_toupper(low,high), respectively.

char tolower(char c) const;
const char* tolower(char* low, const char* high) const;

Returns: do_tolower(c) or do_tolower(low,high), respectively.

char widen(char c) const;
const char* widen(const char* low, const char* high, char* to) const;

Returns: do_widen(c) or do_widen(low, high, to), respectively.

char narrow(char c, char dfault) const;
const char* narrow(const char* low, const char* high, char dfault, char* to) const;

Returns: do_narrow(c, dfault) or do_narrow(low, high, dfault, to), respectively.

const mask* table() const throw();

Returns: The first constructor argument, if it was non-zero, otherwise classic_table().

22.4.1.3.3 ctype<char> static members

static const mask* classic_table() throw();

Returns: A pointer to the initial element of an array of size table_size which represents the classifications of characters in the "C" locale.

22.4.1.3.4 ctype<char> virtual functions

char do_toupper(char) const;
const char* do_toupper(char* low, const char* high) const;
char do_tolower(char) const;
const char* do_tolower(char* low, const char* high) const;

virtual char do_widen(char c) const;
virtual const char* do_widen(const char* low,  
const char* high,  
char* to) const;
virtual char do_narrow(char c, char dfault) const;
virtual const char* do_narrow(const char* low,  
const char* high,  
char dfault, char* to) const;

These functions are described identically as those members of the same name in the `ctype` class template (22.4.1.1.1).

### 22.4.1.4 Class template codecvt

```cpp
namespace std {
    class codecvt_base {
    public:
        enum result { ok, partial, error, noconv };
    };

    template <class internT, class externT, class stateT>
    class codecvt : public locale::facet, public codecvt_base {
    public:
        typedef internT intern_type;
        typedef externT extern_type;
        typedef stateT state_type;
        explicit codecvt(size_t refs = 0);

        result out(stateT& state,  
        const internT* from, const internT* from_end, const internT*& from_next,  
        externT* to, externT* to_end, externT*& to_next) const;
        result unshift(stateT& state,  
        externT* to, externT* to_end, externT*& to_next) const;
        result in(stateT& state,  
        const externT* from, const externT* from_end, const externT*& from_next,  
        internT* to, internT* to_end, internT*& to_next) const;
        int encoding() const throw();
        bool always_noconv() const throw();
        int length(stateT&, const externT* from, const externT* end,  
        size_t max) const;
        int max_length() const throw();

        static locale::id id;
    protected:
        "codecvt()";
        virtual result do_out(stateT& state,  
        const internT* from, const internT* from_end, const internT*& from_next,  
        externT* to, externT* to_end, externT*& to_next) const;
        virtual result do_in(stateT& state,  
        const externT* from, const externT* from_end, const externT*& from_next,  
        internT* to, internT* to_end, internT*& to_next) const;
        virtual result do_unshift(stateT& state,  
        externT* to, externT* to_end, externT*& to_next) const;
        virtual int do_encoding() const throw();
        virtual bool do_always_noconv() const throw();
    }
}
```

§ 22.4.1.4
The class `codecvt<internT, externT, stateT>` is for use when converting from one character encoding to another, such as from wide characters to multibyte characters or between wide character encodings such as Unicode and EUC.

The `stateT` argument selects the pair of character encodings being mapped between.

The specializations required in Table 76 (22.3.1.1.1) convert the implementation-defined native character set. `codecvt<char, char, mbstate_t>` implements a degenerate conversion; it does not convert at all. The specialization `codecvt<char16_t, char, mbstate_t>` converts between the UTF-16 and UTF-8 encodings schemes, and the specialization `codecvt<char32_t, char, mbstate_t>` converts between the UTF-32 and UTF-8 encodings schemes. `codecvt<wchar_t, char, mbstate_t>` converts between the native character sets for narrow and wide characters. Specializations on `mbstate_t` perform conversion between encodings known to the library implementor. Other encodings can be converted by specializing on a user-defined `stateT` type. The `stateT` object can contain any state that is useful to communicate to or from the specialized `do_in` or `do_out` members.

### 22.4.1.4.1 `codecvt` members

#### result out

`result out(stateT& state,
    const internT* from, const internT* from_end, const internT*& from_next,
    externT* to, externT* to_end, externT*& to_next) const;`

Returns: `do_out(state, from, from_end, from_next, to, to_end, to_next)`

#### result unshift

`result unshift(stateT& state,
    externT* to, externT* to_end, externT*& to_next) const;`

Returns: `do_unshift(state, to, to_end, to_next)`

#### result in

`result in(stateT& state,
    const externT* from, const externT* from_end, const externT*& from_next,
    internT* to, internT* to_end, internT*& to_next) const;`

Returns: `do_in(state, from, from_end, from_next, to, to_end, to_next)`

#### int encoding() const throw();

Returns: `do_encoding()`

#### bool always_noconv() const throw();

Returns: `do_always_noconv()`

#### int length(stateT& state, const externT* from, const externT* from_end,
    size_t max) const;

Returns: `do_length(state, from, from_end, max)`

#### int max_length() const throw();

Returns: `do_max_length()`
22.4.1.4.2 codecvt virtual functions

result do_out(stateT& state,
const internT* from, const internT* from_end, const internT*& from_next,
externT* to, externT* to_end, externT*& to_next) const;

result do_in(stateT& state,
const externT* from, const externT* from_end, const externT*& from_next,
internT* to, internT* to_end, internT*& to_next) const;

1 Preconditions: (from<=from_end && to<=to_end) well-defined and true; state initialized, if at the beginning of a sequence, or else equal to the result of converting the preceding characters in the sequence.

2 Effects: Translates characters in the source range [from,from_end), placing the results in sequential positions starting at destination to. Converts no more than (from_end-from) source elements, and stores no more than (to_end-to) destination elements.

Stops if it encounters a character it cannot convert. It always leaves the from_next and to_next pointers pointing one beyond the last element successfully converted. If returns noconv, internT and externT are the same type and the converted sequence is identical to the input sequence [from, from_next). to_next is set equal to to, the value of state is unchanged, and there are no changes to the values in [to, to_end).

3 A codecvt facet that is used by basic_filebuf (27.9) shall have the property that if
do_out(state, from, from_end, from_next, to, to_end, to_next)

would return ok, where from != from_end, then
do_out(state, from, from + 1, from_next, to, to_end, to_next)

shall also return ok, and that if
do_in(state, from, from_end, from_next, to, to_end, to_next)

would return ok, where to != to_end, then
do_in(state, from, from_end, from_next, to, to + 1, to_next)

shall also return ok.243 [ Note: As a result of operations on state, it can return ok or partial and set from_next == from and to_next != to. — end note ]

4 Remarks: Its operations on state are unspecified. [ Note: This argument can be used, for example, to maintain shift state, to specify conversion options (such as count only), or to identify a cache of seek offsets. — end note ]

5 Returns: An enumeration value, as summarized in Table 78.

A return value of partial, if (from_next==from_end), indicates that either the destination sequence has not absorbed all the available destination elements, or that additional source elements are needed before another destination element can be produced.

result do_unshift(stateT& state,
externT* to, externT* to_end, externT*& to_next) const;

243 Informally, this means that basic_filebuf assumes that the mappings from internal to external characters is 1 to N: a codecvt facet that is used by basic_filebuf must be able to translate characters one internal character at a time.
Table 78 — do_in/do_out result values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ok</td>
<td>completed the conversion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>partial</td>
<td>not all source characters converted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>error</td>
<td>encountered a character in [from,from_end) that it could not convert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noconv</td>
<td>internT and externT are the same type, and input sequence is identical to converted sequence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Requires: (to <= to_end) well defined and true; state initialized, if at the beginning of a sequence, or else equal to the result of converting the preceding characters in the sequence.

Effects: Places characters starting at to that should be appended to terminate a sequence when the current stateT is given by state. Stores no more than (to_end-to) destination elements, and leaves the to_next pointer pointing one beyond the last element successfully stored.

Returns: An enumeration value, as summarized in Table 79.

Table 79 — do_unshift result values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ok</td>
<td>completed the sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>partial</td>
<td>space for more than to_end-to destination elements was needed to terminate a sequence given the value of state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>error</td>
<td>an unspecified error has occurred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noconv</td>
<td>no termination is needed for this state_type</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

int do_encoding() const throw();

Returns: -1 if the encoding of the externT sequence is state-dependent; else the constant number of externT characters needed to produce an internal character; or 0 if this number is not a constant.

bool do_always_noconv() const throw();

Returns: true if do_in() and do_out() return noconv for all valid argument values. codecvt<char, char, mbstate_t> returns true.

int do_length(stateT& state, const externT* from, const externT* from_end, size_t max) const;

 Preconditions: (from<=from_end) well-defined and true; state initialized, if at the beginning of a sequence, or else equal to the result of converting the preceding characters in the sequence.

Effects: The effect on the state argument is “as if” it called do_in(state, from, from_end, from, to, to+max, to) for to pointing to a buffer of at least max elements.

Returns: (from_next-from) where from_next is the largest value in the range [from,from_end) such that the sequence of values in the range [from,from_next) represents max or fewer valid complete

---

244) Typically these will be characters to return the state to stateT()
245) If encoding() yields -1, then more than max_length() externT elements may be consumed when producing a single internT character, and additional externT elements may appear at the end of a sequence after those that yield the final internT character.

§ 22.4.1.4.2

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characters of type internT. The specialization codecvt<char, char, mbstate_t>, returns the lesser of max and (from_end-from).

int do_max_length() const throw();

Returns: The maximum value that do_length(state, from, from_end, 1) can return for any valid range [from, from_end) and stateT value state. The specialization codecvt<char, char, mbstate_t>::do_max_length() returns 1.

22.4.1.5 Class template codecvt_byname

namespace std {
    template <class internT, class externT, class stateT>
    class codecvt_byname : public codecvt<internT, externT, stateT> {
        public:
            explicit codecvt_byname(const char*, size_t refs = 0);
            explicit codecvt_byname(const string&, size_t refs = 0);
        protected:
            "codecvt_byname();
    };
}

22.4.2 The numeric category

The classes num_get<> and num_put<> handle numeric formatting and parsing. Virtual functions are provided for several numeric types. Implementations may (but are not required to) delegate extraction of smaller types to extractors for larger types.246

All specifications of member functions for num_put and num_get in the subclauses of 22.4.2 only apply to the specializations required in Tables 76 and 77 (22.3.1.1.1), namely num_get<char>, num_get<wchar_t>, num_get<C, InputIterator>, num_put<char>, num_put<wchar_t>, and num_put<C, OutputIterator>. These specializations refer to the ios_base& argument for formatting specifications (22.4), and to its imbued locale for the numpunct<> facet to identify all numeric punctuation preferences, and also for the ctype<> facet to perform character classification.

Extractor and inserter members of the standard iostreams use num_get<> and num_put<> member functions for formatting and parsing numeric values (27.7.1.2.1, 27.7.2.6.1).

22.4.2.1 Class template num_get

namespace std {
    template <class charT, class InputIterator = istreambuf_iterator<charT> >
    class num_get : public locale::facet {
        public:
            typedef charT char_type;
            typedef InputIterator iter_type;

            explicit num_get(size_t refs = 0);

            iter_type get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base&,
                          ios_base::iostate& err, bool& v) const;
            iter_type get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& ,
                          ios_base::iostate& err, long& v) const;

    };
}

246) Parsing "-1" correctly into, e.g., an unsigned short requires that the corresponding member get() at least extract the sign before delegating.
The facet num_get is used to parse numeric values from an input sequence such as an istream.

### 22.4.2.1.1 num_get members

```cpp
iter_type get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str, 
               ios_base::iostate& err, bool& val) const;
iter_type get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str, 
               ios_base::iostate& err, long long& v) const;
iter_type get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str, 
               ios_base::iostate& err, unsigned short& v) const;
iter_type get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str, 
               ios_base::iostate& err, unsigned int& v) const;
iter_type get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str, 
               ios_base::iostate& err, unsigned long& v) const;
iter_type get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str, 
               ios_base::iostate& err, unsigned long long& v) const;
iter_type get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str, 
               ios_base::iostate& err, float& v) const;
iter_type get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str, 
               ios_base::iostate& err, double& v) const;
iter_type get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str, 
               ios_base::iostate& err, long double& v) const;
iter_type get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str, 
               ios_base::iostate& err, void*& v) const;
```
iter_type do_get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, long& val) const;
iter_type do_get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, long long& val) const;
iter_type do_get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, unsigned short& val) const;
iter_type do_get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, unsigned int& val) const;
iter_type do_get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, unsigned long& val) const;
iter_type do_get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, unsigned long long& val) const;
iter_type do_get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, float& val) const;
iter_type do_get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, double& val) const;
iter_type do_get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, long double& val) const;
iter_type do_get(iter_type in, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, void*& val) const;

Returns: do_get(in, end, str, err, val).

22.4.2.1.2 num_get virtual functions

Effects: Reads characters from in, interpreting them according to str.flags(), use_facet<ctype<charT>>(loc), and use_facet<numpunct<charT>>(loc), where loc is str.getloc(). If an error occurs, val is unchanged; otherwise it is set to the resulting value.

The details of this operation occur in three stages

— Stage 1: Determine a conversion specifier

— Stage 2: Extract characters from in and determine a corresponding char value for the format expected by the conversion specification determined in stage 1.

— Stage 3: Store results
The details of the stages are presented below.

**Stage 1:** The function initializes local variables via

```c
fmtflags flags = str.flags();
fmtflags basefield = (flags & ios_base::basefield);
fmtflags uppercase = (flags & ios_base::uppercase);
fmtflags boolalpha = (flags & ios_base::boolalpha);
```

For conversion to an integral type, the function determines the integral conversion specifier as indicated in Table 80. The table is ordered. That is, the first line whose condition is true applies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>stdio equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>basefield == oct</td>
<td>%o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basefield == hex</td>
<td>%X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basefield == 0</td>
<td>%i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>signed integral type</td>
<td>%d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned integral type</td>
<td>%u</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For conversions to a floating type the specifier is %g.

For conversions to void* the specifier is %p.

A length modifier is added to the conversion specification, if needed, as indicated in Table 81.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Length modifier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned short</td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned long</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long long</td>
<td>ll</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned long long</td>
<td>ll</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>double</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long double</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Stage 2:** If `in==end` then stage 2 terminates. Otherwise a `charT` is taken from `in` and local variables are initialized as if by

```c
char_type ct = *in;
char c = src[find(atoms, atoms + sizeof(src) - 1, ct) - atoms];
if (ct == use_facet<numpunct<charT>>(loc).decimal_point())
c = ‘.’;
bool discard =
    ct == use_facet<numpunct<charT>>(loc).thousands_sep() 
    && use_facet<numpunct<charT>>(loc).grouping().length() != 0;
```

where the values `src` and `atoms` are defined as if by:

```c
static const char src[] = "0123456789abcdefxABCDEFX+-";
char_type atoms[sizeof(src)];
use_facet<ctype<charT>>(loc).widen(src, src + sizeof(src), atoms);
```
for this value of \texttt{loc}.

If \texttt{discard} is true, then if "." has not yet been accumulated, then the position of the character is remembered, but the character is otherwise ignored. Otherwise, if "." has already been accumulated, the character is discarded and Stage 2 terminates.

If the character is either discarded or accumulated then \texttt{in} is advanced by ++\texttt{in} and processing returns to the beginning of stage 2.

**Stage 3:** The sequence of \texttt{chars} accumulated in stage 2 (the field) is converted to a numeric value by the rules of one of the functions declared in the header \texttt{<cstdlib>}:

- For a signed integer value, the function \texttt{strtoll}.
- For an unsigned integer value, the function \texttt{strtoull}.
- For a floating-point value, the function \texttt{strtold}.

The numeric value to be stored can be one of:

- zero, if the conversion function fails to convert the entire field. \texttt{ios\_base::failbit} is assigned to \texttt{err}.
- the most positive representable value, if the field represents a value too large positive to be represented in \texttt{val}. \texttt{ios\_base::failbit} is assigned to \texttt{err}.
- the most negative representable value or zero for an unsigned integer type, if the field represents a value too large negative to be represented in \texttt{val}. \texttt{ios\_base::failbit} is assigned to \texttt{err}.
- the converted value, otherwise.

The resultant numeric value is stored in \texttt{val}.

Digit grouping is checked. That is, the positions of discarded separators is examined for consistency with \texttt{use\_facet\langle\texttt{numpunct<charT>}\rangle(loc)\_grouping()}. If they are not consistent then \texttt{ios\_base::failbit} is assigned to \texttt{err}.

In any case, if stage 2 processing was terminated by the test for \texttt{in==end} then \texttt{err \texttt{|=}ios\_base::eofbit} is performed.

\begin{verbatim}
iter\_type do\_get(iter\_type in, iter\_type end, ios\_base\& str,
   ios\_base\::iostate\& err, bool\& val) const;
\end{verbatim}

**Effects:** If \((\texttt{str.flags()&ios\_base::boolalpha})==0\) then input proceeds as it would for a \texttt{long} except that if a value is being stored into \texttt{val}, the value is determined according to the following: If the value to be stored is 0 then \texttt{false} is stored. If the value is 1 then \texttt{true} is stored. Otherwise \texttt{true} is stored and \texttt{ios\_base::failbit} is assigned to \texttt{err}.

Otherwise target sequences are determined “as if” by calling the members \texttt{falsename()} and \texttt{truename()} of the facet obtained by \texttt{use\_facet\langle\texttt{numpunct<charT>}\rangle(str\_getloc())}. Successive characters in the range \([\texttt{in, end})\) (see 23.2.3) are obtained and matched against corresponding positions in the target sequences only as necessary to identify a unique match. The input iterator \texttt{in} is compared to \texttt{end} only when necessary to obtain a character. If a target sequence is uniquely matched, \texttt{val} is set to the corresponding value. Otherwise \texttt{false} is stored and \texttt{ios\_base::failbit} is assigned to \texttt{err}.

The \texttt{in} iterator is always left pointing one position beyond the last character successfully matched. If \texttt{val} is set, then \texttt{err} is set to \texttt{str\_goodbit}; or to \texttt{str\_eofbit} if, when seeking another character to match, it is found that \((\texttt{in == end})\). If \texttt{val} is not set, then \texttt{err} is set to \texttt{str\_failbit}; or to
(str.failbit | str.eofbit) if the reason for the failure was that \( \text{in} == \text{end} \).  

*Example:* For targets 
type: "a" and false: "abb", the input sequence "a" yields \( \text{val} == \text{true} \) and \( \text{err} == \text{str.eofbit} \);
the input sequence "abc" yields \( \text{err} == \text{str.failbit} \), with \text{in} ending at the 'c' element. For targets 
type: "1" and false: "0", the input sequence "1" yields \( \text{val} == \text{true} \) and \( \text{err} == \text{str.goodbit} \).
For empty targets (""), any input sequence yields \( \text{err} == \text{str.failbit} \).  

--- end example

Returns: in.

### 22.4.2.2 Class template num_put

```c++
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class OutputIterator = ostreambuf_iterator<charT> >
    class num_put : public locale::facet {
        typedef charT char_type;
        typedef OutputIterator iter_type;

        explicit num_put(size_t refs = 0);

        iter_type put(iter_type s, ios_base& f, char_type fill, bool v) const;
        iter_type put(iter_type s, ios_base& f, char_type fill, long v) const;
        iter_type put(iter_type s, ios_base& f, char_type fill, long long v) const;
        iter_type put(iter_type s, ios_base& f, char_type fill, unsigned long v) const;
        iter_type put(iter_type s, ios_base& f, char_type fill, unsigned long long v) const;
        iter_type put(iter_type s, ios_base& f, char_type fill, double v) const;
        iter_type put(iter_type s, ios_base& f, char_type fill, long double v) const;
        iter_type put(iter_type s, ios_base& f, char_type fill, const void* v) const;

        static locale::id id;

    protected:
        'num_put();
        virtual iter_type do_put(iter_type, ios_base&, char_type fill, bool v) const;
        virtual iter_type do_put(iter_type, ios_base&, char_type fill, long v) const;
        virtual iter_type do_put(iter_type, ios_base&, char_type fill, long long v) const;
        virtual iter_type do_put(iter_type, ios_base&, char_type fill, unsigned long v) const;
        virtual iter_type do_put(iter_type, ios_base&, char_type fill, unsigned long long v) const;
        virtual iter_type do_put(iter_type, ios_base&, char_type fill, double v) const;
        virtual iter_type do_put(iter_type, ios_base&, char_type fill, long double v) const;
        virtual iter_type do_put(iter_type, ios_base&, char_type fill, const void* v) const;
    };
}
```

§ 22.4.2.2
The facet `num_put` is used to format numeric values to a character sequence such as an ostream.

### 22.4.2.2.1 num_put members

```
iter_type put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, bool val) const;
iter_type put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, long val) const;
iter_type put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, long long val) const;
iter_type put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, unsigned long val) const;
iter_type put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, unsigned long long val) const;
iter_type put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, double val) const;
iter_type put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, long double val) const;
iter_type put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, const void* val) const;
```

Returns: `do_put(out, str, fill, val)`.

### 22.4.2.2.2 num_put virtual functions

```
iter_type do_put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, long val) const;
iter_type do_put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, long long val) const;
iter_type do_put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, unsigned long val) const;
iter_type do_put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, unsigned long long val) const;
iter_type do_put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, double val) const;
iter_type do_put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, long double val) const;
iter_type do_put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, const void* val) const;
```

Effects: Writes characters to the sequence `out`, formatting `val` as desired. In the following description, a local variable initialized with

```c
locale loc = str.getloc();
```

The details of this operation occur in several stages:

- **Stage 1:** Determine a printf conversion specifier `spec` and determining the characters that would be printed by `printf` (27.9.2) given this conversion specifier for

```c
printf(spec, val)
```

assuming that the current locale is the "C" locale.

- **Stage 2:** Adjust the representation by converting each `char` determined by stage 1 to a `charT` using a conversion and values returned by members of `use_facet< numpunct<charT> >(str.getloc())`
— Stage 3: Determine where padding is required.
— Stage 4: Insert the sequence into the out.

Detailed descriptions of each stage follow.

*Returns:* out.

**Stage 1:** The first action of stage 1 is to determine a conversion specifier. The tables that describe this determination use the following local variables:

```c
fmtflags flags = str.flags();
fmtflags basefield = (flags & (ios_base::basefield));
fmtflags uppercase = (flags & (ios_base::uppercase));
fmtflags floatfield = (flags & (ios_base::floatfield));
fmtflags showpos = (flags & (ios_base::showpos));
fmtflags showbase = (flags & (ios_base::showbase));
```

All tables used in describing stage 1 are ordered. That is, the first line whose condition is true applies. A line without a condition is the default behavior when none of the earlier lines apply.

For conversion from an integral type other than a character type, the function determines the integral conversion specifier as indicated in Table 82.

**Table 82 — Integer conversions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>stdio equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>basefield == ios_base::oct</td>
<td>%o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(basefield == ios_base::hex) &amp;&amp; !uppercase</td>
<td>%x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(basefield == ios_base::hex)</td>
<td>%X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for a signed integral type</td>
<td>%d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for an unsigned integral type</td>
<td>%u</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For conversion from a floating-point type, the function determines the floating-point conversion specifier as indicated in Table 83.

**Table 83 — Floating-point conversions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>stdio equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>floatfield == ios_base::fixed</td>
<td>%f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>floatfield == ios_base::scientific &amp; !uppercase</td>
<td>%e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>floatfield == ios_base::scientific</td>
<td>%E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>floatfield == ios_base::fixed</td>
<td>ios_base::scientific &amp; !uppercase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>floatfield == ios_base::fixed</td>
<td>ios_base::scientific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!uppercase</td>
<td>%g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>otherwise</td>
<td>%G</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For conversions from an integral or floating type a length modifier is added to the conversion specifier as indicated in Table 84.

The conversion specifier has the following optional additional qualifiers prepended as indicated in Table 85.
Table 84 — Length modifier

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Length modifier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long long</td>
<td>ll</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned long</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned long long</td>
<td>ll</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long double</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>otherwise</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 85 — Numeric conversions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type(s)</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>stdio equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>an integral type</td>
<td>flags &amp; showpos</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>flags &amp; showbase</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a floating-point type</td>
<td>flags &amp; showpos</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>flags &amp; showpoint</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For conversion from a floating-point type, `str.precision()` is specified in the conversion specification.

For conversion from `void*` the specifier is `%p`.

The representations at the end of stage 1 consists of the char’s that would be printed by a call of `printf(s, val)` where `s` is the conversion specifier determined above.

Stage 2: Any character `c` other than a decimal point(·) is converted to a `charT` via `use_facet<ctype<charT> >(loc).widen( c )`

A local variable `punct` is initialized via

```cpp
const numpunct<charT>& punct = use_facet<numpunct<charT> >(str.getloc());
```

For arithmetic types, `punct.thousands_sep()` characters are inserted into the sequence as determined by the value returned by `punct.do_grouping()` using the method described in 22.4.3.1.2

Decimal point characters(·) are replaced by `punct.decimal_point()`

Stage 3: A local variable is initialized as

```cpp
fmtflags adjustfield= (flags & (ios_base::adjustfield));
```

The location of any padding\(^{247}\) is determined according to Table 86.

If `str.width()` is nonzero and the number of `charT`s in the sequence after stage 2 is less than `str.width()`, then enough `fill` characters are added to the sequence at the position indicated for padding to bring the length of the sequence to `str.width()`.

`str.width(0)` is called.

Stage 4: The sequence of `charT`s at the end of stage 3 are output via

```cpp
*out++ = c
```

\(^{247}\) The conversion specification `#o` generates a leading 0 which is not a padding character.
Table 86 — Fill padding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adjustfield == ios_base::left</td>
<td>pad after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adjustfield == ios_base::right</td>
<td>pad before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adjustfield == internal and a sign occurs in the representation</td>
<td>pad after the sign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adjustfield == internal and representation after stage 1 began with 0x or 0X</td>
<td>pad after x or X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>otherwise</td>
<td>pad before</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

iter_type do_put(iter_type out, ios_base& str, char_type fill, bool val) const;

Returns: If (str.flags() & ios_base::boolalpha) == 0 returns do_put(out, str, fill, (int)val), otherwise obtains a string s as if by

\[
\text{string } s = \begin{cases} 
\text{val ? use_facet<ctype<charT>>}(\text{loc}).\text{truename()} \\
\text{use_facet<ctype<charT>>}(\text{loc}).\text{falsename()}
\end{cases};
\]

and then inserts each character c of s into out via \*out++ = c and returns out.

22.4.3 The numeric punctuation facet

22.4.3.1 Class template numpunct

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT>
    class numpunct : public locale::facet {
        public:
        typedef charT char_type;
        typedef basic_string<charT> string_type;

        explicit numpunct(size_t refs = 0);

        char_type decimal_point() const;
        char_type thousands_sep() const;
        string grouping() const;
        string_type truename() const;
        string_type falsename() const;

        static locale::id id;
    protected:
        `numpunct(); // virtual
        virtual char_type do_decimal_point() const;
        virtual char_type do_thousands_sep() const;
        virtual string do_grouping() const;
        virtual string_type do_truename() const; // for bool
        virtual string_type do_falsename() const; // for bool
    };
}
```

§ 22.4.3.1
numpunct<> specifies numeric punctuation. The specializations required in Table 76 (22.3.1.1.1), namely numpunct< wchar_t> and numpunct< char>, provide classic "C" numeric formats, i.e., they contain information equivalent to that contained in the "C" locale or their wide character counterparts as if obtained by a call to widen.

The syntax for number formats is as follows, where digit represents the radix set specified by the fmtflags argument value, and thousands-sep and decimal-point are the results of corresponding numpunct< charT> members. Integer values have the format:

```
integer ::= [sign] units
sign ::= plusminus
plusminus ::= '+' | '-'
units ::= digits [thousands-sep units]
digits ::= digit [digits]
```

and floating-point values have:

```
floatval ::= [sign] units [decimal-point [digits]] [e [sign] digits] |
          [sign] decimal-point digits [e [sign] digits]
e ::= 'e' | 'E'
```

where the number of digits between thousands-sep is as specified by do_grouping(). For parsing, if the digits portion contains no thousands-separators, no grouping constraint is applied.

**22.4.3.1.1 numpunct members**

```
char_type decimal_point() const;
1
   Returns: do_decimal_point()

char_type thousands_sep() const;
2
   Returns: do_thousands_sep()

string grouping() const;
3
   Returns: do_grouping()

string_type truename() const;

string_type falsename() const;
4
   Returns: do_truename() or do_falsename(), respectively.
```

**22.4.3.1.2 numpunct virtual functions**

```
char_type do_decimal_point() const;
1
   Returns: A character for use as the decimal radix separator. The required specializations return '.' or 'L'.

char_type do_thousands_sep() const;
2
   Returns: A character for use as the digit group separator. The required specializations return ',' or 'L'.

string do_grouping() const;
```
Namespaces

```
namespace std {

enum

enum

```

```cpp

```
The class `collate<charT>` provides features for use in the collation (comparison) and hashing of strings. A locale member function template, `operator()`, uses the collate facet to allow a locale to act directly as the predicate argument for standard algorithms (Clause 25) and containers operating on strings. The specializations required in Table 76 (22.3.1.1.1), namely `collate<char>` and `collate<wchar_t>`, apply lexicographic ordering (25.4.8).

Each function compares a string of characters *p in the range [low,high).*

### 22.4.4.1.1 collate members

- `int compare(const charT* low1, const charT* high1, const charT* low2, const charT* high2) const;`
  - **Returns:** `do_compare(low1, high1, low2, high2)`

- `string_type transform(const charT* low, const charT* high) const;`
  - **Returns:** `do_transform(low, high)`

- `long hash(const charT* low, const charT* high) const;`
  - **Returns:** `do_hash(low, high)`

### 22.4.4.1.2 collate virtual functions

- `int do_compare(const charT* low1, const charT* high1, const charT* low2, const charT* high2) const;`
  - **Returns:** 1 if the first string is greater than the second, -1 if less, zero otherwise. The specializations required in Table 76 (22.3.1.1.1), namely `collate<char>` and `collate<wchar_t>`, implement a lexicographical comparison (25.4.8).

- `string_type do_transform(const charT* low, const charT* high) const;`
  - **Returns:** A `basic_string<charT>` value that, compared lexicographically with the result of calling `transform()` on another string, yields the same result as calling `do_compare()` on the same two strings.

- `long do_hash(const charT* low, const charT* high) const;`
  - **Returns:** An integer value equal to the result of calling `hash()` on any other string for which `do_compare()` returns 0 (equal) when passed the two strings. [*Note:* The probability that the result equals that for another string which does not compare equal should be very small, approaching `(1.0/numeric_limits<unsigned long>::max())`. — *end note*]

### 22.4.4.2 Class template `collatebyname`

- `Class template `collatebyname``

249) This function is useful when one string is being compared to many other strings.
namespace std {
    template <class charT>
    class collate_byname : public collate<charT> {
    public:
        typedef basic_string<charT> string_type;
        explicit collate_byname(const char*, size_t refs = 0);
        explicit collate_byname(const string&, size_t refs = 0);
        protected:
            ~collate_byname();
    }
}

22.4.5 The time category

1 Templates time_get<charT, InputIterator> and time_put<charT, OutputIterator> provide date and time formatting and parsing. All specifications of member functions for time_put and time_get in the subclauses of 22.4.5 only apply to the specializations required in Tables 76 and 77 (22.3.1.1.1). Their members use their ios_base&, ios_base::iostate&, and fill arguments as described in (22.4), and the ctype<> facet, to determine formatting details.

22.4.5.1 Class template time_get

namespace std {
    class time_base {
    public:
        enum dateorder { no_order, dmy, mdy, ymd, ydm };
    }

    template <class charT, class InputIterator = istreambuf_iterator<charT> >
    class time_get : public locale::facet, public time_base {
    public:
        typedef charT char_type;
        typedef InputIterator iter_type;

        explicit time_get(size_t refs = 0);

        dateorder date_order() const { return do_date_order(); }
        iter_type get_time(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& f,
            ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
        iter_type get_date(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& f,
            ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
        iter_type get_weekday(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& f,
            ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
        iter_type get_monthname(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& f,
            ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
        iter_type get_year(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& f,
            ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
        iter_type get(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& f,
            ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t, const char_type *fmt, const char_type *fmtend) const;

        static locale::id id;
    protected:
}

§ 22.4.5.1
time_get();
virtual dateorder do_date_order() const;
virtual iter_type do_get_time(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base&,
ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
virtual iter_type do_get_date(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base&,
ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
virtual iter_type do_get_weekday(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base&,
ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
virtual iter_type do_get_monthname(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base&,
ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
virtual iter_type do_get_year(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base&,
ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
virtual iter_type do_get(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& f,
ios_base::iostate& err, tm *t, char format, char modifier) const;
};

1 time_get is used to parse a character sequence, extracting components of a time or date into a struct tm record. Each get member parses a format as produced by a corresponding format specifier to time_put<>::put. If the sequence being parsed matches the correct format, the corresponding members of the struct tm argument are set to the values used to produce the sequence; otherwise either an error is reported or unspecified values are assigned.\(^\text{250}\)

2 If the end iterator is reached during parsing by any of the get() member functions, the member sets ios_base::eofbit in err.

22.4.5.1.1 time_get members

[locale.time.get.members]
dateorder date_order() const;

1 Returns: do_date_order()

iter_type get_time(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;

1 Returns: do_get_time(s, end, str, err, t)

iter_type get_date(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;

1 Returns: do_get_date(s, end, str, err, t)

iter_type get_weekday(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;

iter_type get_monthname(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;

4 Returns: do_get_weekday(s, end, str, err, t) or do_get_monthname(s, end, str, err, t)

iter_type get_year(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;

5 Returns: do_get_year(s, end, str, err, t)

iter_type get(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& f,
ios_base::iostate& err, tm *t, char format, char modifier = 0) const;

\(^{250}\) In other words, user confirmation is required for reliable parsing of user-entered dates and times, but machine-generated formats can be parsed reliably. This allows parsers to be aggressive about interpreting user variations on standard formats.
Returns: \texttt{do\_get(s, end, f, err, t, format, modifier)}

\begin{verbatim}
iter_type get(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& f,
             ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t, const char_type* fmt, const char_type* fmtend) const;
\end{verbatim}

Requires: \([\text{fmt,fmtend})\) shall be a valid range.

Effects: The function starts by evaluating \(\text{err} = \text{ios_base::goodbit}\). It then enters a loop, reading zero or more characters from \(s\) at each iteration. Unless otherwise specified below, the loop terminates when the first of the following conditions holds:

- The expression \(\text{fmt} == \text{fmtend}\) evaluates to true.
- The expression \(\text{err} == \text{ios_base::goodbit}\) evaluates to false.
- The expression \(s == \text{end}\) evaluates to true, in which case the function evaluates \(\text{err} = \text{ios_base::eofbit} \mid \text{ios_base::failbit}\).
- The next element of \(\text{fmt}\) is equal to '{', optionally followed by a modifier character, followed by a conversion specifier character, \texttt{format}, together forming a conversion specification valid for the ISO/IEC 9945 function \texttt{strptime}. If the number of elements in the range \([\text{fmt,fmtend})\) is not sufficient to unambiguously determine whether the conversion specification is complete and valid, the function evaluates \(\text{err} = \text{ios_base::failbit}\). Otherwise, the function evaluates \(s = \text{do\_get(s, end, f, err, t, format, modifier)}\), where the value of \texttt{modifier} is '\\0' when the optional modifier is absent from the conversion specification. If \(\text{err} == \text{ios_base::goodbit}\) holds after the evaluation of the expression, the function increments \(\text{fmt}\) to point just past the end of the conversion specification and continues looping.

- The expression \(\text{isspace(*fmt, f.getloc())}\) evaluates to true, in which case the function first increments \(\text{fmt}\) until \(\text{fmt} == \text{fmtend} \mid !\text{isspace(*fmt, f.getloc())}\) evaluates to true, then advances \(s\) until \(s == \text{end} \mid !\text{isspace(*s, f.getloc())}\) is true, and finally resumes looping.
- The next character read from \(s\) matches the element pointed to by \(\text{fmt}\) in a case-insensitive comparison, in which case the function evaluates ++\(\text{fmt}\), ++\(s\) and continues looping. Otherwise, the function evaluates \(\text{err} = \text{ios_base::failbit}\).

[Note: The function uses the \texttt{ctype<charT>} facet installed in \(f\)'s locale to determine valid whitespace characters. It is unspecified by what means the function performs case-insensitive comparison or whether multi-character sequences are considered while doing so.]

Returns: \(s\)

### 22.4.5.1.2 time_get virtual functions

#### dateorder do_date_order() const;

Returns: An enumeration value indicating the preferred order of components for those date formats that are composed of day, month, and year.\(^{251}\) Returns \texttt{no\_order} if the date format specified by '{'x' contains other variable components (e.g., Julian day, week number, week day).

#### iter_type do_get_time(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
                          ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;

Effects: Reads characters starting at \(s\) until it has extracted those \texttt{struct tm} members, and remaining format characters, used by \texttt{time\_put<>::put} to produce the format specified by '{'H:'M:'S', or until it encounters an error or end of sequence.

\(^{251}\) This function is intended as a convenience only, for common formats, and may return \texttt{no\_order} in valid locales.

\[\text{§ 22.4.5.1.2} \]
Returns: An iterator pointing immediately beyond the last character recognized as possibly part of a valid time.

```
iter_type do_get_date(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
                     ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
```

**Effects:** Reads characters starting at `s` until it has extracted those `struct tm` members and remaining format characters used by `time_put<>::put` to produce one of the following formats, or until it encounters an error. The format depends on the value returned by `date_order()` as shown in Table 87.

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>date_order()</th>
<th>Format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>no_order</td>
<td>&quot;%m%d%y&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dmy</td>
<td>&quot;%d%m%y&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mdy</td>
<td>&quot;%m%d%y&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ymd</td>
<td>&quot;%y%m%d&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ydm</td>
<td>&quot;%y%d%m&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

An implementation may also accept additional implementation-defined formats.

Returns: An iterator pointing immediately beyond the last character recognized as possibly part of a valid date.

```
iter_type do_get_weekday(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
                         ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
iter_type do_get_monthname(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
                          ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
```

**Effects:** Reads characters starting at `s` until it has extracted the (perhaps abbreviated) name of a weekday or month. If it finds an abbreviation that is followed by characters that could match a full name, it continues reading until it matches the full name or fails. It sets the appropriate `struct tm` member accordingly.

Returns: An iterator pointing immediately beyond the last character recognized as part of a valid name.

```
iter_type do_get_year(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& str,
                      ios_base::iostate& err, tm* t) const;
```

**Effects:** Reads characters starting at `s` until it has extracted an unambiguous year identifier. It is implementation-defined whether two-digit year numbers are accepted, and (if so) what century they are assumed to lie in. Sets the `t->tm_year` member accordingly.

Returns: An iterator pointing immediately beyond the last character recognized as part of a valid year identifier.

```
iter_type do_get(iter_type s, iter_type end, ios_base& f,
                 ios_base::iostate& err, tm *t, char format, char modifier) const;
```

**Requires:** `t` shall be dereferenceable.

**Effects:** The function starts by evaluating `err = ios_base::goodbit`. It then reads characters starting at `s` until it encounters an error, or until it has extracted and assigned those `struct tm` members, and any remaining format characters, corresponding to a conversion directive appropriate for the ISO/IEC 9945 function `strptime`, formed by concatenating `'%'`, the modifier character, when non-NUL, and the `format` character. When the concatenation fails to yield a complete valid directive
the function leaves the object pointed to by \textit{t} unchanged and evaluates \texttt{err} = \texttt{ios\_base::failbit}. When \texttt{s == end} evaluates to true after reading a character the function evaluates \texttt{err} = \texttt{ios\_base::eofbit}.

For complex conversion directives such as \texttt{%c}, \texttt{%x}, or \texttt{%X}, or directives that involve the optional modifiers \texttt{E} or \texttt{O}, when the function is unable to unambiguously determine some or all \texttt{struct tm} members from the input sequence \texttt{[s, end)}, it evaluates \texttt{err} = \texttt{ios\_base::eofbit}. In such cases the values of those \texttt{struct tm} members are unspecified and may be outside their valid range.

\textit{Remark}: It is unspecified whether multiple calls to \texttt{do\_get()} with the address of the same \texttt{struct tm} object will update the current contents of the object or simply overwrite its members. Portable programs must zero out the object before invoking the function.

\textit{Returns}: An iterator pointing immediately beyond the last character recognized as possibly part of a valid input sequence for the given \texttt{format} and \texttt{modifier}.

### 22.4.5.2 Class template \texttt{time\_get\_byname}

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class InputIterator = istreambuf_iterator<charT> >
    class time_get_byname : public time_get<charT, InputIterator> {
    public:
        typedef time_base::dateorder dateorder;
        typedef InputIterator iter_type;

        explicit time_get_byname(const char*, size_t refs = 0);
        explicit time_get_byname(const string&, size_t refs = 0);

        protected:
            ~time_get_byname();
    }
}
```

### 22.4.5.3 Class template \texttt{time\_put}

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class OutputIterator = ostreambuf_iterator<charT> >
    class time_put : public locale::facet {
    public:
        typedef charT char_type;
        typedef OutputIterator iter_type;

        explicit time_put(size_t refs = 0);

        iter_type put(iter_type s, ios_base& f, char_type fill, const tm* tmb,
                      const charT* pattern, const charT* pat_end) const;
        iter_type put(iter_type s, ios_base& f, char_type fill,
                      const tm* tmb, char format, char modifier = 0) const;

        static locale::id id;

        protected:
            ~time_put();
            virtual iter_type do_put(iter_type s, ios_base& f, char_type, const tm* t,
                                      char format, char modifier) const;
    }
}
```
22.4.5.3.1 time_put members

iter_type put(iter_type s, ios_base& str, char_type fill, const tm* t, 
const charT* pattern, const charT* pat_end) const;
iter_type put(iter_type s, ios_base& str, char_type fill, const tm* t, 
char format, char modifier = 0) const;

Effects: The first form steps through the sequence from pattern to pat_end, identifying characters that are part of a format sequence. Each character that is not part of a format sequence is written to s immediately, and each format sequence, as it is identified, results in a call to do_put; thus, format elements and other characters are interleaved in the output in the order in which they appear in the pattern. Format sequences are identified by converting each character c to a char value as if by ct.narrow(c,0), where ct is a reference to ctype<charT> obtained from str.getloc(). The first character of each sequence is equal to '%', followed by an optional modifier character mod and a format specifier character spec as defined for the function strftime. If no modifier character is present, mod is zero. For each valid format sequence identified, calls do_put(s, str, fill, t, spec, mod).

The second form calls do_put(s, str, fill, t, format, modifier).

[Note: The fill argument may be used in the implementation-defined formats or by derivations. A space character is a reasonable default for this argument. — end note]

22.4.5.3.2 time_put virtual functions

iter_type do_put(iter_type s, ios_base& char_type fill, const tm* t, 
char format, char modifier) const;

Effects: Formats the contents of the parameter t into characters placed on the output sequence s. Formatting is controlled by the parameters format and modifier, interpreted identically as the format specifiers in the string argument to the standard library function strftime(). except that the sequence of characters produced for those specifiers that are described as depending on the C locale are instead implementation-defined.

Returns: An iterator pointing immediately after the last character produced. [Note: The fill argument may be used in the implementation-defined formats or by derivations. A space character is a reasonable default for this argument. — end note]

22.4.5.4 Class template time_putbyname

namespace std {
    template <class charT, class OutputIterator = ostreambuf_iterator<charT> >
    class time_putbyname : public time_put<charT, OutputIterator> 
    {
        public:
        typedef charT char_type;

        Although the C programming language defines no modifiers, most vendors do.
        Interpretation of the modifier argument is implementation-defined, but should follow POSIX conventions.
        Implementations are encouraged to refer to other standards (such as POSIX) for these definitions.

§ 22.4.5.4
typedef OutputIterator iter_type;

explicit time_put_byname(const char*, size_t refs = 0);
explicit time_put_byname(const string& , size_t refs = 0);
protected:
~time_put_byname();
};

22.4.6 The monetary category
[category.monetary]

These templates handle monetary formats. A template parameter indicates whether local or international
monetary formats are to be used.

All specifications of member functions for money_put and money_get in the subclauses of 22.4.6 only apply
to the specializations required in Tables 76 and 77 (22.3.1.1.1). Their members use their ios_base&, ios_base::iostate&, and fill arguments as described in (22.4), and the moneypunct<> and ctype<> facets, to
determine formatting details.

22.4.6.1 Class template money_get
[locale.money.get]

namespace std {
    template <class charT,
             class InputIterator = istreambuf_iterator<charT> >
    class money_get : public locale::facet {
        public:
            typedef charT char_type;
            typedef InputIterator iter_type;
            typedef basic_string<charT> string_type;

            explicit money_get(size_t refs = 0);

            iter_type get(iter_type s, iter_type end, bool intl,
                           ios_base& f, ios_base::iostate& err,
                           long double& units) const;
            iter_type get(iter_type s, iter_type end, bool intl,
                           ios_base& f, ios_base::iostate& err,
                           string_type& digits) const;

            static locale::id id;
        
        protected:
            ~money_get();
            virtual iter_type do_get(iter_type, iter_type, bool, ios_base&,
                                      ios_base::iostate& err, long double& units) const;
            virtual iter_type do_get(iter_type, iter_type, bool, ios_base&,
                                      ios_base::iostate& err, string_type& digits) const;
    };
}

22.4.6.1.1 money_get members
[locale.money.get.members]

iter_type get(iter_type s, iter_type end, bool intl,
              ios_base& f, ios_base::iostate& err,
              long double quant) const;

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683
iter_type get(s, iter_type end, bool intl, ios_base&,
    ios_base::iostate& err, string_type& quant) const;

Returns: do_get(s, end, intl, f, err, quant)

22.4.6.1.2 money_get virtual functions

    iter_type do_get(iter_type s, iter_type end, bool intl,
         ios_base& str, ios_base::iostate& err,
         long double& units) const;
    iter_type do_get(iter_type s, iter_type end, bool intl,
         ios_base& str, ios_base::iostate& err,
         string_type& digits) const;

Effects: Reads characters from s to parse and construct a monetary value according to
the format specified by a moneypunct<charT,Intl> facet reference mp and the character mapping
specified by a ctype<charT> facet reference ct obtained from the locale returned by str.getloc(),
and str.flags(). If a valid sequence is recognized, does not change err; otherwise, sets err to
(err|str.failbit), or (err|str.failbit|str.eofbit) if no more characters are available, and
does not change units or digits. Uses the pattern returned by mp.neg_format() to parse all values.
The result is returned as an integral value stored in units or as a sequence of digits possibly preceded
by a minus sign (as produced by ct.widen(c) where c is '−' or in the range from '0' through '9', inclusive)
stored in digits. [Example: The sequence $1,056.23 in a common United States locale would yield,
for units, 105623, or, for digits, "105623". — end example] If mp.grouping() indicates that no thousands separators are permitted, any such characters are not read, and parsing
is terminated at the point where they first appear. Otherwise, thousands separators are optional; if
present, they are checked for correct placement only after all format components have been read.

Where space or none appears in the format pattern, except at the end, optional white space (as
recognized by ct.is) is consumed after any required space. If (str.flags() & str.showbase) is
false, the currency symbol is optional and is consumed only if other characters are needed to complete
the format; otherwise, the currency symbol is required.

If the first character (if any) in the string pos returned by mp.positive_sign() or the string neg
returned by mp.negative_sign() is recognized in the position indicated by sign in the format pattern,
it is consumed and any remaining characters in the string are required after all the other format
components. [Example: If showbase is off, then for a neg value of "()" and a currency symbol of
"L", in "(100 L)" the "L" is consumed; but if neg is "-", the "L" in "-100 L" is not consumed.
— end example] If pos or neg is empty, the sign component is optional, and if no sign is detected, the
result is given the sign that corresponds to the source of the empty string. Otherwise, the character
in the indicated position must match the first character of pos or neg, and the result is given the
corresponding sign. If the first character of pos is equal to the first character of neg, or if both strings
are empty, the result is given a positive sign.

Digits in the numeric monetary component are extracted and placed in digits, or into a character
buffer buf1 for conversion to produce a value for units, in the order in which they appear, preceded
by a minus sign if and only if the result is negative. The value units is produced as if by

for (int i = 0; i < n; ++i)
    buf2[i] = src[find(atoms, atoms+sizeof(src), buf1[i]) - atoms];
buf2[n] = 0;
sscanf(buf2, "%Lf", &units);

255) The semantics here are different from ct.narrow.
where \( n \) is the number of characters placed in \( \text{buf1} \), \( \text{buf2} \) is a character buffer, and the values \( \text{src} \) and \( \text{atoms} \) are defined as if by

\[
\text{static const char src[]} = "0123456789\-";
\text{charT atoms}\[\text{sizeof}(\text{src})\];
\text{ct.widen}(\text{src}, \text{src} + \text{sizeof}(\text{src}) - 1, \text{atoms});
\]

5

\textbf{Returns:} An iterator pointing immediately beyond the last character recognized as part of a valid monetary quantity.

22.4.6.2 Class template \textit{money\_put}

\begin{verbatim}
namespace std {
    template <class charT,
             class OutputIterator = ostreambuf_iterator<charT> >
    class money_put : public locale::facet {
    public:
        typedef charT char_type;
        typedef OutputIterator iter_type;
        typedef basic_string<charT> string_type;

        explicit money_put(size_t refs = 0);

        iter_type put(iter_type s, bool intl, ios_base& f,
                       char_type fill, long double units) const;
        iter_type put(iter_type s, bool intl, ios_base& f,
                       char_type fill, const string_type& digits) const;

        static locale::id id;

    protected:
        "money_put();
        virtual iter_type do_put(iter_type, bool, ios_base&, char_type fill,
                                  long double units) const;
        virtual iter_type do_put(iter_type, bool, ios_base&, char_type fill,
                                  const string_type& digits) const;
    }; // money_put
}
\end{verbatim}

22.4.6.2.1 \textit{money\_put} members

\begin{verbatim}
iter_type put(iter_type s, bool intl, ios_base& f,
              char_type fill, long double quant) const;
iter_type put(iter_type s, bool intl, ios_base& f,
              char_type fill, const string_type& quant) const;
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Returns:} \( \text{do\_put}(s, \text{intl}, f, \text{loc}, \text{quant}) \)

22.4.6.2.2 \textit{money\_put} virtual functions

\begin{verbatim}
iter_type do_put(iter_type s, bool intl, ios_base& str,
                char_type fill, long double units) const;
iter_type do_put(iter_type s, bool intl, ios_base& str,
                char_type fill, const string_type& digits) const;
\end{verbatim}
Effects: Writes characters to s according to the format specified by a `moneypunct<charT,Intl>` facet reference mp and the character mapping specified by a `ctype<charT>` facet reference ct obtained from the locale returned by `str.getloc()` and `str.flags()`. The argument units is transformed into a sequence of wide characters as if by
\[
\text{ct.widen(buf1, buf1 + sprintf(buf1, "%.0Lf", units), buf2)}
\]

for character buffers buf1 and buf2. If the first character in digits or buf2 is equal to `ct.widen('-')`, then the pattern used for formatting is the result of `mp.neg_format()`; otherwise the pattern is the result of `mp.pos_format()`. Digit characters are written, interspersed with any thousands separators and decimal point specified by the format, in the order they appear (after the optional leading minus sign) in digits or buf2. In digits, only the optional leading minus sign and the immediately subsequent digit characters (as classified according to ct) are used; any trailing characters (including digits appearing after a non-digit character) are ignored. Calls `str.width(0)`.

Remarks: The currency symbol is generated if and only if `(str.flags() & str.showbase)` is nonzero. If the number of characters generated for the specified format is less than the value returned by `str.width()` on entry to the function, then copies of fill are inserted as necessary to pad to the specified width. For the value `af` equal to `(str.flags() & str.adjustfield)`, if `(af == str.internal)` is true, the fill characters are placed where none or space appears in the formatting pattern; otherwise if `(af == str.left)` is true, they are placed after the other characters; otherwise, they are placed before the other characters. [Note: It is possible, with some combinations of format patterns and flag values, to produce output that cannot be parsed using `num_get<>::get`. — end note]

Returns: An iterator pointing immediately after the last character produced.

22.4.6.3 Class template moneypunct

```cpp
namespace std {
    class money_base {
    public:
        enum part { none, space, symbol, sign, value };
        struct pattern { char field[4]; }; 
    
    template <class charT, bool International = false>
    class moneypunct : public locale::facet, public money_base {
    public:
        typedef charT char_type;
        typedef basic_string<charT> string_type;

        explicit moneypunct(size_t refs = 0);

        charT decimal_point() const;
        charT thousands_sep() const;
        string grouping() const;
        string_type curr_symbol() const;
        string_type positive_sign() const;
        string_type negative_sign() const;
        int frac_digits() const;
        pattern pos_format() const;
        pattern neg_format() const;

        static locale::id id;
        static const bool intl = International;
    }
}
```
protected:
    "moneypunct();
    virtual charT do_decimal_point() const;
    virtual charT do_thousands_sep() const;
    virtual string do_grouping() const;
    virtual string_type do_curr_symbol() const;
    virtual string_type do_positive_sign() const;
    virtual string_type do_negative_sign() const;
    virtual int do_frac_digits() const;
    virtual pattern do_pos_format() const;
    virtual pattern do_neg_format() const;
};

1 The moneypunct<> facet defines monetary formatting parameters used by money_get<> and money_put<>.
   A monetary format is a sequence of four components, specified by a pattern value p, such that the part value
   static_cast<part>(p.field[i]) determines the ith component of the format. In the field member of a pattern object, each value symbol, sign, value, and either space or none appears exactly once. The value none, if present, is not first; the value space, if present, is neither first nor last.

2 Where none or space appears, white space is permitted in the format, except where none appears at the end, in which case no white space is permitted. The value space indicates that at least one space is required at that position. Where symbol appears, the sequence of characters returned by curr_symbol() is permitted, and can be required. Where sign appears, the first (if any) of the sequence of characters returned by positive_sign() or negative_sign() (respectively as the monetary value is non-negative or negative) is required. Any remaining characters of the sign sequence are required after all other format components. Where value appears, the absolute numeric monetary value is required.

3 The format of the numeric monetary value is a decimal number:

   value ::= units [ decimal-point [ digits ]] |
   decimal-point digits

   if frac_digits() returns a positive value, or

   value ::= units

   otherwise. The symbol decimal-point indicates the character returned by decimal_point(). The other symbols are defined as follows:

   units ::= digits [ thousands-sep units ]
   digits ::= adigit [ digits ]

In the syntax specification, the symbol adigit is any of the values ct.widen(c) for c in the range '0' through '9', inclusive, and ct is a reference of type const ctype<charT>& obtained as described in the definitions of money_get<> and money_put<>.

   The symbol thousands-sep is the character returned by thousands_sep(). The space character used is the value ct.widen(' '). White space characters are those characters c for which ci.is(space,c) returns true. The number of digits required after the decimal point (if any) is exactly the value returned by frac_digits().

4 The placement of thousands-separator characters (if any) is determined by the value returned by grouping(), defined identically as the member numpunct<>::do_grouping().

---

22.4.6.3.1 moneypunct members

[locale.moneypunct.members]

(256) An array of char, rather than an array of part, is specified for pattern::field purely for efficiency.
charT decimal_point() const;
charT thousands_sep() const;
string grouping() const;
string_type curr_symbol() const;
string_type positive_sign() const;
string_type negative_sign() const;
int frac_digits() const;
pattern pos_format() const;
pattern neg_format() const;

1 Each of these functions \( F \) returns the result of calling the corresponding virtual member function \( \text{do}_F() \).

22.4.6.3.2 moneypunct virtual functions

charT do_decimal_point() const;

1 \textit{Returns:} The radix separator to use in case \( \text{do}_\text{frac_digits()} \) is greater than zero.\(^{257}\)

charT do_thousands_sep() const;

2 \textit{Returns:} The digit group separator to use in case \( \text{do}_\text{grouping()} \) specifies a digit grouping pattern.\(^{258}\)

string do_grouping() const;

3 \textit{Returns:} A pattern defined identically as, but not necessarily equal to, the result of \( \text{numpunct<charT>::do}_\text{grouping()} \).\(^{259}\)

string_type do_curr_symbol() const;

4 \textit{Returns:} A string to use as the currency identifier symbol.\(^{260}\)

string_type do_positive_sign() const;

string_type do_negative_sign() const;

5 \textit{Returns:} \( \text{do}_\text{positive_sign()} \) returns the string to use to indicate a positive monetary value;\(^{261}\)
\( \text{do}_\text{negative_sign()} \) returns the string to use to indicate a negative value.

int do_frac_digits() const;

6 \textit{Returns:} The number of digits after the decimal radix separator, if any.\(^{262}\)

pattern do_pos_format() const;

pattern do_neg_format() const;

7 \textit{Returns:} The specializations required in Table 77 (22.3.1.1.1), namely moneypunct<char>, moneypunct<wchar_t>, moneypunct<char,true>, and moneypunct<wchar_t,true>, return an object of type pattern initialized to \{ symbol, sign, none, value \}.\(^{263}\)

22.4.6.4 Class template moneypunct_byname

\(^{257}\) In common U.S. locales this is '.'.\(^{258}\) In common U.S. locales this is ','.
\(^{259}\) To specify grouping by 3s, the value is '"\003" not "3".'\(^{260}\) For international specializations (second template parameter \texttt{true}) this is typically four characters long, usually three letters and a space.
\(^{261}\) This is usually the empty string.
\(^{262}\) In common U.S. locales, this is 2.
\(^{263}\) Note that the international symbol returned by \( \text{do}_\text{curr_sym()} \) usually contains a space, itself; for example, "USD ".

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namespace std {
    template <class charT, bool Intl = false>
    class moneypunct_byname : public moneypunct<charT, Intl> {
    public:
        typedef money_base::pattern pattern;
        typedef basic_string<charT> string_type;

        explicit moneypunct_byname(const char*, size_t refs = 0);
        explicit moneypunct_byname(const string&, size_t refs = 0);
    protected:
        ~moneypunct_byname();
    };
}

22.4.7  The message retrieval category

Class messages<charT> implements retrieval of strings from message catalogs.

22.4.7.1 Class template messages

namespace std {
    class messages_base {
    public:
        typedef int catalog;
    };

    template <class charT>
    class messages : public locale::facet, public messages_base {
    public:
        typedef charT char_type;
        typedef basic_string<charT> string_type;

        explicit messages(size_t refs = 0);

        catalog open(const basic_string<char>& fn, const locale&) const;
        string_type get(catalog c, int set, int msgid, const string_type& dfault) const;
        void close(catalog c) const;

        static locale::id id;
    protected:
        ~messages();
        virtual catalog do_open(const basic_string<char>&, const locale&) const;
        virtual string_type do_get(catalog, int set, int msgid, const string_type& dfault) const;
        virtual void do_close(catalog) const;
    };
}

1 Values of type messages_base::catalog usable as arguments to members get and close can be obtained only by calling member open.

22.4.7.1.1 messages members

catalog open(const basic_string<char>& name, const locale& loc) const;

§ 22.4.7.1.1
22.4.7.1.2 messages virtual functions

catalog do_open(const basic_string<char>& name,  
    const locale& loc) const;

Returns: A value that may be passed to get() to retrieve a message from the message catalog identified by the string name according to an implementation-defined mapping. The result can be used until it is passed to close().

Returns a value less than 0 if no such catalog can be opened.

Remarks: The locale argument loc is used for character set code conversion when retrieving messages, if needed.

string_type do_get(catalog cat, int set, intmsgid,  
    const string_type& dfault) const;

Requires: cat shall be a catalog obtained from open() and not yet closed.

Returns: A message identified by arguments set,msgid, and dfault, according to an implementation-defined mapping. If no such message can be found, returns dfault.

void do_close(catalog cat) const;

Requires: cat shall be a catalog obtained from open() and not yet closed.

Effects: Releases unspecified resources associated with cat.

Remarks: The limit on such resources, if any, is implementation-defined.

22.4.7.2 Class template messages_byname

namespace std {
    template <class charT>  
    class messages_byname : public messages<charT> {
    public:
        typedef messages_base::catalog catalog;
        typedef basic_string<charT> string_type;

        explicit messages_byname(const char*, size_t refs = 0);
        explicit messages_byname(const string&, size_t refs = 0);
    protected:
        "messages_byname();"
    };
};
22.4.8 Program-defined facets

1 A C++ program may define facets to be added to a locale and used identically as the built-in facets. To create a new facet interface, C++ programs simply derive from `locale::facet` a class containing a static member: `static locale::id id`.

2 [Note: The locale member function templates verify its type and storage class. — end note]

3 [Note: This paragraph is intentionally empty. — end note]

4 [Example: Traditional global localization is still easy:

```cpp
#include <iostream>
#include <locale>

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    using namespace std;
    locale::global(locale("")); // set the global locale
    cin.imbue(locale());        // imbue it on all the std streams
    cout.imbue(locale());
    cerr.imbue(locale());
    wcin.imbue(locale());
    wcout.imbue(locale());
    wcerr.imbue(locale());

    return MyObject(argc, argv).doit();
}

— end example]

5 [Example: Greater flexibility is possible:

```cpp
#include <iostream>
#include <locale>

int main() {
    using namespace std;
    cin.imbue(locale(""));        // the user’s preferred locale
    cout.imbue(locale::classic());
    double f;
    while (cin >> f) cout << f << endl;
    return (cin.fail() != 0);
}

— end example]

6 This can be important even for simple programs, which may need to write a data file in a fixed format, regardless of a user’s preference.

7 [Example: Here is an example of the use of locales in a library interface.

```cpp
// file: Date.h
#include <iosfwd>
#include <string>
#include <locale>

class Date {
public:
    Date(unsigned day, unsigned month, unsigned year);

§ 22.4.8
std::string asString(const std::locale& = std::locale());
}

std::istream& operator>>(std::istream& s, Date& d);
std::ostream& operator<<(std::ostream& s, Date d);

This example illustrates two architectural uses of class `locale`.

The first is as a default argument in `Date::asString()`, where the default is the global (presumably user-preferred) locale.

The second is in the operators `<<` and `>>`, where a locale “hitchhikes” on another object, in this case a stream, to the point where it is needed.

// file: Date.C
#include "Date"   // includes <ctime>
#include <sstream>
std::string Date::asString(const std::locale& l) {
    using namespace std;
    ostringstream s; s.imbue(l);
    s << *this; return s.str();
}

std::istream& operator>>(std::istream& s, Date& d) {
    using namespace std;
    istream::sentry cerberos(s);
    if (cerberos) {
        ios_base::iostate err = goodbit;
        struct tm t;
        use_facet< time_get<char> >(s.getloc()).get_date(s, 0, s, err, &t);
        if (!err) d = Date(t.tm_day, t.tm_mon + 1, t.tm_year + 1900);
        s.setstate(err);
    }
    return s;
}

— end example ]

A locale object may be extended with a new facet simply by constructing it with an instance of a class derived from `locale::facet`. The only member a C++ program must define is the static member `id`, which identifies your class interface as a new facet.

[ Example: Classifying Japanese characters:

// file: <jctype>
#include <locale>
namespace My {
    using namespace std;
    class Jctype : public locale::facet {
        public:
            static locale::id id;   // required for use as a new locale facet
            bool is_kanji (wchar_t c) const;
            Jctype() { }
        protected:
            ~Jctype() { }
    };
}

§ 22.4.8


```cpp
// file: filt.C
#include <iostream>
#include <locale>
#include "jctype" // above
std::locale::id My::JCTYPE::id; // the static JCTYPE member declared above.

int main() {
    using namespace std;
    typedef ctype<wchar_t> wctype;
    locale loc(locale(""), // the user's preferred locale ...
               new My::JCTYPE); // and a new feature ...
    wchar_t c = use_facet<wctype>(loc).widen('!');
    if (!use_facet<My::JCTYPE>(loc).is_kanji(c))
        cout << "no it isn't!" << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

The new facet is used exactly like the built-in facets. — end example]

[Example: Replacing an existing facet is even easier. Here we do not define a member id because we are reusing the numpunct<charT> facet interface:

```cpp
// file: my_bool.C
#include <iostream>
#include <locale>
#include <string>
namespace My {
    using namespace std;
    typedef numpunct_byname<char> cnumpunct;
    class BoolNames : public cnumpunct {
        protected:
            string do_truename() const { return "Oui Oui!"; }
            string do_falsename() const { return "Mais Non!"; }
            "BoolNames() { }
        public:
            BoolNames(const char* name) : cnumpunct(name) { }
    };
}

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
    using namespace std;
    // make the user's preferred locale, except for...
    locale loc(locale(""), new My::BoolNames(""));
    cout.imbue(loc);
    cout << boolalpha << "Any arguments today? " << (argc > 1) << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

— end example]

## 22.5 Standard code conversion facets

The header <codecvt> provides code conversion facets for various character encodings.

Header <codecvt> synopsis

§ 22.5
namespace std {
    enum codecvt_mode {
        consume_header = 4,
        generate_header = 2,
        little_endian = 1
    };

    template<class Elem, unsigned long Maxcode = 0x10ffff, codecvt_mode Mode = (codecvt_mode)0>
    class codecvt_utf8
        : public codecvt<Elem, char, mbstate_t> {
            // unspecified
        };

    template<class Elem, unsigned long Maxcode = 0x10ffff, codecvt_mode Mode = (codecvt_mode)0>
    class codecvt_utf16
        : public codecvt<Elem, char, mbstate_t> {
            // unspecified
        };

    template<class Elem, unsigned long Maxcode = 0x10ffff, codecvt_mode Mode = (codecvt_mode)0>
    class codecvt_utf8_utf16
        : public codecvt<Elem, char, mbstate_t> {
            // unspecified
        }
};

3 For each of the three code conversion facets codecvt_utf8, codecvt_utf16, and codecvt_utf8_utf16:
   — Elem is the wide-character type, such as wchar_t, char16_t, or char32_t.
   — Maxcode is the largest wide-character code that the facet will read or write without reporting a con-
     version error.
   — If (Mode & consume_header), the facet shall consume an initial header sequence, if present, when
     reading a multibyte sequence to determine the endianness of the subsequent multibyte sequence to be
     read.
   — If (Mode & generate_header), the facet shall generate an initial header sequence when writing a
     multibyte sequence to advertise the endianness of the subsequent multibyte sequence to be written.
   — If (Mode & little_endian), the facet shall generate a multibyte sequence in little-endian order, as
     opposed to the default big-endian order.

4 For the facet codecvt_utf8:
   — The facet shall convert between UTF-8 multibyte sequences and UCS2 or UCS4 (depending on the
     size of Elem) within the program.
   — Endianness shall not affect how multibyte sequences are read or written.
   — The multibyte sequences may be written as either a text or a binary file.

5 For the facet codecvt_utf16:
— The facet shall convert between UTF-16 multibyte sequences and UCS2 or UCS4 (depending on the size of Elem) within the program.
— Multibyte sequences shall be read or written according to the Mode flag, as set out above.
— The multibyte sequences may be written only as a binary file. Attempting to write to a text file produces undefined behavior.

6 For the facet codecvt_utf8_utf16:
— The facet shall convert between UTF-8 multibyte sequences and UTF-16 (one or two 16-bit codes) within the program.
— Endianness shall not affect how multibyte sequences are read or written.
— The multibyte sequences may be written as either a text or a binary file.

See also: ISO/IEC 10646-1:1993.

22.6 C Library Locales

1 Table 88 describes header <clocale>.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macros</td>
<td>LC_ALL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LC_COLLATE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LC_CTYPE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LC_MONETARY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LC_NUMERIC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LC_TIME</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NULL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Struct</td>
<td>lconv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions</td>
<td>localeconv setlocale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 The contents are the same as the Standard C library header <locale.h>.

3 Calls to the function setlocale may introduce a data race (17.6.4.8) with other calls to setlocale or with calls to the functions listed in Table 89.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fprintf</td>
<td>isprint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iswctype</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>localeconv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tolower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fscanf</td>
<td>ispunct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iswgraph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mbstowcs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>towlower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isalnum</td>
<td>isspace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iswspace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mbtowc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>towupper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isalpha</td>
<td>isupper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iswprint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>setlocale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wcscoll</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isblank</td>
<td>iscntrl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iswalnum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iswspace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>strcoll</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wcstod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isdigit</td>
<td>isgraph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iswblank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>isxdigit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>strtol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wcxfm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>islower</td>
<td>iswcntrl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also: ISO C Clause 7.4.
23 Containers library

23.1 General

This Clause describes components that C++ programs may use to organize collections of information.

The following subclauses describe container requirements, and components for sequence containers and associative containers, as summarized in Table 90.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subclause</th>
<th>Header(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23.2 Requirements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.3 Sequence containers</td>
<td>&lt;array&gt;, &lt;deque&gt;, &lt;list&gt;, &lt;queue&gt;, &lt;stack&gt;, &lt;vector&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.4 Associative containers</td>
<td>&lt;map&gt;, &lt;set&gt;, &lt;bitset&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.3.7 bitset</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.5 Unordered associative containers</td>
<td>&lt;unordered_map&gt;, &lt;unordered_set&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23.2 Container requirements

23.2.1 General container requirements

Containers are objects that store other objects. They control allocation and deallocation of these objects through constructors, destructors, insert and erase operations.

All of the complexity requirements in this Clause are stated solely in terms of the number of operations on the contained objects. [Example: the copy constructor of type vector <vector<int>> has linear complexity, even though the complexity of copying each contained vector<int> is itself linear. — end example]

For the components affected by this subclause that declare an allocator_type, objects stored in these components shall be constructed using the allocator_traits<allocator_traits<allocator_traits<allocator_type>::construct function and destroyed using the allocator_traits<allocator_traits<allocator_type>::destroy function (20.8.7.2). These functions are called only for the container’s element type, not for internal types used by the container. [Note: this means, for example, that a node-based container might need to construct nodes containing aligned buffers and call construct to place the element into the buffer. — end note]

Objects stored in these components shall be constructed using construct_element (20.8.12) unless otherwise specified. For each operation that inserts an element of type T into a container (insert, push_back, push_front, emplace, etc.) with arguments arg... T shall be ConstructibleAsElement, as described in table ???. [Note: If the component is instantiated with a scoped allocator of type A (i.e., an allocator for which is_scoped_all then construct_element may pass an inner allocator argument to T’s constructor. — end note]

§ 23.2.1

696
In table `ConstructibleAsElement`, `T` denotes an object type, `A` denotes an allocator, `I` denotes an allocator of type `A::inner_allocator_type` (if any), and `Arg` denotes a template parameter pack.

`ConstructibleAsElement` table removed.

4 In Tables 91 and 92, `X` denotes a container class containing objects of type `T`, `a` and `b` denote values of type `X`, `u` denotes an identifier, `r` denotes an lvalue or a const rvalue of type `X`, and `rv` denotes a non-const rvalue of type `X`.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Operational semantics</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>X::value_type</code></td>
<td><code>T</code></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::reference</code></td>
<td>lvalue of <code>T</code></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::const_reference</code></td>
<td>const lvalue of <code>T</code></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::iterator</code></td>
<td>iterator type whose value type is <code>T</code></td>
<td>any iterator category except output iterator. convertible to <code>X::const_iterator</code>.</td>
<td></td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::const_iterator</code></td>
<td>constant iterator type whose value type is <code>T</code></td>
<td>any iterator category except output iterator</td>
<td></td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::difference_type</code></td>
<td>signed integral type</td>
<td>is identical to the difference type of <code>X::iterator</code> and <code>X::const_iterator</code></td>
<td></td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X::size_type</code></td>
<td>unsigned integral type</td>
<td><code>size_type</code> can represent any non-negative value of <code>difference_type</code></td>
<td></td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X u;</code></td>
<td>post: <code>u.size() == 0</code></td>
<td></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X();</code></td>
<td><code>X().size() == 0</code></td>
<td></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X(a);</code></td>
<td><code>Requires:T is CopyConstructible. post: a == X(a).</code></td>
<td></td>
<td>linear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X u(a);</code></td>
<td><code>Requires:T is CopyConstructible. post: u == a</code></td>
<td></td>
<td>linear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X u = a;</code></td>
<td><code>Requires:T is MoveConstructible. post: u shall be equal to the value that </code>rv<code> had before this construction</code></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Note B)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X u(rv);</code></td>
<td><code>Requires:T is MoveConstructible. post: u shall be equal to the value that </code>rv<code> had before this construction</code></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>X u = rv;</code></td>
<td><code>Requires:T</code></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

§ 23.2.1
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Operational semantics</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>a = rv;</code></td>
<td><code>X&amp;</code></td>
<td>All existing elements of <code>a</code> are either move assigned or destroyed</td>
<td><code>a</code> shall be equal to the value that <code>rv</code> had before this assignment</td>
<td>linear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>(a)-&gt;~X();</code></td>
<td>void</td>
<td>note: the destructor is applied to every element of <code>a</code>; all the memory is deallocated.</td>
<td>linear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.begin();</code></td>
<td><code>iterator;</code></td>
<td><code>const_iterator</code> for constant <code>a</code></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.end();</code></td>
<td><code>iterator;</code></td>
<td><code>const_iterator</code> for constant <code>a</code></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.cbegin();</code></td>
<td><code>const_iterator</code></td>
<td><code>const_cast&lt;X const&amp;&gt;(a).begin();</code></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.cend();</code></td>
<td><code>const_iterator</code></td>
<td><code>const_cast&lt;X const&amp;&gt;(a).end();</code></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a == b</code></td>
<td>convertible to <code>bool</code></td>
<td>== is an equivalence relation. <code>a.size() == b.size() &amp;&amp; equal(a.begin(), a.end(), b.begin())</code></td>
<td>linear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a != b</code></td>
<td>convertible to <code>bool</code></td>
<td>Equivalent to: <code>!(a == b)</code></td>
<td>linear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.swap(b);</code></td>
<td>void</td>
<td><code>swap(a, b)</code> exchanges the contents of <code>a</code> and <code>b</code></td>
<td>(Note A)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>r = a</code></td>
<td><code>X&amp;</code></td>
<td><code>post: r == a.</code></td>
<td>linear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.size()</code></td>
<td><code>size_type</code></td>
<td><code>a.end() - a.begin()</code></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.max_size()</code></td>
<td><code>size_type</code></td>
<td><code>size() of the largest possible container</code></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.empty()</code></td>
<td>convertible to <code>bool</code></td>
<td><code>a.size() == 0</code></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a &lt; b</code></td>
<td>convertible to <code>bool</code></td>
<td>lexicographical compare <code>a.begin(), a.end(), b.begin(), b.end()</code></td>
<td><code>pre: &lt;</code> is defined for values of <code>T</code>. <code>&lt;</code> is a total ordering relationship.</td>
<td>linear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 91 — Container requirements (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Operational semantics</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a &gt; b</td>
<td>convertible to bool</td>
<td>b &lt; a</td>
<td>linear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a &lt;= b</td>
<td>convertible to bool</td>
<td>!(a &gt; b)</td>
<td>linear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a &gt;= b</td>
<td>convertible to bool</td>
<td>!(a &lt; b)</td>
<td>linear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: the algorithms `swap()`, `equal()` and `lexicographical_compare()` are defined in Clause 25. Those entries marked “(Note A)” or “(Note B)” should have constant complexity. Those entries marked “(Note B)” have constant complexity unless `Allocator<allocator_type>::select_for_move_construction` returns an allocator different from `rv.get_allocator()`, in which case they have linear complexity.

5 The member function `size()` returns the number of elements in the container. The number of elements is defined by the rules of constructors, inserts, and erases.

6 `begin()` returns an iterator referring to the first element in the container. `end()` returns an iterator which is the past-the-end value for the container. If the container is empty, then `begin() == end()`.

7 In the expressions

   i == j
   i != j
   i < j
   i <= j
   i > j
   i >= j
   i - j

where `i` and `j` denote objects of a container’s `iterator` type, either or both may be replaced by an object of the container’s `const_iterator` type referring to the same element with no change in semantics.

8 Unless otherwise specified, all containers defined in this clause obtain memory using an allocator (see 20.2.2). Copy and move constructors for these container types obtain an allocator by calling `Allocator<allocator_type>::select_for_move_construction` on their respective first parameters. Move constructors obtain an allocator by move construction of the allocator belonging to the container being moved. Such move construction of the allocator shall not exit via an exception. All other constructors for these container types take an `Allocator&` argument (20.2.2), an allocator whose value type is the same as the container’s value type. [Note: if an invocation of a constructor uses the default value of an optional allocator argument, then the `Allocator` type must support value initialization. — end note] A copy of this argument is used for any memory allocation performed, by these constructors and by all member functions, during the lifetime of each container object or until the allocator is replaced. The allocator may be replaced only via assignment or `swap()`. Allocator replacement is performed by calling `Allocator<allocator_type>::do_on_container_copy_assignment`, `Allocator<allocator_type>::do_on_container_move_assignment`, `Allocator<allocator_type>::do_on_swap_copy_assignment`, move assignment, or swapping of the allocator only if `allocator_traits<allocator_type>::propagate_on_container_move_assignment::value` or `allocator_traits<allocator_type>::propagate_on_container_swap::value` is true within the implementation of the corresponding container operation. The behavior of a call to a container’s `swap` function is undefined unless the objects being swapped have allocators that compare equal or `allocator_traits<allocator_type>::propagate_on_container_swap::value` is true. Calling the
preceding Allocator functions may or may not modify the allocator, depending on the implementation of those functions for the specific allocator type. In all container types defined in this Clause, the member get_allocator() returns a copy of the allocator used to construct the container or, if that allocator has been replaced, a copy of the most recent replacement.

9 If the iterator type of a container belongs to the bidirectional or random access iterator categories (24.2), the container is called reversible and satisfies the additional requirements in Table 92.

Table 92 — Reversible container requirements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X::reverse_iterator</td>
<td>iterator type whose value type is T</td>
<td>reverse_iterator&lt;iterator&gt;</td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::const_reverse_iterator</td>
<td>iterator type whose value type is const T</td>
<td>reverse_iterator&lt;const_iterator&gt;</td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.rbegin()</td>
<td>reverse_iterator; const_reverse_iterator for constant a</td>
<td>reverse_iterator(end())</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.rend()</td>
<td>reverse_iterator; const_reverse_iterator for constant a</td>
<td>reverse_iterator(begin())</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.crbegin();</td>
<td>const_reverse_iterator</td>
<td>const_cast&lt;X const&amp;&gt;(a).rbegin();</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.crend();</td>
<td>const_reverse_iterator</td>
<td>const_cast&lt;X const&amp;&gt;(a).rend();</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10 Unless otherwise specified (see 23.2.4.1, 23.2.5.1, 23.3.2.3, and 23.3.6.4) all container types defined in this Clause meet the following additional requirements:

— if an exception is thrown by an insert() function while inserting a single element, that function has no effects.
— if an exception is thrown by a push_back() or push_front() function, that function has no effects.
— no erase(), pop_back() or pop_front() function throws an exception.
— no copy constructor or assignment operator of a returned iterator throws an exception.
— no swap() function throws an exception. [Note: the end() iterator does not refer to any element, so it may be invalidated. — end note]
— no swap() function invalidates any references, pointers, or iterators referring to the elements of the containers being swapped.

11 Unless otherwise specified (either explicitly or by defining a function in terms of other functions), invoking a container member function or passing a container as an argument to a library function shall not invalidate iterators to, or change the values of, objects within that container.

12 An object bound to an rvalue reference parameter of a member function of a container shall not be an element of that container; no diagnostic required.

13 All of the containers defined in this Clause and in Clause (21.4) except array meet the additional requirements of an allocator-aware container, as described in Table 93.

§ 23.2.1
In Table 93, \( X \) denotes an allocator-aware container class with a `value_type` of \( T \) using allocator of type \( A \), \( u \) denotes a variable, \( t \) denotes an lvalue or a const rvalue of type \( X \), \( rv \) denotes a non-const rvalue of type \( X \), \( m \) is a value of type \( A \), and \( Q \) is an allocator type.

### Table 93 — Allocator-aware container requirements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>allocator_</code>( A ) type</td>
<td><code>Requires: allocator_</code>( A ) type::<code>value_type</code> is the same as ( X::value_type ).</td>
<td>compile time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>get_</code>( A ) allocator()</td>
<td><code>Requires: A</code> is <code>DefaultConstructible</code></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( X() )</td>
<td>( X u; ) post: <code>u.size() == 0</code>, <code>get_allocator() == A()</code></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( X(m) ) ( X u(m); ) post: <code>u.size() == 0</code>, <code>get_allocator() == m</code></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( X(t, m) ) ( X u(t, m); ) ( Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;( A, T, T )&gt; )</td>
<td>linear</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( X(rv) ) ( X u(rv) ) <code>Requires: move construction of \( A \) shall not exit via an exception.</code> ( post: u<code>shall have the same elements as</code>rv<code>had before this construction; the value of</code>get_allocator()<code>shall be the same as the value of</code>rv.get_allocator()<code> before this construction.</code></td>
<td>constant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( X(rv, m) ) <code>Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;\( A, T, T\&amp;\)\&gt;</code> ( X u(rv, m); ) post: <code>u</code> shall be equal to the value ( rv ) had before this construction, <code>get_allocator() == m</code></td>
<td>constant if ( m == rv.get_`-allocator(); otherwise linear</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 23.2.2 Container data races

For purposes of avoiding data races (17.6.4.8), implementations shall consider the following functions to be `const`: `begin`, `end`, `rbegin`, `rend`, `front`, `back`, `data`, `find`, `lower_bound`, `upper_bound`, `equal_range`, and, except in associative containers, `operator[]`. 

§ 23.2.2
Notwithstanding (17.6.4.8), implementations are required to avoid data races when the contents of the contained object in different elements in the same sequence are modified concurrently.

[Note: For a `vector<int>` x with a size greater than one, x[1] = 5 and *x.begin() = 10 can be executed concurrently without a data race, but x[0] = 5 and *x.begin() = 10 executed concurrently may result in a data race. — end note]

### 23.2.3 Sequence containers

A sequence container organizes a finite set of objects, all of the same type, into a strictly linear arrangement. The library provides five basic kinds of sequence containers: `array`, `vector`, `forward_list`, `list`, and `deque`. It also provides container adaptors that make it easy to construct abstract data types, such as stacks or queues, out of the basic sequence container kinds (or out of other kinds of sequence containers that the user might define).

The five basic sequence containers offer the programmer different complexity trade-offs and should be used accordingly. `vector` or `array` is the type of sequence container that should be used by default. `list` or `forward_list` should be used when there are frequent insertions and deletions from the middle of the sequence. `deque` is the data structure of choice when most insertions and deletions take place at the beginning or at the end of the sequence.

In Tables 94 and 95, X denotes a sequence container class, a denotes a value of X containing elements of type T. A denotes X::allocator_type if it exists and std::allocator<T> if it doesn’t. i and j denote iterators satisfying input iterator requirements and refer to elements implicitly convertible to value_type, [i, j) denotes a valid range, il designates an object of type initializer_list<value_type>, n denotes a value of X::size_type, p denotes a valid const iterator to a, q denotes a valid dereferenceable const iterator to a, [q1, q2) denotes a valid range of const iterators in a, t denotes an lvalue or a const rvalue of X::value_type, and rv denotes a non-const rvalue of X::value_type. Args denotes a template parameter pack; args denotes a function parameter pack with the pattern Args&&.

The complexities of the expressions are sequence dependent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X(n, t)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Requires: T shall be CopyConstructible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X a(n, t)</td>
<td></td>
<td>post: size() == n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Constructs a sequence container with n copies of t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(i, j)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Requires: If the iterator’s dereference operation returns an lvalue or a const rvalue, T shall be CopyConstructible. Each iterator in the range [i, j) shall be dereferenced exactly once.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X a(i, j)</td>
<td></td>
<td>post: size() == distance between i and j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Constructs a sequence container equal to the range [i, j)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(il);</td>
<td></td>
<td>Equivalent to X(il.begin(), il.end())</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a = il;</td>
<td>X&amp;</td>
<td>a = X(il);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>return *this;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 94 — Sequence container requirements (in addition to container)
Table 94 — Sequence container requirements (in addition to container) (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aemplace(p, args);</td>
<td>iterator</td>
<td>Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;A, T, Args&gt;. Inserts an object of type T constructed with std::forward&lt;Args&gt;(args)...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.insert(p,t)</td>
<td>iterator</td>
<td>Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;A, T, Args&gt; and T shall be CopyAssignable. Inserts a copy of t before p.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.insert(p,rv)</td>
<td>iterator</td>
<td>Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;A, T, T&amp;&amp;&gt; and T shall be MoveAssignable. Inserts a copy of rv before p.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.insert(p,n,t)</td>
<td>void iterator</td>
<td>Requires: T shall be CopyConstructible and CopyAssignable. Inserts n copies of t before p.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.insert(p,i,j)</td>
<td>void iterator</td>
<td>Requires: If the iterator’s dereference operation returns an lvalue or a const rvalue, T shall be CopyConstructible. Each iterator in the range [i,j) shall be dereferenced exactly once. pre: i and j are not iterators into a. Inserts copies of elements in [i, j) before p.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.insert(p, il);</td>
<td>void iterator</td>
<td>a.insert(p, il.begin(), il.end()).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.erase(q)</td>
<td>iterator</td>
<td>Requires: T shall be MoveAssignable. Erases the element pointed to by q.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.erase(q1,q2)</td>
<td>iterator</td>
<td>Requires: T shall be MoveAssignable. Erases the elements in the range [q1, q2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.clear()</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>erase(begin(), end()) post: size() == 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.assign(i,j)</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>Requires: If the iterator’s dereference operation returns an lvalue or a const rvalue, T shall be CopyConstructible and CopyAssignable. Each iterator in the range [i,j) shall be dereferenced exactly once. pre: i, j are not iterators into a. Replaces elements in a with a copy of [i, j).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.assign(il)</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>a.assign(il.begin(), il.end()).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.assign(n,t)</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>Requires: T shall be CopyConstructible and CopyAssignable. pre: t is not a reference into a. Replaces elements in a with n copies of t.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 iterator and const_iterator types for sequence containers shall be at least of the forward iterator category.

6 The iterator returned from a.insert(p, t) points to the copy of t inserted into a.

7 The iterator returned from a.insert(p, rv) points to the copy of rv inserted into a.
The iterator returned from `a.insert(p, n, t)` points to the copy of the first element inserted into `a`, or `p` if `n == 0`.

The iterator returned from `a.insert(p, i, j)` points to the copy of the first element inserted into `a`, or `p` if `i == j`.

The iterator returned from `a.insert(p, i1)` points to the copy of the first element inserted into `a`, or `p` if `i1` is empty.

The iterator returned from `a.emplace(p, args)` points to the new element constructed from `args` into `a`.

The iterator returned from `a.erase(q)` points to the element immediately following `q` prior to the element being erased. If no such element exists, `a.end()` is returned.

The iterator returned by `a.erase(q1,q2)` points to the element pointed to by `q2` prior to any elements being erased. If no such element exists, `a.end()` is returned.

For every sequence container defined in this Clause and in Clause 21:

- If the constructor
  
  ```cpp
  template <class InputIterator>
  X(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
  const allocator_type& alloc = allocator_type())
  ```

  is called with a type `InputIterator` that does not qualify as an input iterator, then the constructor will behave as if the overloaded constructor:

  ```cpp
  X(size_type, const value_type& = value_type(),
  const allocator_type& = allocator_type())
  ```

  were called instead, with the arguments `static_cast<size_type>(first), last` and `alloc`, respectively.

- If the member functions of the forms:

  ```cpp
  template <class InputIterator>  // such as insert()
  rt fx1(iterator p, InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
  ```

  ```cpp
  template <class InputIterator>  // such as append(), assign()
  rt fx2(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
  ```

  ```cpp
  template <class InputIterator>  // such as replace()
  rt fx3(iterator i1, iterator i2, InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
  ```

  are called with a type `InputIterator` that does not qualify as an input iterator, then these functions will behave as if the overloaded member functions:

  ```cpp
  rt fx1(iterator, size_type, const value_type&);
  ```

  ```cpp
  rt fx2(size_type, const value_type&);
  ```

  ```cpp
  rt fx3(iterator, iterator, size_type, const value_type&);
  ```

  were called instead, with the same arguments.
In the previous paragraph the alternative binding will fail if `first` is not implicitly convertible to `X::size_type` or if `last` is not implicitly convertible to `X::value_type`.

The extent to which an implementation determines that a type cannot be an input iterator is unspecified, except that as a minimum integral types shall not qualify as input iterators.

Table 95 lists operations that are provided for some types of sequence containers but not others. An implementation shall provide these operations for all container types shown in the “container” column, and shall implement them so as to take amortized constant time.

Table 95 — Optional sequence container operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Operational semantics</th>
<th>Container</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>a.front()</code></td>
<td>reference; const_reference</td>
<td><code>*a.begin()</code></td>
<td>array, vector, list, deque, basic_string, array, forward_list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for constant a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.back()</code></td>
<td>reference; const_reference</td>
<td><code>{ auto tmp = a.end(); --tmp; return *tmp; }</code></td>
<td>array, vector, list, deque, basic_string, array, forward_list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.emplace_front(args)</code></td>
<td>void</td>
<td><code>a.emplace(a.begin(), std::forward&lt;Args&gt;(args)...)</code></td>
<td>list, deque, deque, basic_string, array, forward_list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><code>Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;A,T,Args&gt;</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.emplace_back(args)</code></td>
<td>void</td>
<td><code>a.emplace(a.end(), std::forward&lt;Args&gt;(args)...)</code></td>
<td>list, deque, deque, basic_string, array, forward_list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><code>Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;A,T,Args&gt;</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.push_front(t)</code></td>
<td>void</td>
<td><code>a.insert(a.begin(), t) </code></td>
<td>list, deque, deque, basic_string, array, forward_list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><code>Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;A,T,T&gt; </code> and T shall be CopyAssignable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.push_front(rv)</code></td>
<td>void</td>
<td><code>a.insert(a.begin(), t) </code></td>
<td>list, deque, deque, basic_string, array, forward_list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><code>Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;A,T,T&amp;&amp;&gt; </code> and T shall be MoveAssignable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.push_back(t)</code></td>
<td>void</td>
<td><code>a.insert(a.end(), t) </code></td>
<td>vector, list, deque, basic_string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><code>Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;A,T,T&gt; </code> and T shall be CopyAssignable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression</td>
<td>Return type</td>
<td>Operational semantics</td>
<td>Container</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.push_back(rv)</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>a.insert(a.end(), t) Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;Ali, list, deque, T, T&amp;&amp;&gt; and T shall be MoveAssignable.</td>
<td>vector, basic_string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.pop_front()</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>a.erase(a.begin())</td>
<td>list, deque, forward_list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.pop_back()</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>{ iterator tmp = a.end(); --tmp; a.erase(tmp); }</td>
<td>vector, list, deque, basic_string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a[n]</td>
<td>reference; const_reference</td>
<td>*(a.begin() + n) for constant a</td>
<td>array, vector, deque, basic_string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.at(n)</td>
<td>reference; const_reference</td>
<td>*(a.begin() + n) for constant a</td>
<td>array, vector, deque, basic_string</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The member function at() provides bounds-checked access to container elements. at() throws out_of_range if n >= a.size().

23.2.4 Associative containers

1. Associative containers provide fast retrieval of data based on keys. The library provides four basic kinds of associative containers: set, multiset, map and multimap.

2. Each associative container is parameterized on Key and an ordering relation Compare that induces a strict weak ordering (25.4) on elements of Key. In addition, map and multimap associate an arbitrary type T with the Key. The object of type Compare is called the comparison object of a container. This comparison object may be a pointer to function or an object of a type with an appropriate function call operator.

3. The phrase “equivalence of keys” means the equivalence relation imposed by the comparison and not the operator== on keys. That is, two keys k1 and k2 are considered to be equivalent if for the comparison object comp, comp(k1, k2) == false && comp(k2, k1) == false. For any two keys k1 and k2 in the same container, calling comp(k1, k2) shall always return the same value.

4. An associative container supports unique keys if it may contain at most one element for each key. Otherwise, it supports equivalent keys. The set and map classes support unique keys; the multiset and multimap classes support equivalent keys. For multiset and multimap, insert and erase preserve the relative ordering of equivalent elements.

5. For set and multiset the value type is the same as the key type. For map and multimap it is equal to pair<const Key, T>. Keys in an associative container are immutable.
iterator of an associative container is of the bidirectional iterator category. For associative containers where the value type is the same as the key type, both iterator and const_iterator are constant iterators. It is unspecified whether or not iterator and const_iterator are the same type. [Note: iterator and const_iterator have identical semantics in this case, and iterator is convertible to const_iterator. Users can avoid violating the One Definition Rule by always using const_iterator in their function parameter lists. —end note]

In Table 96, X denotes an associative container class, a denotes a value of X, a_uniq denotes a value of X when X supports unique keys, a_eq denotes a value of X when X supports multiple keys, u denotes an identifier, r denotes an lvalue or a const value of type X, rv denotes a non-const rvalue of type X, i and j satisfy input iterator requirements and refer to elements implicitly convertible to value_type, [i, j) denotes a valid range, p denotes a valid const iterator to a, q denotes a valid dereferenceable const iterator to a, [q1, q2) denotes a valid range of const iterators in a, il designates an object of type initializer_list<value_type>, t denotes a value of X::value_type, k denotes a value of X::key_type and c denotes a value of type X::key_compare. A denotes the storage allocator used by X, if any, or std::allocator<X::value_type> otherwise, and m denotes an allocator of a type convertible to A.

### Table 96 — Associative container requirements (in addition to container)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X::key_type</td>
<td>Key</td>
<td>Key is CopyConstructible and CopyAssignable</td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::key_compare</td>
<td>Compare</td>
<td>defaults to less&lt;key_type&gt;</td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::value_compare</td>
<td>a binary predicate type</td>
<td>is the same as key_compare for set and multiset; is an ordering relation on pairs induced by the first component (i.e., Key) for map and multimap.</td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(c)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;A, key_compare, key_compare&gt;. Constructs an empty container. Uses a copy of c as a comparison object.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X a(c);</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X()</td>
<td></td>
<td>Requires: ConstructibleAsElement&lt;A, key_compare, key_compare&gt;. Constructs an empty container. Uses Compare() as a comparison object.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

§ 23.2.4
Table 96 — Associative container requirements (in addition to container) (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X(i,j,c)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Requires:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X a(i,j,c);</td>
<td></td>
<td>ConstructibleAsElement&lt;A, key_compare, key_compare&gt;. Constructs an empty container and inserts elements from the range [i, j) into it; uses c as a comparison object.</td>
<td>N log N in general (N is the distance from i to j); linear if [i, j) is sorted with value_comp()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(i,j)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Requires:</td>
<td>same as above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X a(i,j);</td>
<td></td>
<td>ConstructibleAsElement&lt;A, key_compare, key_compare&gt;. Same as above, but uses Compare() as a comparison object</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(il);</td>
<td></td>
<td>Same as X(il.begin()), il.end()).</td>
<td>same as X(il.begin()), il.end()).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a = il</td>
<td>X&amp;</td>
<td>a = X(il);</td>
<td>Same as a = X(il).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.key_-comp()</td>
<td>X::key_-compare</td>
<td>returns the comparison object out of which a was constructed.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.value_-comp()</td>
<td>X::value_-compare</td>
<td>returns an object of value_compare constructed out of the comparison object</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a_uniq.</td>
<td>pair&lt;iterator, bool&gt;</td>
<td>inserts a T object t constructed with std::forward&lt;Args&gt;(args)... if and only if there is no element in the container with key equivalent to the key of t. The bool component of the returned pair is true if and only if the insertion takes place, and the iterator component of the pair points to the element with key equivalent to the key of t.</td>
<td>logarithmic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a_eq.</td>
<td>iterator</td>
<td>inserts a T object t constructed with std::forward&lt;Args&gt;(args)... and returns the iterator pointing to the newly inserted element.</td>
<td>logarithmic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 96 — Associative container requirements (in addition to container) (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>a.emplace_hint(p, args)</code></td>
<td><code>iterator</code></td>
<td>equivalent to <code>a.emplace(std::forward&lt;Args&gt;(args)...)</code>. Return value is an iterator pointing to the element with the key equivalent to the newly inserted element. The <code>const_iterator p</code> is a hint pointing to where the search should start. Implementations are permitted to ignore the hint.</td>
<td>logarithmic in general, but amortized constant if the element is inserted right after <code>p</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a_.uniq.insert(t)</code></td>
<td><code>pair&lt;iterator, bool&gt;</code></td>
<td>inserts <code>t</code> if and only if there is no element in the container with key equivalent to the key of <code>t</code>. The <code>bool</code> component of the returned pair is true if and only if the insertion takes place, and the <code>iterator</code> component of the pair points to the element with key equivalent to the key of <code>t</code>.</td>
<td>logarithmic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a_.eq.insert(t)</code></td>
<td><code>iterator</code></td>
<td>inserts <code>t</code> and returns the iterator pointing to the newly inserted element. If a range containing elements equivalent to <code>t</code> exists in <code>a_eq</code>, <code>t</code> is inserted at the end of that range.</td>
<td>logarithmic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a.insert(p, t)</code></td>
<td><code>iterator</code></td>
<td>inserts <code>t</code> if and only if there is no element with key equivalent to the key of <code>t</code> in containers with unique keys; always inserts <code>t</code> in containers with equivalent keys. always returns the iterator pointing to the element with key equivalent to the key of <code>t</code>. <code>t</code> is inserted as close as possible to the position just prior to <code>p</code>.</td>
<td>logarithmic in general, but amortized constant if <code>t</code> is inserted right before <code>p</code>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 96 — Associative container requirements (in addition to container) (continued)

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.insert(i, j)</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>pre: i, j are not iterators into a. inserts each element from the range [i, j) if and only if there is no element with key equivalent to the key of that element in containers with unique keys; always inserts that element in containers with equivalent keys.</td>
<td>( N \log(size() + N) ) (( N ) is the distance from ( i ) to ( j ))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.insert(il)</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>Equivalent to a.insert(il.begin(), il.end()).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.erase(k)</td>
<td>size_type</td>
<td>erases all elements in the container with key equivalent to ( k ). returns the number of erased elements.</td>
<td>( \log(size()) + \text{count}(k) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.erase(q)</td>
<td>iterator</td>
<td>erases the element pointed to by ( q ). Returns an iterator pointing to the element immediately following ( q ) prior to the element being erased. If no such element exists, returns a.end().</td>
<td>amortized constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.erase(q1, q2)</td>
<td>iterator</td>
<td>erases all the elements in the range ([q1, q2)). Returns ( q2 ).</td>
<td>( \log(size()) + N ) where ( N ) is the distance from ( q1 ) to ( q2 ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.clear()</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>erase(a.begin(), a.end()) post: ( \text{size}() == 0 )</td>
<td>linear in ( \text{size}() ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.find(k)</td>
<td>iterator; const_iterator for constant a.</td>
<td>returns an iterator pointing to an element with the key equivalent to ( k ), or a.end() if such an element is not found.</td>
<td>logarithmic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.count(k)</td>
<td>size_type</td>
<td>returns the number of elements with key equivalent to ( k )</td>
<td>( \log(size()) + \text{count}(k) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.lower_bound(k)</td>
<td>iterator; const_iterator for constant a.</td>
<td>returns an iterator pointing to the first element with key not less than ( k ), or a.end() if such an element is not found.</td>
<td>logarithmic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.upper_bound(k)</td>
<td>iterator; const_iterator for constant a.</td>
<td>returns an iterator pointing to the first element with key greater than ( k ), or a.end() if such an element is not found.</td>
<td>logarithmic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 96 — Associative container requirements (in addition to container) (continued)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.equal_range(k)</td>
<td>pair&lt;iterator, iterator&gt;</td>
<td>equivalent to make_pair(a.lower_bound(k), a.upper_bound(k))</td>
<td>logarithmic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pair&lt;const_iterator, const_iterator&gt;</td>
<td>for constant a.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8 The insert members shall not affect the validity of iterators and references to the container, and the erase members shall invalidate only iterators and references to the erased elements.

9 The fundamental property of iterators of associative containers is that they iterate through the containers in the non-descending order of keys where non-descending is defined by the comparison that was used to construct them. For any two dereferenceable iterators \( i \) and \( j \) such that distance from \( i \) to \( j \) is positive,

\[
\text{value_comp}(\ast j, \ast i) \neq false
\]

10 For associative containers with unique keys the stronger condition holds,

\[
\text{value_comp}(\ast i, \ast j) \neq false.
\]

11 When an associative container is constructed by passing a comparison object the container shall not store a pointer or reference to the passed object, even if that object is passed by reference. When an associative container is copied, either through a copy constructor or an assignment operator, the target container shall then use the comparison object from the container being copied, as if that comparison object had been passed to the target container in its constructor.

23.2.4.1 Exception safety guarantees

[associative.reqmts.except]

1 For associative containers, no \texttt{clear()} function throws an exception. \texttt{erase(k)} does not throw an exception unless that exception is thrown by the container’s \texttt{Pred} object (if any).

2 For associative containers, if an exception is thrown by any operation from within an \texttt{insert()} function inserting a single element, the \texttt{insert()} function has no effect.

3 For associative containers, no \texttt{swap} function throws an exception unless that exception is thrown by the copy constructor or copy assignment operator of the container’s \texttt{Pred} object (if any).

23.2.5 Unordered associative containers

[unord.req]

1 Unordered associative containers provide an ability for fast retrieval of data based on keys. The worst-case complexity for most operations is linear, but the average case is much faster. The library provides four unordered associative containers: \texttt{unordered_set}, \texttt{unordered_map}, \texttt{unordered_multiset}, and \texttt{unordered_multimap}.

2 Unordered associative containers conform to the requirements for Containers (23.2), except that the expressions in table 97 are not required to be valid, where \( a \) and \( b \) denote values of a type \( X \), and \( X \) is an unordered associative container class:
3 Each unordered associative container is parameterized by Key, by a function object Hash that acts as a hash function for values of type Key, and by a binary predicate Pred that induces an equivalence relation on values of type Key. Additionally, unordered_map and unordered_multimap associate an arbitrary mapped type T with the Key.

4 A hash function is a function object that takes a single argument of type Key and returns a value of type std::size_t.

5 Two values k1 and k2 of type Key are considered equal if the container’s equality function object returns true when passed those values. If k1 and k2 are equal, the hash function shall return the same value for both.

6 An unordered associative container supports unique keys if it may contain at most one element for each key. Otherwise, it supports equivalent keys. unordered_set and unordered_map support unique keys. unordered_multiset and unordered_multimap support equivalent keys. In containers that support equivalent keys, elements with equivalent keys are adjacent to each other. For unordered_multiset and unordered_multimap, insert and erase preserve the relative ordering of equivalent elements.

7 For unordered_set and unordered_multiset the value type is the same as the key type. For unordered_map and unordered_multimap it is std::pair<const Key, T>.

8 The elements of an unordered associative container are organized into buckets. Keys with the same hash code appear in the same bucket. The number of buckets is automatically increased as elements are added to an unordered associative container, so that the average number of elements per bucket is kept below a bound. Rehashing invalidates iterators, changes ordering between elements, and changes which buckets elements appear in, but does not invalidate pointers or references to elements. For unordered_multiset and unordered_multimap, rehashing preserves the relative ordering of equivalent elements.

9 In table 98: X is an unordered associative container class, a is an object of type X, b is a possibly const object of type X, a_uniq is an object of type X when X supports unique keys, a_eq is an object of type X when X supports equivalent keys, i and j are input iterators that refer to value_type, [i, j) is a valid range, p and q2 are valid const iterators to a, q and q1 are valid dereferenceable const iterators to a, [q1, q2) is a valid range in a, il designates an object of type initializer_list<value_type>, t is a value of type X::value_type, k is a value of type key_type, hf is a possibly const value of type hasher, eq is a possibly const value of type key_equal, n is a value of type size_type, and z is a value of type float.

Table 98 — Unordered associative container requirements (in addition to container)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X::key_type</td>
<td>Key</td>
<td>Key shall be CopyAssignable and CopyConstructible</td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

§ 23.2.5
Table 98 — Unordered associative container requirements (in addition to container) (continued)

<table>
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<th>Return type</th>
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<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X::hasher</td>
<td>Hash</td>
<td>Hash shall be a unary function object type such that the expression hf(k) has type <code>std::size_t</code>.</td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::key_equal</td>
<td>Pred</td>
<td>Pred shall be a binary predicate that takes two arguments of type Key. Pred is an equivalence relation.</td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::local_iterator</td>
<td></td>
<td>A <code>local_iterator</code> object may be used to iterate through a single bucket, but may not be used to iterate across buckets.</td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::const_local_iterator</td>
<td></td>
<td>A <code>const_local_iterator</code> object may be used to iterate through a single bucket, but may not be used to iterate across buckets.</td>
<td>compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(n, hf, eq) X a(n, hf, eq)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Constructs an empty container with at least n buckets, using hf as the hash function and eq as the key equality predicate.</td>
<td>(O(n))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(n, hf) X a(n, hf)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Constructs an empty container with at least n buckets, using hf as the hash function and <code>key_equal()</code> as the key equality predicate.</td>
<td>(O(n))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(n) X a(n)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Constructs an empty container with at least n buckets, using <code>hasher()</code> as the hash function and <code>key_equal()</code> as the key equality predicate.</td>
<td>(O(n))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X() X a</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Constructs an empty container with an unspecified number of buckets, using <code>hasher()</code> as the hash function and <code>key_equal()</code> as the key equality predicate.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(i, j, n, hf, eq) X a(i, j, n, hf, eq)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Constructs an empty container with at least n buckets, using hf as the hash function and eq as the key equality predicate, and inserts elements from ([i, j)) into it.</td>
<td>Average case (O(N)) ((N) is (distance(i, j))), worst case (O(N^2))</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 98 — Unordered associative container requirements (in addition to container) (continued)

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X(i, j, n, hf)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Constructs an empty container with at least n buckets, using hf as the hash function and key_equal() as the key equality predicate, and inserts elements from [i, j) into it.</td>
<td>Average case $O(N)$ ($N$ is distance(i, j)), worst case $O(N^2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X a(i, j, n, hf)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(i, j, n)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Constructs an empty container with at least n buckets, using hasher() as the hash function and key_equal() as the key equality predicate, and inserts elements from [i, j) into it.</td>
<td>Average case $O(N)$ ($N$ is distance(i, j)), worst case $O(N^2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X a(i, j, n)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(i, j)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Constructs an empty container with an unspecified number of buckets, using hasher() as the hash function and key_equal() as the key equality predicate, and inserts elements from [i, j) into it.</td>
<td>Average case $O(N)$ ($N$ is distance(i, j)), worst case $O(N^2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X a(i, j)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(il)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Same as X(il.begin(), il.end()).</td>
<td>Same as X(il.begin(), il.end()).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X(b)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Copy constructor. In addition to the contained elements, copies the hash function, predicate, and maximum load factor.</td>
<td>Average case linear in b.size(), worst case quadratic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X a(b)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a = b</td>
<td>X&amp;</td>
<td>Copy assignment operator. In addition to the contained elements, copies the hash function, predicate, and maximum load factor.</td>
<td>Average case linear in b.size(), worst case quadratic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a = il</td>
<td>X&amp;</td>
<td>a = X(il); return *this;</td>
<td>Same as a = X(il).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.hash_function()</td>
<td>hasher</td>
<td>Returns b’s hash function.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.key_eq()</td>
<td>key_equal</td>
<td>Returns b’s key equality predicate.</td>
<td>constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression</td>
<td>Return type</td>
<td>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</td>
<td>Complexity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a_unique.emplace(args)</code></td>
<td><code>pair&lt;iterator, bool&gt;</code></td>
<td>inserts a <code>T</code> object <code>t</code> constructed with <code>std::forward&lt;Args&gt;(args)...</code> if and only if there is no element in the container with key equivalent to the key of <code>t</code>. The <code>bool</code> component of the returned pair is true if and only if the insertion takes place, and the iterator component of the pair points to the element with key equivalent to the key of <code>t</code>.</td>
<td>Average case $O(1)$, worst case $O(a_unique.size())$.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a_eq.emplace(args)</code></td>
<td><code>iterator</code></td>
<td>inserts a <code>T</code> object <code>t</code> constructed with <code>std::forward&lt;Args&gt;(args)...</code> and returns the iterator pointing to the newly inserted element.</td>
<td>Average case $O(1)$, worst case $O(a_eq.size())$.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>aemplace_hint(p, args)</code></td>
<td><code>iterator</code></td>
<td>equivalent to <code>a.emplace(std::forward&lt;Args&gt;(args)...</code>). Return value is an iterator pointing to the element with the key equivalent to the newly inserted element. The <code>const_iterator p</code> is a hint pointing to where the search should start. Implementations are permitted to ignore the hint.</td>
<td>Average case $O(1)$, worst case $O(a.size())$.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a_unique.insert(t)</code></td>
<td><code>pair&lt;iterator, bool&gt;</code></td>
<td>Inserts <code>t</code> if and only if there is no element in the container with key equivalent to the key of <code>t</code>. The <code>bool</code> component of the returned pair indicates whether the insertion takes place, and the <code>iterator</code> component points to the element with key equivalent to the key of <code>t</code>.</td>
<td>Average case $O(1)$, worst case $O(a_unique.size())$.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a_eq.insert(t)</code></td>
<td><code>iterator</code></td>
<td>Inserts <code>t</code>, and returns an iterator pointing to the newly inserted element.</td>
<td>Average case $O(1)$, worst case $O(a_eq.size())$.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 98 — Unordered associative container requirements (in addition to container) (continued)

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.insert(q, t)</td>
<td>iterator</td>
<td>Equivalent to a.insert(t). Return value is an iterator pointing to the element with the key equivalent to that of t. The iterator q is a hint pointing to where the search should start. Implementations are permitted to ignore the hint.</td>
<td>Average case $O(1)$, worst case $O(a.size())$.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.insert(i, j)</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>Pre: i and j are not iterators in a. Equivalent to a.insert(t) for each element in [i,j).</td>
<td>Average case $O(N)$, where N is distance(i, j). Worst case $O(N \times a.size())$.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.insert(il)</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>Same as a.insert(il.begin(), il.end()).</td>
<td>Same as a.insert(il.begin(), il.end()).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.erase(k)</td>
<td>size_type</td>
<td>Erases all elements with key equivalent to k. Returns the number of elements erased.</td>
<td>Average case $O(a.count(k))$. Worst case $O(a.size())$.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.erase(q)</td>
<td>iterator</td>
<td>Erases the element pointed to by q. Return value is the iterator immediately following q prior to the erasure.</td>
<td>Average case $O(1)$, worst case $O(a.size())$.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.erase(q1, q2)</td>
<td>iterator</td>
<td>Erases all elements in the range [q1, q2). Return value is the iterator immediately following the erased elements prior to the erasure.</td>
<td>Average case linear in distance(q1, q2), worst case $O(a.size())$.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.clear()</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>Erases all elements in the container. Post: a.size() == 0</td>
<td>Linear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.find(k)</td>
<td>iterator; const_iterator for const b.</td>
<td>Returns an iterator pointing to an element with key equivalent to k, or b.end() if no such element exists.</td>
<td>Average case $O(1)$, worst case $O(b.size())$.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.count(k)</td>
<td>size_type</td>
<td>Returns the number of elements with key equivalent to k.</td>
<td>Average case $O(1)$, worst case $O(b.size())$.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>b.equal_range(k)</code></td>
<td><code>pair&lt;iterator, iterator&gt;; pair&lt;const_iterator, const_iterator&gt; for const b.</code></td>
<td>Returns a range containing all elements with keys equivalent to k. Returns <code>make_pair(b.end(), b.end())</code> if no such elements exist.</td>
<td>Average case (O(b.count(k))). Worst case (O(b.size())).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>b.bucket_count()</code></td>
<td><code>size_type</code></td>
<td>Returns the number of buckets that <code>b</code> contains.</td>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>b.max_bucket_count()</code></td>
<td><code>size_type</code></td>
<td>Returns an upper bound on the number of buckets that <code>b</code> might ever contain.</td>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>b.bucket(k)</code></td>
<td><code>size_type</code></td>
<td>Returns the index of the bucket in which elements with keys equivalent to <code>k</code> would be found, if any such element existed. Post: the return value shall be in the range ([0, b.bucket_count())).</td>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>b.bucket_size(n)</code></td>
<td><code>size_type</code></td>
<td>Pre: <code>n</code> shall be in the range ([0, b.bucket_count())). Returns the number of elements in the (n^{th}) bucket.</td>
<td>(O(b.bucket_size(n)))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>b.begin(n)</code></td>
<td><code>local_iterator; const_local_iterator for const b.</code></td>
<td>Pre: <code>n</code> shall be in the range ([0, b.bucket_count())). <code>b.begin(n)</code> returns an iterator referring to the first element in the bucket. If the bucket is empty, then <code>b.begin(n) == b.end(n)</code>.</td>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>b.end(n)</code></td>
<td><code>local_iterator; const_local_iterator for const b.</code></td>
<td>Pre: <code>n</code> shall be in the range ([0, b.bucket_count())). <code>b.end(n)</code> returns an iterator which is the past-the-end value for the bucket.</td>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>b.cbegin(n)</code></td>
<td><code>const_local_iterator</code></td>
<td>Pre: <code>n</code> shall be in the range ([0, b.bucket_count())). Note: ([b.cbegin(n), b.cend(n)]) is a valid range containing all of the elements in the (n^{th}) bucket.</td>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>b.cend(n)</code></td>
<td><code>const_local_iterator</code></td>
<td>Pre: <code>n</code> shall be in the range ([0, b.bucket_count())).</td>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>b.load_factor()</code></td>
<td><code>float</code></td>
<td>Returns the average number of elements per bucket.</td>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 98 — Unordered associative container requirements (in addition to container) (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b.max_load_factor()</td>
<td>float</td>
<td>Returns a positive number that the container attempts to keep the load factor less than or equal to. The container automatically increases the number of buckets as necessary to keep the load factor below this number.</td>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.max_load_factor(z)</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>Pre: (z) shall be positive. Changes the container’s maximum load factor, using (z) as a hint.</td>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.rehash(n)</td>
<td>void</td>
<td>Post: (a.bucket_count() &gt; a.size() / a.max_load_factor() and a.bucket_count() &gt;= n.)</td>
<td>Average case</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10 Unordered associative containers are not required to support the expressions \(a == b\) or \(a != b\). [Note: This is because the container requirements define operator equality in terms of equality of ranges. Since the elements of an unordered associative container appear in an arbitrary order, range equality is not a useful operation. — end note]

11 The iterator types iterator and const_iterator of an unordered associative container are of at least the forward iterator category. For unordered associative containers where the key type and value type are the same, both iterator and const_iterator are const iterators.

12 The insert members shall not affect the validity of references to container elements, but may invalidate all iterators to the container. The erase members shall invalidate only iterators and references to the erased elements.

13 The insert members shall not affect the validity of iterators if \((N+n) < z*B\), where \(N\) is the number of elements in the container prior to the insert operation, \(n\) is the number of elements inserted, \(B\) is the container’s bucket count, and \(z\) is the container’s maximum load factor.

### 23.2.5.1 Exception safety guarantees

1 For unordered associative containers, no clear() function throws an exception. erase(k) does not throw an exception unless that exception is thrown by the container’s Hash or Pred object (if any).

2 For unordered associative containers, if an exception is thrown by any operation other than the container’s hash function from within an insert() function inserting a single element, the insert() function has no effect.

3 For unordered associative containers, no swap function throws an exception unless that exception is thrown by the copy constructor or copy assignment operator of the container’s Hash or Pred object (if any).
For unordered associative containers, if an exception is thrown from within a `rehash()` function other than by the container’s hash function or comparison function, the `rehash()` function has no effect.

### 23.3 Sequence containers

**Headers** `<array>`, `<deque>`, `<forward_list>`, `<list>`, `<queue>`, `<stack>`, and `<vector>`.  

**Header `<array>` synopsis**

```cpp
namespace std {
    #include <initializer_list>

template <class T, size_t N> struct array;

template <class T, size_t N>
    bool operator==(const array<T,N>& x, const array<T,N>& y);

template <class T, size_t N>
    bool operator!=(const array<T,N>& x, const array<T,N>& y);

template <class T, size_t N>
    bool operator<(const array<T,N>& x, const array<T,N>& y);

template <class T, size_t N>
    bool operator>(const array<T,N>& x, const array<T,N>& y);

template <class T, size_t N>
    bool operator<=(const array<T,N>& x, const array<T,N>& y);

template <class T, size_t N>
    bool operator>=(const array<T,N>& x, const array<T,N>& y);

template <class T, size_t N>
    void swap(array<T,N>& x, array<T,N>& y);

    template <class T> class tuple_size;
    template <size_t I, class T> class tuple_element;
    template <class T, size_t N>
        struct tuple_size<array<T, N> >;
    template <size_t I, class T, size_t N>
        struct tuple_element<I, array<T, N> >;
    template <size_t I, class T, size_t N>
        T& get(array<T, N>&);
    template <size_t I, class T, size_t N>
        const T& get(const array<T, N>&);
}
```

**Header `<deque>` synopsis**

```cpp
namespace std {
    #include <initializer_list>

    template <class T, class Allocator = allocator<T> > class deque;
    template <class T, class Allocator>
        bool operator==(const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
        bool operator!=(const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
        bool operator<(const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
        bool operator>(const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
        bool operator>=(const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
        bool operator<=(const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);

    template <class T> class tuple_size;
    template <size_t I, class T> class tuple_element;
    template <size_t I, class T>
        struct tuple_size<deque<T> >;
    template <size_t I, class T>
        struct tuple_element<I, deque<T> >;
    template <size_t I, class T>
        T& get(deque<T>&);
    template <size_t I, class T>
        const T& get(const deque<T>&);
}
```
bool operator<=(const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);

void swap(deque<T,Allocator>& x, deque<T,Allocator>& y);

template <class T, class Allocator>
bool operator<=(const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);

void swap(deque<T,Allocator>&& x, deque<T,Allocator>&& y);

Header <forward_list> synopsis

namespace std {

#include <initializer_list>

template <class T, class Allocator = allocator<T> > class forward_list;

bool operator==(const forward_list<T,Allocator>& x, const forward_list<T,Allocator>& y);

void swap(forward_list<T,Allocator>& x, forward_list<T,Allocator>& y);

}

Header <list> synopsis

namespace std {

#include <initializer_list>

template <class T, class Allocator = allocator<T> > class list;

bool operator==(const list<T,Allocator>& x, const list<T,Allocator>& y);

void swap(list<T,Allocator>& x, list<T,Allocator>& y);

}
Header <queue> synopsis

namespace std {
    #include <initializer_list>

    template <class T, class Container = deque<T> > class queue;
    template <class T, class Container>
        bool operator==(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        bool operator<(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        bool operator!=(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        bool operator>(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        bool operator>=(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        bool operator<=(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        void swap(queue<T, Container>& x, queue<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        void swap(queue<T, Container>&& x, queue<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        void swap(queue<T, Container>& x, queue<T, Container>&& y);

    template <class T, class Container = vector<T>,
        class Compare = less<typename Container::value_type> >
        class priority_queue;
    template <class T, class Container, class Compare>
        void swap(priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>& x, priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>& y);
    template <class T, class Container, class Compare>
        void swap(priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>&& x, priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>& y);
    template <class T, class Container, class Compare>
        void swap(priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>& x, priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>&& y);
}

Header <stack> synopsis

namespace std {
    #include <initializer_list>

    template <class T, class Container = deque<T> > class stack;
    template <class T, class Container>
        bool operator==(const stack<T, Container>& x, const stack<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        bool operator<(const stack<T, Container>& x, const stack<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        bool operator!=(const stack<T, Container>& x, const stack<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        bool operator>(const stack<T, Container>& x, const stack<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        bool operator>=(const stack<T, Container>& x, const stack<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        bool operator<=(const stack<T, Container>& x, const stack<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        void swap(stack<T, Container>& x, stack<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
        void swap(stack<T, Container>&& x, stack<T, Container>& y);
}
template <class T, class Container>
void swap(stack<T, Container>&& x, stack<T, Container>& y);

Header <vector> synopsis

namespace std {
    #include <initializer_list>
    
    template <class T, class Allocator = allocator<T> > class vector;
    template <class T, class Allocator>
    bool operator==(const vector<T, Allocator>& x, const vector<T, Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
    bool operator<(const vector<T, Allocator>& x, const vector<T, Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
    bool operator!=(const vector<T, Allocator>& x, const vector<T, Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
    bool operator>(const vector<T, Allocator>& x, const vector<T, Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
    bool operator>=(const vector<T, Allocator>& x, const vector<T, Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
    bool operator<=(const vector<T, Allocator>& x, const vector<T, Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
    void swap(vector<T, Allocator>& x, vector<T, Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
    void swap(vector<T, Allocator>&& x, vector<T, Allocator>& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
    void swap(vector<T, Allocator>& x, vector<T, Allocator>&& y);
    template <class T, class Allocator>
    void swap(vector<T, Allocator>&& x, vector<T, Allocator>&& y);
}

23.3.1 Class template array

The header <array> defines a class template for storing fixed-size sequences of objects. An array supports random access iterators. An instance of array<T, N> stores N elements of type T, so that size() == N is an invariant. The elements of an array are stored contiguously, meaning that if a is an array<T, N> then it obeys the identity &a[n] == &a[0] + n for all 0 <= n < N.

2 An array is an aggregate (8.5.1) that can be initialized with the syntax

array a<T, N> = { initializer-list };

where initializer-list is a comma separated list of up to N elements whose types are convertible to T.

3 Unless otherwise specified, all array operations are as described in 23.2. Descriptions are provided here only for operations on array that are not described in that Clause or for operations where there is additional semantic information.

namespace std {
    template <class T, size_t N>
    struct array {
        // types:
        typedef T & reference;
        typedef const T & const_reference;

        § 23.3.1
typedef implementation-defined iterator;
typedef implementation-defined const_iterator;
typedef size_t size_type;
typedef ptrdiff_t difference_type;
typedef T value_type;
typedef reverse_iterator<iterator> reverse_iterator;
typedef reverse_iterator<const_iterator> const_reverse_iterator;

T elems[N]; // exposition only

// No explicit construct/copy/destroy for aggregate type

void fill(const T& u);
void swap(array<T, N>&);

// iterators:
iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;

reverse_iterator rbegin();
const_reverse_iterator rbegin() const;
reverse_iterator rend();
const_reverse_iterator rend() const;

const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;
const_reverse_iterator crbegin() const;
const_reverse_iterator crend() const;

// capacity:
constexpr size_type size();
constexpr size_type max_size();
constexpr bool empty();

// element access:
reference operator[](size_type n);
const_reference operator[](size_type n) const;
const_reference at(size_type n) const;
reference at(size_type n);
reference front();
const_reference front() const;
reference back();
const_reference back() const;

T * data();
const T * data() const;
};

4 [ Note: The member variable elems is shown for exposition only, to emphasize that array is a class aggregate. ]
The name `elems` is not part of `array`'s interface. — end note

### 23.3.1.1 array constructors, copy, and assignment

The conditions for an aggregate (8.5.1) shall be met. Class `array` relies on the implicitly-declared special member functions (12.1, 12.4, and 12.8) to conform to the container requirements table in 23.2.

#### 23.3.1.2 array specialized algorithms

```cpp
template <class T, size_t N> void swap(array<T,N>& x, array<T,N>& y);
```

**Effects:**

\[
\text{swap\_ranges}(x.\text{begin}(), x.\text{end}(), y.\text{begin}());
\]

#### 23.3.1.3 array::size

```cpp
template <class T, size_t N> constexpr size_type array<T,N>::size();
```

**Returns:** \(N\)

#### 23.3.1.4 array::data

```cpp
T *data();
const T *data() const;
```

**Returns:** `elems`

#### 23.3.1.5 array::fill

```cpp
requires CopyAssignable<T>
void fill(const T& u);
```

**Effects:** `fill\_n(begin(), N, u)`

#### 23.3.1.6 Zero sized arrays

array shall provide support for the special case \(N == 0\).

1. In the case that \(N == 0\), `begin()` == `end()` == unique value. The return value of `data()` is unspecified.
2. The effect of calling `front()` or `back()` for a zero-sized array is implementation-defined.

#### 23.3.1.7 Tuple interface to class template array

```cpp
tuple_size<array<T, N>> ::value
```

**Return type:** integral constant expression.

**Value:** \(N\)

```cpp
tuple_element<I, array<T, N>> ::type
```

**Requires:** \(I < N\). The program is ill-formed if \(I\) is out of bounds.

**Value:** The type \(T\).

```cpp
template <size_t I, class T, size_t N> T& get(array<T, N>& a);
```
23.3.2 Class template deque

A deque is a sequence container that, like a vector (23.3.6), supports random access iterators. In addition, it supports constant time insert and erase operations at the beginning or the end; insert and erase in the middle take linear time. That is, a deque is especially optimized for pushing and popping elements at the beginning and end. As with vectors, storage management is handled automatically.

A deque satisfies all of the requirements of a container, of a reversible container (given in tables in 23.2), of a sequence container, including the optional sequence container requirements (23.2.3), and of an allocator-aware container (Table 93). Descriptions are provided here only for operations on deque that are not described in one of these tables or for operations where there is additional semantic information.

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class T, class Allocator = allocator<T> >
    class deque {
    public:
        // types:
        typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::reference reference;
        typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_reference const_reference;
        typedef implementation-defined iterator; // See 23.2
        typedef implementation-defined const_iterator; // See 23.2
        typedef implementation-defined size_type; // See 23.2
        typedef implementation-defined difference_type; // See 23.2
        typedef T value_type;
        typedef Allocator allocator_type;
        typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::pointer pointer;
        typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_pointer const_pointer;
        typedef std::reverse_iterator<iterator> reverse_iterator;
        typedef std::reverse_iterator<const_iterator> const_reverse_iterator;

        // 23.3.2.1 construct/copy/destroy:
        explicit deque(const Allocator& = Allocator());
        explicit deque(size_type n);
        deque(size_type n, const T& value,const Allocator& = Allocator());
        template <class InputIterator>
            deque(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,const Allocator& = Allocator());
        deque(const deque<T,Allocator>& x);
        deque(deque&&);
        deque(const deque&, const Allocator&);
        deque(deque&&, const Allocator&);
        deque(initializer_list<T>, const Allocator& = Allocator());
        ~deque();
    }
}
```
deque<T, Allocator>& operator=(const deque<T, Allocator>& x);
deque<T, Allocator>& operator=(deque<T, Allocator>&& x);
deque& operator=(initializer_list<T>);
template <class InputIterator>
  void assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void assign(size_type n, const T& t);
void assign(initializer_list<T>);
allocator_type get_allocator() const;

// iterators:
iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;
reverse_iterator rbegin();
const_reverse_iterator rbegin() const;
reverse_iterator rend();
const_reverse_iterator rend() const;

const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;
const_reverse_iterator crbegin() const;
const_reverse_iterator crend() const;

// 23.3.2.2 capacity:
size_type size() const;
size_type max_size() const;
void resize(size_type sz);
void resize(size_type sz, const T& c);
void shrink_to_fit();
bool empty() const;

// element access:
reference operator[](size_type n);
const_reference operator[](size_type n) const;
reference at(size_type n);
const_reference at(size_type n) const;
reference front();
const_reference front() const;
reference back();
const_reference back() const;

// 23.3.2.3 modifiers:
template <class... Args> void emplace_front(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> void emplace_back(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> iterator emplace(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);

void push_front(const T& x);
void push_front(T&& x);
void push_back(const T& x);
void push_back(T&& x);

iterator insert(const_iterator position, const T& x);
iterator insert(const_iterator position, T&& x);

§ 23.3.2
template <class InputIterator>
    void iterator insert (const_iterator position, InputIterator first, InputIterator last);

    iterator insert(const_iterator position, initializer_list<T>);

    void pop_front();
    void pop_back();

    iterator erase(const_iterator position);
    iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);

    void swap(deque<T,Allocator>&&);
    void clear();
};

template <class T, class Allocator>
    bool operator==(const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);

template <class T, class Allocator>
    bool operator< (const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);

template <class T, class Allocator>
    bool operator!=(const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);

template <class T, class Allocator>
    bool operator> (const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);

template <class T, class Allocator>
    bool operator>=(const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);

template <class T, class Allocator>
    bool operator<=(const deque<T,Allocator>& x, const deque<T,Allocator>& y);

// specialized algorithms:

23.3.2.1 deque constructors, copy, and assignment

explicit deque(const Allocator& = Allocator());

    Effects: Constructs an empty deque, using the specified allocator.

    Complexity: Constant.

explicit deque(size_type n);

    Effects: Constructs a deque with n default constructed elements.

    Requires: T shall be DefaultConstructible.

    Complexity: Linear in n.

deque(size_type n, const T& value, 
    const Allocator& = Allocator());
6  **Effects:** Constructs a deque with \( n \) copies of `value`, using the specified allocator.

7  **Requires:** `T` shall be `CopyConstructible`.

8  **Complexity:** Linear in \( n \).

```cpp
template <class InputIterator>
deque(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, const Allocator& = Allocator());
```

9  **Effects:** Constructs a deque equal to the the range \([first, last)\), using the specified allocator.

10  **Complexity:** \( \text{distance}(first, last) \).

```cpp
template <class InputIterator>
void assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
```

11  **Effects:**

```cpp
  erase(begin(), end());
  insert(begin(), first, last);
```

```cpp
void assign(size_type n, const T& t);
```

12  **Effects:**

```cpp
  erase(begin(), end());
  insert(begin(), n, t);
```

### 23.3.2.2 deque capacity

```cpp
void resize(size_type sz);
```

1  **Effects:** If \( sz < \text{size()} \), equivalent to `erase(begin() + sz, end())`; If \( \text{size()} < sz \), appends \( sz - \text{size()} \) default constructed elements to the sequence.

2  **Requires:** `T` shall be `DefaultConstructible`.

```cpp
void resize(size_type sz, const T& c);
```

3  **Effects:**

```cpp
  if (sz > \text{size()})
    insert(end(), sz-\text{size()}, c);
  else if (sz < \text{size()})
    erase(begin()+sz, end());
  else
    ;  // do nothing
```

4  **Requires:** `T` shall be `CopyConstructible`.

```cpp
void shrink_to_fit();
```

5  **Remarks:** `shrink_to_fit` is a non-binding request to reduce memory use. [Note: The request is non-binding to allow latitude for implementation-specific optimizations. — end note]
23.3.2.3 deque modifiers [deque.modifiers]

iterator insert(const_iterator position, const T& x);
it iterator insert(const_iterator position, T&& x);
void iterator insert(const_iterator position, size_type n, const T& x);
template <class InputIterator>
 void iterator insert(const_iterator position, 
 InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
it iterator insert(const_iterator position, initializer_list<T>);

template <class... Args> void emplace_front(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> void emplace_back(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> iterator emplace(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
void push_front(const T& x);
void push_front(T&& x);
void push_back(const T& x);
void push_back(T&& x);

Effects: An insertion in the middle of the deque invalidates all the iterators and references to elements of the deque. An insertion at either end of the deque invalidates all the iterators to the deque, but has no effect on the validity of references to elements of the deque.

Remarks: If an exception is thrown other than by the copy constructor or assignment operator of T there are no effects.

Complexity: The complexity is linear in the number of elements inserted plus the lesser of the distances to the beginning and end of the deque. Inserting a single element either at the beginning or end of a deque always takes constant time and causes a single call to a constructor of T.

iterator erase(const_iterator position);
it iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);

Effects: An erase in the middle of the deque invalidates all the iterators and references to elements of the deque and the past-the-end iterator. An erase at the beginning of the deque invalidates only the iterators and the references to the erased elements. An erase at the end of the deque invalidates only the iterators and the references to the erased elements and the past-the-end iterator.

Complexity: The number of calls to the destructor is the same as the number of elements erased, but the number of the calls to the assignment operator is at most equal to the minimum of the number of elements before the erased elements and the number of elements after the erased elements.

Throws: Nothing unless an exception is thrown by the copy constructor or assignment operator of T.

23.3.2.4 deque specialized algorithms [deque.special]

template <class T, class Allocator>
 void swap(deque<T,Allocator>& x, deque<T,Allocator>& y);
template <class T, class Allocator>
 void swap(deque<T,Allocator>&& x, deque<T,Allocator>&& y);
template <class T, class Allocator>
 void swap(deque<T,Allocator>& x, deque<T,Allocator>&& y);

Effects:

x.swap(y);
23.3.3 Class template forward_list

A forward_list is a container that supports forward iterators and allows constant time insert and erase operations anywhere within the sequence, with storage management handled automatically. Fast random access to list elements is not supported. [Note: It is intended that forward_list have zero space or time overhead relative to a hand-written C-style singly linked list. Features that would conflict with that goal have been omitted. — end note]

A forward_list satisfies all of the requirements of a container (table 91), except that the size() member function is not provided. Descriptions are provided here only for operations on forward_list that are not described in that table or for operations where there is additional semantic information.

[Note: modifying any list requires access to the element preceding the first element of interest, but in a forward_list there is no constant-time way to access a preceding element. For this reason, ranges that are modified, such as those supplied to erase and splice, must be open at the beginning. — end note]

namespace std {
  template <class T, class Allocator = allocator<T> >
  class forward_list {
  public:
    // types:
    typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::reference reference;
    typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_reference const_reference;
    typedef implementation-defined iterator; // See 23.2
    typedef implementation-defined const_iterator; // See 23.2
    typedef implementation-defined size_type; // See 23.2
    typedef implementation-defined difference_type; // See 23.2
    typedef T value_type;
    typedef Allocator allocator_type;
    typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::pointer pointer;
    typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_pointer const_pointer;

    // 23.3.3.1 construct/copy/destroy:
    explicit forward_list(const Allocator& = Allocator());
    explicit forward_list(size_type n);
    forward_list(size_type n, const T& value,
                 const Allocator& = Allocator());
    template <class InputIterator>
    forward_list(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                 const Allocator& = Allocator());
    forward_list(const forward_list<T,Allocator>& x);
    forward_list(forward_list<T,Allocator>&& x);
    forward_list(initializer_list<T>, const Allocator& = Allocator());
    "forward_list();
    forward_list<T,Allocator>& operator=(const forward_list<T,Allocator>& x);
    forward_list<T,Allocator>& operator=(forward_list<T,Allocator>&& x);
    forward_list& operator=(initializer_list<T>);
    template <class InputIterator>
    void assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
    void assign(size_type n, const T& t);
    void assign(initializer_list<T>);
    allocator_type get_allocator() const;

    // 23.3.3.2 iterators:
    iterator before_begin();
    const_iterator before_begin() const;
  
  § 23.3.3 730}
iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;

const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cbefore_begin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;

// capacity:
bool empty() const;
size_type max_size() const;

// 23.3.3.3 element access:
reference front();
const_reference front() const;

// 23.3.3.4 modifiers:
template <class... Args> void emplace_front(Args&&... args);
void push_front(const T& x);
void push_front(T&& x);
void pop_front();

template <class... Args> iterator emplace_after(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
iterator insert_after(const_iterator position, const T& x);
iterator insert_after(const_iterator position, T&& x);

void iterator insert_after(const_iterator position, size_type n, const T& x);
template <class InputIterator>
void iterator insert_after(const_iterator position, InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void iterator insert_after(const_iterator position, initializer_list<T> il);

iterator void erase_after(const_iterator position);
iterator void erase_after(const_iterator position, iterator last);
void swap(forward_list<T,Allocator>&&);
void resize(size_type sz);
void resize(size_type sz, value_type c);
void clear();

// 23.3.3.5 forward_list operations:
void splice_after(const_iterator position, forward_list<T,Allocator>&& x);
void splice_after(const_iterator position, forward_list<T,Allocator>&& x,
const_iterator i);
void splice_after(const_iterator position, forward_list<T,Allocator>&& x,
const_iterator first, const_iterator last);

void remove(const T& value);
template <class Predicate> void remove_if(Predicate pred);

void unique();
template <class BinaryPredicate> void unique(BinaryPredicate binary_pred);

void merge(forward_list<T,Allocator>&& x);
template <class Compare> void merge(forward_list<T,Allocator>&& x, Compare comp);
```cpp
void sort();
void reverse();

// Comparison operators
template <class T, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const forward_list<T, Allocator>& x, const forward_list<T, Allocator>& y);

// 23.3.3.6 specialized algorithms:
template <class T, class Allocator>
void swap(forward_list<T, Allocator>& x, forward_list<T, Allocator>& y);

23.3.3.1 forward_list constructors, copy, assignment

explicit forward_list(const Allocator& = Allocator());

Effects: Constructs an empty forward_list object using the specified allocator.
Complexity: Constant.

explicit forward_list(size_type n);

Effects: Constructs a forward_list object with n default constructed elements.
Requires: T shall be DefaultConstructible.
Complexity: Linear in n.

forward_list(size_type n, const T& value, const Allocator& = Allocator());

Effects: Constructs a forward_list object with n copies of value using the specified allocator.
Requires: T shall be CopyConstructible.
Complexity: Linear in n.

template <class InputIterator>
forward_list(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, const Allocator& = Allocator());

Effects: Constructs a forward_list object equal to the range [first, last).
```
Complexity: Linear in $\text{distance}(\text{first}, \text{last})$.

```cpp
template <class InputIterator>
void assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
```

**Effects:**
- `clear(); insert_after(before_begin(), first, last);`

```cpp
void assign(size_type n, const T& t);
```

**Effects:**
- `clear(); insert_after(before_begin(), n, t);`

### 23.3.3.2 forward_list iterators

```cpp
iterator before_begin();
const_iterator before_begin() const;
const_iterator cbefore_begin() const;
```

**Returns:**
- A non-dereferenceable iterator that, when incremented, is equal to the iterator returned by `begin()`.

### 23.3.3.3 forward_list element access

```cpp
reference front();
const_reference front() const;
```

**Returns:**
- `*begin()`

### 23.3.3.4 forward_list modifiers

None of the overloads of `insert_after` shall affect the validity of iterators and references, and `erase_after` shall invalidate only the iterators and references to the erased elements. If an exception is thrown during `insert_after` there shall be no effect. Inserting $n$ elements into a `forward_list` is linear in $n$, and the number of calls to the copy or move constructor of $T$ is exactly equal to $n$. Erasing $n$ elements from a `forward_list` is linear time in $n$ and the number of calls to the destructor of type $T$ is exactly equal to $n$.

```cpp
template <class... Args> void emplace_front(Args&&... args);
```

**Effects:**
- Inserts an object of type `value_type` constructed with `value_type(std::forward<Args>(args)...)` at the beginning of the list.

```cpp
void push_front(const T& x);
void push_front(T&& x);
```

**Effects:**
- Inserts a copy of $x$ at the beginning of the list.

```cpp
void pop_front();
```

**Effects:**
- `erase_after(before_begin())`
- `insert_after(const_iterator position, const T& x);`
- `insert_after(const_iterator position, T&& x);`

**Requires:**
- `position` is `before(before_begin())` or is a dereferenceable iterator in the range `[begin(), end())].`

**Effects:**
- Inserts a copy of $x$ after `position`.

**Returns:**
- An iterator pointing to the copy of $x$.
void iterator insert_after(const_iterator position, size_type n, const T& x);

Requires: position is before begin() or is a dereferenceable iterator in the range [begin(), end()).

Effects: Inserts n copies of x after position.

Returns: position.

template <class InputIterator>
void iterator insert_after(const_iterator position, InputIterator first, InputIterator last);

Requires: position is before begin() or is a dereferenceable iterator in the range [begin(), end()). first and last are not iterators in *this.

Effects: Inserts copies of elements in [first,last) after position.

Returns: position.

void iterator insert_after(const_iterator position, initializer_list<T> il);

Effects: insert_after(p, il.begin(), il.end()).

Returns: position.

template <class... Args>
iterator emplace_after(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);

Requires: position is before begin() or is a dereferenceable iterator in the range [begin(), end()).

Effects: Inserts an object of type value_type constructed with value_type(std::forward<Args>(args)...) after position.

iterator void erase_after(const_iterator position);

Requires: The iterator following position is dereferenceable.

Effects: Erases the element pointed to by the iterator following position.

Returns: An iterator pointing to the element following the one that was erased, or end() if no such element exists.

iterator void erase_after(const_iterator position, iterator last);

Requires: All iterators in the range [position,last) (position,last) are dereferenceable.

Effects: Erases the elements in the range [position,last) (position,last).

Returns: last

void resize(size_type sz);
void resize(size_type sz, value_type c);

Effects: If sz < distance(begin(), end()), erases the last distance(begin(), end()) - sz elements from the list. Otherwise, inserts sz - distance(begin(), end()) elements at the end of the list. For the first signature the inserted elements are default constructed, and for the second signature they are copies of c.

void clear();

Effects: Erases all elements in the range [begin(),end()).

§ 23.3.3.4
23.3.3.5 forward_list operations [forwardlist.ops]

```c
void splice_after(const_iterator position, forward_list<T, Allocator>&& x);
```

1. **Requires:** position is before before_begin() or is a dereferenceable iterator in the range [begin(), end()). \&x != this.
2. **Effects:** Inserts the contents of \(x\) before after position, and \(x\) becomes empty. Pointers and references to the moved elements of \(x\) now refer to those same elements but as members of *\(this\). Iterators referring to the moved elements will continue to refer to their elements, but they now behave as iterators into *\(this\), not into \(x\).
3. **Throws:** Nothing.
4. **Complexity:** \(\mathcal{O}(1)\) \(\mathcal{O}(\text{distance}(x\text{.begin()},x\text{.end}())\))

```c
void splice_after(const_iterator position, forward_list<T, Allocator>&& x, const_iterator i);
```

5. **Requires:** position is before before_begin() or is a dereferenceable iterator in the range [begin(), end()). The iterator following \(i\) is a dereferenceable iterator in \(x\).
6. **Effects:** Inserts the element following \(i\) into *\(this\), following position, and removes it from \(x\). Pointers and references to the moved elements of \(x\) now refer to those same elements but as members of *\(this\). Iterators referring to the moved elements will continue to refer to their elements, but they now behave as iterators into *\(this\), not into \(x\). The result is unchanged if position \(== i\) or position \(== ++i\). Pointers and references to *\(i\) continue to refer to the same element but as a member of *\(this\). Iterators to *\(i\) (including \(i\) itself) continue to refer to the same element, but now behave as iterators into *\(this\), not into \(x\).
7. **Throws:** Nothing.
8. **Complexity:** \(\mathcal{O}(1)\)

```c
void splice_after(const_iterator position, forward_list<T, Allocator>&& x, const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
```

9. **Requires:** position is before before_begin() or is a dereferenceable iterator in the range [begin(), end()). (first,last) is a valid range in \(x\), and all iterators in the range (first,last) are dereferenceable. position is not an iterator in the range (first,last).
10. **Effects:** Inserts elements in the range (first,last) after position and removes the elements from \(x\). Pointers and references to the moved elements of \(x\) now refer to those same elements but as members of *\(this\). Iterators referring to the moved elements will continue to refer to their elements, but they now behave as iterators into *\(this\), not into \(x\).
11. **Complexity:** \(\mathcal{O}((\text{distance(first, last)}))\)

```c
void remove(const T& value);
```

12. **Effects:** Erases all the elements in the list referred by a list iterator \(i\) for which the following conditions hold: *\(i\) == value (for remove()), pred(*\(i\)) is true (for remove_if()). This operation shall be stable: the relative order of the elements that are not removed is the same as their relative order in the original list.
13. **Throws:** Nothing unless an exception is thrown by the equality comparison or the predicate.
14. **Complexity:** Exactly distance(begin(), end()) applications of the corresponding predicate.
void unique();
  template <class BinaryPredicate> void unique(BinaryPredicate pred);

Effects: Eliminates all but the first element from every consecutive group of equal elements referred
to by the iterator \(i\) in the range \([\text{first} + 1, \text{last})\) for which \(i == *(i-1)\) (for the version with no arguments) or \(\text{pred}(i, *(i - 1))\) (for the version with a predicate argument) holds.

Throws: Nothing unless an exception is thrown by the equality comparison or the predicate.

Complexity: If the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) is not empty, exactly \((\text{last} - \text{first}) - 1\) applications of the corresponding predicate, otherwise no applications of the predicate.

void merge(forward_list<T,Allocator>&& x);
  template <class Compare> void merge(forward_list<T,Allocator>&& x, Compare comp)
  
Requires: \text{comp} defines a strict weak ordering (25.4), and \(*\text{this}\) and \(x\) are both sorted according to this ordering.

Effects: Merges \(x\) into \(*\text{this}\). This operation shall be stable: for equivalent elements in the two lists, the elements from \(*\text{this}\) shall always precede the elements from \(x\). \(x\) is empty after the merge. If an exception is thrown other than by a comparison there are no effects.

Complexity: At most \(\text{distance}(\text{begin}(), \text{end}()) + \text{distance}(x.\text{begin}(), x.\text{end}()) - 1\) comparisons.

void sort();
  template <class Compare> void sort(Compare comp);

Requires: \text{operator<} (for the version with no arguments) or \text{comp} (for the version with a comparison argument) defines a strict weak ordering (25.4).

Effects: Sorts the list according to the \text{operator<} or the \text{comp} function object. This operation shall be stable: the relative order of the equivalent elements is preserved. If an exception is thrown the order of the elements in \(*\text{this}\) is unspecified.

Complexity: Approximately \(N \log N\) comparisons, where \(N\) is \(\text{distance}(\text{begin}(), \text{end}())\).

void reverse();
  Effects: Reverses the order of the elements in the list.
  Throws: Nothing.
  Complexity: Linear time.

23.3.3.6 forward_list specialized algorithms

\begin{verbatim}
template <class T, class Allocator>
  void swap(forward_list<T,Allocator>& x, forward_list<T,Allocator>& y);
  template <class T, class Allocator>
  void swap(forward_list<T,Allocator>&& x, forward_list<T,Allocator>& y);
  template <class T, class Allocator>
  void swap(forward_list<T,Allocator>& x, forward_list<T,Allocator>&& y);
\end{verbatim}

Effects: \(x.\text{swap}(y)\)

23.3.4 Class template list

A list is a sequence container that supports bidirectional iterators and allows constant time insert and erase operations anywhere within the sequence, with storage management handled automatically. Unlike
vectors (23.3.6) and deques (23.3.2), fast random access to list elements is not supported, but many algorithms only need sequential access anyway.

2 A list satisfies all of the requirements of a container, of a reversible container (given in two tables in 23.2), of a sequence container, including most of the the optional sequence container requirements (23.2.3), and of an allocator-aware container (Table 93). The exceptions are the operator[] and at member functions, which are not provided.\(^{264}\) Descriptions are provided here only for operations on list that are not described in one of these tables or for operations where there is additional semantic information.

```cpp
namespace std {
  template <class T, class Allocator = allocator<T> >
  class list {
  public:
    // types:
    typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::reference reference;
    typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_reference const_reference;
    typedef implementation-defined iterator; // See 23.2
    typedef implementation-defined const_iterator; // See 23.2
    typedef implementation-defined size_type; // See 23.2
    typedef implementation-defined difference_type; // See 23.2
    typedef T value_type;
    typedef Allocator allocator_type;
    typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::pointer pointer;
    typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_pointer const_pointer;
    typedef std::reverse_iterator<iterator> reverse_iterator;
    typedef std::reverse_iterator<const_iterator> const_reverse_iterator;

    // 23.3.4.1 construct/copy/destroy:
    explicit list(const Allocator& = Allocator());
    explicit list(size_type n);
    list(size_type n, const T& value, const Allocator& = Allocator());
    template <class InputIterator>
    list(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, const Allocator& = Allocator());
    list(const list<T,Allocator>& x);
    list(list&& x);
    list(const list&, const Allocator&);
    list(list&&, const Allocator&);
    list(initializer_list<T>, Allocator& = Allocator());
    list();
    list<T,Allocator>& operator=(const list<T,Allocator>&& x);
    list<T,Allocator>& operator=(list<T,Allocator>&& x);
    list<T,Allocator>& operator=(initializer_list<T>);
    template <class InputIterator>
    void assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
    void assign(size_type n, const T& t);
    void assign(initializer_list<T>);
    allocator_type get_allocator() const;

    // iterators:
    iterator begin();
    const_iterator begin() const;
    iterator end();
    const_iterator end() const;
    reverse_iterator rbegin();
  }
}
```

\(^{264}\) These member functions are only provided by containers whose iterators are random access iterators.
const_reverse_iterator rbegin() const;  
reverse_iterator rend();  
const_reverse_iterator rend() const;

const_iterator cbegin() const;  
const_iterator cend() const;  
const_reverse_iterator crbegin() const;  
const_reverse_iterator crend() const;

// 23.3.4.2 capacity:
bool empty() const;  
size_type size() const;  
size_type max_size() const;  
void resize(size_type sz);  
void resize(size_type sz, const T& c);

// element access:
reference front();  
const_reference front() const;  
reference back();  
const_reference back() const;

// 23.3.4.3 modifiers:
template <class... Args> void emplace_front(Args&&... args);  
void pop_front();  
template <class... Args> void emplace_back(Args&&... args);  
void push_front(const T& x);  
void push_front(T&& x);  
void push_back(const T& x);  
void push_back(T&& x);  
void pop_back();

template <class... Args> iterator emplace(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);  
iterator insert(const_iterator position, const T& x);  
iterator insert(const_iterator position, T&& x);  
void iterator insert(const_iterator position, size_type n, const T& x);  
template <class InputIterator>  
void iterator insert(const_iterator position, InputIterator first, InputIterator last);  
void iterator insert(const_iterator position, initializer_list<T> il);

iterator erase(const_iterator position);  
iterator erase(const_iterator position, const_iterator last);  
void swap(list<T,Allocator>&&);  
void clear();

// 23.3.4.4 list operations:
void splice(const_iterator position, list<T,Allocator>&& x);  
void splice(const_iterator position, list<T,Allocator>&& x, const_iterator i);  
void splice(const_iterator position, list<T,Allocator>&& x, const_iterator first, const_iterator last);

void remove(const T& value);  
template <class Predicate> void remove_if(Predicate pred);
void unique();
template <class BinaryPredicate>
void unique(BinaryPredicate binary_pred);

void merge(list<T,Allocator>&& x);
template <class Compare> void merge(list<T,Allocator>&& x, Compare comp);

void sort();
template <class Compare> void sort(Compare comp);

void reverse();
};

template <class T, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const list<T,Allocator>& x, const list<T,Allocator>& y);
template <class T, class Allocator>
bool operator< (const list<T,Allocator>& x, const list<T,Allocator>& y);
template <class T, class Allocator>
bool operator!=(const list<T,Allocator>& x, const list<T,Allocator>& y);
template <class T, class Allocator>
bool operator> (const list<T,Allocator>& x, const list<T,Allocator>& y);
template <class T, class Allocator>
bool operator>=(const list<T,Allocator>& x, const list<T,Allocator>& y);
template <class T, class Allocator>
bool operator<=(const list<T,Allocator>& x, const list<T,Allocator>& y);

// specialized algorithms:
template <class T, class Allocator>
void swap(list<T,Allocator>& x, list<T,Allocator>& y);
template <class T, class Allocator>
void swap(list<T,Allocator>&& x, list<T,Allocator>& y);
template <class T, class Allocator>
void swap(list<T,Allocator>&x, list<T,Allocator>&y);
template <class T, class Allocator>
void swap(list<T,Allocator>&&x, list<T,Allocator>&& y);

template <class T, class Alloc>
struct constructible_with_allocator_suffix<list<T, Alloc> >
    : true_type { };
6 **Effects:** Constructs a list with n copies of value, using the specified allocator.

7 **Requires:** T shall be CopyConstructible.

8 **Complexity:** Linear in n.

template <class InputIterator>
list(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
const Allocator& = Allocator());

9 **Effects:** Constructs a list equal to the range [first, last).

10 **Complexity:** Linear in distance(first, last).

template <class InputIterator>
void assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);

11 **Effects:** Replaces the contents of the list with the range [first, last).

    erase(begin(), end());
    insert(begin(), n, t);

void assign(size_type n, const T& t);

12 **Effects:** Replaces the contents of the list with n copies of t.

23.3.4.2 list capacity

**void resize(size_type sz);**

1 **Effects:** If sz < size(), equivalent to list<T>::iterator it = begin(); advance(it, sz); erase(it, end()); If size() < sz, appends sz - size() default constructed elements to the sequence.

2 **Requires:** T shall be DefaultConstructible.

void resize(size_type sz, const T& c);

3 **Effects:**

    if (sz > size())
        insert(end(), sz-size(), c);
    else if (sz < size()) {
        iterator i = begin();
        advance(i, sz);
        erase(i, end());
    }
    else
        // do nothing

4 **Requires:** T shall be CopyConstructible.

23.3.4.3 list modifiers

**iterator insert(const_iterator position, const T& x);**

**iterator insert(const_iterator position, T&& x);**

**void iterator insert(const_iterator position, size_type n, const T& x);**

**template <class InputIterator>**

**void iterator insert(const_iterator position, InputIterator first,**

§ 23.3.4.3
template <class... Args> void emplace_front(Args&&... args);
    void push_front(const T& x);
    void push_front(T&& x);

    template <class... Args> iterator emplace(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
    void push_back(const T& x);
    void push_back(T&& x);

    iterator erase(const_iterator position);
    iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
    void pop_front();
    void pop_back();
    void clear();

    Remarks: Does not affect the validity of iterators and references. If an exception is thrown there are no effects.

    Complexity: Insertion of a single element into a list takes constant time and exactly one call to a constructor of T. Insertion of multiple elements into a list is linear in the number of elements inserted, and the number of calls to the copy constructor or move constructor of T is exactly equal to the number of elements inserted.

    iterator erase(const_iterator position);
    iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);

    void pop_front();
    void pop_back();
    void clear();

    Effects: Invalidates only the iterators and references to the erased elements.

    Throws: Nothing.

    Complexity: Erasing a single element is a constant time operation with a single call to the destructor of T. Erasing a range in a list is linear time in the size of the range and the number of calls to the destructor of type T is exactly equal to the size of the range.

23.3.4.4 list operations

Since lists allow fast insertion and erasing from the middle of a list, certain operations are provided specifically for them. 265

list provides three splice operations that destructively move elements from one list to another. The behavior of splice operations is undefined if get_allocator() != x.get_allocator().

    void splice(const_iterator position, list<T,Allocator>&& x);
    void splice(const_iterator position, list<T,Allocator>&& x, iterator i);

    Requires: &x != this.

    Effects: Inserts the contents of x before position and x becomes empty. Pointers and references to the moved elements of x now refer to those same elements but as members of *this. Iterators referring to the moved elements will continue to refer to their elements, but they now behave as iterators into *this, not into x.

    Throws: Nothing

    Complexity: Constant time.

---

265) As specified in 20.2.2, the requirements in this Clause apply only to lists whose allocators compare equal.
Effects: Inserts an element pointed to by \( i \) from list \( x \) before \( \text{position} \) and removes the element from \( x \). The result is unchanged if \( \text{position} == i \) or \( \text{position} == \text{++i} \). Pointers and references to \( *i \) continue to refer to this same element but as a member of \( *\text{this} \). Iterators to \( *i \) (including \( i \) itself) continue to refer to the same element, but now behave as iterators into \( *\text{this} \), not into \( x \).

Throws: Nothing

Requires: \( i \) is a valid dereferenceable iterator of \( x \).

Complexity: Constant time.

```cpp
void splice(const_iterator position, list<T,Allocator>&& x, iterator first, iterator last);
```

Effects: Inserts elements in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) before \( \text{position} \) and removes the elements from \( x \).

Requires: \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) is a valid range in \( x \). The result is undefined if \( \text{position} \) is an iterator in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\). Pointers and references to the moved elements of \( x \) now refer to those same elements but as members of \( *\text{this} \). Iterators referring to the moved elements will continue to refer to their elements, but they now behave as iterators into \( *\text{this} \), not into \( x \).

Throws: Nothing

Complexity: Constant time if \&x == \this; otherwise, linear time.

```cpp
void remove(const T& value);
template <class Predicate> void remove_if(Predicate pred);
```

Effects: Erases all the elements in the list referred by a list iterator \( i \) for which the following conditions hold: \( *i == \text{value} \), \( \text{pred}(\text{i}) != \text{false} \).

Throws: Nothing unless an exception is thrown by \( *i == \text{value} \) or \( \text{pred}(\text{i}) != \text{false} \).

Remarks: Stable.

Complexity: Exactly \( \text{size()} \) applications of the corresponding predicate.

```cpp
void unique();
template <class BinaryPredicate> void unique(BinaryPredicate binary_pred);
```

Effects: Eliminates all but the first element from every consecutive group of equal elements referred to by the iterator \( i \) in the range \([\text{first} + 1, \text{last})\) for which \( *i == *(\text{i-1}) \) (for the version of \unique\ with no arguments) or \( \text{pred}(\text{i}, *(\text{i - 1})) \) (for the version of \unique\ with a predicate argument) holds.

Throws: Nothing unless an exception in thrown by \( *i == *(\text{i-1}) \) or \( \text{pred}(\text{i}, *(\text{i - 1})) \)

Complexity: If the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) is not empty, exactly \( (\text{last} - \text{first}) - 1 \) applications of the corresponding predicate, otherwise no applications of the predicate.

```cpp
void merge(list<T,Allocator>&& x);
template <class Compare> void merge(list<T,Allocator>&& x, Compare comp);
```

Requires: \( \text{comp} \) shall define a strict weak ordering (25.4), and both the list and the argument list shall be sorted according to this ordering.

Effects: If \( \&x == \this \) does nothing; otherwise, merges the two sorted ranges \([\text{begin()}, \text{end()}\) and \([\text{x.begin()}, \text{x.end()}\)). The result is a range in which the elements will be sorted in non-
decreasing order according to the ordering defined by comp; that is, for every iterator i, in the range other than the first, the condition \( \text{comp}(\ast i, \ast(i - 1)) \) will be false.

\[ \text{void reverse();} \]

26 \[ \text{Effects: Reverses the order of the elements in the list.} \]

27 \[ \text{Throws: Nothing.} \]

28 \[ \text{Complexity: Linear time.} \]

\[ \text{void sort();} \]

template <class Compare> void sort(Compare comp);

29 \[ \text{Requires: operator< (for the first version) or comp (for the second version) shall define a strict weak ordering (25.4).} \]

30 \[ \text{Effects: Sorts the list according to the operator< or a Compare function object.} \]

31 \[ \text{Remarks: Stable.} \]

32 \[ \text{Complexity: Approximately } N \log(N) \text{ comparisons, where } N = \text{size()}. \]

### 23.3.4.5 list specialized algorithms

23.3.4.5 list specialized algorithms

**template** <class T, class Allocator>

void swap(list<T,Allocator>& x, list<T,Allocator>& y);

\[ \text{template <class T, class Allocator>} \]

\[ \text{void swap(list<T,Allocator>& x, list<T,Allocator>& y);} \]

\[ \text{template <class T, class Allocator>} \]

\[ \text{void swap(list<T,Allocator>& x, list<T,Allocator>&& y);} \]

1 \[ \text{Effects:} \]

\[ x.\text{swap}(y); \]

### 23.3.5 Container adaptors

23.3.5 Container adaptors

The container adaptors each take a Container template parameter, and each constructor takes a Container reference argument. This container is copied into the Container member of each adaptor. If the container takes an allocator, then a compatible allocator may be passed in to the adaptor’s constructor. Otherwise, normal copy or move construction is used for the container argument. [Note: it is not necessary for an implementation to distinguish between the one-argument constructor that takes a Container and the one-argument constructor that takes an allocator_type. Both forms use their argument to construct an instance of the container. — end note]

### 23.3.5.1 Class template queue

23.3.5.1 Class template queue

Any sequence container supporting operations front(), back(), push_back() and pop_front() can be used to instantiate queue. In particular, list (23.3.4) and deque (23.3.2) can be used.

### 23.3.5.1.1 queue definition

23.3.5.1.1 queue definition
namespace std {

    template <class T, class Container = deque<T> >
    class queue {
    public:
        typedef typename Container::value_type     value_type;
        typedef typename Container::reference      reference;
        typedef typename Container::const_reference const_reference;
        typedef typename Container::size_type      size_type;
        typedef Container                        container_type;

    protected:
        Container c;

    public:
        explicit queue(const Container&);
        explicit queue(Container&& = Container());
        queue(queue&& q) : c(std::move(q.c)) {} // C++11
        template <class Alloc> explicit queue(const Alloc&);
        template <class Alloc> queue(const Container&, const Alloc&);
        template <class Alloc> queue(Container&&, const Alloc&);
        template <class Alloc> queue(queue&&, const Alloc&);
        template <class Alloc> queue& operator=(queue&& q) { c = std::move(q.c); return *this; }

        bool empty() const { return c.empty(); }
        size_type size() const { return c.size(); }
        reference front() { return c.front(); }
        const_reference front() const { return c.front(); }
        reference back() { return c.back(); }
        const_reference back() const { return c.back(); }
        void push(const value_type& x) { c.push_back(x); }
        void push(value_type&& x) { c.push_back(std::move(x)); }
        template <class... Args> void emplace(Args&&... args)
        { c.emplace_back(std::forward<Args>(args)...); }
        void pop() { c.pop_front(); }
        void swap(queue& x, queue& y);
    }

    template <class T, class Container>
    bool operator==(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);

    template <class T, class Container>
    bool operator<(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);

    template <class T, class Container>
    bool operator!=(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);

    template <class T, class Container>
    bool operator>(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);

    template <class T, class Container>
    bool operator>=(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);

    template <class T, class Container>
    bool operator<=(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);

    template <class T, class Container>
    void swap(queue<T, Container>& x, queue<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
    void swap(queue<T, Container>&& x, queue<T, Container>&& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
    void swap(queue<T, Container>& x, queue<T, Container>& y);
    template <class T, class Container>
    void swap(queue<T, Container>&& x, queue<T, Container>&& y);

} // namespace std
23.3.5.1.2  queue operators

```
template <class T, class Container>
bool operator==(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);
1  Returns: x.c == y.c.

template <class T, class Container>
bool operator!=(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);
2  Returns: x.c != y.c.

template <class T, class Container>
bool operator<(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);
3  Returns: x.c < y.c.

template <class T, class Container>
bool operator<=(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);
4  Returns: x.c <= y.c.

template <class T, class Container>
bool operator>(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);
5  Returns: x.c > y.c.

template <class T, class Container>
bool operator>=(const queue<T, Container>& x, const queue<T, Container>& y);
6  Returns: x.c >= y.c.
```

23.3.5.1.3  queue specialized algorithms

```
template <class T, class Container>
void swap(queue<T, Container>& x, queue<T, Container>& y);
1  Effects: x.swap(y).
```
23.3.5.2 Class template priority_queue

Any sequence container with random access iterator and supporting operations \texttt{front()}, \texttt{push\_back()} and \texttt{pop\_back()} can be used to instantiate \texttt{priority\_queue}. In particular, \texttt{vector (23.3.6)} and \texttt{deque (23.3.2)} can be used. Instantiating \texttt{priority\_queue} also involves supplying a function or function object for making priority comparisons; the library assumes that the function or function object defines a strict weak ordering (25.4).

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class T, class Container = vector<T>,
              class Compare = less<typename Container::value_type> >
    class priority_queue {
public:
    typedef typename Container::value_type value_type;
    typedef typename Container::reference reference;
    typedef typename Container::const_reference const_reference;
    typedef typename Container::size_type size_type;
    typedef Container container_type;
    protected:
    Container c;
    Compare comp;

    public:
    priority_queue(const Compare& x, const Container&);
    explicit priority_queue(const Compare& x = Compare(), Container&& = Container());

template <class InputIterator>
    priority_queue(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                   const Compare& x, const Container&);

template <class InputIterator>
    priority_queue(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                   const Compare& x = Compare(), Container&& = Container());

    priority_queue(priority_queue&&);
    priority_queue& operator=(priority_queue&&);

template <class Alloc> explicit priority_queue(const Alloc&);

template <class Alloc> priority_queue(const Compare&, const Alloc&);

template <class Alloc> priority_queue(const Compare&,
                          container_type& c, const Alloc&);

template <class Alloc> priority_queue(priority_queue&&,
                          container_type& c, const Alloc&);

template <class Alloc> priority_queue(priority_queue&&, const Alloc&);

    bool empty() const { return c.empty(); }
    size_type size() const { return c.size(); }
    const_reference top() const { return c.front(); }

    void push(const value_type& x);
    void push(value_type&& x);
    template <class... Args> void emplace(Args&&... args)
    void pop();
    void swap(priority_queue&&);
};

// no equality is provided
```

§ 23.3.5.2
template <class T, class Container, class Compare>
void swap(priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>& x, priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>&& y);

template <class T, class Container, class Compare, class Alloc>
struct uses_allocator<priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>, Alloc> : uses_allocator<Container, Alloc>::type { 

template <class T, class Container, class Compare>
struct constructible_with_allocator_suffix<priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>> : true_type { 
}

23.3.5.2.1 priority_queue constructors

priority_queue(const Compare& x,
const Container& y);
explicit priority_queue(const Compare& x = Compare(),
Container&& y = Container());

1 Requires: x shall define a strict weak ordering (25.4).
2 Effects: Initializes comp with x and c with y (copy constructing or move constructing as appropriate);
calls make_heap(c.begin(), c.end(), comp).

template <class InputIterator>
priority_queue(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
const Compare& x,
const Container& y);
template <class InputIterator>
priority_queue(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
const Compare& x = Compare(),
Container&& y = Container());

3 Requires: x shall define a strict weak ordering (25.4).
4 Effects: Initializes comp with x and c with y (copy constructing or move constructing as appropriate);
calls c.insert(c.end(), first, last); and finally calls make_heap(c.begin(), c.end(), comp).

23.3.5.2.2 priority_queue members

void push(const value_type& x);
1 Effects:
  c.push_back(x);
push_heap(c.begin(), c.end(), comp);

void push(value_type&& x);
2 Effects:
  c.push_back(std::move(x));
push_heap(c.begin(), c.end(), comp);

template <class... Args> void emplace(Args&&... args)
3

**Effects:**

```c
    c.emplace_back(std::forward<Args>(args)...);
    push_heap(c.begin(), c.end(), comp);
```

```c
void pop();
```

4

**Effects:**

```c
    pop_heap(c.begin(), c.end(), comp);
    c.pop_back();
```

23.3.5.2.3 **priority_queue** specialized algorithms  

[priqueue.special]

```c
template <class T, class Container, Compare>
    void swap(priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>& x, priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>& y);
```  

```c
template <class T, class Container, Compare>
    void swap(priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>&& x, priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>& y);
```  

```c
template <class T, class Container, Compare>
    void swap(priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>& x, priority_queue<T, Container, Compare>&& y);
```  

1

**Effects:**  

```c
x.swap(y).
```

23.3.5.3 **Class template** stack  

[stack]

1

Any sequence container supporting operations `back()`, `push_back()` and `pop_back()` can be used to instantiate `stack`. In particular, `vector` (23.3.6), `list` (23.3.4) and `deque` (23.3.2) can be used.

23.3.5.3.1 **stack definition**  

[stack.defn]

```c
namespace std {
    template <class T, class Container = deque<T> >
    class stack {
public:
    typedef typename Container::value_type value_type;
    typedef typename Container::reference reference;
    typedef typename Container::const_reference const_reference;
    typedef typename Container::size_type size_type;
    typedef Container container_type;
protected:
    Container c;

public:
    explicit stack(const Container&);
    explicit stack(Container&& = Container());
    template <class Alloc> explicit stack(const Alloc&);
    template <class Alloc> stack(const Container&, const Alloc&);
    template <class Alloc> stack(Container&&, const Alloc&);
    template <class Alloc> stack(stack&&, const Alloc&);
    bool empty() const { return c.empty(); }  
    size_type size() const { return c.size(); } 
    reference top() { return c.back(); }  
    const_reference top() const { return c.back(); }  
    void push(const value_type& x) { c.push_back(x); }  
    void push(value_type&& x) { c.push_back(std::move(x)); }  
```
template <class... Args> void emplace(Args&&... args)
{ c.emplace_back(std::forward<Args>(args)...); }
void pop() { c.pop_back(); }
void swap(stack&& s) { c.swap(s.c); }
};

template <class T, class Container>
bool operator==(const stack<T, Container>& x, const stack<T, Container>& y);

template <class T, class Container>
bool operator< (const stack<T, Container>& x, const stack<T, Container>& y);

template <class T, class Container>
bool operator!=(const stack<T, Container>& x, const stack<T, Container>& y);

template <class T, class Container>
bool operator> (const stack<T, Container>& x, const stack<T, Container>& y);

template <class T, class Container>
bool operator>=(const stack<T, Container>& x, const stack<T, Container>& y);

template <class T, class Container>
bool operator<=(const stack<T, Container>& x, const stack<T, Container>& y);

template <class T, class Allocator>
void swap(stack<T, Allocator>& x, stack<T, Allocator>& y);

template <class T, class Allocator>
void swap(stack<T, Allocator>&& x, stack<T, Allocator>& y);

template <class T, class Allocator>
void swap(stack<T, Allocator>& x, stack<T, Allocator>&& y);

template <class T, class Container, class Alloc>
struct uses_allocator<stack<T, Container>, Alloc>::type { };
template <class T, class Container>
bool operator> (const stack<T, Container>& x,
const stack<T, Container>& y);

template <class T, class Container>
bool operator>=(const stack<T, Container>& x,
const stack<T, Container>& y);

Effets: x.swap(y).

A vector is a sequence container that supports random access iterators. In addition, it supports (amortized) constant time insert and erase operations at the end; insert and erase in the middle take linear time. Storage management is handled automatically, though hints can be given to improve efficiency. The elements of a vector are stored contiguously, meaning that if v is a vector<T, Allocator> where T is some type other than bool, then it obeys the identity &v[n] == &v[0] + n for all 0 <= n < v.size().

A vector satisfies all of the requirements of a container and of a reversible container (given in two tables in 23.2), of a sequence container, including most of the optional sequence container requirements (23.2.3), and of an allocator-aware container (Table 93). The exceptions are the push_front and pop_front member functions, which are not provided. Descriptions are provided here only for operations on vector that are not described in one of these tables or for operations where there is additional semantic information.
// 23.3.6.1 construct/copy/destroy:
explicit vector(const Allocator& = Allocator());
explicit vector(size_type n);
vector(size_type n, const T& value, const Allocator& = Allocator());
template <class InputIterator>
  vector(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
          const Allocator& = Allocator());
vector(const vector<T, Allocator>& x);
vector(vector&&);
vector(const vector& const Allocator&);
vector(initializer_list<T>, const Allocator& = Allocator());
vector<T, Allocator>& operator=(const vector<T, Allocator>& x);
vector<T, Allocator>& operator=(vector<T, Allocator>&& x);
vector<T, Allocator>& operator=(initializer_list<T>);
template <class InputIterator>
  void assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void assign(size_type n, const T& u);
void assign(initializer_list<T>);
allocator_type get_allocator() const;

// iterators:
iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;
reverse_iterator rbegin();
const_reverse_iterator rbegin() const;
reverse_iterator rend();
const_reverse_iterator rend() const;
const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;
const_reverse_iterator crbegin() const;
const_reverse_iterator crend() const;

// 23.3.6.2 capacity:
size_type size() const;
size_type max_size() const;
void resize(size_type sz);
void resize(size_type sz, const T& c);
size_type capacity() const;
bool empty() const;
void reserve(size_type n);
void shrink_to_fit();

// element access:
reference operator[](size_type n);
const_reference operator[](size_type n) const;
const_reference at(size_type n) const;
reference at(size_type n);
reference front();
const_reference front() const;
reference back();
const_reference back() const;

// 23.3.6.3 data access
pointer data();
const_pointer data() const;

// 23.3.6.4 modifiers:
template <class... Args> void emplace_back(Args&&... args);
void push_back(const T& x);
void push_back(T&& x);
void pop_back();

template <class... Args> iterator emplace(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
iterator insert(const_iterator position, const T& x);
iterator insert(const_iterator position, const T& x);
void insert(const_iterator position, size_type n, const T& x);
template <class InputIterator>
void insert(const_iterator position, InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void insert(const_iterator position, initializer_list<T> il);
iterator erase(const_iterator position);
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
void swap(vector<T, Allocator>&&);
void clear();
};

template <class T, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const vector<T, Allocator>& x, const vector<T, Allocator>& y);

// specialized algorithms:
template <class T, class Allocator>
void swap(vector<T, Allocator>& x, vector<T, Allocator>& y);
template <class T, class Allocator>
void swap(vector<T, Allocator>&& x, vector<T, Allocator>& y);
template <class T, class Allocator>
void swap(vector<T, Allocator>&& x, vector<T, Allocator>&& y);

template <class T, class Alloc>
struct constructible_with_allocator_suffix<vector<T, Alloc> > : true_type {
};

23.3.6.1 vector constructors, copy, and assignment

§ 23.3.6.1 752
explicit vector(const Allocator& = Allocator());

**Effects:** Constructs an empty `vector`, using the specified allocator.

**Complexity:** Constant.

explicit vector(size_type n);

**Effects:** Constructs a `vector` with n default constructed elements.

**Requires:** T shall be `DefaultConstructible`.

**Complexity:** Linear in n.

vector(size_type n, const T& value, const Allocator& = Allocator());

**Effects:** Constructs a `vector` with n copies of `value`, using the specified allocator.

**Requires:** T shall be `CopyConstructible`.

**Complexity:** Linear in n.

template <class InputIterator>
vector(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, const Allocator& = Allocator());

**Effects:** Constructs a `vector` equal to the range `[first,last)`, using the specified allocator.

**Complexity:** Makes only N calls to the copy constructor of T (where N is the distance between `first` and `last`) and no reallocations if iterators `first` and `last` are of forward, bidirectional, or random access categories. It makes order N calls to the copy constructor of T and order \( \log(N) \) reallocations if they are just input iterators.

template <class InputIterator>
void assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);

**Effects:**

```
erase(begin(), end());
insert(begin(), first, last);
```

void assign(size_type n, const T& t);

**Effects:**

```
erase(begin(), end());
insert(begin(), n, t);
```

### 23.3.6.2 vector capacity

```
size_type capacity() const;
```

**Returns:** The total number of elements that the vector can hold without requiring reallocation.

void reserve(size_type n);

**Requires:** If `value_type` has a move constructor, that constructor shall not throw any exceptions.
Effects: A directive that informs a vector of a planned change in size, so that it can manage the storage allocation accordingly. After reserve(), capacity() is greater or equal to the argument of reserve if reallocation happens; and equal to the previous value of capacity() otherwise. Reallocation happens at this point if and only if the current capacity is less than the argument of reserve(). If an exception is thrown, there are no effects.

Complexity: It does not change the size of the sequence and takes at most linear time in the size of the sequence.

Throws: length_error if n > max_size().

Remarks: Reallocation invalidates all the references, pointers, and iterators referring to the elements in the sequence. It is guaranteed that no reallocation takes place during insertions that happen after a call to reserve() until the time when an insertion would make the size of the vector greater than the value of capacity().

void shrink_to_fit();

Remarks: shrink_to_fit is a non-binding request to reduce capacity() to size(). [Note: The request is non-binding to allow latitude for implementation-specific optimizations. — end note]

void swap(vector<T,Allocator>& x);

Effects: Exchanges the contents and capacity() of *this with that of x.

Complexity: Constant time.

void resize(size_type sz);

Effects: If sz < size(), equivalent to erase(begin() + sz, end()); If size() < sz, appends sz - size() default constructed elements to the sequence.

Requires: T shall be DefaultConstructible.

void resize(size_type sz, const T& c);

Effects:

    if (sz > size())
        insert(end(), sz-size(), c);
    else if (sz < size())
        erase(begin()+sz, end());
    else
        // do nothing

Requires: If value_type has a move constructor, that constructor shall not throw any exceptions.

23.3.6.3 vector data [vector.data]

指针     data();
const指针  data() const;

Returns: A pointer such that [data(),data() + size()) is a valid range. For a non-empty vector, data() == &front().

Complexity: Constant time.

Throws: Nothing.

266) reserve() uses Allocator::allocate() which may throw an appropriate exception.
23.3.6.4 vector modifiers

iterator insert(const_iterator position, const T& x);
iterator insert(const_iterator position, T&& x);
void iterator insert(const_iterator position, size_type n, const T& x);
template <class InputIterator>
    void iterator insert(const_iterator position, InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
iterator insert(const_iterator position, initializer_list<T>);

template <class... Args> void emplace_back(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> iterator emplace(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
void push_back(const T& x);
void push_back(T&& x);

1 Requires: If value_type has a move constructor, that constructor shall not throw any exceptions.

2 Remarks: Causes reallocation if the new size is greater than the old capacity. If no reallocation happens, all the iterators and references before the insertion point remain valid. If an exception is thrown other than by the copy constructor or assignment operator of T or by any InputIterator operation there are no effects.

3 Complexity: The complexity is linear in the number of elements inserted plus the distance to the end of the vector.

iterator erase(const_iterator position);
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);

4 Effects: Invalidates iterators and references at or after the point of the erase.

5 Complexity: The destructor of T is called the number of times equal to the number of the elements erased, but the move assignment operator of T is called the number of times equal to the number of elements in the vector after the erased elements.

6 Throws: Nothing unless an exception is thrown by the copy constructor or assignment operator of T.

23.3.6.5 vector specialized algorithms

template <class T, class Allocator>
    void swap(vector<T,Allocator>& x, vector<T,Allocator>& y);

1 Effects:
    x.swap(y);

23.3.7 Class vector<bool>

1 To optimize space allocation, a specialization of vector for bool elements is provided:

    namespace std {
        template <class Allocator> class vector<bool, Allocator> {
            public:
                // types:
                typedef bool const_reference;
typedef implementation-defined iterator; // See 23.2
typedef implementation-defined const_iterator; // See 23.2
typedef implementation-defined size_type; // See 23.2
typedef implementation-defined difference_type; // See 23.2
typedef bool value_type;
typedef Allocator allocator_type;
typedef implementation-defined pointer;
typedef implementation-defined const_pointer;
typedef std::reverse_iterator<iterator> reverse_iterator;
typedef std::reverse_iterator<const_iterator> const_reverse_iterator;

// bit reference:
class reference {
  friend class vector;
  reference();
public:
  ~reference();
  operator bool() const;
  reference& operator=(const bool x);
  reference& operator=(const reference& x);
  void flip(); // flips the bit
};

// construct/copy/destroy:
explicit vector(const Allocator& = Allocator());
explicit vector(size_type n, const bool& value = bool(),
  const Allocator& = Allocator());
template <class InputIterator>
  vector(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
  const Allocator& = Allocator());
vector(const vector<bool,Allocator>& x);
vector(vector<bool,Allocator>&& x);
vector(const vector&, const Allocator&);
vector(vector&&, const Allocator&);
vector(initializer_list<bool>);
~vector();
 vector<bool,Allocator>& operator=(const vector<bool,Allocator>& x);
 vector<bool,Allocator>& operator=(vector<bool,Allocator>&& x);
 vector operator=(initializer_list<bool>);
template <class InputIterator>
  void assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
  void assign(size_type n, const bool& t);
  void assign(initializer_list<bool>);
  allocator_type get_allocator() const;

// iterators:
iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;
reverse_iterator rbegin();
const_reverse_iterator rbegin() const;
reverse_iterator rend();
const_reverse_iterator rend() const;

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```
const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;
const_reverse_iterator crbegin() const;
const_reverse_iterator crend() const;

// capacity:
size_type size() const;
size_type max_size() const;
void resize(size_type sz, bool c = false);
size_type capacity() const;
bool empty() const;
void reserve(size_type n);
void shrink_to_fit();

// element access:
reference operator[](size_type n);
const_reference operator[](size_type n) const;
const_reference at(size_type n) const;
reference front();
const_reference front() const;
reference back();
const_reference back() const;

// modifiers:
void push_back(const bool& x);
void pop_back();
iterator insert(const_iterator position, const bool& x);
template <class InputIterator>
void iterator insert(const_iterator position, InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void iterator insert(const_iterator position, initializer_list<bool> il);
iterator erase(const_iterator position);
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
void swap(vector<bool, Allocator>&&);
static void swap(reference x, reference y);
void flip(); // flips all bits
void clear();
};
```

2 Unless described below, all operations have the same requirements and semantics as the primary `vector` template, except that operations dealing with the `bool` value type map to bit values in the container storage and `AllocatableElement::construct (23.2)` allocates `allocatable_traits::construct (20.8.7.2)` is not used to construct these values.

3 There is no requirement that the data be stored as a contiguous allocation of `bool` values. A space-optimized representation of bits is recommended instead.

4 `reference` is a class that simulates the behavior of references of a single bit in `vector<bool>`. The conversion operator returns `true` when the bit is set, and `false` otherwise. The assignment operator sets the bit when the argument is (convertible to) `true` and clears it otherwise. `flip` reverses the state of the bit.
void flip();

Effects: Replaces each element in the container with its complement. It is unspecified whether the function has any effect on allocated but unused bits.

static void swap(reference x, reference y);

Effects: Exchanges the contents of \( x \) and \( y \) as if by

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{bool } b &= x; \\
\text{x} &= y; \\
\text{y} &= b; \\
\end{align*}
\]

### 23.4 Associative containers

[associative]

**Headers** `<map>` and `<set>`:

**Header `<map>` synopsis**

```cpp
namespace std {
    #include <initializer_list>

template <class Key, class T, class Compare = less<Key>,
        class Allocator = allocator<pair<const Key, T> > >
class map;

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x,
        const map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator< (const map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x,
        const map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator!=(const map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x,
        const map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator> (const map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x,
        const map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator>=(const map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x,
        const map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator<=(const map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x,
        const map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x,
        map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x,
        map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x,
        map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare = less<Key>,
        class Allocator = allocator<pair<const Key, T> > >
class multimap;
```
Header <set> synopsis

namespace std {
    #include <initializer_list>

    template <class Key, class Compare = less<Key>,
              class Allocator = allocator<Key>>
    class set;

    template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
    bool operator==(const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x,
                   const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& y);  
    template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
    bool operator<( const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x,
                     const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& y);eken
    template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
    bool operator!=(const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x,
                     const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& y);  
    template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
    bool operator>( const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x,
                     const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& y);  
    template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
    bool operator>=(const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x,
                     const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& y);  
    template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
    bool operator<=(const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x,
                     const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& y);  
    template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
    void swap(set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x,
              set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& y);  
    template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
    void swap(set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x,
              set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& y);  
}
§ 23.4.1  Class template map

A map is an associative container that supports unique keys (contains at most one of each key value) and provides for fast retrieval of values of another type T based on the keys. The map class supports bidirectional iterators.

A map satisfies all of the requirements of a container, of a reversible container (23.2), of an associative container (23.2.4), and of an allocator-aware container (Table 93). A map also provides most operations described in (23.2.4) for unique keys. This means that a map supports the a_uniq operations in (23.2.4) but not the a_eq operations. For a map<Key,T> the key_type is Key and the value_type is pair<const Key,T>. Descriptions are provided here only for operations on map that are not described in one of those tables or for operations where there is additional semantic information.

namespace std {

```cpp
void swap(set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x,
           set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(set<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x,
           set<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(set<Key,T,Compare,Allocator&& x,
           set<Key,T,Compare,Allocator&& y));

```
template <class Key, class T, class Compare = less<Key>,
          class Allocator = allocator<pair<const Key, T> > >

class map {
  public:
    // types:
    typedef Key key_type;
    typedef T mapped_type;
    typedef pair<const Key, T> value_type;
    typedef Compare key_compare;
    typedef Allocator allocator_type;

    typedef typename
        allocator_traits<Allocator>::reference reference;
    typedef typename
        allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_reference const_reference;

    typedef implementation_defined iterator;  // See 23.2
    typedef implementation_defined const_iterator;  // See 23.2
    typedef implementation_defined size_type;  // See 23.2
    typedef implementation_defined difference_type;  // See 23.2

    typedef typename
        allocator_traits<Allocator>::pointer pointer;
    typedef typename
        allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_pointer const_pointer;

    typedef std::reverse_iterator<iterator> reverse_iterator;
    typedef std::reverse_iterator<const_iterator> const_reverse_iterator;

    class value_compare
      : public binary_function<value_type, value_type, bool> {
        friend class map;
        protected:
          Compare comp;
          value_compare(Compare c) : comp(c) {}  
        public:
          bool operator()(const value_type& x, const value_type& y) const {
            return comp(x.first, y.first);
          }
      };

    // 23.4.1.1 construct/copy/destroy:
    explicit map(const Compare& comp = Compare(),
                 const Allocator& = Allocator());
    template <class InputIterator>
    map(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
         const Compare& comp = Compare(), const Allocator& = Allocator());
    map(const map<Key, T, Compare, Allocator>& x);
    map(map<Key, T, Compare, Allocator>&& x);
    map(const Allocator&);
    map(map<Key, T, Compare, Allocator>&);  
    map(map<Key, T, Compare, Allocator>&&);  
    map(initializer_list<value_type>,
         const Compare& = Compare(),
         const Allocator& = Allocator());
    ~map();
    map<Key, T, Compare, Allocator>&
      operator=(const map<Key, T, Compare, Allocator>& x);
    map<Key, T, Compare, Allocator>&
      operator=(map<Key, T, Compare, Allocator>&& x);
    map& operator=(initializer_list<value_type>);
    allocator_type get_allocator() const;
/* ISO/IEC N3000=09-0190 */

// iterators:
iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;

reverse_iterator rbegin();
const_reverse_iterator rbegin() const;
reverse_iterator rend();
const_reverse_iterator rend() const;

const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;
const_reverse_iterator crbegin() const;
const_reverse_iterator crend() const;

// capacity:
bool empty() const;
size_type size() const;
size_type max_size() const;

// 23.4.1.2 element access:
T& operator[](const key_type& x);
T& operator[](key_type&& x);
T& at(const key_type& x);
const T& at(const key_type& x) const;

// modifiers:
template <class... Args> pair<iterator, bool> emplace(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> iterator emplace_hint(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
pair<iterator, bool> insert(const value_type& x);
template <class P> pair<iterator, bool> insert(P&& x);
iterator insert(const_iterator position, const value_type& x);
template <class P>
  iterator insert(const_iterator position, P&);
template <class InputIterator>
  iterator insert(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void insert(initializer_list<value_type>);
iterator erase(const_iterator position);
size_type erase(const key_type& x);
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
void swap(map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>&);
void clear();

// observers:
key_compare key_comp() const;
value_compare value_comp() const;

// 23.4.1.4 map operations:
iterator find(const key_type& x);
const_iterator find(const key_type& x) const;
size_type count(const key_type& x) const;

iterator lower_bound(const key_type& x);
map constructors, copy, and assignment

23.4.1.1

explicit map(const Compare& comp = Compare(),
            const Allocator& = Allocator());

Effects: Constructs an empty map using the specified comparison object and allocator.

Complexity: Constant.
map(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, 
   const Compare& comp = Compare(), const Allocator& = Allocator());

**Requires:** If the iterator’s dereference operator returns an lvalue or a const rvalue pair<key_type, mapped_type>, then both key_type and mapped_type shall be CopyConstructible.

**Effects:** Constructs an empty map using the specified comparison object and allocator, and inserts elements from the range [first, last).

**Complexity:** Linear in $N$ if the range [first, last) is already sorted using comp and otherwise $N \log N$, where $N$ is last - first.

### 23.4.1.2 map element access

T& operator[](const key_type& x);

**Effects:** If there is no key equivalent to $x$ in the map, inserts value_type($x$, T()) into the map.

**Requires:** key_type shall be CopyConstructible and mapped_type shall be DefaultConstructible.

**Returns:** A reference to the mapped_type corresponding to $x$ in *this.

**Complexity:** logarithmic.

T& operator[](key_type&& x);

**Effects:** If there is no key equivalent to $x$ in the map, inserts value_type(std::move($x$), T()) into the map.

**Requires:** mapped_type shall be DefaultConstructible.

**Returns:** A reference to the mapped_type corresponding to $x$ in *this.

**Complexity:** logarithmic.

T& at(const key_type& x);
const T& at(const key_type& x) const;

**Returns:** A reference to the element whose key is equivalent to $x$.

**Throws:** An exception object of type out_of_range if no such element is present.

**Complexity:** logarithmic.

### 23.4.1.3 map modifiers

template <class P> pair<iterator, bool> insert(P&& x);

**Requires:** P shall be convertible to value_type.

If P is instantiated as a reference type, then the argument x is copied from. Otherwise x is considered to be an rvalue as it is converted to value_type and inserted into the map. Specifically, in such cases CopyConstructible is not required of key_type or mapped_type unless the conversion from P specifically requires it (e.g., if P is a tuple<const key_type, mapped_type>, then key_type must be CopyConstructible). The signature taking InputIterator parameters does not require CopyConstructible of either key_type or mapped_type if the dereferenced InputIterator returns a non-const rvalue pair<key_type,mapped_type>. Otherwise CopyConstructible is required for both key_type and mapped_type.
23.4.1.4 map operations

iterator find(const key_type& x);
const_iterator find(const key_type& x) const;

iterator lower_bound(const key_type& x);
const_iterator lower_bound(const key_type& x) const;

iterator upper_bound(const key_type& x);
const_iterator upper_bound(const key_type &x) const;

pair<iterator, iterator>
equal_range(const key_type &x);
pair<const_iterator, const_iterator>
equal_range(const key_type& x) const;

The find, lower_bound, upper_bound and equal_range member functions each have two versions, one const and the other non-const. In each case the behavior of the two functions is identical except that the const version returns a const_iterator and the non-const version an iterator (23.2.4).

23.4.1.5 map specialized algorithms

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x,
          map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>&& x,
          map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x,
          map<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>&& y);

Effects:

x.swap(y);

23.4.2 Class template multimap

A multimap is an associative container that supports equivalent keys (possibly containing multiple copies of the same key value) and provides for fast retrieval of values of another type T based on the keys. The multimap class supports bidirectional iterators.

A multimap satisfies all of the requirements of a container and of a reversible container (23.2), of an associative container (23.2.4), and of an allocator-aware container (Table 93). A multimap also provides most operations described in (23.2.4) for equal keys. This means that a multimap supports the a_eq operations in (23.2.4) but not the a_uniq operations. For a multimap<Key,T> the key_type is Key and the value_type is pair<const Key,T>. Descriptions are provided here only for operations on multimap that are not described in one of those tables or for operations where there is additional semantic information.

namespace std {
  template <class Key, class T, class Compare = less<Key>,
            class Allocator = allocator<pair<const Key, T>>>
  class multimap {
    public:
      // types:
typedef Key key_type;
typedef T mapped_type;
typedef pair<const Key,T> value_type;
typedef Compare key_compare;
typedef Allocator allocator_type;
typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::reference reference;
typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_reference const_reference;
typedef implementation-defined iterator; // See 23.2
typedef implementation-defined const_iterator; // See 23.2
typedef implementation-defined size_type; // See 23.2
typedef implementation-defined difference_type; // See 23.2
typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::pointer pointer;
typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_pointer const_pointer;
typedef std::reverse_iterator<iterator> reverse_iterator;
typedef std::reverse_iterator<const_iterator> const_reverse_iterator;

class value_compare
   : public binary_function<value_type,value_type,bool> {
friend class multimap;
protected:
   Compare comp;
   value_compare(Compare c) : comp(c) { }
public:
   bool operator()(const value_type& x, const value_type& y) const {
      return comp(x.first, y.first);
   }
};

// construct/copy/destroy:
explicit multimap(const Compare& comp = Compare(),
                   const Allocator& = Allocator());
template <class InputIterator>
multimap(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
         const Compare& comp = Compare(),
         const Allocator& = Allocator());
multimap(const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x);
multimap(const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>&& x);
multimap(const Allocator&);
multimap(const multimap&, const Allocator&);
multimap(initializer_list<value_type>,
         const Compare& = Compare(),
         const Allocator& = Allocator());
~multimap();
multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>&
   operator=(const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x);
multimap<Key,T,Comparer Allocator>&
   operator=(multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>&& x);
multimap& operator=(initializer_list<value_type>);
allocator_type get_allocator() const;

// iterators:
iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;
reverse_iterator rbegin();
const_reverse_iterator rbegin() const;
reverse_iterator rend();
const_reverse_iterator rend() const;

const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;
const_reverse_iterator crbegin() const;
const_reverse_iterator crend() const;

// capacity:
bool empty() const;
size_type size() const;
size_type max_size() const;

// modifiers:
template <class... Args> iterator emplace(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> iterator emplace_hint(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
iterator insert(const value_type& x);
template <class P> iterator insert(P&& x);
iterator insert(const_iterator position, const value_type& x);
template <class P> iterator insert(const_iterator position, P&& x);
template <class InputIterator>
void insert(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void insert(initializer_list<value_type>);
iterator erase(const_iterator position);
size_type erase(const key_type& x);
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
void swap(multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>&);
void clear();

// observers:
key_compare key_comp() const;
value_compare value_comp() const;

// map operations:
iterator find(const key_type& x);
const_iterator find(const key_type& x) const;
size_type count(const key_type& x) const;

iterator lower_bound(const key_type& x);
const_iterator lower_bound(const key_type& x) const;
iterator upper_bound(const key_type& x);
const_iterator upper_bound(const key_type& x) const;

pair<iterator,iterator>
equal_range(const key_type& x);
pair<const_iterator,iterator>
equal_range(const key_type& x) const;

};

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x, const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator< (const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x, const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator!=(const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x, const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator> (const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x, const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator>=(const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x, const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator<=(const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x, const multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

// specialized algorithms:

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x, multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>&& x, multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>&& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x, multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>&& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>&& x, multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);

23.4.2.1 multimap constructors

explicit multimap(const Compare& comp = Compare(),
                  const Allocator& = Allocator());

Effects: Constructs an empty multimap using the specified comparison object and allocator.

Complexity: Constant.

template <class InputIterator>
multimap(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
         const Compare& comp = Compare(),
         const Allocator& = Allocator());

Requires: If the iterator’s dereference operator returns an lvalue or a const rvalue pair<key_type,
mapped_type>, then both key_type and mapped_type shall be CopyConstructible.

Effects: Constructs an empty multimap using the specified comparison object and allocator, and inserts elements from the range [first,last).

Complexity: Linear in N if the range [first,last) is already sorted using comp and otherwise N log N, where N is last - first.
23.4.2.2 multimap modifiers

```cpp
template <class P> iterator insert(P&& x);
template <class P> iterator insert(const_iterator position, P&& x);
```

1 **Requires:** P shall be convertible to value_type.

If P is instantiated as a reference type, then the argument x is copied from. Otherwise x is considered to be an rvalue as it is converted to value_type and inserted into the map. Specifically, in such cases CopyConstructible is not required of key_type or mapped_type unless the conversion from P specifically requires it (e.g., if P is a tuple<const key_type, mapped_type>, then key_type must be CopyConstructible). The signature taking InputIterator parameters does not require CopyConstructible of either key_type or mapped_type if the dereferenced InputIterator returns a non-const rvalue pair<key_type, mapped_type>. Otherwise CopyConstructible is required for both key_type and mapped_type.

23.4.2.3 multimap operations

```cpp
iterator find(const key_type &x);
const_iterator find(const key_type& x) const;
iterator lower_bound(const key_type& x);
const_iterator lower_bound(const key_type& x) const;
pair<iterator, iterator> equal_range(const key_type& x);
pair<const_iterator, const_iterator> equal_range(const key_type& x) const;
```

1 The find, lower_bound, upper_bound, and equal_range member functions each have two versions, one const and one non-const. In each case the behavior of the two versions is identical except that the const version returns a const_iterator and the non-const version an iterator (23.2.4).

23.4.2.4 multimap specialized algorithms

```cpp
template <class Key, class T, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& x, multimap<Key,T,Compare,Allocator>& y);
```

1 **Effects:**

```cpp
x.swap(y);
```

23.4.3 Class template set

1 A set is an associative container that supports unique keys (contains at most one of each key value) and provides for fast retrieval of the keys themselves. Class set supports bidirectional iterators.
A set satisfies all of the requirements of a container, of a reversible container (23.2), of an associative container (23.2.4), and of an allocator-aware container (Table 93). A set also provides most operations described in (23.2.4) for unique keys. This means that a set supports the a_uniq operations in (23.2.4) but not the a_eq operations. For a set<Key> both the key_type and value_type are Key. Descriptions are provided here only for operations on set that are not described in one of these tables and for operations where there is additional semantic information.

namespace std {
    template <class Key, class Compare = less<Key>,
              class Allocator = allocator<Key>>
    class set {
        public:
            // types:
            typedef Key key_type;
            typedef Key value_type;
            typedef Compare key_compare;
            typedef Compare value_compare;
            typedef Allocator allocator_type;
            typedef typename
                allocator_traits<Allocator>::reference reference;
            typedef typename
                allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_reference const_reference;
            typedef
                implementation-defined iterator; // See 23.2
            typedef
                implementation-defined const_iterator; // See 23.2
            typedef
                implementation-defined size_type; // See 23.2
            typedef
                implementation-defined difference_type; // See 23.2
            typedef typename
                allocator_traits<Allocator>::pointer pointer;
            typedef typename
                allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_pointer const_pointer;
            typedef std::reverse_iterator<iterator> reverse_iterator;
            typedef std::reverse_iterator<const_iterator> const_reverse_iterator;
    }

    // 23.4.3.1 construct/copy/destroy:
    explicit set(const Compare& comp = Compare(),
                 const Allocator& = Allocator());
    template <class InputIterator>
    set(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
         const Compare& comp = Compare(), const Allocator& = Allocator());
    set(const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x);
    set(set<Key,Compare,Allocator>&& x);
    set(const Allocator&);
    set(const set&,
         const Allocator&);
    set(set&, const Allocator&);
    set(initializer_list<value_type>,
         const Compare& = Compare(),
         const Allocator& = Allocator());
    set();
    set<Key,Compare,Allocator>&& operator=
        (const set<Key,Compare,Allocator>&& x);
    set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& operator=
        (set<Key,Compare,Allocator>&& x);
    set& operator=(initializer_list<value_type>);
    allocator_type get_allocator() const;

    // iterators:
    iterator begin();
    const_iterator begin() const;
    iterator end();

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const_iterator end() const;
reverse_iterator rbegin();
const_reverse_iterator rbegn() const;
reverse_iterator rend();
const_reverse_iterator rend() const;

const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;
const_reverse_iterator crbegin() const;
const_reverse_iterator crend() const;

// capacity:
bool empty() const;
size_type size() const;
size_type max_size() const;

// modifiers:
template <class... Args> pair<iterator, bool> emplace(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> iterator emplace_hint(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
pair<iterator, bool> insert(const value_type& x);
pair<iterator, bool> insert(value_type&& x);
iterator insert(const_iterator position, const value_type& x);
iterator insert(const_iterator position, value_type&& x);
template <class InputIterator>
void insert(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void insert(initializer_list<value_type>);
iterator erase(const_iterator position);
size_type erase(const key_type& x);
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
void swap(set<Key, Compare, Allocator>&);
void clear();

// observers:
key_compare key_comp() const;
value_compare value_comp() const;

// set operations:
iterator find(const key_type& x);
const_iterator find(const key_type& x) const;
size_type count(const key_type& x) const;
iterator lower_bound(const key_type& x);
const_iterator lower_bound(const key_type& x) const;
iterator upper_bound(const key_type& x);
const_iterator upper_bound(const key_type& x) const;
pair<iterator, iterator> equal_range(const key_type& x);
pair<const_iterator, const_iterator> equal_range(const key_type& x) const;

};
bool operator==(const set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
    const set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

bool operator<(const set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
    const set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

bool operator!=(const set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
    const set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

bool operator>(const set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
    const set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

bool operator>=(const set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
    const set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

bool operator<=(const set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
    const set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

// specialized algorithms:

template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
          set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(set<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
          set<Key, Compare, Allocator>&& y);

template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(set<Key, Compare, Allocator&& x,
          set<Key, Compare, Allocator&& y>);

template <class Key, class Compare, class Alloc>
struct constructible_with_allocator_suffix<
    set<Key, Compare, Alloc> >
    : true_type { };

23.4.3.1 set constructors, copy, and assignment

explicit set(const Compare& comp = Compare(),
             const Allocator& = Allocator());

    Effects: Constructs an empty set using the specified comparison objects and allocator.

    Complexity: Constant.

template <class InputIterator>
set(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
    const Compare& comp = Compare(), const Allocator& = Allocator());

    Effects: Constructs an empty set using the specified comparison object and allocator, and inserts
    elements from the range [first, last).

    Requires: If the iterator’s dereference operator returns an lvalue or a non-const rvalue, then Key shall
    be CopyConstructible.

    Complexity: Linear in N if the range [first, last) is already sorted using comp and otherwise N log N,
    where N is last - first.
23.4.3.2 set specialized algorithms

```
template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x,
    set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& y);
```

```
template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(set<Key,Compare,Allocator>&& x,
    set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& y);
```

```
template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap(set<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x,
    set<Key,Compare,Allocator>&& y);
```

**Effects:**

```
x.swap(y);
```

### 23.4.4 Class template multiset

1 A multiset is an associative container that supports equivalent keys (possibly contains multiple copies of the same key value) and provides for fast retrieval of the keys themselves. Class multiset supports bidirectional iterators.

2 A multiset satisfies all of the requirements of a container, of a reversible container (23.2), of an associative container (23.2.4), and of an allocator-aware container (Table 93). multiset also provides most operations described in (23.2.4) for duplicate keys. This means that a multiset supports the `a_eq` operations in (23.2.4) but not the `a_uniq` operations. For a `multiset<Key>` both the `key_type` and `value_type` are `Key`. Descriptions are provided here only for operations on `multiset` that are not described in one of these tables and for operations where there is additional semantic information.

```c
namespace std {
    template <class Key, class Compare = less<Key>,
        class Allocator = allocator<Key> >
    class multiset {
        public:
            // types:
            typedef Key key_type;
            typedef Key value_type;
            typedef Compare key_compare;
            typedef Compare value_compare;
            typedef Allocator allocator_type;
            typedef typename
            allocator_traits<Allocator>::reference             reference;
            typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_reference const_reference;
            typedef implementation_defined iterator;          // See 23.2
            typedef implementation_defined const_iterator;    // See 23.2
            typedef implementation_defined size_type;         // See 23.2
            typedef implementation_defined difference_type;   // See 23.2
            typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::pointer pointer;
            typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_pointer const_pointer;
            typedef std::reverse_iterator<iterator> reverse_iterator;
            typedef std::reverse_iterator<const_iterator> const_reverse_iterator;

            // construct/copy/destroy:
            explicit multiset(const Compare& comp = Compare(),
                const Allocator& = Allocator());
        template <class InputIterator>
```
multiset(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
        const Compare& comp = Compare(),
        const Allocator& = Allocator());
multiset(const multiset<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x);
multiset(multiset<Key,Compare,Allocator>&& x);
multiset(const Allocator&);
multiset(const multiset&, const Allocator&);
multiset(initializer_list<value_type>,
        const Compare& = Compare(),
        const Allocator& = Allocator());
~multiset();
multiset<Key,Compare,Allocator>&
        operator=(const multiset<Key,Compare,Allocator>& x);
multiset<Key,Compare,Allocator>&
        operator=(multiset<Key,Compare,Allocator>&& x);
multiset& operator=(initializer_list<value_type>);
allocator_type get_allocator() const;

// iterators:
iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;

reverse_iterator rbegin();
const_reverse_iterator rbegin() const;
reverse_iterator rend();
const_reverse_iterator rend() const;

const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;
const_reverse_iterator crbegin() const;
const_reverse_iterator crend() const;

// capacity:
bool empty() const;
size_type size() const;
size_type max_size() const;

// modifiers:
template <class... Args> iterator emplace(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> iterator emplace_hint(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
iterator insert(const value_type& x);
iterator insert(value_type&& x);
iterator insert(const_iterator position, const value_type& x);
iterator insert(const_iterator position, value_type&& x);
template <class InputIterator>
    void insert(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
iterator erase(const_iterator position);
size_type erase(const key_type& x);
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
void swap(multiset<Key,Compare,Allocator>&&);

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void clear();

// observers:
key_compare key_comp() const;
value_compare value_comp() const;

// set operations:
iterator find(const key_type& x);
const_iterator find(const key_type& x) const;
size_type count(const key_type& x) const;
iterator lower_bound(const key_type& x);
const_iterator lower_bound(const key_type& x) const;
iterator upper_bound(const key_type& x);
const_iterator upper_bound(const key_type& x) const;

pair<iterator, iterator> equal_range(const key_type& x);
pair<const_iterator, const_iterator> equal_range(const key_type& x) const;

template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
               const multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator<(const multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
               const multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator!=(const multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
               const multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator>(const multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
               const multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator>=(const multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
                const multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
bool operator<=(const multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
                const multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);

// specialized algorithms:

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23.4.4.1 **multiset constructors**

```cpp
class true_type { }
}
```

**explicit multiset (const Compare& comp = Compare(),
const Allocator& = Allocator());**

*Effects:* Constructs an empty set using the specified comparison object and allocator.

*Complexity:* Constant.

```cpp
template <class InputIterator>
multiset(InputIterator first, last,
const Compare& comp = Compare(),
const Allocator& = Allocator());
```

*Requires:* If the iterator’s dereference operator returns an lvalue or a const rvalue, then Key shall be CopyConstructible.

*Effects:* Constructs an empty `multiset` using the specified comparison object and allocator, and inserts elements from the range `[first, last)`.

*Complexity:* Linear in \( N \) if the range `[first, last)` is already sorted using `comp` and otherwise \( N \log N \), where \( N \) is last - first.

23.4.4.2 **multiset specialized algorithms**

```cpp
template <class Key, class Compare, class Allocator>
void swap (multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& x,
multiset<Key, Compare, Allocator>& y);
```

*Effects:*

x.swap(y);

23.5 **Unordered associative containers**

1 Headers `<unordered_map>` and `<unordered_set>`:

**Header `<unordered_map>` synopsis**

```cpp
namespace std {
    #include <initializer_list>

    // 23.5.1, class template unordered_map:
    template <class Key,
        class T,
        class Hash = hash<Key>,
        class Pred = std::equal_to<Key>,
        class Alloc = std::allocator<std::pair<const Key, T> > >
    class unordered_map;
```
/// 23.5.2, class template unordered_multimap:

```cpp
template <class Key,
    class T,
    class Hash = hash<Key>,
    class Pred = std::equal_to<Key>,
    class Alloc = std::allocator<std::pair<const Key, T>>>

    class unordered_multimap;
```

```cpp
template <class Key, class T, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
void swap(unordered_multimap<Key, T, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& x,
    unordered_multimap<Key, T, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& y);
```
operations. For an unordered_map<Key, T> the key type is Key, the mapped type is T, and the value type is std::pair<const Key, T>.

3 This section only describes operations on unordered_map that are not described in one of the requirement tables, or for which there is additional semantic information.

namespace std {
    template <class Key,
             class T,
             class Hash = hash<Key>,
             class Pred = std::equal_to<Key>,
             class Alloc = std::allocator<std::pair<const Key, T> > >
    class unordered_map
    {
        public:
            // types
            typedef Key key_type;
            typedef std::pair<const Key, T> value_type;
            typedef T mapped_type;
            typedef Hash hasher;
            typedef Pred key_equal;
            typedef Alloc allocator_type;
            typedef typename allocator_type::pointer pointer;
            typedef typename allocator_type::const_pointer const_pointer;
            typedef typename allocator_type::reference reference;
            typedef typename allocator_type::const_reference const_reference;
            typedef implementation-defined size_type;
            typedef implementation-defined difference_type;
            typedef implementation-defined iterator;
            typedef implementation-defined const_iterator;
            typedef implementation-defined local_iterator;
            typedef implementation-defined const_local_iterator;

            // construct/destroy/copy
            explicit unordered_map(size_type n = see below,
                                    const hasher& hf = hasher(),
                                    const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
                                    const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());
            template <class InputIterator>
            unordered_map(InputIterator f, InputIterator l,
                           size_type n = see below,
                           const hasher& hf = hasher(),
                           const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
                           const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());
            unordered_map(const unordered_map&);
            unordered_map(const Allocator&);
            unordered_map(const unordered_map&, const Allocator&);
            unordered_map(unordered_map&, const Allocator&);
            unordered_map(initializer_list<value_type>,
                           size_type = see below,
                           const hasher& hf = hasher(),
                           const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
                           const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());
            ~unordered_map();
            unordered_map& operator=(const unordered_map&);
unordered_map& operator=(initializer_list<value_type>);
allocator_type get_allocator() const;

// size and capacity
bool empty() const;
size_type size() const;
size_type max_size() const;

// iterators
iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;
const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;

// modifiers
template <class... Args> pair<iterator, bool> emplace(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> iterator emplace_hint(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
std::pair<iterator, bool> insert(const value_type& obj);
iterator insert(const_iterator hint, const value_type& obj);
template <class InputIterator> void insert(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void insert(initializer_list<value_type>);

iterator erase(const_iterator position);
size_type erase(const key_type& k);
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
void clear();

void swap(unordered_map&);

// observers
hasher hash_function() const;
key_equal key_eq() const;

// lookup
iterator find(const key_type& k);
const_iterator find(const key_type& k) const;
size_type count(const key_type& k) const;
std::pair<iterator, iterator> equal_range(const key_type& k);
std::pair<const_iterator, const_iterator> equal_range(const key_type& k) const;

mapped_type& operator[] (const key_type& k);
mapped_type& at(const key_type& k);
const mapped_type& at(const key_type& k) const;

// bucket interface
size_type bucket_count() const;
size_type max_bucket_count() const;
size_type bucket_size(size_type n);
size_type bucket(const key_type& k) const;
local_iterator begin(size_type n);
const_local_iterator begin(size_type n) const;
local_iterator end(size_type n);
const_local_iterator end(size_type n) const;
const_local_iterator cbegin(size_type n) const;
const_local_iterator cend(size_type n) const;

// hash policy
float load_factor() const;
float max_load_factor() const;
void max_load_factor(float z);
void rehash(size_type n);
};

template <class Key, class T, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
void swap(unordered_map<Key, T, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& x,
unordered_map<Key, T, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
struct constructible_with_allocator_suffix<
    unordered_map<Key, T, Hash, Pred, Compare, Alloc> >
    : true_type { };

23.5.1.1 unordered_map constructors [unord.map.cnstr]

explicit unordered_map(size_type n = see below,
    const hasher& hf = hasher(),
    const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
    const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());

1 Effects: Constructs an empty unordered_map using the specified hash function, key equality function, and allocator, and using at least n buckets. If n is not provided, the number of buckets is impldefdefault number of buckets in unordered_map. max_load_factor() returns 1.0.

2 Complexity: Constant.

template <class InputIterator>
unordered_map(InputIterator f, InputIterator l,
    size_type n = see below,
    const hasher& hf = hasher(),
    const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
    const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());

3 Effects: Constructs an empty unordered_map using the specified hash function, key equality function, and allocator, and using at least n buckets. If n is not provided, the number of buckets is impldefdefault number of buckets in unordered_map. Then inserts elements from the range [f, l). max_load_factor() returns 1.0.

4 Complexity: Average case linear, worst case quadratic.

23.5.1.2 unordered_map element access [unord.map.elem]

mapped_type& operator[](const key_type& k);

1 Effects: If the unordered_map does not already contain an element whose key is equivalent to k, inserts the value std::pair<const key_type, mapped_type>(k, mapped_type()).

2 Returns: A reference to x.second, where x is the (unique) element whose key is equivalent to k.
mapped_type& at(const key_type& k);
const mapped_type& at(const key_type& k) const;

3       Returns: A reference to x.second, where x is the (unique) element whose key is equivalent to k.
4       Throws: An exception object of type out_of_range if no such element is present.

23.5.1.3 unordered_map swap

template <class Key, class T, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
void swap(unordered_map<Key, T, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& x,
          unordered_map<Key, T, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& y);

1       Effects: x.swap(y).

23.5.2 Class template unordered_multimap

An unordered_multimap is an unordered associative container that supports equivalent keys (an unordered_map may contain multiple copies of each key value) and that associates values of another type mapped_type with the keys.

An unordered_multimap satisfies all of the requirements of a container, of an unordered associative container, and of an allocator-aware container (Table 93). It provides the operations described in the preceding requirements table for equivalent keys; that is, an unordered_multimap supports the a_eq operations in that table, not the a_uniq operations. For an unordered_multimap<Key, T> the key type is Key, the mapped type is T, and the value type is std::pair<const Key, T>.

This section only describes operations on unordered_multimap that are not described in one of the requirement tables, or for which there is additional semantic information.

namespace std {
    template <class Key,
              class T,
              class Hash = hash<Key>,
              class Pred = std::equal_to<Key>,
              class Alloc = std::allocator<std::pair<const Key, T> > >
    class unordered_multimap
    {
        public:
            // types
            typedef Key
                key_type;
            typedef std::pair<const Key, T>
                value_type;
            typedef T
                mapped_type;
            typedef Hash
                hasher;
            typedef Pred
                key_equal;
            typedef Alloc
                allocator_type;
            typedef typename allocator_type::pointer
                pointer;
            typedef typename allocator_type::const_pointer
                const_pointer;
            typedef typename allocator_type::reference
                reference;
            typedef typename allocator_type::const_reference
                const_reference;
            typedef implementation-defined
                size_type;
            typedef implementation-defined
                difference_type;

            typedef implementation-defined
                iterator;
            typedef implementation-defined
                const_iterator;
            typedef implementation-defined
                local_iterator;

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typedef implementation-defined const_local_iterator;

// construct/destroy/copy
explicit unordered_multimap(size_type n = seebelow,
  const hasher& hf = hasher(),
  const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
  const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());

template <class InputIterator>
unordered_multimap(InputIterator f, InputIterator l,
  size_type n = see below,
  const hasher& hf = hasher(),
  const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
  const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());

unordered_multimap(const unordered_multimap&);
unordered_multimap(const Allocator&);
unordered_multimap(const unordered_multimap&, const Allocator&);
unordered_multimap(unordered_multimap&&, const Allocator&);
unordered_multimap(initializer_list<value_type>,
  size_type = see below,
  const hasher& hf = hasher(),
  const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
  const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());
'
unordered_multimap();
unordered_multimap& operator=(const unordered_multimap&);
unordered_multimap& operator=(initializer_list<value_type>);
allocator_type get_allocator() const;

// size and capacity
bool empty() const;
size_type size() const;
size_type max_size() const;

// iterators
iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;
const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;

// modifiers
template <class... Args> iterator emplace(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> iterator emplace_hint(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
iterator insert(const value_type& obj);
iterator insert(const_iterator hint, const value_type& obj);
template <class InputIterator> void insert(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void insert(initializer_list<value_type>);

size_type erase(const_iterator position);
size_type erase(const key_type& k);
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
void clear();

void swap(unordered_multimap&);
// observers
hasher hash_function() const;
key_equal key_eq() const;

// lookup
iterator find(const key_type& k);
const_iterator find(const key_type& k) const;
size_type count(const key_type& k) const;
std::pair<iterator, iterator> equal_range(const key_type& k);
std::pair<const_iterator, const_iterator> equal_range(const key_type& k) const;

// bucket interface
size_type bucket_count() const;
size_type max_bucket_count() const;
size_type bucket_size(size_type n);
size_type bucket(const key_type& k) const;
local_iterator begin(size_type n);
const_local_iterator begin(size_type n) const;
local_iterator end(size_type n);
const_local_iterator end(size_type n) const;
const_local_iterator cbegin(size_type n) const;
const_local_iterator cend(size_type n) const;

// hash policy
float load_factor() const;
float max_load_factor() const;
void max_load_factor(float z);
void rehash(size_type n);
;
template <class Key, class T, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
void swap(unordered_multimap<Key, T, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& x,
           unordered_multimap<Key, T, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& y);

template <class Key, class T, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
struct constructible_with_allocator_suffix<
    unordered_multimap<Key, T, Hash, Pred, Alloc>> : true_type {);

23.5.2.1 unordered_multimap constructors [unord.multimap.cnstr]

explicit unordered_multimap(size_type n = see below,
                              const hasher& hf = hasher(),
                              const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
                              const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());

1 Effects: Constructs an empty unordered_multimap using the specified hash function, key equality
function, and allocator, and using at least n buckets. If n is not provided, the number of buckets is
impldefdefault number of buckets in unordered_multimap. max_load_factor() returns 1.0.

2 Complexity: Constant.
const hasher& hf = hasher(),
const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
const allocator_type& a = allocator_type();

Effects: Constructs an empty unordered_multimap using the specified hash function, key equality function, and allocator, and using at least n buckets. If n is not provided, the number of buckets is implemented default number of buckets in unordered_multimap. Then inserts elements from the range [f, l). max_load_factor() returns 1.0.

Complexity: Average case linear, worst case quadratic.

23.5.2.2 unordered_multimap swap

template <class Key, class T, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
void swap(unordered_multimap<Key, T, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& x,
          unordered_multimap<Key, T, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& y);

Effects: x.swap(y).

23.5.3 Class template unordered_set

An unordered_set is an unordered associative container that supports unique keys (an unordered_set contains at most one of each key value) and in which the elements’ keys are the elements themselves.

An unordered_set satisfies all of the requirements of a container, of an unordered associative container, and of an allocator-aware container (Table 93). It provides the operations described in the preceding requirements table for unique keys; that is, an unordered_set supports the a_uniq operations in that table, not the a_eq operations. For an unordered_set<Value> the key type and the value type are both Value. The iterator and const_iterator types are both const iterator types. It is unspecified whether they are the same type.

This section only describes operations on unordered_set that are not described in one of the requirement tables, or for which there is additional semantic information.

namespace std {
    template <class Value,
              class Hash = hash<Value>,
              class Pred = std::equal_to<Value>,
              class Alloc = std::allocator<Value> >
    class unordered_set
    {
        public:
            // types
            typedef Value key_type;
            typedef Value value_type;
            typedef Hash hasher;
            typedef Pred key_equal;
            typedef Alloc allocator_type;
            typedef typename allocator_type::pointer pointer;
            typedef typename allocator_type::const_pointer const_pointer;
            typedef typename allocator_type::reference reference;
            typedef typename allocator_type::const_reference const_reference;
            typedef implementation-defined size_type;
            typedef implementation-defined difference_type;
            typedef implementation-defined iterator;
            typedef implementation-defined const_iterator;

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typedef implementation-defined local_iterator;
typedef implementation-defined const_local_iterator;

// construct/destroy/copy
explicit unordered_set(size_type n = implementation-defined,
    const hasher& hf = hasher(),
    const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
    const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());
template <class InputIterator>
unordered_set(InputIterator f, InputIterator l,
    size_type n = see below,
    const hasher& hf = hasher(),
    const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
    const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());
unordered_set(const unordered_set&);
unordered_set(const Allocator&);
unordered_set(const unordered_set&, const Allocator&);
unordered_set(unordered_set&&, const Allocator&);
unordered_set(initializer_list<value_type>,
    size_type = see below,
    const hasher& hf = hasher(),
    const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
    const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());
~unordered_set();
unordered_set& operator=(const unordered_set&);
unordered_set& operator=(initializer_list<value_type>);
allocator_type get_allocator() const;

// size and capacity
bool empty() const;
size_type size() const;
size_type max_size() const;

// iterators
iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;
const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;

// modifiers
template <class... Args> pair<iterator, bool> emplace(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> iterator emplace_hint(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
std::pair<iterator, bool> insert(const value_type& obj);
iterator insert(const_iterator hint, const value_type& obj);
template <class InputIterator> void insert(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void insert(initializer_list<value_type>);

iterator erase(const_iterator position);
size_type erase(const key_type& k);
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
void clear();

void swap(unordered_set&);
// observers
hasher hash_function() const;
key_equal key_eq() const;

// lookup
iterator find(const key_type& k);
const_iterator find(const key_type& k) const;
size_type count(const key_type& k) const;
std::pair<iterator, iterator> equal_range(const key_type& k);
std::pair<const_iterator, const_iterator> equal_range(const key_type& k) const;

// bucket interface
size_type bucket_count() const;
size_type max_bucket_count() const;
size_type bucket_size(size_type n) const;
local_iterator begin(size_type n);
const_local_iterator begin(size_type n) const;
local_iterator end(size_type n);
const_local_iterator end(size_type n) const;
const_local_iterator cbegin(size_type n) const;
const_local_iterator cend(size_type n) const;

// hash policy
float load_factor() const;
float max_load_factor() const;
void max_load_factor(float z);
void rehash(size_type n);
};

template <class Value, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
void swap(unordered_set<Value, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& x,
unordered_set<Value, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& y);

template <class Value, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
struct constructible_with_allocator_suffix<
    unordered_set<Value, Hash, Pred, Alloc> >
    : true_type { };
size_type n = see below,
const hasher& hf = hasher(),
const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
const allocator_type& a = allocator_type();

Effects: Constructs an empty unordered_set using the specified hash function, key equality function,
and allocator, and using at least n buckets. If n is not provided, the number of buckets is impldefdefault
number of buckets in unordered_set. Then inserts elements from the range [f, l). max_load_factor() returns 1.0.

Complexity: Average case linear, worst case quadratic.

23.5.3.2 unordered_set swap

template <class Value, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
void swap(unordered_set<Value, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& x,
unordered_set<Value, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& y);

Effects: x.swap(y).

23.5.4 Class template unordered_multiset

An unordered_multiset is an unordered associative container that supports equivalent keys (an unordered_multiset
may contain multiple copies of the same key value) and in which each element’s key is the element
itself.

An unordered_multiset satisfies all of the requirements of a container, of an unordered associative con-
tainer, and of an allocator-aware container (Table 93). It provides the operations described in the preceding
requirements table for equivalent keys; that is, an unordered_multiset supports the a_eq operations in that
table, not the a_uniq operations. For an unordered_multiset<Value> the key type and the value type
are both Value. The iterator and const_iterator types are both const iterator types. It is unspecified
whether they are the same type.

This section only describes operations on unordered_multiset that are not described in one of the require-
ment tables, or for which there is additional semantic information.

namespace std {
    template <class Value,
              class Hash = hash<Value>,
              class Pred = std::equal_to<Value>,
              class Alloc = std::allocator<Value> >
    class unordered_multiset
    {
        public:
            // types
            typedef Value key_type;
            typedef Value value_type;
            typedef Hash hasher;
            typedef Pred key_equal;
            typedef Alloc allocator_type;
            typedef typename allocator_type::pointer pointer;
            typedef typename allocator_type::const_pointer const_pointer;
            typedef typename allocator_type::reference reference;
            typedef typename allocator_type::const_reference const_reference;
            typedef implementation-defined size_type;

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typedef implementation-defined difference_type;

typedef implementation-defined iterator;
typedef implementation-defined const_iterator;
typedef implementation-defined local_iterator;
typedef implementation-defined const_local_iterator;

// construct/destroy/copy
explicit unordered_multiset(size_type n = implementation-defined,
const hasher& hf = hasher(),
const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());

template <class InputIterator>
unordered_multiset(InputIterator f, InputIterator l,
size_type n = see below,
const hasher& hf = hasher(),
const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());

unordered_multiset(const unordered_multiset&);
unordered_multiset(const Allocator&);
unordered_multiset(const unordered_multiset&, const Allocator&);
unordered_multiset(unordered_multiset&&, const Allocator&);
unordered_multiset(initializer_list<value_type>,
size_type = see below,
const hasher& hf = hasher(),
const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());
~unordered_multiset();
unordered_multiset& operator=(const unordered_multiset&);
unordered_multiset& operator=(initializer_list<value_type>);
allocator_type get_allocator() const;

// size and capacity
bool empty() const;
size_type size() const;
size_type max_size() const;

// iterators
iterator begin();
const_iterator begin() const;
iterator end();
const_iterator end() const;
const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;

// modifiers
template <class... Args> iterator emplace(Args&&... args);
template <class... Args> iterator emplace_hint(const_iterator position, Args&&... args);
iterator insert(const_iterator hint, const value_type& obj);
iterator insert(const_iterator position, const value_type& obj);
template <class InputIterator> void insert(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
void insert(initializer_list<value_type>);

iterator erase(const_iterator position);
size_type erase(const key_type& k);
iterator erase(const_iterator first, const_iterator last);
void clear();

void swap(unordered_multiset&);

// observers
hasher hash_function() const;
key_equal key_eq() const;

// lookup
iterator find(const key_type& k);
const_iterator find(const key_type& k) const;
size_type count(const key_type& k) const;
std::pair<iterator, iterator> equal_range(const key_type& k);
std::pair<const_iterator, const_iterator> equal_range(const key_type& k) const;

// bucket interface
size_type bucket_count() const;
size_type max_bucket_count() const;
size_type bucket_size(size_type n);
size_type bucket(const key_type& k) const;
local_iterator begin(size_type n);
local_iterator end(size_type n);
local_iterator cbegin(size_type n);
local_iterator cend(size_type n);

// hash policy
float load_factor() const;
float max_load_factor() const;
void max_load_factor(float z);
void rehash(size_type n);
};

template <class Value, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
void swap(unordered_multiset<Value, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& x,
          unordered_multiset<Value, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& y);

template <class Value, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
struct constructible_with_allocator_suffix<
    unordered_multiset<Value, Hash, Pred, Alloc> >
    : true_type { };
```cpp
template <class InputIterator>
unordered_multiset(InputIterator f, InputIterator l,
size_type n = see below,
const hasher& hf = hasher(),
const key_equal& eql = key_equal(),
const allocator_type& a = allocator_type());

Effects: Constructs an empty unordered_multiset using the specified hash function, key equality function, and allocator, and using at least n buckets. If n is not provided, the number of buckets is impldef default number of buckets in unordered_multiset. Then inserts elements from the range [f, l). max_load_factor() returns 1.0.
```

23.5.4.2 unordered_multiset swap

```cpp
template <class Value, class Hash, class Pred, class Alloc>
void swap(unordered_multiset<Value, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& x,
          unordered_multiset<Value, Hash, Pred, Alloc>& y);
```

Effects: x.swap(y);

Complexity: Average case linear, worst case quadratic.
24 Iterators library

24.1 General

This Clause describes components that C++ programs may use to perform iterations over containers (Clause 23), streams (27.7), and stream buffers (27.6).

The following subclauses describe iterator requirements, and components for iterator primitives, predefined iterators, and stream iterators, as summarized in Table 99.

Table 99 — Iterators library summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subclause</th>
<th>Header(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>Requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>Iterator primitives &lt;iterator&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>Predefined iterators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>Stream iterators</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24.2 Iterator requirements

Iterators are a generalization of pointers that allow a C++ program to work with different data structures (containers) in a uniform manner. To be able to construct template algorithms that work correctly and efficiently on different types of data structures, the library formalizes not just the interfaces but also the semantics and complexity assumptions of iterators. All input iterators i support the expression *i, resulting in a value of some class, enumeration, or built-in type T, called the value type of the iterator. All output iterators support the expression *i = o where o is a value of some type that is in the set of types that are writable to the particular iterator type of i. All iterators i for which the expression (*i).m is well-defined, support the expression i->m with the same semantics as (*i).m. For every iterator type X for which equality is defined, there is a corresponding signed integral type called the difference type of the iterator.

Since iterators are an abstraction of pointers, their semantics is a generalization of most of the semantics of pointers in C++. This ensures that every function template that takes iterators works as well with regular pointers. This International Standard defines five categories of iterators, according to the operations defined on them: input iterators, output iterators, forward iterators, bidirectional iterators and random access iterators, as shown in Table 100.

Table 100 — Relations among iterator categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Random Access</th>
<th>Bidirectional</th>
<th>Forward</th>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Forward iterators satisfy all the requirements of the input and output iterators and can be used whenever either kind is specified; Bidirectional iterators also satisfy all the requirements of the forward iterators and can be used whenever a forward iterator is specified; Random access iterators also satisfy all the requirements of bidirectional iterators and can be used whenever a bidirectional iterator is specified.

Besides its category, a forward, bidirectional, or random access iterator can also be mutable or constant depending on whether the result of the expression *i behaves as a reference or as a reference to a constant.
Constant iterators do not satisfy the requirements for output iterators, and the result of the expression \(*i\) (for constant iterator \(i\)) cannot be used in an expression where an lvalue is required.

Just as a regular pointer to an array guarantees that there is a pointer value pointing past the last element of the array, so for any iterator type there is an iterator value that points past the last element of a corresponding sequence. These values are called past-the-end values. Values of an iterator \(i\) for which the expression \(*i\) is defined are called dereferenceable. The library never assumes that past-the-end values are dereferenceable. Iterators can also have singular values that are not associated with any container. [Example: After the declaration of an uninitialized pointer \(x\) (as with \(\text{int}\* x;\)), \(x\) must always be assumed to have a singular value of a pointer. — end example] Results of most expressions are undefined for singular values; the only exceptions are destroying an iterator that holds a singular value and the assignment of a non-singular value to an iterator that holds a singular value. In this case the singular value is overwritten the same way as any other value. Dereferenceable values are always non-singular.

An iterator \(j\) is called reachable from an iterator \(i\) if and only if there is a finite sequence of applications of the expression \(++i\) that makes \(i == j\). If \(j\) is reachable from \(i\), they refer to the same container.

Most of the library’s algorithmic templates that operate on data structures have interfaces that use ranges. A range is a pair of iterators that designate the beginning and end of the computation. A range \([i, i)\) is an empty range; in general, a range \([i, j)\) refers to the elements in the data structure starting with the one pointed to by \(i\) and up to but not including the one pointed to by \(j\). Range \([i, j)\) is valid if and only if \(j\) is reachable from \(i\). The result of the application of functions in the library to invalid ranges is undefined.

All the categories of iterators require only those functions that are realizable for a given category in constant time (amortized). Therefore, requirement tables for the iterators do not have a complexity column.

Destruction of an iterator may invalidate pointers and references previously obtained from that iterator.

An invalid iterator is an iterator that may be singular.\(^{267}\)

In the following sections, \(a\) and \(b\) denote values of type \(X\) or \(\text{const } X\), \(n\) denotes a value of the difference type \(\text{Distance}\), \(u\), \(\text{tmp}\), and \(m\) denote identifiers, \(r\) denotes a value of \(X&\), \(t\) denotes a value of value type \(T\), \(o\) denotes a value of some type that is writable to the output iterator.

### 24.2.1 Input iterators

A class or a built-in type \(X\) satisfies the requirements of an input iterator for the value type \(T\) if the following expressions are valid, as shown in Table 101.

In Table 101, the term the domain of \(==\) is used in the ordinary mathematical sense to denote the set of values over which \(==\) is (required to be) defined. This set can change over time. Each algorithm places additional requirements on the domain of \(==\) for the iterator values it uses. These requirements can be inferred from the uses that algorithm makes of \(==\) and \(!=\). [Example: the call \(\text{find}(a, b, x)\) is defined only if the value of \(a\) has the property \(p\) defined as follows: \(b\) has property \(p\) and a value \(i\) has property \(p\) if \((\!*i==x)\) or if \((\!*i!=x\) and \(++i\) has property \(p))\). — end example]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Semantics, pre-/post-conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| \(X u(a);\) | \(X\) | post: \(u\) is a copy of \(a\)  
A destructor is assumed to be present and accessible. |

\(^{267}\) This definition applies to pointers, since pointers are iterators. The effect of dereferencing an iterator that has been invalidated is undefined.
Table 101 — Input iterator requirements (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Semantics, pre-/post-conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>u = a;</td>
<td>x&amp;</td>
<td>result: u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>post: u is a copy of a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a == b</td>
<td>convertible to bool</td>
<td>== is an equivalence relation over its domain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a != b</td>
<td>convertible to bool</td>
<td>bool(a == b) != bool(a != b) over the domain of ==</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*a</td>
<td>convertible to T</td>
<td>pre: a is dereferenceable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>If a == b and (a,b) is in the domain of == then *a is equivalent to *b.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a-&gt;m</td>
<td></td>
<td>pre: (*a).m is well-defined.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Equivalent to (*a).m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>++r</td>
<td>x&amp;</td>
<td>pre: r is dereferenceable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>post: r is dereferenceable or r is past-the-end.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>post: any copies of the previous value of r are no longer required either to be dereferenceable or to be in the domain of ==.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(void)r++</td>
<td></td>
<td>equivalent to (void)++r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*r++</td>
<td>convertible to T</td>
<td>{ T tmp = *r; ++r; return tmp; }</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 [Note: For input iterators, a == b does not imply ++a == ++b. (Equality does not guarantee the substitution property or referential transparency.) Algorithms on input iterators should never attempt to pass through the same iterator twice. They should be single pass algorithms. Value type \( T \) is not required to be an Assignable type (23.2). These algorithms can be used with istreams as the source of the input data through the istream_iterator class template. — end note]

24.2.2 Output iterators

1 A class or a built-in type \( X \) satisfies the requirements of an output iterator if \( X \) is a CopyConstructible (34) and Assignable type (23.2) and also the following expressions are valid, as shown in Table 102.

Table 102 — Output iterator requirements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Operational semantics</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( X(a) )</td>
<td></td>
<td>a = t is equivalent to ( X(a) = t ).</td>
<td>a destructor is assumed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( X \ u(a); )</td>
<td></td>
<td>result is not used</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( X \ u = a; )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*r = o</td>
<td></td>
<td>result is not used</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>++r</td>
<td>x&amp;</td>
<td>&amp;r == &amp;++r.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r++</td>
<td>convertible to</td>
<td>{ X tmp = r; }</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>const x&amp;</td>
<td>++r;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>return tmp; }</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*r++ = o</td>
<td></td>
<td>result is not used</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2 [Note: The only valid use of an operator* is on the left side of the assignment statement. Assignment through the same value of the iterator happens only once. Algorithms on output iterators should never attempt to pass through the same iterator twice. They should be single pass algorithms. Equality and inequality might not be defined. Algorithms that take output iterators can be used with ostrmex as the destination for placing data through the ostream_iterator class as well as with insert iterators and insert pointers. — end note]

24.2.3 Forward iterators

1 A class or a built-in type \( X \) satisfies the requirements of a forward iterator if the following expressions are valid, as shown in Table 103.

Table 103 — Forward iterator requirements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Operational semantics</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( X \ u; )</td>
<td></td>
<td>note: ( u ) might have a singular value. note: a destructor is assumed.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( X() )</td>
<td></td>
<td>note: ( X() ) might be singular.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( X(a) )</td>
<td>( a == X(a) )</td>
<td>post: ( u == a ).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( X u(a); X u = a; )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( a == b )</td>
<td>convertible to ( bool )</td>
<td>( \Rightarrow ) is an equivalence relation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( a != b )</td>
<td>convertible to ( bool )</td>
<td>( ! (a == b) )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( r = a ) ( X&amp; )</td>
<td></td>
<td>post: ( r == a )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( *a )</td>
<td>( T&amp; ) if ( X ) is mutable, otherwise ( const \ T&amp; )</td>
<td>pre: ( a ) is dereferenceable. ( a == b ) implies ( *a == *b ). If ( X ) is mutable, ( *a = t ) is valid.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( a-&gt;m )</td>
<td>( U&amp; ) if ( X ) is mutable, otherwise ( const \ U&amp; )</td>
<td>pre: ( (*a).m ) is well-defined.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( ++r )</td>
<td>( X&amp; )</td>
<td>pre: ( r ) is dereferenceable. post: ( r ) is dereferenceable or ( r ) is past-the-end. ( r == s ) and ( r ) is dereferenceable implies ( ++r == ++s ). &amp;( r == &amp;++r ).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( r++ )</td>
<td>convertible to ( X&amp; )</td>
<td>{ ( X ) tmp = ( r ); ++( r ); return tmp; }</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( *r++ )</td>
<td>( T&amp; ) if ( X ) is mutable, otherwise ( const \ T&amp; )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
— If \( a \) and \( b \) are equal, then either \( a \) and \( b \) are both dereferenceable or else neither is dereferenceable.

— If \( a \) and \( b \) are both dereferenceable, then \( a == b \) if and only if \( *a \) and \( *b \) are the same object.

2 [Note: The condition that \( a == b \) implies \( ++a == ++b \) (which is not true for input and output iterators) and the removal of the restrictions on the number of the assignments through the iterator (which applies to output iterators) allows the use of multi-pass one-directional algorithms with forward iterators. — end note]

### 24.2.4 Bidirectional iterators

A class or a built-in type \( X \) satisfies the requirements of a bidirectional iterator if, in addition to satisfying the requirements for forward iterators, the following expressions are valid as shown in Table 104.

#### Table 104 — Bidirectional iterator requirements (in addition to forward iterator)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Operational semantics</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(--r) ( X&amp; )</td>
<td>( X&amp; )</td>
<td>pre: there exists ( s ) such that ( r == ++s ). post: ( r ) is dereferenceable. (--(+r) == r ). (--r == --s ) implies ( r == s ). &amp;r == &amp;--r.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( r-- ) convertible to ( X&amp; )</td>
<td>convertible to ( T )</td>
<td>( { X \ tmp = r; ) ( \text{Distance } m = n; ) if ( (m &gt;= 0) ) while ( (m--) ) ++r; else while ( (m++) ) --r; return r; }</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 [Note: Bidirectional iterators allow algorithms to move iterators backward as well as forward. — end note]

### 24.2.5 Random access iterators

A class or a built-in type \( X \) satisfies the requirements of a random access iterator if, in addition to satisfying the requirements for bidirectional iterators, the following expressions are valid as shown in Table 105.

#### Table 105 — Random access iterator requirements (in addition to bidirectional iterator)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Operational semantics</th>
<th>Assertion/note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( r ) ( ) ( ++n ) ( X&amp; )</td>
<td>( X&amp; )</td>
<td>( { ) ( \text{Distance } m = n; ) ( ) ( \text{if } (m &gt;= 0) ) ( \text{while } (m--) ) ++r; ( ) ( \text{else} ) ( \text{while } (m++) ) --r; ( ) return r; }</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

§ 24.2.5
Table 105 — Random access iterator requirements (in addition to bidirectional iterator) (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Operational semantics</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a + n</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>{ X tmp = a; return tmp += n; }</td>
<td>a + n == n + a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n + a</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>{ X tmp = a; return tmp += n; }</td>
<td>a + n == n + a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r -= n</td>
<td>X&amp;</td>
<td>return r += -n;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a - n</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>{ X tmp = a; return tmp -= n; }</td>
<td>a - n == n - a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b - a</td>
<td>Distance</td>
<td>(a &lt; b) ? distance(a,b) : -distance(b,a)</td>
<td>pre: there exists a value n of Distance such that a + n == b.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a[n]</td>
<td>convertible to const T &amp;</td>
<td>*(a + n)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a &lt; b</td>
<td>convertible to bool</td>
<td>b - a &gt; 0</td>
<td>&lt; is a total ordering relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a &gt; b</td>
<td>convertible to bool</td>
<td>b &lt; a</td>
<td>&gt; is a total ordering relation opposite to &lt;.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a &gt;= b</td>
<td>convertible to bool</td>
<td>!a &lt; b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a &lt;= b</td>
<td>convertible to bool</td>
<td>!a &gt; b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24.3 Header <iterator> synopsis

namespace std {

// 24.4, primitives:
template<class Iterator> struct iterator_traits;
template<class T> struct iterator_traits<T*>;

typedef Category, class T, class Distance = ptrdiff_t,
class Pointer = T*, class Reference = T& struct iterator;

struct input_iterator_tag { };
struct output_iterator_tag { };
struct forward_iterator_tag: public input_iterator_tag { };
struct bidirectional_iterator_tag: public forward_iterator_tag { };
struct random_access_iterator_tag: public bidirectional_iterator_tag { };

// 24.4.4, iterator operations:
template <class InputIterator, class Distance>
void advance(InputIterator& i, Distance n);
template <class InputIterator>
typename iterator_traits<InputIterator>::difference_type
distance(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);
template <class InputIterator>
InputIterator next(InputIterator x,
typename std::iterator_traits<InputIterator>::difference_type n = 1);
template <class BidirectionalIterator>
BidirectionalIterator prev(BidirectionalIterator x,
typedef std::iterator_traits<BidirectionalIterator>::difference_type n = 1;

// 24.5, predefined iterators:
template <class Iterator> class reverse_iterator;

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator==(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator!=(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>=(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<=(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
auto operator-(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y) -> decltype(y.current - x.current);

template <class Container> class back_insert_iterator;

template <class Container>
back_insert_iterator<Container> back_inserter(Container& x);

template <class Container> class front_insert_iterator;

template <class Container>
front_insert_iterator<Container> front_inserter(Container& x);

template <class Container> class insert_iterator;

template <class Container>
insert_iterator<Container> inserter(Container& x, typename Container::iterator i);

template <class Iterator> class move_iterator;

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator==(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator!=(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>=(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<=(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
auto operator-(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y) -> decltype(y.current - x.current);

template <class Iterator> class const_move_iterator;

template <class Container> class const_back_insert_iterator;

template <class Container>
const_back_insert_iterator<Container> const_back_inserter(Container& x);

template <class Container> class const_front_insert_iterator;

template <class Container>
const_front_insert_iterator<Container> const_front_inserter(Container& x);

template <class Container> class const_insert_iterator;

template <class Container>
const_insert_iterator<Container> const_inserter(Container& x, typename Container::iterator i);

template <class Iterator> class const_move_iterator;

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator==(const const_move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const const_move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<(const const_move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const const_move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator!=(const const_move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const const_move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>(const const_move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const const_move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>=(const const_move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const const_move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<=(const const_move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const const_move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
auto operator-(const const_move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const const_move_iterator<Iterator2>& y) -> decltype(y.current - x.current);
const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator!=(
    const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<(
    const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<=(
    const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>(
    const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>=(
    const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
auto operator-(
    const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x,
    const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y) -> decltype(x.base() - y.base());

template <class Iterator>
move_iterator<Iterator> operator+(
    typename move_iterator<Iterator>::difference_type n, const move_iterator<Iterator>& x);

template <class Iterator>
move_iterator<Iterator> make_move_iterator(const Iterator& i);

// 24.6, stream iterators:
template <class T, class charT = char, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
class Distance = ptrdiff_t>
class istream_iterator;

template <class T, class charT, class traits, class Distance>
bool operator==(const istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance>& x,
    const istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance>& y);

template <class T, class charT, class traits, class Distance>
bool operator!=(const istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance>& x,
    const istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance>& y);

template <class T, class charT = char, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
class ostream_iterator;

template<class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
class istreambuf_iterator;

template <class charT, class traits>
bool operator==(const istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& a,
    const istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& b);

template <class charT, class traits>
bool operator!=(const istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& a,
    const istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& b);

template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
class ostreambuf_iterator;

// 24.6.5, range access:
template <class C> auto begin(C& c) -> decltype(c.begin());
template <class C> auto begin(const C& c) -> decltype(c.begin());
template <class C> auto end(C& c) -> decltype(c.end());
template <class C> auto end(const C& c) -> decltype(c.end());
template <class T, size_t N> T* begin(T (&array)[N]);
template <class T, size_t N> T* end(T (&array)[N]);
}

24.4 Iterator primitives

1 To simplify the task of defining iterators, the library provides several classes and functions:

24.4.1 Iterator traits

1 To implement algorithms only in terms of iterators, it is often necessary to determine the value and difference types that correspond to a particular iterator type. Accordingly, it is required that if Iterator is the type of an iterator, the types

```
iterator_traits<Iterator>::difference_type
iterator_traits<Iterator>::value_type
iterator_traits<Iterator>::iterator_category
```

be defined as the iterator’s difference type, value type and iterator category, respectively. In addition, the types

```
iterator_traits<Iterator>::reference
iterator_traits<Iterator>::pointer
```

shall be defined as the iterator’s reference and pointer types, that is, for an iterator object a, the same type as the type of *a and a->, respectively. In the case of an output iterator, the types

```
iterator_traits<Iterator>::difference_type
iterator_traits<Iterator>::value_type
iterator_traits<Iterator>::reference
iterator_traits<Iterator>::pointer
```

may be defined as void.

2 The template iterator_traits<Iterator> is defined as

```
namespace std {
    template<class Iterator> struct iterator_traits {
        typedef typename Iterator::difference_type difference_type;
        typedef typename Iterator::value_type value_type;
        typedef typename Iterator::pointer pointer;
        typedef typename Iterator::reference reference;
        typedef typename Iterator::iterator_category iterator_category;
    };
}
```

3 It is specialized for pointers as

```
namespace std {
    template<class T> struct iterator_traits<T*> {
        typedef ptrdiff_t difference_type;
        typedef T value_type;
        typedef T* pointer;
        typedef T& reference;
    };
}
```
and for pointers to const as

```cpp
namespace std {
  template<class T> struct iterator_traits<const T*> {
    typedef ptrdiff_t difference_type;
    typedef T value_type;
    typedef const T* pointer;
    typedef const T& reference;
    typedef random_access_iterator_tag iterator_category;
  };
}
```

[Note: If there is an additional pointer type `__far` such that the difference of two `__far` is of type `long`, an implementation may define]

```cpp
template<class T> struct iterator_traits<T __far*> {
  typedef long difference_type;
  typedef T value_type;
  typedef T __far* pointer;
  typedef T __far& reference;
  typedef random_access_iterator_tag iterator_category;
};
```

— end note ]

5 [Example: To implement a generic `reverse` function, a C++ program can do the following:]

```cpp
template <class BidirectionalIterator>
void reverse(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last) {
  typename iterator_traits<BidirectionalIterator>::difference_type n =
    distance(first, last);
  --n;
  while(n > 0) {
    typename iterator_traits<BidirectionalIterator>::value_type
      tmp = *first;
    *first++ = *--last;
    *last = tmp;
    n -= 2;
  }
}
```

— end example]

### 24.4.2 Basic iterator

[iterator.basic]

1 The `iterator` template may be used as a base class to ease the definition of required types for new iterators.

```cpp
namespace std {
  template<class Category, class T, class Distance = ptrdiff_t, 
    class Pointer = T*, class Reference = T&>
  struct iterator {
    typedef T value_type;
    typedef Distance difference_type;
`
typedef Pointer pointer;
typedef Reference reference;
typedef Category iterator_category;
};

24.4.3 Standard iterator tags

It is often desirable for a function template specialization to find out what is the most specific

category of its iterator argument, so that the function can select the most efficient algorithm at compile
time. To facilitate this, the library introduces category tag classes which are used as compile time tags

for algorithm selection. They are: input_iterator_tag, output_iterator_tag, forward_iterator_tag,

bidirectional_iterator_tag and random_access_iterator_tag. For every iterator of type Iterator,

iterator_traits<Iterator>::iterator_category shall be defined to be the most specific category tag

that describes the iterator’s behavior.

namespace std {
    struct input_iterator_tag { 
    }
    struct output_iterator_tag { 
    }
    struct forward_iterator_tag: public input_iterator_tag { 
    }
    struct bidirectional_iterator_tag: public forward_iterator_tag { 
    }
    struct random_access_iterator_tag: public bidirectional_iterator_tag { 
    }
}

[Example: For a program-defined iterator BinaryTreeIterator, it could be included into the bidirectional

iterator category by specializing the iterator_traits template:

template<class T> struct iterator_traits<BinaryTreeIterator<T> > { 
    typedef std::ptrdiff_t difference_type;
    typedef T value_type;
    typedef T* pointer;
    typedef T& reference;
    typedef bidirectional_iterator_tag iterator_category;
};

Typically, however, it would be easier to derive BinaryTreeIterator<T> from iterator<bidirectional_-

iterator_tag,T,ptrdiff_t,T*,T&>. — end example]

[Example: If evolve() is well defined for bidirectional iterators, but can be implemented more efficiently

for random access iterators, then the implementation is as follows:

template <class BidirectionalIterator>
inline void
    evolve(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last) {
        evolve(first, last,
            typename iterator_traits<BidirectionalIterator>::iterator_category());
    }

template <class BidirectionalIterator>
void evolve(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last,
    bidirectional_iterator_tag) {
    // more generic, but less efficient algorithm
}

template <class RandomAccessIterator>
void evolve(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last,
random_access_iterator_tag) {
    // more efficient, but less generic algorithm
}

/* end example */

// Example: If a C++ program wants to define a bidirectional iterator for some data structure containing
double and such that it works on a large memory model of the implementation, it can do so with:

class MyIterator : 
public iterator<bidirectional_iterator_tag, double, long, T*, T&> {
    // code implementing ++, etc.
};

/* end example */

24.4.4 Iterator operations

Since only random access iterators provide + and - operators, the library provides two function templates
advance and distance. These function templates use + and - for random access iterators (and are, therefore,
constant time for them); for input, forward and bidirectional iterators they use ++ to provide linear time
implementations.

template <class InputIterator, class Distance>
void advance(InputIterator& i, Distance n);

/* Requires: n shall be negative only for bidirectional and random access iterators. */

Effects: Increments (or decrements for negative n) iterator reference i by n.

template<class InputIterator>
typename iterator_traits<InputIterator>::difference_type
distance(InputIterator first, InputIterator last);

/* Requires: last shall be reachable from first. */

Effects: Returns the number of increments or decrements needed to get from first to last.

template <class InputIterator>
InputIterator next(InputIterator x,
    typename std::iterator_traits<InputIterator>::difference_type n = 1);

/* Effects: Equivalent to advance(x, n); return x; */

template <class BidirectionalIterator>
BidirectionalIterator prev(BidirectionalIterator x,
    typename std::iterator_traits<BidirectionalIterator>::difference_type n = 1);

/* Effects: Equivalent to advance(x, -n); return x; */

24.5 Iterator adaptors

24.5.1 Reverse iterators

Class template reverse_iterator is an iterator adaptor that iterates from the end of the sequence defined
by its underlying iterator to the beginning of that sequence. The fundamental relation between a reverse

§ 24.5.1
iterator and its corresponding iterator \( i \) is established by the identity: \( \&*(\text{reverse\_iterator}(i)) = \&*(i - 1) \).

### 24.5.1.1 Class template reverse_iterator

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class Iterator>
    class reverse_iterator : public iterator<typename iterator_traits<Iterator>::iterator_category,
                                            typename iterator_traits<Iterator>::value_type,
                                            typename iterator_traits<Iterator>::difference_type,
                                            typename iterator_traits<Iterator>::pointer,
                                            typename iterator_traits<Iterator>::reference> {

        public:
            typedef Iterator iterator_type;
            typedef typename iterator_traits<Iterator>::difference_type difference_type;
            typedef typename iterator_traits<Iterator>::reference reference;
            typedef typename iterator_traits<Iterator>::pointer pointer;
            reverse_iterator();
            explicit reverse_iterator(Iterator x);
            template <class U> reverse_iterator(const reverse_iterator<U>& u);
            template <class U> reverse_iterator& operator=(const reverse_iterator<U>& u);

            Iterator base() const; // explicit
            reference operator*() const;
            pointer operator->() const;
            reverse_iterator& operator++();
            reverse_iterator operator++(int);
            reverse_iterator& operator--();
            reverse_iterator operator--(int);
            reverse_iterator operator+ (difference_type n) const;
            reverse_iterator& operator+=(difference_type n);
            reverse_iterator operator- (difference_type n) const;
            reverse_iterator& operator-=(difference_type n);
            unspecified operator[](difference_type n) const;

        protected:
            Iterator current;

        private:
            Iterator deref_tmp; // exposition only
    };

    template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
    bool operator==(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);
    template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
    bool operator<(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);
    template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
    bool operator!=(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);
```

§ 24.5.1.1 803
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>(
    const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x,
    const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>= (x, y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<= (x, y);

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
auto operator-(x, y) -> decltype(y.current - x.current);

template <class Iterator>
reverse_iterator<Iterator> operator+(typename reverse_iterator<Iterator>::difference_type n, x);

---

24.5.1.2 reverse_iterator requirements

1. The template parameter `Iterator` shall meet all the requirements of a Bidirectional Iterator (24.2.4).

2. Additionally, `Iterator` shall meet the requirements of a Random Access Iterator (24.2.5) if any of the members `operator+` (24.5.1.3.8), `operator-` (24.5.1.3.10), `operator+=` (24.5.1.3.9), `operator-=` (24.5.1.3.11), `operator []` (24.5.1.3.12), or the global operators `operator<` (24.5.1.3.14), `operator>` (24.5.1.3.16), `operator<` (24.5.1.3.18), `operator<=` (24.5.1.3.17), `operator>=` (24.5.1.3.19) or `operator+` (24.5.1.3.20) is referenced in a way that requires instantiation (14.8.1).

24.5.1.3 reverse_iterator operations

24.5.1.3.1 reverse_iterator constructor

reverse_iterator();

1. **Effects:** Default Value initializes `current`. Iterator operations applied to the resulting iterator have defined behavior if and only if the corresponding operations are defined on a default constructed value-initialized iterator of type `Iterator`.

   `explicit reverse_iterator(Iterator x);`

2. **Effects:** Initializes current with `x`.

   `template <class U> reverse_iterator(const reverse_iterator<U>& u);`

3. **Effects:** Initializes current with `u.current`.

24.5.1.3.2 reverse_iterator::operator=

```
template <class U>
reverse_iterator&
operator=(const reverse_iterator<U>& u);
```
1 Effects: Assigns \texttt{u.base()} to current.
2 Returns: \texttt{*this}.

24.5.1.3.3 Conversion

Iterator \texttt{base()} const; \hspace{1em} // explicit
1 Returns: current.

24.5.1.3.4 operator*

reference \texttt{operator*()} const;
1 Effects:
   \begin{verbatim}
   deref_tmp = current;
   --deref_tmp;
   return *deref_tmp;
   \end{verbatim}
2 \[ Note: This operation must use an auxiliary member variable rather than a temporary variable to avoid returning a reference that persists beyond the lifetime of its associated iterator. (See 24.2.) -- end note \]

24.5.1.3.5 operator->

pointer \texttt{operator->()} const;
1 Returns:
   \begin{verbatim}
   &(operator*());
   \end{verbatim}

24.5.1.3.6 operator++

reverse_iterator& \texttt{operator++()};
1 Effects: --current;
2 Returns: \texttt{*this}.
   \begin{verbatim}
   reverse_iterator tmp = \texttt{*this};
   --current;
   return tmp;
   \end{verbatim}

24.5.1.3.7 operator--

reverse_iterator& \texttt{operator--()};
1 Effects: ++current
2 Returns: \texttt{*this}.
reverse_iterator operator--(int);

Effects:
   reverse_iterator tmp = *this;
   ++current;
   return tmp;

24.5.1.3.8 operator+

reverse_iterator
operator+(typename reverse_iterator<Iterator>::difference_type n) const;
1    Returns: reverse_iterator(current-n).

24.5.1.3.9 operator++

reverse_iterator&
operator+=(typename reverse_iterator<Iterator>::difference_type n);
1    Effects: current -= n;
2    Returns: *this.

24.5.1.3.10 operator-

reverse_iterator
operator-(typename reverse_iterator<Iterator>::difference_type n) const;
1    Returns: reverse_iterator(current+n).

24.5.1.3.11 operator--

reverse_iterator&
operator--(typename reverse_iterator<Iterator>::difference_type n);
1    Effects: current += n;
2    Returns: *this.

24.5.1.3.12 operator[]

unspecified operator[](typename reverse_iterator<Iterator>::difference_type n) const;
1    Returns: current[-n-1].

24.5.1.3.13 operator==

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator==(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x,
               const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);
1    Returns: x.current == y.current.
24.5.1.3.14 operator<

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);
```

1 Returns: \(x.current > y.current\).

24.5.1.3.15 operator!=

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator!=(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);
```

1 Returns: \(x.current != y.current\).

24.5.1.3.16 operator>

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);
```

1 Returns: \(x.current < y.current\).

24.5.1.3.17 operator>=

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>=(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);
```

1 Returns: \(x.current <= y.current\).

24.5.1.3.18 operator<=

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<=(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y);
```

1 Returns: \(x.current >= y.current\).

24.5.1.3.19 operator-

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
auto operator-(const reverse_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const reverse_iterator<Iterator2>& y) -> decltype(y.current - x.current);
```

1 Returns: \(y.current - x.current\).
24.5.1.3.20 operator+ [reverse.iter.opsum]

template <class Iterator>
reverse_iterator<Iterator> operator+((
    typename reverse_iterator<Iterator>::difference_type n,
    const reverse_iterator<Iterator>& x);

1 Returns: reverse_iterator<Iterator> (x.current - n).

24.5.2 Insert iterators [insert.iterators]

1 To make it possible to deal with insertion in the same way as writing into an array, a special kind of iterator
adaptors, called insert iterators, are provided in the library. With regular iterator classes,

    while (first != last) *result++ = *first++;

takes a range [first, last) to be copied into a range starting with result. The same code with result
being an insert iterator will insert corresponding elements into the container. This device allows all of the
copying algorithms in the library to work in the insert mode instead of the regular overwrite mode.

2 An insert iterator is constructed from a container and possibly one of its iterators pointing to where insertion
takes place if it is neither at the beginning nor at the end of the container. Insert iterators satisfy the require-
ments of output iterators.

operator* returns the insert iterator itself. The assignment operator=(const T& x) is defined on insert iterators to allow writing into them, it inserts x right before where the insert
iterator is pointing. In other words, an insert iterator is like a cursor pointing into the container where the
insertion takes place. back_insert_iterator inserts elements at the end of a container, front_insert_iterator
inserts elements at the beginning of a container, and insert_iterator inserts elements where
the iterator points to in a container. back_inserter, front_inserter, and inserter are three functions
making the insert iterators out of a container.

24.5.2.1 Class template back_insert_iterator [back.insert.iterator]

namespace std {
    template <class Container>
    class back_insert_iterator :
        public iterator<output_iterator_tag,void,void,void,void> {

            Container* container;

            public:
                typedef Container container_type;
                explicit back_insert_iterator(Container& x);
                back_insert_iterator<Container>&
                    operator=(typename Container::const_reference value);
                back_insert_iterator<Container>&
                    operator=(typename Container::value_type&& value);
                back_insert_iterator<Container>& operator*();
                back_insert_iterator<Container>& operator++();
                back_insert_iterator<Container> operator++(int);
            }
        }

    template <class Container>
        back_insert_iterator<Container> back_inserter(Container& x);

}
24.5.2.2 back_insert_iterator operations

24.5.2.2.1 back_insert_iterator constructor

explicit back_insert_iterator(Container& x);

Effects: Initializes container with &x.

24.5.2.2.2 back_insert_iterator::operator=

back_insert_iterator<Container>&
operator=(typename Container::const_reference value);

Effects: container->push_back(value);

Returns: *this.

back_insert_iterator<Container>&
operator=(typename Container::value_type&& value);

Effects: container->push_back(std::move(value));

Returns: *this.

24.5.2.2.3 back_insert_iterator::operator*

back_insert_iterator<Container>& operator*();

Returns: *this.

24.5.2.2.4 back_insert_iterator::operator++

back_insert_iterator<Container>& operator++();
back_insert_iterator<Container> operator++(int);

Returns: *this.

24.5.2.2.5 back_inserter

template <class Container>
back_insert_iterator<Container> back_inserter(Container& x);

Returns: back_insert_iterator<Container>(x).

24.5.2.3 Class template front_insert_iterator

namespace std {
    template <class Container>
    class front_insert_iterator :
        public iterator<output_iterator_tag,void,void,void,void> {
            protected:
                Container* container;

            public:
                typedef Container container_type;
                explicit front_insert_iterator(Container& x);
front_insert_iterator<Container>&
    operator=(typename Container::const_reference value);
front_insert_iterator<Container>&
    operator=(typename Container::value_type&& value);

front_insert_iterator<Container>& operator*();
front_insert_iterator<Container>& operator++();
front_insert_iterator<Container> operator++(int);
}

template <class Container>
    front_insert_iterator<Container> front_inserter(Container& x);
}

24.5.2.4 front_insert_iterator operations [front.insert.iter.ops]

24.5.2.4.1 front_insert_iterator constructor [front.insert.iter.cons]

        explicit front_insert_iterator(Container& x);

Effects: Initializes container with &x.

24.5.2.4.2 front_insert_iterator::operator= [front.insert.iter.op=]

        front_insert_iterator<Container>&
        operator=(typename Container::const_reference value);

Effects: container->push_front(value);
Returns: *this.

front_insert_iterator<Container>&
        operator=(typename Container::value_type&& value);

Effects: container->push_front(std::move(value));
Returns: *this.

24.5.2.4.3 front_insert_iterator::operator* [front.insert.iter.op*]

        front_insert_iterator<Container>& operator*();

Returns: *this.

24.5.2.4.4 front_insert_iterator::operator++ [front.insert.iter.op++]

        front_insert_iterator<Container>& operator++();
        front_insert_iterator<Container> operator++(int);

Returns: *this.

24.5.2.4.5 front_inserter [front inserter]

        template <class Container>
        front_insert_iterator<Container> front_inserter(Container& x);

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1   \textit{Returns:} \texttt{front\_insert\_iterator\<Container\>(x)}.

24.5.2.5 Class template \texttt{insert\_iterator} \[insert.iterator\]

\begin{verbatim}
namespace std {
    template <class Container>
    class insert_iterator :
      public iterator<output_iterator_tag,void,void,void,void> {
    protected:
      Container* container;
      typename Container::iterator iter;

    public:
      typedef Container container_type;
      insert_iterator(Container& x, typename Container::iterator i);
      insert_iterator&
          operator=(typename Container::const_reference value);
      insert_iterator&
          operator=(typename Container::value_type&& value);
      insert_iterator& operator*();
      insert_iterator& operator++();
      insert_iterator& operator++(int);
    };

    template <class Container>
    insert_iterator<Container> inserter(Container& x, typename Container::iterator i);
}
\end{verbatim}

24.5.2.6 \texttt{insert\_iterator} operations \[insert.iter.ops\]

24.5.2.6.1 \texttt{insert\_iterator} constructor \[insert.iter.cons\]

insert_iterator(Container& x, typename Container::iterator i);

1   \textit{Effects:} Initializes container with \&x and \texttt{iter} with \texttt{i}.

24.5.2.6.2 \texttt{insert\_iterator::operator=} \[insert.iter.op=\]

insert_iterator<Container>&
    operator=(typename Container::const_reference value);

1   \textit{Effects:}

2   \begin{verbatim}
    iter = container->insert(iter, value);
    ++iter;
\end{verbatim}

2   \textit{Returns:} \star this.

insert_iterator<Container>&
    operator=(typename Container::value_type&& value);

3   \textit{Effects:}

\section*{§ 24.5.2.6.2}
Returns: \*this.

### 24.5.2.6.3 insert_iterator::operator*  
[insert.iter.op*]

\begin{verbatim}
insert_iterator<Container>& operator*();
\end{verbatim}

Returns: \*this.

### 24.5.2.6.4 insert_iterator::operator++  
[insert.iter.op++]

\begin{verbatim}
insert_iterator<Container>& operator++();
insert_iterator<Container>& operator++(int);
\end{verbatim}

Returns: \*this.

### 24.5.2.6.5 inserter  
[inserter]

\begin{verbatim}
template <class Container>
insert_iterator<Container> inserter(Container& x, typename Container::iterator i);
\end{verbatim}

Returns: insert_iterator<Container>(x, i).

### 24.5.3 Move iterators  
[move.iterators]

Class template \textit{move\_iterator} is an iterator adaptor with the same behavior as the underlying iterator except that its dereference operator implicitly converts the value returned by the underlying iterator's dereference operator to an rvalue reference. Some generic algorithms can be called with move iterators to replace copying with moving.

**Example:**

\begin{verbatim}
list<string> s;
// populate the list s
vector<string> v1(s.begin(), s.end());    // copies strings into v1
vector<string> v2(make_move_iterator(s.begin()),
                 make_move_iterator(s.end())); // moves strings into v2
\end{verbatim}

— end example

### 24.5.3.1 Class template move_iterator  
[move.iterator]

\begin{verbatim}
namespace std {
    template <class Iterator>
class move_iterator {
        typedef Iterator iterator_type;
        typedef typename iterator_traits<Iterator>::difference_type difference_type;
        typedef Iterator pointer;
        typedef typename iterator_traits<Iterator>::value_type value_type;
        typedef typename iterator_traits<Iterator>::iterator_category iterator_category;
        typedef value_type&& reference;

        move_iterator();
        explicit move_iterator(Iterator i);
        template <class U> move_iterator(const move_iterator<U>& u);
    }
}\end{verbatim}

§ 24.5.3.1
template <class U> move_iterator& operator=(const move_iterator<U>& u);

iterator_type base() const;
reference operator*() const;
pointer operator->() const;

move_iterator& operator++();
move_iterator operator++(int);
move_iterator& operator--();
move_iterator operator--(int);

move_iterator operator+(difference_type n) const;
move_iterator& operator+=(difference_type n);
move_iterator operator-(difference_type n) const;
move_iterator& operator-=(difference_type n);

reference operator[](difference_type n) const;

private:
   Iterator current;    // exposition only

};

template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator==(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator!=(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

24.5.3.2 move_iterator requirements

The template parameter Iterator shall meet the requirements for an Input Iterator (24.2.1). Additionally, if any of the bidirectional or random access traversal functions are instantiated, the template parameter shall
meet the requirements for a Bidirectional Iterator (24.2.4) or a Random Access Iterator (24.2.5), respectively.

24.5.3.3 move_iterator operations

24.5.3.3.1 move_iterator constructors

move_iterator();

Effects: Constructs a move_iterator, default value initializing current. Iterator operations applied to the resulting iterator have defined behavior if and only if the corresponding operations are defined on a value-initialized iterator of type Iterator.

explicit move_iterator(Iterator i);

Effects: Constructs a move_iterator, initializing current with i.

template <class U> move_iterator(const move_iterator<U>& u);

Effects: Constructs a move_iterator, initializing current with u.base().

Requires: U shall be convertible to Iterator.

24.5.3.3.2 move_iterator::operator=

template <class U> move_iterator& operator=(const move_iterator<U>& u);

Effects: Assigns u.base() to current.

Requires: U shall be convertible to Iterator.

24.5.3.3.3 move_iterator conversion

Iterator base() const;

Returns: current.

24.5.3.3.4 move_iterator::operator*

reference operator*() const;

Returns: std::move(*current).

24.5.3.3.5 move_iterator::operator->

pointer operator->() const;

Returns: current.

24.5.3.3.6 move_iterator::operator++

move_iterator& operator++();

Effects: ++current.

Returns: *this.

move_iterator operator++(int);
Effects:
move_iterator tmp = *this;
++current;
return tmp;

24.5.3.3.7 move_iterator::operator--

move_iterator& operator--();

1 Effects: --current.
2 Returns: *this.

move_iterator operator--(int);

Effects:
move_iterator tmp = *this;
--current;
return tmp;

24.5.3.3.8 move_iterator::operator+

move_iterator operator+(difference_type n) const;

1 Returns: move_iterator(current + n).

24.5.3.3.9 move_iterator::operator+=

move_iterator& operator+=(difference_type n);

1 Effects: current += n.
2 Returns: *this.

24.5.3.3.10 move_iterator::operator-

move_iterator operator-(difference_type n) const;

1 Returns: move_iterator(current - n).

24.5.3.3.11 move_iterator::operator-=

move_iterator& operator!=(difference_type n);

1 Effects: current -= n.
2 Returns: *this.

24.5.3.3.12 move_iterator::operator[]

reference operator[](difference_type n) const;

1 Returns: std::move(current[n]).
24.5.3.3.13 move_iterator comparisons

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator==(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

Returns: x.base() == y.base() if the base for x and y are the same.
```

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator!=(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

Returns: !(x == y).
```

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

Returns: x.base() < y.base() if the base for x is less than the base for y.
```

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator<=(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

Returns: !(y < x).
```

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

Returns: y < x.
```

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
bool operator>=(const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x, const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y);

Returns: !(x < y).
```

24.5.3.3.14 move_iterator non-member functions

```cpp
template <class Iterator1, class Iterator2>
auto operator-(
    const move_iterator<Iterator1>& x,
    const move_iterator<Iterator2>& y) -> decltype(x.base() - y.base());

Returns: x.base() - y.base().
```

```cpp
template <class Iterator>
move_iterator<Iterator> operator+(
    typename move_iterator<Iterator>::difference_type n, const move_iterator<Iterator>& x);

Returns: x + n.
```

```cpp
move_iterator<Iterator> make_move_iterator(const Iterator& i);

Returns: move_iterator<Iterator>(i).
```

24.6 Stream iterators

To make it possible for algorithmic templates to work directly with input/output streams, appropriate iterator-like class templates are provided.

[Example:
partial_sum_copy(istream_iterator<double, char>(cin),
   istream_iterator<double, char>(),
   ostream_iterator<double, char>(cout, "\n"));

reads a file containing floating point numbers from cin, and prints the partial sums onto cout. — end example]

### 24.6.1 Class template `istream_iterator`  

`istream_iterator` reads (using `operator>>`) successive elements from the input stream for which it was constructed. After it is constructed, and every time `++` is used, the iterator reads and stores a value of `T`. If the end of stream is reached the iterator fails to read and store a value of `T` (`operator void*() fail()` on the stream returns `false` `true`), the iterator becomes equal to the end-of-stream iterator value. The constructor with no arguments `istream_iterator()` always constructs an end-of-stream input iterator object, which is the only legitimate iterator to be used for the end condition. The result of `operator*` on an end-of-stream iterator is not defined. For any other iterator value a `const T&` is returned. The result of `operator->` on an end-of-stream iterator is not defined. For any other iterator value a `const T*` is returned. The behavior of a program that applies `operator++()` to an end-of-stream iterator is undefined. It is impossible to store things into `istream iterators`.

2 The main peculiarity of the `istream iterators` is the fact that `++` operators are not equality preserving, that is, `i == j` does not guarantee at all that `++i == ++j`. Every time `++` is used a new value is read. The practical consequence of this fact is that `istream iterators` can be used only for one-pass algorithms, which actually makes perfect sense, since for multi-pass algorithms it is always more appropriate to use in-memory data structures.

3 Two end-of-stream iterators are always equal. An end-of-stream iterator is not equal to a non-end-of-stream iterator. Two non-end-of-stream iterators are equal when they are constructed from the same stream.

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class T, class charT = char, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
              class Distance = ptrdiff_t>
    class istream_iterator:
    public iterator<input_iterator_tag, T, Distance, const T*, const T&> {
        public:
            typedef charT char_type;
            typedef traits traits_type;
            typedef basic_istream<charT,traits> istream_type;
            see below istream_iterator();
            istream_iterator(istream_type& s);
            istream_iterator(const istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance>& x) = default;
            ~istream_iterator() = default;
            const T& operator*() const;
            const T* operator->() const;
            istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance>& operator++();
            istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance> operator++(int);
        private:
            basic_istream<charT,traits>** in_stream; // exposition only
            T value;                                 // exposition only
    }

    template <class T, class charT, class traits, class Distance>
    bool operator==(const istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance>& x,
                    const istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance>& y);
}
```

§ 24.6.1 817
template <class T, class charT, class traits, class Distance>
bool operator!=(const istream_iterator<T, charT, traits, Distance>& x,
               const istream_iterator<T, charT, traits, Distance>& y);
}

24.6.1.1 istream_iterator constructors and destructor

*see below* istream_iterator();

Effects: Constructs the end-of-stream iterator. If T is a literal type, then this constructor shall be a constexpr constructor.

Postcondition: in_stream == 0.

istream_iterator(istream_type& s);

Effects: Initializes in_stream with s. value may be initialized during construction or the first time it is referenced.

Postcondition: in_stream == &s.

istream_iterator(const istream_iterator<T, charT, traits, Distance>& x) = default;

Effects: Constructs a copy of x. If T is a literal type, then this constructor shall be a trivial copy constructor.

Postcondition: in_stream == x.in_stream.

~istream_iterator() = default;

Effects: The iterator is destroyed. If T is a literal type, then this destructor shall be a trivial destructor.

24.6.1.2 istream_iterator operations

const T& operator*() const;

Returns: value.

const T* operator->() const;

Returns: &(operator*()).

istream_iterator<T, charT, traits, Distance>& operator++();

Requires: in_stream != 0.

Effects: *in_stream >> value.

Returns: *this.

istream_iterator<T, charT, traits, Distance> operator++(int);

Requires: in_stream != 0.

Effects:

    istream_iterator<T, charT, traits, Distance> tmp = *this;
    *in_stream >> value;
    return (tmp);
template <class T, class charT, class traits, class Distance>
bool operator==(const istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance> &x,
              const istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance> &y);

Returns: x.in_stream == y.in_stream.

template <class T, class charT, class traits, class Distance>
bool operator!=(const istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance> &x,
               const istream_iterator<T,charT,traits,Distance> &y);

Returns: !(x == y)

24.6.2 Class template ostream_iterator

ostream_iterator writes (using operator<<) successive elements onto the output stream from which it
was constructed. If it was constructed with charT* as a constructor argument, this string, called a delimiter
string, is written to the stream after every T is written. It is not possible to get a value out of the output
iterator. Its only use is as an output iterator in situations like

while (first != last)
  *result++ = *first++;

2 ostream_iterator is defined as:

namespace std {
  template <class T, class charT = char, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
  class ostream_iterator:
    public iterator<output_iterator_tag, void, void, void, void> {
      public:
        typedef charT char_type;
        typedef traits traits_type;
        typedef basic_ostream<charT,traits> ostream_type;
        ostream_iterator(ostream_type& s);
        ostream_iterator(ostream_type& s, const charT* delimiter);
        ~ostream_iterator();
        ostream_iterator<T,charT,traits>& operator=(const T& value);
        ostream_iterator<T,charT,traits>& operator*();
        ostream_iterator<T,charT,traits>& operator++();
        ostream_iterator<T,charT,traits>& operator++(int);
      private:
        basic_ostream<charT,traits>* out_stream;  // exposition only
        const charT* delim;  // exposition only
    };
  }

24.6.2.1 ostream_iterator constructors and destructor

ostream_iterator(ostream_type& s);

Effects: Initializes out_stream with s and delim with null.

ostream_iterator(ostream_type& s, const charT* delimiter);

Effects: Initializes out_stream with s and delim with delimiter.
ostream_iterator(const ostream_iterator& x);

Effects: Constructs a copy of x.

~ostream_iterator();

Effects: The iterator is destroyed.

24.6.2.2 ostream_iterator operations

ostream_iterator& operator=(const T& value);

Effects:

*out_stream << value;
if(delim != 0)
    *out_stream << delim;
return (*this);

ostream_iterator& operator*();

Returns: *this.

ostream_iterator& operator++();
ostream_iterator& operator++(int);

Returns: *this.

24.6.3 Class template istreambuf_iterator

namespace std {
    template<class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class istreambuf_iterator : public iterator<input_iterator_tag, charT,
        typename traits::off_type, charT*, unspecified, charT> {
        // exposition only
        public:
            typedef charT char_type;
            typedef traits traits_type;
            typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
            typedef basic_streambuf<charT,traits> streambuf_type;
            typedef basic_istream<charT,traits> istream_type;

            class proxy;

        constexpr istreambuf_iterator() throw();
        istreambuf_iterator(const istreambuf_iterator&) throw() = default;
        ~istreambuf_iterator() throw() = default;
        istreambuf_iterator(istream_type& s) throw();
        istreambuf_iterator(streambuf_type* s) throw();
        istreambuf_iterator(const proxy& p) throw();
        charT operator*() const;
        pointer operator->() const;
        istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& operator++();
        proxy operator++(int);
        bool equal(istreambuf_iterator& b) const;

        private:
            streambuf_type* sbuf_;  // exposition only
    } // istreambuf_iterator

§ 24.6.3
The class template `istreambuf_iterator` reads successive characters from the streambuf for which it was constructed. `operator*` provides access to the current input character, if any.  

```
template <class charT, class traits>
bool operator==(const istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& a,
               const istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& b);

template <class charT, class traits>
bool operator!=(const istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& a,
               const istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& b);
```

1 The class template `istreambuf_iterator` reads successive characters from the streambuf for which it was constructed. `operator*` provides access to the current input character, if any.  

```
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class istreambuf_iterator<charT, traits>::proxy {
        charT keep_;  
        basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* sbuf_;  
        proxy(charT c,  
             basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* sbuf)  
            : keep_(c), sbuf_(sbuf) { }
        public:  
            charT operator*() { return keep_; }
    };
}
```

2 The result of `operator*()` on an end-of-stream iterator is undefined. For any other iterator value a `char_`-type value is returned. It is impossible to assign a character via an input iterator.

3 Note that in the input iterators, `++` operators are not equality preserving, that is, `i == j` does not guarantee at all that `++i == ++j`. Every time `++` is evaluated a new value is used.

4 The practical consequence of this fact is that an `istreambuf_iterator` object can be used only for one-pass algorithms. Two end-of-stream iterators are always equal. An end-of-stream iterator is not equal to an iterator that is not an end-of-stream iterator.

### 24.6.3.1 Class template `istreambuf_iterator::proxy`

```
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class istreambuf_iterator<charT, traits>::proxy {
        charT keep_;  
        basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* sbuf_;  
        proxy(charT c,  
             basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* sbuf)  
            : keep_(c), sbuf_(sbuf) { }
        public:  
            charT operator*() { return keep_; }
    };
}
```

1 Class `istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>::proxy` is for exposition only. An implementation is permitted to provide equivalent functionality without providing a class with this name. Class `istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>::proxy` provides a temporary placeholder as the return value of the post-increment operator (`operator++`). It keeps the character pointed to by the previous value of the iterator for some possible future access to get the character.

### 24.6.3.2 `istreambuf_iterator` constructors

```
constexpr istreambuf_iterator() throw();
```

1 *Effects:* Constructs the end-of-stream iterator.
istreambuf_iterator(basic_istream<charT,traits>& s) throw();
istreambuf_iterator(basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* s) throw();

*Effects:* Constructs an istreambuf_iterator<> that uses the basic_streambuf<> object *(s.rdbuf()), or *s, respectively. Constructs an end-of-stream iterator if s.rdbuf() is null.

istreambuf_iterator(const proxy& p) throw();

*Effects:* Constructs a istreambuf_iterator<> that uses the basic_streambuf<> object pointed to by the proxy object’s constructor argument p.

### 24.6.3.3 istreambuf_iterator::operator*

[istreambuf.iterator::op*]

charT operator*() const

*Returns:* The character obtained via the streambuf member sbuf_->sgetc().

### 24.6.3.4 istreambuf_iterator::operator++

[istreambuf.iterator::op++]

istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>::operator++();

*Effects:* sbuf_->sbumpc().

*Returns:* *this.

proxy istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>::operator++(int);

*Returns:* proxy(sbuf_->sbumpc(), sbuf_).

### 24.6.3.5 istreambuf_iterator::equal

[istreambuf.iterator::equal]

bool equal(istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& b) const;

*Returns:* true if and only if both iterators are at end-of-stream, or neither is at end-of-stream, regardless of what streambuf object they use.

### 24.6.3.6 operator==

[istreambuf.iterator::op==]

template <class charT, class traits>
bool operator==(const istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& a,
const istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& b);

*Returns:* a.equal(b).

### 24.6.3.7 operator!=

[istreambuf.iterator::op!=]

template <class charT, class traits>
bool operator!=(const istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& a,
const istreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& b);

*Returns:* !a.equal(b).
# 24.6.4 Class template `ostreambuf_iterator`

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class ostreambuf_iterator :
    public iterator<output_iterator_tag, void, void, void, void> {
        public:
            typedef charT char_type;
            typedef traits traits_type;
            typedef basic_streambuf<charT,traits> streambuf_type;
            typedef basic_ostream<charT,traits> ostream_type;

            public:
                ostreambuf_iterator(ostream_type& s) throw();
                ostreambuf_iterator(streambuf_type* s) throw();
                ostreambuf_iterator& operator=(charT c);
                ostreambuf_iterator& operator*();
                ostreambuf_iterator& operator++();
                ostreambuf_iterator& operator++(int);
                bool failed() const throw();

            private:
                streambuf_type* sbuf_; // exposition only
            };
}
```

The class template `ostreambuf_iterator` writes successive *characters* onto the output stream from which it was constructed. It is not possible to get a character value out of the output iterator.

## 24.6.4.1 `ostreambuf_iterator` constructors

```cpp
ostreambuf_iterator(ostream_type& s) throw();
```

1. **Requires:** `s.rdbuf()` shall not null pointer.
2. **Effects:** `:sbuf_=(s.rdbuf())`.

```cpp
ostreambuf_iterator(streambuf_type* s) throw();
```

1. **Requires:** `s` shall not be a null pointer.
2. **Effects:** `:sbuf_(s)`.

## 24.6.4.2 `ostreambuf_iterator` operations

```cpp
ostreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& operator=(charT c);
```

1. **Effects:** If `failed()` yields `false`, calls `sbuf_->sputc(c)`; otherwise has no effect.
2. **Returns:** `*this`.

```cpp
ostreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& operator*();
```

1. **Returns:** `*this`.

```cpp
ostreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& operator++();
```

§ 24.6.4.2
ostreambuf_iterator<charT,traits>& operator++(int);

Returns: *this.

bool failed() const throw();

Returns: true if in any prior use of member operator=, the call to sbuf_->sputc() returned traits::eof(); or false otherwise.

24.6.5 range access

In addition to being available via inclusion of the <iterator> header, the function templates in 24.6.5 are available when any of the following headers are included: <array>, <deque>, <forward_list>, <list>, <map>, <regex>, <set>, <string>, <unordered_map>, <unordered_set>, and <vector>.

template <class C> auto begin(C& c) -> decltype(c.begin());
template <class C> auto begin(const C& c) -> decltype(c.begin());

Returns: c.begin().

template <class C> auto end(C& c) -> decltype(c.end());
template <class C> auto end(const C& c) -> decltype(c.end());

Returns: c.end().

template <class T, size_t N> T* begin(T (&array)[N]);

Returns: array.

template <class T, size_t N> T* end(T (&array)[N]);

Returns: array + N.
25 Algorithms library

25.1 General

This Clause describes components that C++ programs may use to perform algorithmic operations on containers (Clause 23) and other sequences.

The following subclauses describe components for non-modifying sequence operations, modifying sequence operations, sorting and related operations, and algorithms from the ISO C library, as summarized in Table 106.

Table 106 — Algorithms library summary

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Header <algorithm> synopsis

namespace std {
    #include <initializer_list>

    // 25.2, non-modifying sequence operations:
    template <class InputIterator, class Predicate>
    bool all_of(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);
    template <class InputIterator, class Predicate>
    bool any_of(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);
    template <class InputIterator, class Predicate>
    bool none_of(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);

    template<class InputIterator, class Function>
    Function for_each(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Function f);
    template<class InputIterator, class T>
    InputIterator find(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, const T& value);
    template<class InputIterator, class Predicate>
    InputIterator find_if(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);
    template<class InputIterator, class Predicate>
    InputIterator find_if_not(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);

    template<class InputIterator, class Predicate>
    InputIterator find_if_not(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);

    template<class ForwardIterator1, class ForwardIterator2>
    ForwardIterator1 find_end(ForwardIterator1 first1, ForwardIterator1 last1,
                              ForwardIterator2 first2, ForwardIterator2 last2);

§ 25.1
template<class ForwardIterator1, class ForwardIterator2, class BinaryPredicate>
ForwardIterator1
    find_end(ForwardIterator1 first1, ForwardIterator1 last1,
             ForwardIterator2 first2, ForwardIterator2 last2,
             BinaryPredicate pred);

template<class InputIterator, class ForwardIterator>
InputIterator
    find_first_of(InputIterator first1, InputIterator last1,
                  ForwardIterator first2, ForwardIterator last2);

template<class InputIterator, class ForwardIterator, class BinaryPredicate>
InputIterator
    find_first_of(InputIterator first1, InputIterator last1,
                  ForwardIterator first2, ForwardIterator last2,
                  BinaryPredicate pred);

template<class ForwardIterator1>
ForwardIterator adjacent_find(ForwardIterator first1,
                              ForwardIterator last);

template<class ForwardIterator, class BinaryPredicate>
ForwardIterator adjacent_find(ForwardIterator first1,
                              ForwardIterator last1,
                              BinaryPredicate pred);

template<class InputIterator, class T>
    typename iterator_traits<InputIterator>::difference_type
    count(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, const T& value);

template<class InputIterator, class Predicate>
    typename iterator_traits<InputIterator>::difference_type
    count_if(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2>
pair<InputIterator1, InputIterator2>
    mismatch(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
             InputIterator2 first2);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class BinaryPredicate>
pair<InputIterator1, InputIterator2>
    mismatch(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
             InputIterator2 first2, BinaryPredicate pred);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2>
    bool equal(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
                InputIterator2 first2);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class BinaryPredicate>
    bool equal(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
                InputIterator2 first2, BinaryPredicate pred);

template<class ForwardIterator1, class ForwardIterator2>
ForwardIterator1 search(
    ForwardIterator1 first1, ForwardIterator1 last1,
    ForwardIterator2 first2, ForwardIterator2 last2);
template<class ForwardIterator1, class ForwardIterator2,  
class BinaryPredicate>
ForwardIterator1 search(  
ForwardIterator1 first1, ForwardIterator1 last1,  
ForwardIterator2 first2, ForwardIterator2 last2,  
BinaryPredicate pred);

template<class ForwardIterator, class Size, class T>
ForwardIterator search_n(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,  
Size count, const T& value);

template  
<class ForwardIterator, class Size, class T, class BinaryPredicate>
ForwardIterator1 search_n(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,  
Size count, const T& value,  
BinaryPredicate pred);

// 25.3, modifying sequence operations:
// 25.3.1, copy:

// 25.3.2, move:

// 25.3.3, swap:

§ 25.1
template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
void replace(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
            const T& old_value, const T& new_value);

template<class ForwardIterator, class Predicate, class T>
void replace_if(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
                Predicate pred, const T& new_value);

template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class T>
OutputIterator replace_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                             OutputIterator result,
                             const T& old_value, const T& new_value);

template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class Predicate, class T>
OutputIterator replace_copy_if(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                                OutputIterator result,
                                Predicate pred, const T& new_value);

template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
void fill(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, const T& value);

template<class OutputIterator, class Size, class T>
void fill_n(OutputIterator first, Size n, const T& value);

template<class ForwardIterator, class Generator>
void generate(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
              Generator gen);

template<class OutputIterator, class Size, class Generator>
void generate_n(OutputIterator first, Size n, Generator gen);

template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
ForwardIterator remove(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
                      const T& value);

template<class ForwardIterator, class Predicate>
ForwardIterator remove_if(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
                        Predicate pred);

template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class T>
OutputIterator remove_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                           OutputIterator result, const T& value);

template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class Predicate>
OutputIterator remove_copy_if(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                       OutputIterator result, Predicate pred);

template<class ForwardIterator, class BinaryPredicate>
ForwardIterator unique(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
          BinaryPredicate pred);

template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class BinaryPredicate>
OutputIterator unique_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
             OutputIterator result);

template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class BinaryPredicate>
OutputIterator unique_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
             OutputIterator result, BinaryPredicate pred);

template<class BidirectionalIterator>
void reverse(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last);
template<class BidirectionalIterator, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator reverse_copy(BidirectionalIterator first,
BidirectionalIterator last,
OutputIterator result);

template<class ForwardIterator>
ForwardIterator rotate(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator middle,
ForwardIterator last);

template<class ForwardIterator, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator rotate_copy(
ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator middle,
ForwardIterator last, OutputIterator result);

template<class RandomAccessIterator>
void random_shuffle(RandomAccessIterator first,
RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class RandomNumberGenerator>
void random_shuffle(RandomAccessIterator first,
RandomAccessIterator last,
RandomNumberGenerator&& rand);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class UniformRandomNumberGenerator>
void random_shuffle(RandomAccessIterator first,
RandomAccessIterator last,
UniformRandomNumberGenerator& rand);

// 25.3.13, partitions:
template <class InputIterator, class Predicate>
bool is_partitioned(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);

template<class BidirectionalIterator ForwardIterator, class Predicate>
BidirectionalIterator ForwardIterator partition(BidirectionalIterator ForwardIterator first,
BidirectionalIterator ForwardIterator last,
Predicate pred);

template<class BidirectionalIterator, class Predicate>
BidirectionalIterator stable_partition(BidirectionalIterator first,
BidirectionalIterator last,
Predicate pred);

template <class InputIterator, class OutputIterator1,
class OutputIterator2, class Predicate>
pair<OutputIterator1, OutputIterator2>
partition_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
OutputIterator1 out_true, OutputIterator2 out_false,
Predicate pred);

template<class ForwardIterator, class Predicate>
ForwardIterator partition_point(ForwardIterator first,
ForwardIterator last,
Predicate pred);

// 25.4, sorting and related operations:
// 25.4.1, sorting:
template<class RandomAccessIterator>
void sort(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
void sort(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last,
Compare comp);
template<class RandomAccessIterator>
void stable_sort(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);
template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
void stable_sort(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last, Compare comp);

template<class RandomAccessIterator>
void partial_sort(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator middle, RandomAccessIterator last);
template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
void partial_sort(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator middle, RandomAccessIterator last, Compare comp);

template<class InputIterator, class RandomAccessIterator>
RandomAccessIterator partial_sort_copy(
    InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
    RandomAccessIterator result_first, RandomAccessIterator result_last);

template<class InputIterator, class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
RandomAccessIterator partial_sort_copy(
    InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
    RandomAccessIterator result_first, RandomAccessIterator result_last, Compare comp);

template<class ForwardIterator>
bool is_sorted(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last);
template<class ForwardIterator, class Compare>
bool is_sorted(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, Compare comp);

template<class ForwardIterator>
ForwardIterator is_sorted_until(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last);
template<class ForwardIterator, class Compare>
ForwardIterator is_sorted_until(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, Compare comp);

template<class RandomAccessIterator>
void nth_element(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator nth, RandomAccessIterator last);
template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
nvoid nth_element(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator nth, RandomAccessIterator last, Compare comp);

// 25.4.3, binary search:
template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
ForwardIterator lower_bound(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, const T& value);
template<class ForwardIterator, class T, class Compare>
ForwardIterator lower_bound(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, const T& value, Compare comp);

template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
ForwardIterator upper_bound(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, const T& value);
```cpp
template<class ForwardIterator, class T, class Compare>
ForwardIterator upper_bound(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
const T& value, Compare comp);

template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
pair<ForwardIterator, ForwardIterator>
equal_range(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
const T& value);

template<class ForwardIterator, class T, class Compare>
pair<ForwardIterator, ForwardIterator>
equal_range(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
const T& value, Compare comp);

template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
bool binary_search(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
const T& value);

template<class ForwardIterator, class T, class Compare>
bool binary_search(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
const T& value, Compare comp);

// 25.4.4, merge:
template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator merge(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
OutputIterator result);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class OutputIterator,
class Compare>
OutputIterator merge(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
OutputIterator result, Compare comp);

template<class BidirectionalIterator>
void inplace_merge(BidirectionalIterator first,
BidirectionalIterator middle,
BidirectionalIterator last);

template<class BidirectionalIterator, class Compare>
void inplace_merge(BidirectionalIterator first,
BidirectionalIterator middle,
BidirectionalIterator last, Compare comp);

// 25.4.5, set operations:
template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2>
bool includes(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class Compare>
bool includes(
InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2, Compare comp);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator set_union(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
OutputIterator result);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class OutputIterator,
class Compare>
OutputIterator set_union(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
OutputIterator result, Compare comp);
```
OutputIterator set_union(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
             InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
             OutputIterator result, Compare comp);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class OutputIterator>
    OutputIterator set_intersection(
        InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
        InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
        OutputIterator result);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class OutputIterator, 
        class Compare>
    OutputIterator set_intersection(
        InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
        InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
        OutputIterator result, Compare comp);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class OutputIterator>
    OutputIterator set_difference(
        InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
        InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
        OutputIterator result);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class OutputIterator, 
        class Compare>
    OutputIterator set_difference(
        InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
        InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
        OutputIterator result, Compare comp);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class OutputIterator>
    OutputIterator set_symmetric_difference(
        InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
        InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
        OutputIterator result);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class OutputIterator, 
        class Compare>
    OutputIterator set_symmetric_difference(
        InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
        InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
        OutputIterator result, Compare comp);

// 25.4.6, heap operations:
template<class RandomAccessIterator>
    void push_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
    void push_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last,
                  Compare comp);

template<class RandomAccessIterator>
    void pop_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
    void pop_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last,
                  Compare comp);

template<class RandomAccessIterator>
    void make_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);
template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
void make_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last,
               Compare comp);

template<class RandomAccessIterator>
void sort_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
void sort_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last,
               Compare comp);

template<class RandomAccessIterator>
bool is_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
bool is_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last, Compare comp);

RandomAccessIterator is_heap_until(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
RandomAccessIterator is_heap_until(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last,
                                    Compare comp);

// 25.4.7, minimum and maximum:

template<class T> const T& min(const T& a, const T& b);

template<class T> const T& min(const T& a, const T& b, const T& c);

template<class T, class... Args>
    const T& min(const T& a, const Args&... args);

template<class T, class Compare>
    const T& min(const T& a, const T& b, Compare comp);

template<class T, class U, class... Args>
    const T& min(const T& a, const U& b, const Args&... args);

template<class T> const T& max(const T& a, const T& b);

template<class T> const T& max(const T& a, const T& b, const T& c);

template<class T, class... Args>
    const T& max(const T& a, const Args&... args);

template<class T, class Compare>
    const T& max(const T& a, const T& b, Compare comp);

template<class T, class U, class... Args>
    const T& max(const T& a, const U& b, const Args&... args);

template<class T> pair<const T&, const T&> minmax(const T& a, const T& b);

template<class T> pair<const T&, const T&> minmax(const T& a, const T& b, const T& c);

template<class T, class... Args>
    pair<const T&, const Args&... args> minmax(const T& a, const Args&... args);

template<class T, class Compare>
    pair<const T&, const Compare&> minmax(const T& a, const Compare& compare);

template<class T, class U, class... Args>
    pair<const T&, const Args&... args> minmax(const T& a, const U& b, const Args&... args);

template<class ForwardIterator>
ForwardIterator min_element(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last);

template<class ForwardIterator, class Compare>
ForwardIterator min_element(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
                            Compare compare);

template<class ForwardIterator>
ForwardIterator max_element(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last);
template<class ForwardIterator, class Compare>
    ForwardIterator max_element(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, Compare comp);

template<class ForwardIterator>
    pair<ForwardIterator, ForwardIterator>
    minmax_element(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last);

template<class ForwardIterator, class Compare>
    pair<ForwardIterator, ForwardIterator>
    minmax_element(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, Compare comp);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2>
    bool lexicographical_compare(
        InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
        InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class Compare>
    bool lexicographical_compare(
        InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
        InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2, Compare comp);

// 25.4.9, permutations:
    template<class BidirectionalIterator>
        bool next_permutation(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last);

template<class BidirectionalIterator, class Compare>
    bool next_permutation(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last, Compare comp);

template<class BidirectionalIterator>
    bool prev_permutation(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last);

template<class BidirectionalIterator, class Compare>
    bool prev_permutation(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last, Compare comp);

3 All of the algorithms are separated from the particular implementations of data structures and are parameterized by iterator types. Because of this, they can work with program-defined data structures, as long as these data structures have iterator types satisfying the assumptions on the algorithms.

4 Throughout this Clause, the names of template parameters are used to express type requirements. If an algorithm’s template parameter is InputIterator, InputIterator1, or InputIterator2, the actual template argument shall satisfy the requirements of an input iterator (24.2.1). If an algorithm’s template parameter is OutputIterator, OutputIterator1, or OutputIterator2, the actual template argument shall satisfy the requirements of an output iterator (24.2.2). If an algorithm’s template parameter is ForwardIterator, ForwardIterator1, or ForwardIterator2, the actual template argument shall satisfy the requirements of a forward iterator (24.2.3). If an algorithm’s template parameter is BidirectionalIterator, BidirectionalIterator1, or BidirectionalIterator2, the actual template argument shall satisfy the requirements of a bidirectional iterator (24.2.4). If an algorithm’s template parameter is RandomAccessIterator, RandomAccessIterator1, or RandomAccessIterator2, the actual template argument shall satisfy the requirements of a random-access iterator (24.2.5).

5 If an algorithm’s Effects section says that a value pointed to by any iterator passed as an argument is modified, then that algorithm has an additional type requirement: The type of that argument shall satisfy the requirements of a mutable iterator (24.2). [Note: this requirement does not affect arguments that are
declared as `OutputIterator`, `OutputIterator1`, or `OutputIterator2`, because output iterators must always be mutable. — end note]

Both in-place and copying versions are provided for certain algorithms. When such a version is provided for algorithm it is called `algorithm_copy`. Algorithms that take predicates end with the suffix `_if` (which follows the suffix `_copy`).

The `Predicate` parameter is used whenever an algorithm expects a function object that when applied to the result of dereferencing the corresponding iterator returns a value testable as `true`. In other words, if an algorithm takes `Predicate pred` as its argument and `first` as its iterator argument, it should work correctly in the construct if `(pred(*first)){}...`. The function object `pred` shall not apply any non-constant function through the dereferenced iterator. This function object may be a pointer to function, or an object of a type with an appropriate function call operator.

The `BinaryPredicate` parameter is used whenever an algorithm expects a function object that when applied to the result of dereferencing two corresponding iterators or to dereferencing an iterator and type `T` when `T` is part of the signature returns a value testable as `true`. In other words, if an algorithm takes `BinaryPredicate binary_pred` as its argument and `first1` and `first2` as its iterator arguments, it should work correctly in the construct if `(binary_pred(*first1, *first2)){}...`. `BinaryPredicate` always takes the first iterator type as its first argument, that is, in those cases when `T value` is part of the signature, it should work correctly in the context of if `(binary_pred(*first1, value)){}...`. `binary_pred` shall not apply any non-constant function through the dereferenced iterators.

Note: Unless otherwise specified, algorithms that take function objects as arguments are permitted to copy those function objects freely. Programmers for whom object identity is important should consider using a wrapper class that points to a noncopied implementation object such as `reference_wrapper<T>` (20.7.5), or some equivalent solution. — end note]

When the description of an algorithm gives an expression such as `*first == value` for a condition, the expression shall evaluate to either true or false in boolean contexts.

In the description of the algorithms operators `+` and `-` are used for some of the iterator categories for which they do not have to be defined. In these cases the semantics of `a+n` is the same as that of

\[ \text{X tmp = a;} \\
\text{advance(tmp, n);} \\
\text{return tmp;} \]

and that of `b-a` is the same as of

\[ \text{return distance(a, b);} \]

25.2 Non-modifying sequence operations [alg.nonmodifying]

25.2.1 All of [alg.all_of]

```
template <class InputIterator, class Predicate>
bool all_of(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);
```

1. **Returns**: true if `pred(*i)` is `true` for every iterator `i` in the range `[first, last)`, and false otherwise.

2. **Complexity**: At most `last - first` applications of the predicate.

268 The decision whether to include a copying version was usually based on complexity considerations. When the cost of doing the operation dominates the cost of copy, the copying version is not included. For example, `sort_copy` is not included because the cost of sorting is much more significant, and users might as well do `copy` followed by `sort`. 

§ 25.2.1
25.2.2 Any of

```cpp
template <class InputIterator, class Predicate>
bool any_of(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);
```

1 Returns: true if there exists an iterator i in the range [first,last) such that pred(*i) is true, and false otherwise.
2 Complexity: At most last - first applications of the predicate.

25.2.3 None of

```cpp
template <class InputIterator, class Predicate>
bool none_of(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);
```

1 Returns: true if pred(*i) is false for every iterator i in the range [first,last), and false otherwise.
2 Complexity: At most last - first applications of the predicate.

25.2.4 For each

```cpp
template<class InputIterator, class Function>
Function for_each(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Function f);
```

1 Effects: Applies f to the result of dereferencing every iterator in the range [first,last), starting from first and proceeding to last - 1. [Note: If the type of first satisfies the requirements of a mutable iterator, f may apply nonconstant functions through the dereferenced iterator. — end note]
2 Returns: f.
3 Complexity: Applies f exactly last - first times.
4 Remarks: If f returns a result, the result is ignored.

25.2.5 Find

```cpp
template<class InputIterator, class T>
InputIterator find(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, const T& value);
```

```cpp
template<class InputIterator, class Predicate>
InputIterator find_if(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);
```

```cpp
template<class InputIterator, class Predicate>
InputIterator find_if_not(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);
```

1 Returns: The first iterator i in the range [first,last) for which the following corresponding conditions hold: *i == value, pred(*i) != false, pred(*i) == false. Returns last if no such iterator is found.
2 Complexity: At most last - first applications of the corresponding predicate.
25.2.6 Find End

\[ \text{find_end}(\text{iterator}_1 \text{first1}, \text{iterator}_1 \text{last1}, \text{iterator}_2 \text{first2}, \text{iterator}_2 \text{last2}); \]

\[ \text{find_end}(\text{iterator}_1 \text{first1}, \text{iterator}_1 \text{last1}, \text{iterator}_2 \text{first2}, \text{iterator}_2 \text{last2}, \text{predicate}); \]

1. \textit{Effects:} Finds a subsequence of equal values in a sequence.
2. \textit{Returns:} The last iterator \( i \) in the range \( [\text{first1}, \text{last1} - (\text{last2} - \text{first2})) \) such that for any non-negative integer \( n < (\text{last2} - \text{first2}) \), the following corresponding conditions hold: \( *(i + n) == *(\text{first2} + n) \), \( \text{predicate}(*(i + n), *(\text{first2} + n)) \neq \text{false} \). Returns \text{last1} if no such iterator is found.
3. \textit{Complexity:} At most \( (\text{last2} - \text{first2}) \times (\text{last1} - \text{first1} - (\text{last2} - \text{first2}) + 1) \) applications of the corresponding predicate.

25.2.7 Find First

\[ \text{find_first_of}(\text{iterator}_1 \text{first1}, \text{iterator}_1 \text{last1}, \text{iterator}_2 \text{first2}, \text{iterator}_2 \text{last2}); \]

\[ \text{find_first_of}(\text{iterator}_1 \text{first1}, \text{iterator}_1 \text{last1}, \text{iterator}_2 \text{first2}, \text{iterator}_2 \text{last2}, \text{predicate}); \]

1. \textit{Effects:} Finds an element that matches one of a set of values.
2. \textit{Returns:} The first iterator \( i \) in the range \( [\text{first1}, \text{last1}) \) such that for some iterator \( j \) in the range \( [\text{first2}, \text{last2}) \) the following conditions hold: \( *i == *j \), \( \text{predicate}(*i,*j) \neq \text{false} \). Returns \text{last1} if no such iterator is found.
3. \textit{Complexity:} At most \( (\text{last1}-\text{first1}) \times (\text{last2}-\text{first2}) \) applications of the corresponding predicate.

25.2.8 Adjacent find

\[ \text{adjacent_find}(\text{iterator}_1 \text{first}, \text{iterator}_1 \text{last}); \]

\[ \text{adjacent_find}(\text{iterator}_1 \text{first}, \text{iterator}_1 \text{last}, \text{predicate}); \]

§ 25.2.8
Returns: The first iterator \(i\) such that both \(i\) and \(i + 1\) are in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) for which the following corresponding conditions hold: \(*i == *(i + 1), \text{pred}(*i, *(i + 1)) != false.\) Returns \(\text{last}\) if no such iterator is found.

Complexity: For a nonempty range, exactly \(\min((i - \text{first}) + 1, (\text{last} - \text{first}) - 1)\) applications of the corresponding predicate, where \(i\) is \text{adjacent_find}'s return value.

### 25.2.9 Count

```cpp
template<class InputIterator, class T>
type name iterator_traits<InputIterator>::difference_type
    count(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, const T& value);
```

```cpp
template<class InputIterator, class Predicate>
type name iterator_traits<InputIterator>::difference_type
    count_if(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);
```

Effects: Returns the number of iterators \(i\) in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) for which the following corresponding conditions hold: \(*i == \text{value}, \text{pred}(*i) != false.\)

Complexity: Exactly \(\text{last} - \text{first}\) applications of the corresponding predicate.

### 25.2.10 Mismatch

```cpp
template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2>
pair<InputIterator1, InputIterator2>
mismatch(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
            InputIterator2 first2);
```

```cpp
template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2,
         class BinaryPredicate>
pair<InputIterator1, InputIterator2>
mismatch(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
            InputIterator2 first2, BinaryPredicate pred);
```

Returns: A pair of iterators \(i\) and \(j\) such that \(j == \text{first2} + (i - \text{first1})\) and \(i\) is the first iterator in the range \([\text{first1}, \text{last1})\) for which the following corresponding conditions hold:

\[
  \neg(*i == *(\text{first2} + (i - \text{first1})))
  \text{pred}(*i, *(\text{first2} + (i - \text{first1}))) == false
\]

Returns the pair \(\text{last1}\) and \(\text{first2} + (\text{last1} - \text{first1})\) if such an iterator \(i\) is not found.

Complexity: At most \(\text{last1} - \text{first1}\) applications of the corresponding predicate.

### 25.2.11 Equal

```cpp
template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2>
bool equal(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
            InputIterator2 first2);
```

```cpp
template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2,
         class BinaryPredicate>
bool equal(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
            InputIterator2 first2, BinaryPredicate pred);
```
Returns: true if for every iterator i in the range \([first1, last1)\) the following corresponding conditions hold: \(*i == *(first2 + (i - first1)), pred(*i, *(first2 + (i - first1))) != false. Otherwise, returns false.

Complexity: At most \(last1 - first1\) applications of the corresponding predicate.

25.2.12 Search

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{template<class ForwardIterator1, class ForwardIterator2>}
&\text{ForwardIterator1}
&\text{search(ForwardIterator1 first1, ForwardIterator1 last1,}
&\text{ ForwardIterator2 first2, ForwardIterator2 last2);} \\
&\text{template<class ForwardIterator1, class ForwardIterator2,}
&\text{ class BinaryPredicate>}
&\text{ForwardIterator1}
&\text{search(ForwardIterator1 first1, ForwardIterator1 last1,}
&\text{ ForwardIterator2 first2, ForwardIterator2 last2,}
&\text{ BinaryPredicate pred);} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Effects: Finds a subsequence of equal values in a sequence.

Returns: The first iterator i in the range \([first1, last1 - (last2 - first2))\) such that for any non-negative integer n less than \(last2 - first2\) the following corresponding conditions hold: \(*(i + n) == *(first2 + n), pred(*(i + n), *(first2 + n)) != false. Returns last1 if no such iterator is found.

Complexity: At most \((last1 - first1) * (last2 - first2)\) applications of the corresponding predicate.

25.3 Mutating sequence operations

25.3.1 Copy
template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
OutputIterator result);

Effects: Copies elements in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) into the range \([\text{result}, \text{result} + (\text{last} - \text{first}))\) starting from \text{first} and proceeding to \text{last}. For each non-negative integer \(n < (\text{last} - \text{first})\), performs \(*(\text{result} + n) = *(\text{first} + n)\).

Returns: \text{result} + (\text{last} - \text{first}).

Requires: \text{result} shall not be in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\).

Complexity: Exactly \text{last} - \text{first} assignments.

template<class InputIterator, class Size, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator copy_n(InputIterator first, Size n,
OutputIterator result);

Effects: For each non-negative integer \(i < n\), performs \(*(\text{result} + i) = *(\text{first} + i)\).

Returns: \text{result} + n.

Complexity: Exactly \(n\) assignments.

template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class Predicate>
OutputIterator copy_if(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
OutputIterator result, Predicate pred);

Requires: The ranges \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) and \([\text{result}, \text{result} + (\text{last} - \text{first}))\) shall not overlap.

Effects: Copies all of the elements referred to by the iterator \(i\) in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) for which \(\text{pred}(\ast i)\) is true.

Complexity: Exactly \text{last} - \text{first} applications of the corresponding predicate.

Remarks: Stable.

template<class BidirectionalIterator1, class BidirectionalIterator2>
BidirectionalIterator2
copy_backward(BidirectionalIterator1 first,
BidirectionalIterator1 last,
BidirectionalIterator2 result);

Effects: Copies elements in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) into the range \([\text{result} - (\text{last} - \text{first}), \text{result} )\) starting from \text{last} - 1 and proceeding to \text{first}. For each positive integer \(n \leq (\text{last} - \text{first})\), performs \(*(\text{result} - n) = *(\text{last} - n)\).

Requires: \text{result} shall not be in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\).

Returns: \text{result} - (\text{last} - \text{first}).

Complexity: Exactly \text{last} - \text{first} assignments.

25.3.2 Move

template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator move(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
OutputIterator result);

§ 25.3.2
1 Effects: Moves elements in the range \([\texttt{first}, \texttt{last})\) into the range \([\texttt{result}, \texttt{result} + (\texttt{last} - \texttt{first}))\) starting from \texttt{first} and proceeding to \texttt{last}. For each non-negative integer \(n < (\texttt{last} - \texttt{first})\), performs \(* (\texttt{result} + n) = \text{std}::\text{move}(* (\texttt{first} + n))\).

2 Returns: \(\texttt{result} + (\texttt{last} - \texttt{first})\).

3 Requires: \texttt{result} shall not be in the range \([\texttt{first}, \texttt{last})\).

4 Complexity: Exactly \(\texttt{last} - \texttt{first}\) move assignments.

5 template<class BidirectionalIterator1, class BidirectionalIterator2>
   BidirectionalIterator2
   move_backward(BidirectionalIterator1 first,
                 BidirectionalIterator1 last,
                 BidirectionalIterator2 result);

6 Effects: Moves elements in the range \([\texttt{first}, \texttt{last})\) into the range \([\texttt{result} - (\texttt{last} - \texttt{first}), \texttt{result})\) starting from \(\texttt{last} - 1\) and proceeding to \texttt{first}.\(^{270}\) For each positive integer \(n \leq (\texttt{last} - \texttt{first})\), performs \(* (\texttt{result} - n) = \text{std}::\text{move}(* (\texttt{last} - n))\).

7 Requires: \texttt{result} shall not be in the range \([\texttt{first}, \texttt{last})\).

8 Returns: \(\texttt{result} - (\texttt{last} - \texttt{first})\).

9 Complexity: Exactly \(\texttt{last} - \texttt{first}\) assignments.

25.3.3 Swap \([\text{alg.swap}]\)

\(\text{template}\<\text{T}\>\ \text{void}\ \text{swap}(\text{T} &a, \text{T} &b);\)

\(\text{Requires:}\ \text{T} \text{ shall be MoveConstructible (33) and MoveAssignable (35).}\)

\(\text{Effects:}\ \text{Exchanges values stored in two locations.}\)

\(\text{template}\<\text{ValueType T, size_t N}\>
   \text{void}\ \text{swap_ranges}(\text{T} (&a)[N], \text{T} (&b)[N]);\)

\(\text{Effects:}\ \text{swap_ranges}(a, a + N, b);\)

\(\text{template}\<\text{class ForwardIterator1, class ForwardIterator2}\>
   \text{ForwardIterator2}
   \text{swap_ranges}(\text{ForwardIterator1 first1, ForwardIterator1 last1, ForwardIterator2 first2});\)

1 Effects: For each non-negative integer \(n < (\texttt{last1} - \texttt{first1})\) performs: \texttt{swap}(* (\texttt{first1} + n), * (\texttt{first2} + n)).

2 Requires: The two ranges \([\texttt{first1}, \texttt{last1})\) and \([\texttt{first2}, \texttt{first2} + (\texttt{last1} - \texttt{first1}))\) shall not overlap. The type of *\texttt{first1} shall be the same as the type of *\texttt{first2} and that type shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37).

3 Returns: \(\texttt{first2} + (\texttt{last1} - \texttt{first1})\).

4 Complexity: Exactly \(\texttt{last1} - \texttt{first1}\) swaps.

\(\text{template}\<\text{class ForwardIterator1, class ForwardIterator2}\>
   \text{void}\ \text{iter_swap}(\text{ForwardIterator1 a, ForwardIterator2 b});\)

\(^{270}\) \text{move_backward} \text{ should be used instead of move when last is in the range [result - (last - first),result).}
5  **Effects:** swap(*a, *b).

6  **Requires:** The type of *a shall be the same as the type of *b and that type shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37).

### 25.3.4 Transform

```
25.3.4 Transform \[alg.transform\]

template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator,  
     class UnaryOperation>  
OutputIterator  
    transform(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,  
              OutputIterator result, UnaryOperation op);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2,  
     class OutputIterator, class BinaryOperation>  
OutputIterator  
    transform(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,  
              InputIterator2 first2, OutputIterator result,  
              BinaryOperation binary_op);
```

1  **Effects:** Assigns through every iterator i in the range [result,result + (last1 - first1)) a new corresponding value equal to op(*(first1 + (i - result)) or binary_op(*(first1 + (i - result)), *(first2 + (i - result))).

2  **Requires:** op and binary_op shall not invalidate iterators or subranges, or modify elements in the ranges [first1,last1], [first2,first2 + (last1 - first1)], and [result,result + (last1 - first1)].

3  **Returns:** result + (last1 - first1).

4  **Complexity:** Exactly last1 - first1 applications of op or binary_op.

5  **Remarks:** result may be equal to first in case of unary transform, or to first1 or first2 in case of binary transform.

### 25.3.5 Replace

```
25.3.5 Replace \[alg.replace\]

template<class ForwardIterator, class T>  
void replace(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,  
             const T& old_value, const T& new_value);

template<class ForwardIterator, class Predicate, class T>  
void replace_if(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,  
                Predicate pred, const T& new_value);
```

1  **Requires:** The expression *first = new_value shall be valid.

2  **Effects:** Substitutes elements referred by the iterator i in the range [first,last) with new_value, when the following corresponding conditions hold: *i == old_value, pred(*i) != false.

3  **Complexity:** Exactly last - first applications of the corresponding predicate.

```
template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class T>  
OutputIterator  
    replace_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,  
```

271) The use of fully closed ranges is intentional.
OutputIterator result,
const T& old_value, const T& new_value);

template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class Predicate, class T>
OutputIterator
replace_copy_if(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
OutputIterator result,
Predicate pred, const T& new_value);

Requires: The results of the expressions *first and new_value shall be writable to the result output
iterator. The ranges [first,last) and [result,result + (last - first)) shall not overlap.

Effects: Assigns to every iterator i in the range [result,result + (last - first)) either new_value or *(first + (i - result)) depending on whether the following corresponding conditions hold:

*(first + (i - result)) == old_value
pred(*(first + (i - result))) != false

Returns: result + (last - first).

Complexity: Exactly last - first applications of the corresponding predicate.

25.3.6 Fill

template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
void fill(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, const T& value);

template<class OutputIterator, class Size, class T>
void fill_n(OutputIterator first, Size n, const T& value);

Requires: The expression value shall be writable to the output iterator. The type Size shall be
convertible to an integral type (4.7, 12.3).

Effects: The first algorithm assigns value through all the iterators in the range [first,last). The
second algorithm assigns value through all the iterators in the range [first,first + n) if n is
positive, otherwise it does nothing.

Complexity: Exactly last - first, n, or 0 assignments, respectively.

25.3.7 Generate

template<class ForwardIterator, class Generator>
void generate(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
Generator gen);

template<class OutputIterator, class Size, class Generator>
void generate_n(OutputIterator first, Size n, Generator gen);

Effects: The first algorithm invokes the function object gen and assigns the return value of gen through
all the iterators in the range [first,last). The second algorithm invokes the function object gen
and assigns the return value of gen through all the iterators in the range [first,first + n) if n is
positive, otherwise it does nothing.

Requires: gen takes no arguments, Size shall be convertible to an integral type (4.7, 12.3).

Complexity: Exactly last - first, n, or 0 invocations of gen and assignments, respectively.
25.3.8  Remove

\[\text{alg.remove}\]

\begin{verbatim}
template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
ForwardIterator remove(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, 
const T& value);

template<class ForwardIterator, class Predicate>
ForwardIterator remove_if(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, 
Predicate pred);
\end{verbatim}

1. \textit{Requires:} The type of \*first shall satisfy the MoveAssignable requirements (Table 35).
2. \textit{Effects:} Eliminates all the elements referred to by iterator i in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) for which the following corresponding conditions hold: \*i \equiv \text{value}, \text{pred}(\*i) \neq \text{false}.
3. \textit{Returns:} The end of the resulting range.
5. \textit{Complexity:} Exactly \(\text{last} - \text{first}\) applications of the corresponding predicate.

\begin{verbatim}
template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class T>
OutputIterator remove_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, 
OutputIterator result, const T& value);

template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class Predicate>
OutputIterator remove_copy_if(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, 
OutputIterator result, Predicate pred);
\end{verbatim}

6. \textit{Requires:} The ranges \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) and \([\text{result}, \text{result} + (\text{last} - \text{first}))\) shall not overlap. The expression \*result = \*first shall be valid.
7. \textit{Effects:} Copies all the elements referred to by the iterator i in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) for which the following corresponding conditions do not hold: \*i \equiv \text{value}, \text{pred}(\*i) \neq \text{false}.
8. \textit{Returns:} The end of the resulting range.
9. \textit{Complexity:} Exactly \(\text{last} - \text{first}\) applications of the corresponding predicate.

25.3.9  Unique

\[\text{alg.unique}\]

\begin{verbatim}
template<class ForwardIterator>
ForwardIterator unique(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last);

template<class ForwardIterator, class BinaryPredicate>
ForwardIterator unique(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, 
BinaryPredicate pred);
\end{verbatim}

1. \textit{Effects:} For a nonempty range, eliminates all but the first element from every consecutive group of equivalent elements referred to by the iterator i in the range \([\text{first} + 1, \text{last})\) for which the following conditions hold: \(*(i - 1) \equiv \*i \text{ or } \text{pred}(\*(i - 1), \*i) \neq \text{false}.
2. \textit{Requires:} The comparison function shall be an equivalence relation. The type of \*first shall satisfy the MoveAssignable requirements (Table 35).
Returns: The end of the resulting range.

Complexity: For nonempty ranges, exactly \((last - first) - 1\) applications of the corresponding predicate.

```cpp
template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator
unique_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
            OutputIterator result);
```

```cpp
template<class InputIterator, class OutputIterator,
         class BinaryPredicate>
OutputIterator
unique_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
            OutputIterator result, BinaryPredicate pred);
```

Requires: The ranges \([first, last)\) and \([result, result+(last-first))\) shall not overlap. The expression \(*result = *first\) shall be valid. If neither InputIterator nor OutputIterator meets the requirements of forward iterator then the value type of InputIterator shall be CopyConstructible (34) and CopyAssignable (table 36). Otherwise CopyConstructible is not required.

Effects: Copies only the first element from every consecutive group of equal elements referred to by the iterator \(i\) in the range \([first, last)\) for which the following corresponding conditions hold: \(*i == *(i - 1)\) or \(\text{pred}(*i, *(i - 1)) != false\).

Returns: The end of the resulting range.

Complexity: For nonempty ranges, exactly \(last - first - 1\) applications of the corresponding predicate.

25.3.10 Reverse

```cpp
template<class BidirectionalIterator>
void reverse(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last);
```

Effects: For each non-negative integer \(i <= (last - first)/2\), applies iter_swap to all pairs of iterators \(first + i, (last - i) - 1\).

Requires: The type of \(*first\) shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37).

Complexity: Exactly \((last - first)/2\) swaps.

```cpp
template<class BidirectionalIterator, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator
reverse_copy(BidirectionalIterator first,
             BidirectionalIterator last, OutputIterator result);
```

Effects: Copies the range \([first, last)\) to the range \([result, result+(last-first))\) such that for any non-negative integer \(i < (last - first)\) the following assignment takes place: \(*\text{result} + (last - first) - i) = *(first + i)\).

Requires: The ranges \([first, last)\) and \([result, result+(last-first))\) shall not overlap.

Returns: result + (last - first).

Complexity: Exactly \(last - first\) assignments.
25.3.11 Rotate

```cpp
template<class ForwardIterator>
ForwardIterator rotate(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator middle,
                      ForwardIterator last);
```

1. **Effects:** For each non-negative integer \( i < (\text{last} - \text{first}) \), places the element from the position \( \text{first} + i \) into position \( \text{first} + (i + (\text{last} - \text{middle})) \% (\text{last} - \text{first}) \).
2. **Returns:** \( \text{first} + (\text{last} - \text{middle}) \).
3. **Remarks:** This is a left rotate.
4. **Requires:** \([\text{first},\text{middle})\) and \([\text{middle},\text{last})\) shall be valid ranges. The type of \*first shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37), the MoveConstructible requirements (Table 33), and the MoveAssignable requirements (Table 35).
5. **Complexity:** At most \( \text{last} - \text{first} \) swaps.

```cpp
template<class ForwardIterator, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator rotate_copy(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator middle,
                          ForwardIterator last, OutputIterator result);
```

6. **Effects:** Copies the range \([\text{first},\text{last})\) to the range \([\text{result},\text{result} + (\text{last} - \text{first}))\) such that for each non-negative integer \( i < (\text{last} - \text{first}) \) the following assignment takes place: \( \*(\text{result} + i) = \*(\text{first} + (i + (\text{middle} - \text{first})) \% (\text{last} - \text{first})) \).
7. **Returns:** \( \text{result} + (\text{last} - \text{first}) \).
8. **Requires:** The ranges \([\text{first},\text{last})\) and \([\text{result},\text{result} + (\text{last} - \text{first}))\) shall not overlap.
9. **Complexity:** Exactly \( \text{last} - \text{first} \) assignments.

25.3.12 Random shuffle

```cpp
template<class RandomAccessIterator>
void random_shuffle(RandomAccessIterator first,
                    RandomAccessIterator last);
```

```cpp
template<class RandomAccessIterator, class RandomNumberGenerator>
void random_shuffle(RandomAccessIterator first,
                    RandomAccessIterator last,
                    RandomNumberGenerator&& rand);
```

```cpp
template<class RandomAccessIterator, class UniformRandomNumberGenerator>
void random_shuffle(RandomAccessIterator first,
                    RandomAccessIterator last,
                    UniformRandomNumberGenerator& g);
```

1. **Effects:** Permutes the elements in the range \([\text{first},\text{last})\) such that each possible permutation of those elements has equal probability of appearance.
2. **Requires:** The type of \*first shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (Table 37). The random number generating function object rand shall have a return type that is convertible to \text{iterator_traits<RandomAccessIterator>::difference_type}, and the call \text{rand(n)} shall return a randomly chosen value in the interval \([0,n)\), for \( n > 0 \) of type \text{iterator_traits<RandomAccessIterator>::difference_type}. The function object \text{g} shall meet the requirements of uniform random number generator (26.5.2.2).

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Complexity: Exactly \((last - first) - 1\) swaps.

Remarks: To the extent that the implementation of these functions makes use of random numbers, the implementation shall use the following sources of randomness:

The underlying source of random numbers for the first form of the function is implementation-defined. An implementation may use the \(\text{rand}\) function from the standard C library.

In the second form of the function, the function object \(\text{rand}\) shall serve as the implementation’s source of randomness.

In the third form of the function, the object \(g\) shall serve as the implementation’s source of randomness.

### 25.3.13 Partitions

\[\text{bool is\textunderscore partitioned(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, Predicate pred);}\]

**Requires:** InputIterator’s value type shall be convertible to Predicate’s argument type.

**Returns:** true if \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) is partitioned by \(\text{pred}\), i.e. if all elements that satisfy \(\text{pred}\) appear before those that do not.

**Complexity:** Linear. At most \((last - first)\) applications of \(\text{pred}\).

\[\text{template<class BidirectionalIterator, class Predicate>}\]
\[\text{BidirectionalIterator partition(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last, predicate pred);}\]

**Effects:** Places all the elements in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) that satisfy \(\text{pred}\) before all the elements that do not satisfy it.

**Returns:** An iterator \(i\) such that for any iterator \(j\) in the range \([\text{first}, \text{i})\), \(\text{pred(*j)} \neq \text{false}\), and for any iterator \(k\) in the range \([\text{i}, \text{last})\), \(\text{pred(*k)} = \text{false}\).

**Requires:** The type of \(*\text{first}\) shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37).

**Complexity:** At most \((last - first) / 2\) swaps. Exactly \((last - first)\) applications of the predicate are done. If ForwardIterator meets the requirements for a BidirectionalIterator, at most \((last - first) / 2\) swaps are done; otherwise at most \((last - first)\) swaps are done. Exactly \((last - first)\) applications of the predicate are done.

\[\text{template<class BidirectionalIterator, class Predicate>}\]
\[\text{BidirectionalIterator stable\textunderscore partition(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last, predicate pred);}\]

**Effects:** Places all the elements in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) that satisfy \(\text{pred}\) before all the elements that do not satisfy it.

**Returns:** An iterator \(i\) such that for any iterator \(j\) in the range \([\text{first}, \text{i})\), \(\text{pred(*j)} \neq \text{false}\), and for any iterator \(k\) in the range \([\text{i}, \text{last})\), \(\text{pred(*k)} = \text{false}\). The relative order of the elements in both groups is preserved.

**Requires:** The type of \(*\text{first}\) shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37), the MoveConstructible requirements (Table 33), and the the MoveAssignable requirements (Table 35).

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Complexity: At most \((last - first) \ast \log(last - first)\) swaps, but only linear number of swaps if there is enough extra memory. Exactly \(last - first\) applications of the predicate.

template <class InputIterator, class OutputIterator1, 
        class OutputIterator2, class Predicate>
    pair<OutputIterator1, OutputIterator2>
    partition_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, 
                   OutputIterator1 out_true, OutputIterator2 out_false, 
                   Predicate pred);

Requires: InputIterator’s value type shall be Assignable, and shall be writable to the out_true and out_false OutputIterators, and shall be convertible to Predicate’s argument type. The input range shall not overlap with either of the output ranges.

Effects: For each iterator \(i\) in \([first, last)\), copies \(*i\) to the output range beginning with out_true if \(\text{pred(*i)}\) is true, or to the output range beginning with out_false otherwise.

Returns: A pair \(p\) such that \(p.first\) is the end of the output range beginning at out_true and \(p.second\) is the end of the output range beginning at out_false.

Complexity: Exactly \(last - first\) applications of \(\text{pred}\).

template<class ForwardIterator, class Predicate>
    ForwardIterator partition_point(ForwardIterator first, 
                                    ForwardIterator last, 
                                    Predicate pred);

Requires: ForwardIterator’s value type shall be convertible to Predicate’s argument type. \([first, last)\) shall be partitioned by \(\text{pred}\), i.e. all elements that satisfy \(\text{pred}\) shall appear before those that do not.

Returns: An iterator \(\text{mid}\) such that \(\text{all_of(first, mid, pred)}\) and \(\text{none_of(mid, last, pred)}\) are both true.

Complexity: \(\mathcal{O}(log(last - first))\) applications of \(\text{pred}\).

25.4 Sorting and related operations

All the operations in 25.4 have two versions: one that takes a function object of type \texttt{Compare} and one that uses an \texttt{operator<}.

\texttt{Compare} is used as a function object which returns \texttt{true} if the first argument is less than the second, and \texttt{false} otherwise. \texttt{Compare \texttt{comp}} is used throughout for algorithms assuming an ordering relation. It is assumed that \texttt{comp} will not apply any non-constant function through the dereferenced iterator.

For all algorithms that take \texttt{Compare}, there is a version that uses \texttt{operator<} instead. That is, \texttt{comp(*i, *j) != false} defaults to \texttt{*i < *j != false}. For algorithms other than those described in 25.4.3 to work correctly, \texttt{comp} has to induce a strict weak ordering on the values.

The term \texttt{strict} refers to the requirement of an irreflexive relation \((!\text{\texttt{comp(x, x)}})\) for all \(x\), and the term \texttt{weak} to requirements that are not as strong as those for a total ordering, but stronger than those for a partial ordering. If we define \texttt{equiv(a, b)} as \(!\text{\texttt{comp(a, b)}} \&\& !\text{\texttt{comp(b, a)}}\), then the requirements are that \texttt{comp} and \texttt{equiv} both be transitive relations:

- \texttt{comp(a, b) \&\& comp(b, c)} implies \texttt{comp(a, c)}
- \texttt{equiv(a, b) \&\& equiv(b, c)} implies \texttt{equiv(a, c)} \[Note: \text{Under these conditions, it can be shown that}\]
equiv is an equivalence relation
— comp induces a well-defined relation on the equivalence classes determined by equiv
— The induced relation is a strict total ordering. — end note]

5 A sequence is sorted with respect to a comparator comp if for any iterator i pointing to the sequence and any non-negative integer n such that i + n is a valid iterator pointing to an element of the sequence, comp(*(i + n), *i) == false.

6 A sequence [start,finish) is partitioned with respect to an expression f(e) if there exists an integer n such that for all 0 <= i < distance(start, finish), f(*(start + i)) is true if and only if i < n.

7 In the descriptions of the functions that deal with ordering relationships we frequently use a notion of equivalence to describe concepts such as stability. The equivalence to which we refer is not necessarily an operator==, but an equivalence relation induced by the strict weak ordering. That is, two elements a and b are considered equivalent if and only if !(a < b) && !(b < a).

25.4.1 Sorting

25.4.1.1 sort

template<class RandomAccessIterator>
void sort(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
void sort(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last, Compare comp);

Effects: Sorts the elements in the range [first,last).

Requires: The type of *first shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37), the MoveConstructible requirements (Table 33), and the the MoveAssignable requirements (Table 35).

Complexity: \( \Theta(N \log(N)) \) (where \( N == last - first \)) comparisons.

25.4.1.2 stable_sort

template<class RandomAccessIterator>
void stable_sort(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
void stable_sort(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last, Compare comp);

Effects: Sorts the elements in the range [first,last).

Requires: The type of *first shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37), the MoveConstructible requirements (Table 33), and the the MoveAssignable requirements (Table 35).

Complexity: It does at most \( N \log^2(N) \) (where \( N == last - first \)) comparisons; if enough extra memory is available, it is \( N \log(N) \).

Remarks: Stable.
template<class RandomAccessIterator>
void partial_sort(RandomAccessIterator first,
    RandomAccessIterator middle,
    RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
void partial_sort(RandomAccessIterator first,
    RandomAccessIterator middle,
    RandomAccessIterator last,
    Compare comp);

Effects: Places the first \( \text{middle} - \text{first} \) sorted elements from the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) into the range \([\text{first}, \text{middle})\). The rest of the elements in the range \([\text{middle}, \text{last})\) are placed in an unspecified order.

Requires: The type of \*\text{first} shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37), the MoveConstructible requirements (Table 33), and the the MoveAssignable requirements (Table 35).

Complexity: It takes approximately \((\text{last} - \text{first}) \times \log(\text{middle} - \text{first})\) comparisons.

template<class InputIterator, class RandomAccessIterator>
RandomAccessIterator
partial_sort_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
    RandomAccessIterator result_first,
    RandomAccessIterator result_last);

template<class InputIterator, class RandomAccessIterator,
    class Compare>
RandomAccessIterator
partial_sort_copy(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
    RandomAccessIterator result_first,
    RandomAccessIterator result_last,
    Compare comp);

Effects: Places the first \( \min(\text{last} - \text{first}, \text{result_last} - \text{result_first}) \) sorted elements into the range \([\text{result_first}, \text{result_first} + \min(\text{last} - \text{first}, \text{result_last} - \text{result_first})\)).

Returns: The smaller of: \text{result_last} or \text{result_first} + (\text{last} - \text{first}).

Requires: The type of \*\text{result_first} shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37), the MoveConstructible requirements (Table 33), and the the MoveAssignable requirements (Table 35).

Complexity: Approximately \((\text{last} - \text{first}) \times \log(\min(\text{last} - \text{first}, \text{result_last} - \text{result_first}))\) comparisons.

template<class ForwardIterator>
bool is_sorted(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last);

Returns: \text{is_sorted_until}(first, last) == last
template<class ForwardIterator, class Compare>
bool is_sorted(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
    Compare comp);

Returns: is_sorted_until(first, last, comp) == last

template<class ForwardIterator>
ForwardIterator is_sorted_until(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last);

template<class ForwardIterator, class Compare>
ForwardIterator is_sorted_until(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
    Compare comp);

Returns: If distance(first, last) < 2, returns last. Otherwise, returns the last iterator i in
[first, last] for which the range [first, i) is sorted.

Complexity: Linear.

25.4.2 Nth element [alg.nth.element]

template<class RandomAccessIterator>
void nth_element(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator nth,
    RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
void nth_element(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator nth,
    RandomAccessIterator last, Compare comp);

After nth_element the element in the position pointed to by nth is the element that would be in that
position if the whole range were sorted. Also for any iterator i in the range [first, nth) and any
iterator j in the range [nth, last) it holds that: !(i > j) or comp(j, i) == false.

Requires: The type of *first shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37), the MoveConstructible
requirements (Table 33), and the the MoveAssignable requirements (Table 35).

Complexity: Linear on average.

25.4.3 Binary search [alg.binary.search]

All of the algorithms in this section are versions of binary search and assume that the sequence being
searched is partitioned with respect to an expression formed by binding the search key to an argument of
the implied or explicit comparison function. They work on non-random access iterators minimizing the
number of comparisons, which will be logarithmic for all types of iterators. They are especially appropriate
for random access iterators, because these algorithms do a logarithmic number of steps through the data
structure. For non-random access iterators they execute a linear number of steps.

25.4.3.1 lower_bound [lower-bound]

template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
ForwardIterator
    lower_bound(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
        const T& value);

template<class ForwardIterator, class T, class Compare>
ForwardIterator
    lower_bound(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
        const T& value, Compare comp);
1. **Requires:** The elements \(e\) of \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) shall be partitioned with respect to the expression \(e < \text{value}\) or \(\text{comp}(e, \text{value})\).

2. **Returns:** The furthermost iterator \(i\) in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last}]\) such that for any iterator \(j\) in the range \([\text{first}, i)\) the following corresponding conditions hold: \(*j < \text{value}\) or \(\text{comp}(*j, \text{value}) \neq \text{false}\).

3. **Complexity:** At most \(\log_2(\text{last} - \text{first}) + O(1)\) comparisons.

### 25.4.3.2 upper_bound

```
template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
ForwardIterator
upper_bound(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
const T& value);
```

```
template<class ForwardIterator, class T, class Compare>
ForwardIterator
upper_bound(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
const T& value, Compare comp);
```

1. **Requires:** The elements \(e\) of \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) shall be partitioned with respect to the expression \(!\text{value} < e\) or \(!\text{comp}\text{(value, } e)\).

2. **Returns:** The furthermost iterator \(i\) in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last}]\) such that for any iterator \(j\) in the range \([\text{first}, i)\) the following corresponding conditions hold: \(!\text{value} < *j\) or \(\text{comp}(\text{value}, *j) \neq \text{false}\).

3. **Complexity:** At most \(\log_2(\text{last} - \text{first}) + O(1)\) comparisons.

### 25.4.3.3 equal_range

```
template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
pair<ForwardIterator, ForwardIterator>
equal_range(ForwardIterator first,
ForwardIterator last, const T& value);
```

```
template<class ForwardIterator, class T, class Compare>
pair<ForwardIterator, ForwardIterator>
equal_range(ForwardIterator first,
ForwardIterator last, const T& value,
Compare comp);
```

1. **Requires:** The elements \(e\) of \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) shall be partitioned with respect to the expressions \(e < \text{value}\) and \(!\text{value} < e\) or \(\text{comp}(e, \text{value})\) and \(!\text{comp}\text{(value, } e)\). Also, for all elements \(e\) of \([\text{first}, \text{last}), e < \text{value}\) shall imply \(!\text{value} < e\) or \(\text{comp}(e, \text{value})\) shall imply \(!\text{comp}\text{(value, } e)\).

2. **Returns:**
   
   ```
   make_pair(lower_bound(first, last, value),
   upper_bound(first, last, value))
   ```

   or

   ```
   make_pair(lower_bound(first, last, value, comp),
   upper_bound(first, last, value, comp))
   ```
Complexity: At most $2 \cdot \log_2(last - first) + \Theta(1)$ comparisons.

25.4.3.4 binary_search

```cpp
template<class ForwardIterator, class T>
bool binary_search(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
const T& value);
```

```cpp
template<class ForwardIterator, class T, class Compare>
bool binary_search(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
const T& value, Compare comp);
```

Requires: The elements e of [first, last) are partitioned with respect to the expressions e < value and !(value < e) or comp(e, value) and !comp(value, e). Also, for all elements e of [first, last), e < value implies !(value < e) or comp(e, value) implies !comp(value, e).

Returns: true if there is an iterator i in the range [first, last) that satisfies the corresponding conditions: !(i < value) && !(value < i) or comp(i, value) == false && comp(value, i) == false.

Complexity: At most $\log_2(last - first) + \Theta(1)$ comparisons.

25.4.4 Merge

```cpp
template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2,
class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator merge(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
OutputIterator result);
```

```cpp
template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2,
class OutputIterator, class Compare>
OutputIterator merge(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
OutputIterator result, Compare comp);
```

Effects: Merges two sorted ranges [first1, last1) and [first2, last2) into the range [result, result + (last1 - first1) + (last2 - first2)).

The resulting range shall not overlap with either of the original ranges. The list will be sorted in non-decreasing order according to the ordering defined by comp; that is, for every iterator i in [first, last) other than first, the condition *i < *(i - 1) or comp(*i, *(i - 1)) will be false.

Returns: result + (last1 - first1) + (last2 - first2).

Complexity: At most (last1 - first1) + (last2 - first2) - 1 comparisons.

Remarks: Stable.

```cpp
template<class BidirectionalIterator>
void inplace_merge(BidirectionalIterator first,
BidirectionalIterator middle,
BidirectionalIterator last);
```
template<class BidirectionalIterator, class Compare>
void inplace_merge(BidirectionalIterator first,
                   BidirectionalIterator middle,
                   BidirectionalIterator last, Compare comp);

Effects: Merges two sorted consecutive ranges [first,middle) and [middle,last), putting the result of the merge into the range [first,last). The resulting range will be in non-decreasing order; that is, for every iterator i in [first,last) other than first, the condition *i < *(i - 1) or, respectively, comp(*i, *(i - 1)) will be false.

Requires: The type of *first shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37), the MoveConstructible requirements (Table 33), and the the MoveAssignable requirements (Table 35).

Complexity: When enough additional memory is available, (last - first) - 1 comparisons. If no additional memory is available, an algorithm with complexity \( N \log(N) \) (where \( N \) is equal to last - first) may be used.

Remarks: Stable.

25.4.5 Set operations on sorted structures

This section defines all the basic set operations on sorted structures. They also work with multisets (23.4.4) containing multiple copies of equivalent elements. The semantics of the set operations are generalized to multisets in a standard way by defining \( \text{set} \_\text{union}() \) to contain the maximum number of occurrences of every element, \( \text{set} \_\text{intersection}() \) to contain the minimum, and so on.

25.4.5.1 includes

\[
\text{template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2>}
\]
\[
\text{bool includes(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1, InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2);}
\]

\[
\text{template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class Compare>}
\]
\[
\text{bool includes(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1, InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2, Compare comp);}
\]

Returns: true if every element in the range [first2,last2) is contained in the range [first1,last1). Returns false otherwise.

Complexity: At most \( 2 \times ((last1 - first1) + (last2 - first2)) - 1 \) comparisons.

25.4.5.2 set_union

\[
\text{template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class OutputIterator>}
\]
\[
\text{OutputIterator set_union(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1, InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2, OutputIterator result);}\]

\[
\text{template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class OutputIterator, class Compare>}
\]
\[
\text{OutputIterator set_union(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1, InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,}
\]

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Effects: Constructs a sorted union of the elements from the two ranges; that is, the set of elements that are present in one or both of the ranges.

Requires: The resulting range shall not overlap with either of the original ranges.

Returns: The end of the constructed range.

Complexity: At most $2 \times ((\text{last1} - \text{first1}) + (\text{last2} - \text{first2})) - 1$ comparisons.

Remarks: If $[\text{first1}, \text{last1})$ contains $m$ elements that are equivalent to each other and $[\text{first2}, \text{last2})$ contains $n$ elements that are equivalent to them, then all $m$ elements from the first range shall be copied to the output range, in order, and then $\max(n - m, 0)$ elements from the second range shall be copied to the output range, in order.
set_difference(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1, 
    InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2, 
    OutputIterator result, Compare comp);

   Effects: Copies the elements of the range [first1, last1) which are not present in the range [first2, last2) to the range beginning at result. The elements in the constructed range are sorted.

   Requires: The resulting range shall not overlap with either of the original ranges.

   Returns: The end of the constructed range.

   Complexity: At most \(2 \times ((\text{last1} - \text{first1}) + (\text{last2} - \text{first2})) - 1\) comparisons.

   Remarks: If [first1, last1) contains \(m\) elements that are equivalent to each other and [first2, last2) contains \(n\) elements that are equivalent to them, the last \(\max(m-n,0)\) elements from [first1, last1) shall be copied to the output range.

25.4.5.5 set_symmetric_difference

[set.symmetric.difference]

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, 
    class OutputIterator>
    OutputIterator 
    set_symmetric_difference(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1, 
        InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2, 
        OutputIterator result);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, 
    class OutputIterator, class Compare>
    OutputIterator 
    set_symmetric_difference(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1, 
        InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2, 
        OutputIterator result, Compare comp);

   Effects: Copies the elements of the range [first1, last1) which are not present in the range [first2, last2), and the elements of the range [first2, last2) which are not present in the range [first1, last1) to the range beginning at result. The elements in the constructed range are sorted.

   Requires: The resulting range shall not overlap with either of the original ranges.

   Returns: The end of the constructed range.

   Complexity: At most \(2 \times ((\text{last1} - \text{first1}) + (\text{last2} - \text{first2})) - 1\) comparisons.

   Remarks: If [first1, last1) contains \(m\) elements that are equivalent to each other and [first2, last2) contains \(n\) elements that are equivalent to them, then \(|m-n|\) of those elements shall be copied to the output range: the last \(m-n\) of these elements from [first1, last1) if \(m > n\), and the last \(n-m\) of these elements from [first2, last2) if \(m < n\).

25.4.6 Heap operations

[alg.heap.operations]

A heap is a particular organization of elements in a range between two random access iterators [a,b). Its two key properties are:

1) There is no element greater than *a in the range and

2) *a may be removed by pop_heap(), or a new element added by push_heap(), in \(O(\log(N))\) time.
2 These properties make heaps useful as priority queues.

3 \texttt{make_heap()} converts a range into a heap and \texttt{sort_heap()} turns a heap into a sorted sequence.

25.4.6.1 push_heap

\verb|template<class RandomAccessIterator>|
\verb|  void push_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);|

\verb|template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>|
\verb|  void push_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last,|
\verb|                  Compare comp);|

1 \textit{Effects:} Places the value in the location \texttt{last - 1} into the resulting heap \texttt{[first, last)}.

2 \textit{Requires:} The range \texttt{[first, last - 1)} shall be a valid heap. The type of \texttt{*first} shall satisfy the \texttt{MoveConstructible} requirements (Table 33) and the \texttt{MoveAssignable} requirements (Table 35).

3 \textit{Complexity:} At most \texttt{log(last - first)} comparisons.

25.4.6.2 pop_heap

\verb|template<class RandomAccessIterator>|
\verb|  void pop_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);|

\verb|template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>|
\verb|  void pop_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last,|
\verb|                  Compare comp);|

1 \textit{Effects:} Swaps the value in the location \texttt{first} with the value in the location \texttt{last - 1} and makes \texttt{[first, last - 1)} into a heap.

2 \textit{Requires:} The range \texttt{[first, last)} shall be a valid heap. The type of \texttt{*first} shall satisfy the \texttt{Swappable} requirements (37), the \texttt{MoveConstructible} requirements (Table 33), and the \texttt{MoveAssignable} requirements (Table 35).

3 \textit{Complexity:} At most \texttt{2 \ast log(last - first)} comparisons.

25.4.6.3 make_heap

\verb|template<class RandomAccessIterator>|
\verb|  void make_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);|

\verb|template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>|
\verb|  void make_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last,|
\verb|                  Compare comp);|

1 \textit{Effects:} Constructs a heap out of the range \texttt{[first, last)}.

2 \textit{Requires:} The type of \texttt{*first} shall satisfy the \texttt{MoveConstructible} requirements (Table 33) and the \texttt{MoveAssignable} requirements (Table 35).

3 \textit{Complexity:} At most \texttt{3 \ast (last - first)} comparisons.
25.4.6.4  sort_heap

template<class RandomAccessIterator>
void sort_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
void sort_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last,
Compare comp);

1  **Effects:** Sorts elements in the heap \([first, last)\).

2  **Requires:** The range \([first, last)\) shall be a valid heap. The type of \(*first\) shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37), the MoveConstructible requirements (Table 33), and the the MoveAssignable requirements (Table 35).

3  **Complexity:** At most \(N \log(N)\) comparisons (where \(N = last - first\)).

25.4.6.5  is_heap

template<class RandomAccessIterator>
bool is_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last);

template<class RandomAccessIterator, class Compare>
bool is_heap(RandomAccessIterator first, RandomAccessIterator last, Compare comp);

1  **Returns:** \(\text{is_heap\_until}(first, last) == last\)

2  **Returns:** \(\text{is_heap\_until}(first, last, \text{comp}) == last\)

3  **Returns:** If \(\text{distance}(first, last) < 2\), returns \(last\). Otherwise, returns the last iterator \(i\) in \([first, last]\) for which the range \([first, i)\) is a heap.

4  **Complexity:** Linear.

25.4.7  Minimum and maximum

template<class T> const T& min(const T& a, const T& b);

template<class T, class Compare>
const T& min(const T& a, const T& b, Compare comp);

1  **Requires:** Type \(T\) is LessThanComparable (32).

2  **Returns:** The smaller value.

3  **Remarks:** Returns the first argument when the arguments are equivalent.

4  **Requires:** \(T\) is LessThanComparable, and all types forming \(\text{Args}\ldots\ldots\text{args}\) are the same as \(T\).

5  **Returns:** The smallest value in the set of all the arguments.


Remarks: Returns the leftmost argument when several arguments are equivalent to the smallest. Returns a if sizeof...(Args) is 0.

template<class T, class U, class... Args>
const T& min(const T& a, const U& b, const Args&... args);

Requires: The types of all the arguments except the last one are the same as T. The last argument is a binary predicate over T.

Returns: The first element in a partial ordering of all the arguments except the last one, where the ordering is defined by the predicate.

Remarks: Returns the leftmost argument when several arguments are equivalent to the first element in the ordering. Returns a if sizeof...(Args) is 0.

template<class T> const T& max(const T& a, const T& b);
template<class T, class Compare>
const T& max(const T& a, const T& b, Compare comp);

Requires: Type T is LessThanComparable (32).

Returns: The larger value.

Remarks: Returns the first argument when the arguments are equivalent.

template<class T> const T& max(const T& a, const T& b, const T& c);
template<class T, class... Args>
const T& max(const T& a, const Args&... args);

Requires: T is LessThanComparable, and all types forming Args... are the same as T.

Returns: The largest value in the set of all the arguments.

Remarks: Returns the leftmost argument when several arguments are equivalent to the largest. Returns a if sizeof...(Args) is 0.

template<class T, class U, class... Args>
const T& max(const T& a, const U& b, const Args&... args);

Requires: The types of all the arguments except the last one are the same as T. The last argument is a binary predicate over T.

Returns: The last element in a partial ordering of all the arguments except the last one, where the ordering is defined by the predicate.

Remarks: Returns the leftmost argument when several arguments are equivalent to the first element in the ordering. Returns a if sizeof...(Args) is 0.

template<class T> pair<const T&, const T&> minmax(const T& a, const T& b);
template<class T, class Compare>
pair<const T&, const T&> minmax(const T& a, const T& b, Compare comp);

Requires: Type T shall be LessThanComparable (32).

Returns: pair<const T&, const T&>(b, a) if b is smaller than a, and pair<const T&, const T&>(a, b) otherwise.

Remarks: Returns pair<const T&, const T&>(a, b) when the arguments are equivalent.

Complexity: Exactly one comparison.
template<class T> pair<const T&, const T&> minmax(const T& a, const T& b, const T& c);
template<class T, class... Args>
    pair<const T&, const T&> minmax(const T& a, const Args&... args);

    Requires: T is LessThanComparable, and all types forming Args... are the same as T.
    Returns: pair<const T&, const T&>(x, y) where x is the first element and y is the last element in a
    partial ordering of all the arguments.
    Remarks: x is the leftmost argument when several arguments are equivalent to the smallest. y is the
    rightmost argument when several arguments are equivalent to the largest. Returns pair<const T&,
    const T&>(a, a) if sizeof...(Args) is 0.
    Complexity: At most (3/2) sizeof...(Args) applications of the corresponding predicate.

template<class T, class U, class... Args>
    pair<const T&, const T&> minmax(const T& a, const U& b, const Args&... args);

    Requires: The types of all the arguments except the last one are the same as T. The last argument is
    a binary predicate over T.
    Returns: pair<const T&, const T&>(x, y) where x is the first element and y is the last element in a
    partial ordering of all the arguments except the last one, where the ordering is defined by the
    predicate.
    Remarks: x is the leftmost argument when several arguments would order equivalent as first in the
    ordering. y is the rightmost argument when several arguments would order equivalent as last in the
    ordering. Returns pair<const T&, const T&>(a, a) if sizeof...(Args) is 0.
    Complexity: At most (3/2) sizeof...(Args) applications of the corresponding predicate.

template<class ForwardIterator>
    ForwardIterator min_element(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last);

    template<class ForwardIterator, class Compare>
        ForwardIterator min_element(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
            Compare comp);

    Returns: The first iterator i in the range [first,last) such that for any iterator j in the range
    [first,last) the following corresponding conditions hold: !(j < *i) or comp(j, *i) == false.
    Returns last if first == last.
    Complexity: Exactly max((last - first) - 1, 0) applications of the corresponding comparisons.

template<class ForwardIterator>
    ForwardIterator max_element(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last);

template<class ForwardIterator, class Compare>
    ForwardIterator max_element(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
        Compare comp);

    Returns: The first iterator i in the range [first,last) such that for any iterator j in the range
    [first,last) the following corresponding conditions hold: !(i < *j) or comp(*i, j) == false.
    Returns last if first == last.
    Complexity: Exactly max((last - first) - 1, 0) applications of the corresponding comparisons.
template<class ForwardIterator, class Compare>
    pair<ForwardIterator, ForwardIterator>
    minmax_element(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, Compare comp);

Returns: make_pair(m, M), where m is the first iterator in [first, last) such that no iterator in the range refers to a smaller element, and where M is the last iterator in [first, last) such that no iterator in the range refers to a larger element.

Complexity: At most \( \max(\lfloor \frac{3}{2}(N-1) \rfloor, 0) \) applications of the corresponding predicate, where \( N \) is distance(first, last).

25.4.8 Lexicographical comparison

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2>
    bool
    lexicographical_compare(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
                            InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2);

template<class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class Compare>
    bool
    lexicographical_compare(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
                            InputIterator2 first2, InputIterator2 last2,
                            Compare comp);

Returns: true if the sequence of elements defined by the range [first1, last1) is lexicographically less than the sequence of elements defined by the range [first2, last2).

Returns false otherwise.

Complexity: At most \( 2 \times \min((last1 - first1), (last2 - first2)) \) applications of the corresponding comparison.

Remarks: If two sequences have the same number of elements and their corresponding elements are equivalent, then neither sequence is lexicographically less than the other. If one sequence is a prefix of the other, then the shorter sequence is lexicographically less than the longer sequence. Otherwise, the lexicographical comparison of the sequences yields the same result as the comparison of the first corresponding pair of elements that are not equivalent.

for ( ; first1 != last1 && first2 != last2 ; ++first1, ++first2) {
  if (*first1 < *first2) return true;
  if (*first2 < *first1) return false;
}
return first1 == last1 && first2 != last2;

25.4.9 Permutation generators

template<class BidirectionalIterator>
    bool
    next_permutation(BidirectionalIterator first,
                     BidirectionalIterator last);

template<class BidirectionalIterator, class Compare>
    bool
    next_permutation(BidirectionalIterator first,
                     BidirectionalIterator last, Compare comp);

Effects: Takes a sequence defined by the range [first, last) and transforms it into the next permutation. The next permutation is found by assuming that the set of all permutations is lexicographically
sorted with respect to \texttt{operator<} or \texttt{comp}. If such a permutation exists, it returns \texttt{true}. Otherwise, it transforms the sequence into the smallest permutation, that is, the ascendingly sorted one, and returns \texttt{false}.

\textit{Requires:} The type of \texttt{*first} shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37).

\textit{Complexity:} At most \((\texttt{last} - \texttt{first})/2\) swaps.

\begin{verbatim}
template<class BidirectionalIterator>
bool prev_permutation(BidirectionalIterator first,
                     BidirectionalIterator last);

template<class BidirectionalIterator, class Compare>
bool prev_permutation(BidirectionalIterator first,
                     BidirectionalIterator last, Compare comp);
\end{verbatim}

\textit{Effects:} Takes a sequence defined by the range \((\texttt{first}, \texttt{last})\) and transforms it into the previous permutation. The previous permutation is found by assuming that the set of all permutations is lexicographically sorted with respect to \texttt{operator<} or \texttt{comp}.

\textit{Returns:} \texttt{true} if such a permutation exists. Otherwise, it transforms the sequence into the largest permutation, that is, the descendingly sorted one, and returns \texttt{false}.

\textit{Requires:} The type of \texttt{*first} shall satisfy the Swappable requirements (37).

\textit{Complexity:} At most \((\texttt{last} - \texttt{first})/2\) swaps.

\section*{25.5 C library algorithms} [alg.c.library]

Table 107 describes some of the contents of the header \texttt{<cstdlib>}.

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\caption{Header \texttt{<cstdlib>} synopsis}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline
Type & Name(s) \\
\hline
Type: & \texttt{size_t} \\
Functions: & \texttt{bsearch} \quad \texttt{qsort} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{table}

The contents are the same as the Standard C library header \texttt{<stdlib.h>} with the following exceptions:

1. The function signature:

\begin{verbatim}
void *bsearch(const void *key, const void *base,
              size_t nmemb, size_t size,
              int (*compar)(const void *, const void *));
\end{verbatim}

is replaced by the two declarations:

\begin{verbatim}
extern "C" void *bsearch(const void *key, const void *base,
                          size_t nmemb, size_t size,
                          int (*compar)(const void *, const void *));
extern "C++" void *bsearch(const void *key, const void *base,
                           size_t nmemb, size_t size,
                           int (*compar)(const void *, const void *));
\end{verbatim}

both of which have the same behavior as the original declaration.

4. The function signature:
is replaced by the two declarations:

```c
extern "C" void qsort(void* base, size_t nmemb, size_t size,
                      int (*compar)(const void*, const void*));
extern "C++" void qsort(void* base, size_t nmemb, size_t size,
                      int (*compar)(const void*, const void*));
```

both of which have the same behavior as the original declaration. The behavior is undefined unless the objects in the array pointed to by `base` are of trivial type.

[Note: Because the function argument `compar()` may throw an exception, `bsearch()` and `qsort()` are allowed to propagate the exception (17.6.4.11). — end note]

See also: ISO C 7.10.5.
26  Numerics library

26.1  General

This Clause describes components that C++ programs may use to perform seminumerical operations.

The following subclauses describe components for complex number types, random number generation, numeric (n-at-a-time) arrays, generalized numeric algorithms, and facilities included from the ISO C library, as summarized in Table 108.

Table 108 — Numerics library summary

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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;cstdlib&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

26.2  Numeric type requirements

The complex and valarray components are parameterized by the type of information they contain and manipulate. A C++ program shall instantiate these components only with a type T that satisfies the following requirements:

1. T is not an abstract class (it has no pure virtual member functions);
2. T is not a reference type;
3. T is not cv-qualified;
4. If T is a class, it has a public default constructor;
5. If T is a class, it has a public copy constructor with the signature T::T(const T&);
6. If T is a class, it has a public destructor;
7. If T is a class, it has a public assignment operator whose signature is either T& T::operator=(const T&) or T& T::operator=(T);
8. If T is a class, its assignment operator, copy and default constructors, and destructor shall correspond to each other in the following sense: Initialization of raw storage using the default constructor, followed by assignment, is semantically equivalent to initialization of raw storage using the copy constructor.

In other words, value types. These include arithmetic types, pointers, the library class complex, and instantiations of valarray for value types.

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Destruction of an object, followed by initialization of its raw storage using the copy constructor, is semantically equivalent to assignment to the original object.

[Note: This rule states that there shall not be any subtle differences in the semantics of initialization versus assignment. This gives an implementation considerable flexibility in how arrays are initialized.

[Example: An implementation is allowed to initialize a valarray by allocating storage using the new operator (which implies a call to the default constructor for each element) and then assigning each element its value. Or the implementation can allocate raw storage and use the copy constructor to initialize each element. — end example]

If the distinction between initialization and assignment is important for a class, or if it fails to satisfy any of the other conditions listed above, the programmer should use vector (23.3.6) instead of valarray for that class; — end note]

— If T is a class, it does not overload unary operator&.

2 If any operation on T throws an exception the effects are undefined.

3 In addition, many member and related functions of valarray<T> can be successfully instantiated and will exhibit well-defined behavior if and only if T satisfies additional requirements specified for each such member or related function.

4 [Example: It is valid to instantiate valarray<complex>, but operator>() will not be successfully instantiated for valarray<complex> operands, since complex does not have any ordering operators. — end example]

### 26.3 The floating-point environment [cfenv]

#### 26.3.1 Header <cfenv> synopsis [cfenv.syn]

```c
namespace std {
    // types
    typedef object type fenv_t;
    typedef integer type fexcept_t;

    // functions
    int feclearexcept(int except);
    int fegetexceptflag(fexcept_t *pflag, int except);
    int feraiseexcept(int except);
    int fetestexcept(int except);
    int fegetround(void);
    int fesetround(int mode);

    int fegetenv(fenv_t *penv);
    int feholdexcept(fenv_t *penv);
    int fesetenv(const fenv_t *penv);
    int feupdateenv(const fenv_t *penv);
}
```

1 The header also defines the macros:

- FE_ALL_EXCEPT
- FE_DIVBYZERO
- FE_INEXACT
The header defines all functions, types, and macros the same as C99 7.6. The floating-point environment has thread storage duration (3.7.2). The initial state for a thread’s floating-point environment is the state of the floating-point environment of the thread that constructs the corresponding `std::thread` object (30.3.1) at the time it constructed the object. [Note: that is, the child thread gets the floating-point state of the parent thread at the time of the child’s creation. — end note]

26.3.2 Header `<fenv.h>`

The header behaves as if it includes the header `<cfenv>`, and provides sufficient using declarations to declare in the global namespace all function and type names declared or defined in the header `<cfenv>`.

26.4 Complex numbers

1 The header `<complex>` defines a class template, and numerous functions for representing and manipulating complex numbers.

2 The effect of instantiating the template `complex` for any type other than `float`, `double`, or `long double` is unspecified. The specializations `complex<float>`, `complex<double>`, and `complex<long double>` are literal types (3.9).

3 If the result of a function is not mathematically defined or not in the range of representable values for its type, the behavior is undefined.

4 If `z` is an lvalue expression of type `cv std::complex<T>` then:
   
   — the expression `reinterpret_cast<cv T(&)[2]>(z)` shall be well-formed,
   
   — `reinterpret_cast<cv T(&)[2]>>(z)[0]` shall designate the real part of `z`, and
   
   — `reinterpret_cast<cv T(&)[2]>>(z)[1]` shall designate the imaginary part of `z`.

Moreover, if `a` is an expression of type `cv std::complex<T>*` and the expression `a[i]` is well-defined for an integer expression `i`, then:

   — `reinterpret_cast<cv T*>(a)[2*i]` shall designate the real part of `a[i]`, and
   
   — `reinterpret_cast<cv T*>(a)[2*i + 1]` shall designate the imaginary part of `a[i]`.

26.4.1 Header `<complex>` synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<class T> class complex;
    template<> class complex<float>;
    template<> class complex<double>;
    template<> class complex<long double>;
}
```
// 26.4.6 operators:
template<class T>
complex<T> operator+(const complex<T>&, const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> operator+(const complex<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> complex<T> operator+(const T&, const complex<T>&);

template<class T> complex<T> operator-(
    const complex<T>&, const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> operator-(const complex<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> complex<T> operator-(const T&, const complex<T>&);

template<class T> complex<T> operator*(
    const complex<T>&, const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> operator*(const complex<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> complex<T> operator*(const T&, const complex<T>&);

template<class T> complex<T> operator/(
    const complex<T>&, const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> operator/(const complex<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> complex<T> operator/(const T&, const complex<T>&);

template<class T> complex<T> operator+(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> operator-(const complex<T>&);

template<class T, class charT, class traits>
basic_istream<charT, traits>&
operator>>(basic_istream<charT, traits>&, complex<T>&);

template<class T, class charT, class traits>
basic_ostream<charT, traits>&
operator<<(basic_ostream<charT, traits>&, const complex<T>&);

// 26.4.7 values:
template<class T> T real(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> T imag(const complex<T>&);

template<class T> T abs(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> T arg(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> T norm(const complex<T>&);

template<class T> complex<T> conj(const complex<T>&);
template <class T> complex<T> proj(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> polar(const T&, const T& = 0);

// 26.4.8 transcendentals:
template<class T> complex<T> acos(const complex<T>&);
```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> asin(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> atan(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> acosh(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> asinh(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> atanh(const complex<T>&);

template<class T> complex<T> cos(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> cosh(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> exp(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> log(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> log10(const complex<T>&);

template<class T> complex<T> pow(const complex<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> complex<T> pow(const complex<T>&, const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> pow(const T&, const complex<T>&);

template<class T> complex<T> sin(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> sinh(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> sqrt(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> tan(const complex<T>&);
template<class T> complex<T> tanh(const complex<T>&);
```

### § 26.4.2 Class template complex

```cpp
namespace std {
  template<class T>
  class complex {
public:
    typedef T value_type;
    complex(const T& re = T(), const T& im = T());
    complex(const complex&);
    template<class X> complex(const complex<X>&);
    T real() const;
    void real(T);
    T imag() const;
    void imag(T);

    complex<T>& operator= (const T&);
    complex<T>& operator+(const T&);
    complex<T>& operator-(const T&);
    complex<T>& operator*(const T&);
    complex<T>& operator/(const T&);
    complex<T>& operator=(const complex&);
    template<class X> complex<T>& operator=(const complex<X>&);
    template<class X> complex<T>& operator+=(const complex<X>&);
    template<class X> complex<T>& operator-=(const complex<X>&);
    template<class X> complex<T>& operator*=(const complex<X>&);
    template<class X> complex<T>& operator/=(const complex<X>&);
  };
}
```
The class `complex` describes an object that can store the Cartesian components, `real()` and `imag()`, of a complex number.

### 26.4.3 complex specializations

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<> class complex<float> {
        public:
            typedef float value_type;

            constexpr complex(float re = 0.0f, float im = 0.0f);
            explicit constexpr complex(const complex<double>&);
            explicit constexpr complex(const complex<long double>&);

            constexpr float real();
            void real(float);
            constexpr float imag();
            void imag(float);

            complex<float>& operator=(float);
            complex<float>& operator+=(float);
            complex<float>& operator-=(float);
            complex<float>& operator*=(float);
            complex<float>& operator/=(float);

            template<class X> complex<float>& operator=(const complex<X>&);
            template<class X> complex<float>& operator+=(const complex<X>&);
            template<class X> complex<float>& operator-=(const complex<X>&);
            template<class X> complex<float>& operator*=(const complex<X>&);
            template<class X> complex<float>& operator/=(const complex<X>&);
        }

    template<> class complex<double> {
        public:
            typedef double value_type;

            constexpr complex(double re = 0.0, double im = 0.0);
            constexpr complex(const complex<float>&);
            explicit constexpr complex(const complex<long double>&);

            constexpr double real();
            void real(double);
            constexpr double imag();
            void imag(double);

            complex<double>& operator=(double);
            complex<double>& operator+=(double);
            complex<double>& operator-=(double);
            complex<double>& operator*=(double);
            complex<double>& operator/=(double);

            template<class X> complex<double>& operator=(const complex<X>&);
            template<class X> complex<double>& operator+=(const complex<X>&);
            template<class X> complex<double>& operator-=(const complex<X>&);
        }
    }
}
```

§ 26.4.3 869
template<class X> complex<double>& operator*=(const complex<X>&);  
template<class X> complex<double>& operator/=(const complex<X>&);

};  

template<> class complex<long double> {  
public:  
typedef long double value_type;

constexpr complex(long double re = 0.0L, long double im = 0.0L);
constexpr complex(const complex<float>&);
constexpr complex(const complex<double>&);

constexpr long double real();  
void real(long double);  
constexpr long double imag();  
void imag(long double);

complex<long double>& operator=(const complex<long double>&);
complex<long double>& operator= (long double);
complex<long double>& operator+=(long double);
complex<long double>& operator-=(long double);
complex<long double>& operator*=(long double);
complex<long double>& operator/=(long double);

};

26.4.4 complex member functions

template<class T> complex(const T& re = T(), const T& im = T());

Effects: Constructs an object of class complex.

Postcondition: real() == re & imag() == im.

T real() const;

Returns: the value of the real component.

void real(T val);

Effects: Assigns val to the real component.

T imag() const;

Returns: the value of the imaginary component.

void imag(T val);

Effects: Assigns val to the imaginary component.

26.4.5 complex member operators

§ 26.4.5
complex<T>& operator+=(const T& rhs);

1 Effects: Adds the scalar value rhs to the real part of the complex value *this and stores the result in the real part of *this, leaving the imaginary part unchanged.
2 Returns: *this.

complex<T>& operator-=(const T& rhs);

3 Effects: Subtracts the scalar value rhs from the real part of the complex value *this and stores the result in the real part of *this, leaving the imaginary part unchanged.
4 Returns: *this.

complex<T>& operator*=(const T& rhs);

5 Effects: Multiplies the scalar value rhs by the complex value *this and stores the result in *this.
6 Returns: *this.

complex<T>& operator/=(const T& rhs);

7 Effects: Divides the scalar value rhs into the complex value *this and stores the result in *this.
8 Returns: *this.

complex<T>& operator+=(const complex<T>& rhs);

9 Effects: Adds the complex value rhs to the complex value *this and stores the sum in *this.
10 Returns: *this.

complex<T>& operator-=(const complex<T>& rhs);

11 Effects: Subtracts the complex value rhs from the complex value *this and stores the difference in *this.
12 Returns: *this.

complex<T>& operator*=(const complex<T>& rhs);

13 Effects: Multiplies the complex value rhs by the complex value *this and stores the product in *this.
14 Returns: *this.

complex<T>& operator/=(const complex<T>& rhs);

14 Effects: Divides the complex value rhs into the complex value *this and stores the quotient in *this.
15 Returns: *this.

26.4.6 complex non-member operations

[complex.ops]

template<class T> complex<T> operator+(const complex<T>& lhs);

1 Remarks: unary operator.
2 Returns: complex<T>(lhs).

template<class T>
    complex<T> operator+(const complex<T>& lhs, const complex<T>& rhs);
template<class T> complex<T> operator+(const complex<T>& lhs, const T& rhs);
template<class T> complex<T> operator+(const T& lhs, const complex<T>& rhs);

§ 26.4.6
3    Returns: complex<T>(lhs) += rhs.
    template<class T> complex<T> operator+(const complex<T>& lhs, const complex<T>& rhs);
4    Remarks: unary operator.
5    Returns: complex<T>(-lhs.real(),-lhs.imag()).
    template<class T>
      complex<T> operator-(const complex<T>& lhs, const complex<T>& rhs);
6    Returns: complex<T>(lhs) -= rhs.
    template<class T>
      complex<T> operator*(const complex<T>& lhs, const complex<T>& rhs);
7    Returns: complex<T>(lhs) *= rhs.
    template<class T>
      complex<T> operator/(const complex<T>& lhs, const complex<T>& rhs);
8    Returns: complex<T>(lhs) /= rhs.
    template<class T, class charT, class traits>
      basic_istream<charT, traits>&
      operator>>(basic_istream<charT, traits>& is, complex<T>& x);
9    Effects: Extracts a complex number x of the form: u, (u), or (u,v), where u is the real part and v is
   the imaginary part (27.7.1.2).
10   Requires: The input values shall be convertible to T.
11   Remarks: This extraction is performed as a series of simpler extractions. Therefore, the skipping of
   whitespace is specified to be the same for each of the simpler extractions.

§ 26.4.6
template<class T, class charT, class traits>
basic_ostream<charT, traits>&
operator<<(basic_ostream<charT, traits>& o, const complex<T>& x);

Effects: inserts the complex number x onto the stream o as if it were implemented as follows:

```cpp
template<class T, class charT, class traits>
basic_ostream<charT, traits>&
operator<<(basic_ostream<charT, traits>& o, const complex<T>& x) {
    basic_ostringstream<charT, traits> s;
    s.flags(o.flags());
    s.imbue(o.getloc());
    s.precision(o.precision());
    s << '(' << x.real() << ',' << x.imag() << ')';
    return o << s.str();
}
```

Note: In a locale in which comma is used as a decimal point character, the use of comma as a field separator can be ambiguous. Inserting std::ios_base::showpoint into the output stream forces all outputs to show an explicit decimal point character; as a result, all inserted sequences of complex numbers can be extracted unambiguously.

26.4.7 complex value operations

```cpp
template<class T> T real(const complex<T>& x);
```

Returns: x.real().

```cpp
template<class T> T imag(const complex<T>& x);
```

Returns: x.imag().

```cpp
template<class T> T abs(const complex<T>& x);
```

Returns: the magnitude of x.

```cpp
template<class T> T arg(const complex<T>& x);
```

Returns: the phase angle of x, or atan2(imag(x), real(x)).

```cpp
template<class T> T norm(const complex<T>& x);
```

Returns: the squared magnitude of x.

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> conj(const complex<T>& x);
```

Returns: the complex conjugate of x.

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> proj(const complex<T>& x);
```

Effects: Behaves the same as the C99 function cproj, defined in 7.3.9.4.

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> polar(const T& rho, const T& theta = 0);
```

Returns: the complex value corresponding to a complex number whose magnitude is rho and whose phase angle is theta.
26.4.8 complex transcendentals

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> acos(const complex<T>& x);
```

1. **Effects:** Behaves the same as C99 function cacos, defined in 7.3.5.1.

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> asin(const complex<T>& x);
```

2. **Effects:** Behaves the same as C99 function casin, defined in 7.3.5.2.

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> atan(const complex<T>& x);
```

3. **Effects:** Behaves the same as C99 function catan, defined in 7.3.5.3.

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> acosh(const complex<T>& x);
```

4. **Effects:** Behaves the same as C99 function cacosh, defined in 7.3.6.1.

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> asinh(const complex<T>& x);
```

5. **Effects:** Behaves the same as C99 function casinh, defined in 7.3.6.2.

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> atanh(const complex<T>& x);
```

6. **Effects:** Behaves the same as C99 function catanh, defined in 7.3.6.3.

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> cos(const complex<T>& x);
```

7. **Returns:** the complex cosine of \( x \).

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> cosh(const complex<T>& x);
```

8. **Returns:** the complex hyperbolic cosine of \( x \).

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> exp(const complex<T>& x);
```

9. **Returns:** the complex base e exponential of \( x \).

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> log(const complex<T>& x);
```

10. **Remarks:** the branch cuts are along the negative real axis.

    **Returns:** the complex natural (base e) logarithm of \( x \), in the range of a strip mathematically unbounded along the real axis and in the interval \([-i \times \pi, i \times \pi]\) along the imaginary axis. When \( x \) is a negative real number, \( \text{imag}(\log(x)) \) is \( \pi \).

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> log10(const complex<T>& x);
```

11. **Remarks:** the branch cuts are along the negative real axis.

    **Returns:** the complex common (base 10) logarithm of \( x \), defined as \( \log(x)/\log(10) \).

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> pow(const complex<T>& x, const complex<T>& y);
```

12. **Remarks:** the branch cuts are along the negative real axis.

    **Returns:** the complex power of base \( x \) raised to the \( y \)-th power, defined as \( \exp(y \times \log(x)) \). The value returned for \( \text{pow}(0,0) \) is implementation-defined.

```cpp
template<class T> complex<T> sin (const complex<T>& x);
```

§ 26.4.8
template<class T> complex<T> sinh (const complex<T>& x);

Returns: the complex hyperbolic sine of x.

template<class T> complex<T> sqrt (const complex<T>& x);

Remarks: the branch cuts are along the negative real axis.

Returns: the complex square root of x, in the range of the right half-plane. If the argument is a negative real number, the value returned lies on the positive imaginary axis.

template<class T> complex<T> tan (const complex<T>& x);

Returns: the complex tangent of x.

template<class T> complex<T> tanh (const complex<T>& x);

Returns: the complex hyperbolic tangent of x.

26.4.9 Additional Overloads [cmplx.over]

The following function templates shall have additional overloads:

arg
conj
imag

norm
proj
real

The additional overloads shall be sufficient to ensure:

1. If the argument has type long double, then it is effectively cast to complex<long double>.
2. Otherwise, if the argument has type double or an integer type, then it is effectively cast to complex<double>.
3. Otherwise, if the argument has type float, then it is effectively cast to complex<float>.

Function template pow shall have additional overloads sufficient to ensure, for a call with at least one argument of type complex<T>:

1. If either argument has type complex<long double> or type long double, then both arguments are effectively cast to complex<long double>.
2. Otherwise, if either argument has type complex<double>, double, or an integer type, then both arguments are effectively cast to complex<double>.
3. Otherwise, if either argument has type complex<float> or float, then both arguments are effectively cast to complex<float>.

26.4.10 Header <ccomplex> [ccmplx]

The header behaves as if it simply includes the header <complex>.

26.4.11 Header <complex.h> [cmplxh]

The header behaves as if it includes the header <ccomplex>. [Note: <complex.h> does not promote any
interface into the global namespace as there is no C interface to promote. — end note]

26.5 Random number generation

This subclause defines a facility for generating (pseudo-)random numbers.

In addition to a few utilities, four categories of entities are described: uniform random number generators, random number engines, random number engine adaptors, and random number distributions. These categorizations are applicable to types that satisfy the corresponding concepts, to objects instantiated from such types, and to templates producing such types when instantiated. [Note: These entities are specified in such a way as to permit the binding of any uniform random number generator object $e$ as the argument to any random number distribution object $d$, thus producing a zero-argument function object such as given by $\text{bind}(d,e)$. — end note]

Each of the entities specified via this subclause has an associated arithmetic type [basic.fundamental] identified as result_type. With $T$ as the result_type thus associated with such an entity, that entity is characterized

a) as boolean or equivalently as boolean-valued, if $T$ is bool;
b) otherwise as integral or equivalently as integer-valued, if numeric_limits<$T>::is_integer$ is true;
c) otherwise as floating or equivalently as real-valued.

If integer-valued, an entity may optionally be further characterized as signed or unsigned, according to numeric_limits<$T>::is_signed$.

Unless otherwise specified, all descriptions of calculations in this subclause use mathematical real numbers.

Throughout this subclause, the operators bitand, bitor, and xor denote the respective conventional bitwise operations. Further,

a) the operator rshift denotes a bitwise right shift with zero-valued bits appearing in the high bits of the result, and
b) the operator lshift $w$ denotes a bitwise left shift with zero-valued bits appearing in the low bits of the result, and whose result is always taken modulo $2^w$.

26.5.1 Header <random> synopsis

namespace std {
    
    // 26.5.2.1 Concept SeedSequence
    concept SeedSequence<typename S> see below

    // 26.5.2.2 Concept UniformRandomNumberGenerator
    concept UniformRandomNumberGenerator<typename U> see below

    // 26.5.2.3 Concept RandomNumberEngine
    concept RandomNumberEngine<typename E> see below

    // 26.5.2.4 Concept RandomNumberEngineAdaptor
    concept RandomNumberEngineAdaptor<typename A> see below

    // 26.5.2.5 Concept RandomNumberDistribution
    concept RandomNumberDistribution<typename D> see below
// 26.5.3.1 Class template linear_congruential_engine
template<UnsignedIntegralLike UIntType, UIntType a, UIntType c, UIntType m>
requires IntegralType<UIntType>
    && True<m == 0u || (a < m && c < m)>
class linear_congruential_engine;

// 26.5.3.2 Class template mersenne_twister_engine
template<UnsignedIntegralLike UIntType, size_t w, size_t n, size_t m, size_t r,
    UIntType a, size_t u, UIntType d, size_t s,
    UIntType b, size_t t,
   UIntType c, size_t l, UIntType f>
requires IntegralType<UIntType>
    && True<1u <= m && m <= n
    && r <= w && u <= w && s <= w && t <= w && 1 <= w
    && w <= numeric_limits<UIntType>::digits
    && a <= (1u<<w) - 1u && b <= (1u<<w) - 1u && c <= (1u<<w) - 1u>
class mersenne_twister_engine;

// 26.5.3.3 Class template subtract_with_carry_engine
template<UnsignedIntegralLike UIntType, size_t w, size_t s, size_t r>
requires IntegralType<UIntType>
    && True<0u < s && s < r && 0 < w && w <= numeric_limits<UIntType>::digits>
class subtract_with_carry_engine;

// 26.5.4.1 Class template discard_block_engine
template<RandomNumberEngine Engine, size_t p, size_t r>
requires True<1 <= r && r <= p>
class discard_block_engine;

// 26.5.4.2 Class template independent_bits_engine
template<RandomNumberEngine Engine, size_t w, UnsignedIntegralLike UIntType>
requires IntegralType<UIntType>
    && True<0u < w && w <= numeric_limits<result_type>::digits>
class independent_bits_engine;

// 26.5.4.3 Class template shuffle_order_engine
template<RandomNumberEngine Engine, size_t k>
requires True<1u <= k>
class shuffle_order_engine;

// 26.5.5 Engines and engine adaptors with predefined parameters
typedef see below minstd_rand0;
typedef see below minstd_rand;
typedef see below mt19937;
typedef see below mt19937_64;
typedef see below ranlux24_base;
typedef see below ranlux48_base;
typedef see below ranlux24;
typedef see below ranlux48;
typedef see below knuth_b;
typedef see below default_random_engine;

// 26.5.6 Class random_device
class random_device;
// 26.5.7.1 Class seed_seq
class seed_seq;

// 26.5.7.2 Function template generate_canonical
template<FloatingPointLike RealType, size_t bits, UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
    requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
    RealType generate_canonical(URNG& g);

// 26.5.8.1.1 Class template uniform_int_distribution
template<IntegralLike IntType = int>
    requires IntegralType<IntType>
    class uniform_int_distribution;

// 26.5.8.1.2 Class template uniform_real_distribution
template<FloatingPointLike RealType = double>
    requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
    class uniform_real_distribution;

// 26.5.8.2.1 Class bernoulli_distribution
class bernoulli_distribution;

// 26.5.8.2.2 Class template binomial_distribution
template<IntegralLike IntType = int>
    requires IntegralType<IntType>
    class binomial_distribution;

// 26.5.8.2.3 Class template geometric_distribution
template<IntegralLike IntType = int>
    requires IntegralType<IntType>
    class geometric_distribution;

// 26.5.8.2.4 Class template negative_binomial_distribution
template<IntegralLike IntType = int>
    requires IntegralType<IntType>
    class negative_binomial_distribution;

// 26.5.8.3.1 Class template poisson_distribution
template<IntegralLike IntType = int>
    requires IntegralType<IntType>
    class poisson_distribution;

// 26.5.8.3.2 Class template exponential_distribution
template<FloatingPointLike RealType = double>
    requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
    class exponential_distribution;

// 26.5.8.3.3 Class template gamma_distribution
template<FloatingPointLike RealType = double>
    requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
    class gamma_distribution;

// 26.5.8.3.4 Class template weibull_distribution
template<FloatingPointLike RealType = double>
    requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
    class weibull_distribution;
// 26.5.8.3.5 Class template extreme_value_distribution
template< FloatingPointLike RealType = double >
  requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
  class extreme_value_distribution;

// 26.5.8.4.1 Class template normal_distribution
template< FloatingPointLike RealType = double >
  requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
  class normal_distribution;

// 26.5.8.4.2 Class template lognormal_distribution
template< FloatingPointLike RealType = double >
  requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
  class lognormal_distribution;

// 26.5.8.4.3 Class template chi_squared_distribution
template< FloatingPointLike RealType = double >
  requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
  class chi_squared_distribution;

// 26.5.8.4.4 Class template cauchy_distribution
template< FloatingPointLike RealType = double >
  requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
  class cauchy_distribution;

// 26.5.8.4.5 Class template fisher_f_distribution
template< FloatingPointLike RealType = double >
  requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
  class fisher_f_distribution;

// 26.5.8.4.6 Class template student_t_distribution
template< FloatingPointLike RealType = double >
  requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
  class student_t_distribution;

// 26.5.8.5.1 Class template discrete_distribution
template< IntegralLike IntType = int >
  requires IntegralType<IntType>
  class discrete_distribution;

// 26.5.8.5.2 Class template piecewise_constant_distribution
template< FloatingPointLike RealType = double >
  requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
  class piecewise_constant_distribution;

// 26.5.8.5.3 Class template piecewise_linear_distribution
template< FloatingPointLike RealType = double >
  requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
  class piecewise_linear_distribution;

} // namespace std
26.5.2 Concepts and related requirements for random number generation
[rand.concept]

26.5.2.1 Concept SeedSequence [rand.concept.seedseq]

A seed sequence is an object that consumes a sequence of integer-valued data and produces a requested number of unsigned integer values \( i, 0 \leq i < 2^{32} \), based on the consumed data. 

\[ \textbf{Note:} \text{Such an object provides a mechanism to avoid replication of streams of random variates. This can be useful, for example, in applications requiring large numbers of random number engines. — end note} \]

```cpp
class SeedSequence<
    typename S, Semantic<
    S>, DefaultConstructible<
    S>
{
    unsigned integral_like\[result_type\];
    requires IntegralType<\result_type>
    && True<sizeof uint32_t <= sizeof \result_type>
    template<IntegralLike T>
    requires IntegralType<T>
    S::S(initializer_list<T> il);
    template<InputIterator Iter>
    requires IntegralLike<Iter::value_type>
    && IntegralType<Iter::value_type>
    S::S(Iter begin, Iter end, size_t u = numeric_limits<Iter::value_type>::digits);
    template<RandomAccessIterator Iter>
    requires UnsignedIntegralLike<Iter::value_type>
    && OutputIterator<Iter, const \result_type&>
    && IntegralType<Iter::value_type>
    && True<sizeof uint32_t <= sizeof Iter::value_type>
    void generate(S& q, Iter begin, Iter end);
    size_t size(const S& q);
    template<OutputIterator<auto, const \result_type&> Iter>
    void param(const S& q, Iter dest);
};
```

1. **Effects:** Same as `S::S(il.begin(), il.end())`.

2. **Effects:** Constructs a `SeedSequence` object having internal state that depends on some or all of the bits of the supplied sequence `\[\begin{array}{c}begin,end\end{array}\]`.

3. **Effects:** Constructs a `SeedSequence` object having internal state that depends on some or all of the bits of the supplied sequence `\[\begin{array}{c}begin,end\end{array}\]`.
Effects: Does nothing if `begin == end`. Otherwise, fills the supplied range `[begin, end)` with 32-bit quantities that depend on the sequence supplied to the constructor and possibly also on the history of `generate`'s previous invocations.

```cpp
size_t size(const S& q);
```

Returns: The number of 32-bit units that would be be returned by a call to `param()`.

```cpp
template<OutputIterator<auto, const result_type&> Iter>
void param(const S& q, Iter dest);
```

Effects: Copies to the given destination a sequence of 32-bit units that can be provided to the constructor of a second object of the same type, and that would reproduce in that second object a state indistinguishable from the state of the first object.

### 26.5.2.2 Concept UniformRandomNumberGenerator

A uniform random number generator `g` of type `G` is a function object returning unsigned integral values such that each value in the range of possible results has (ideally) equal probability of being returned. [Note: The degree to which `g`'s results approximate the ideal is often determined statistically. — end note]

```cpp
concept UniformRandomNumberGenerator<typename G> : Callable<G> {
  requires UnsignedIntegralLike<result_type>
  && IntegralType<result_type>;

  static constexpr result_type G::min();
  static constexpr result_type G::max();

  axiom NonemptyRange(G& g) {
    G::min() < G::max();
  }
  axiom InRange(G& g, result_type& r) {
    r = g(), G::min() <= r && r <= G::max();
  }
}
```

```cpp
result_type operator()(G& g);  // from Callable<G>
```

Complexity: amortized constant.

### 26.5.2.3 Concept RandomNumberEngine

A random number engine (commonly shortened to engine) `e` of type `E` is a uniform random number generator that additionally meets the requirements (e.g., for seeding and for input/output) specified in this section.

Unless otherwise specified, the complexity of each function specified via the `RandomNumberEngine` concept (including those specified via any less-refined concept) shall be $O(\text{size of state})$.

```cpp
concept RandomNumberEngine<typename E> : Regular<E>, UniformRandomNumberGenerator<E> {
  explicit E::E(result_type value);
  template<SeedSequence Sseq> explicit E::E(Sseq& q);

  void seed(E& e) { e = E(); }
  void seed(E& e, result_type s) { e = E(s); }
  template<SeedSequence Sseq> void seed(E& e, Sseq& q) { e = E(q); }
}
```

§ 26.5.2.3
void discard(E& e, unsigned long long z) { for( ; z != 0ULL; --z) e(); }

template<OutputStreamable OS> OS& operator<<(OS& os, const E& e);
template<InputStreamable IS> IS& operator>>(IS& is, E& e);

axiom Uniqueness(E& e, E& f, result_type s, Sseq& q) {
    (seed(e), e) == (seed(f), f);
    (seed(e,s), e) == (seed(f,s), f);
    (seed(e,q), e) == (seed(f,q), f);
}

axiom Seeding(E& e, result_type s, Sseq& q) {
    (seed(e), e) == E();
    (seed(e,s), e) == E(s);
    (seed(e,q), e) == E(q);
}

At any given time, e has a state e_i for some integer i ≥ 0. Upon construction, e has an initial state e_0. An engine's state may be established via a constructor, a seed function, assignment, or a suitable operator>>.

E's specification shall define

a) the size of E's state in multiples of the size of result_type, given as an integral constant expression;
b) the transition algorithm TA by which e's state e_i is advanced to its successor state e_{i+1}; and

c) the generation algorithm GA by which an engine's state is mapped to a value of type result_type.

bool operator==(const E& e1, const E& e2);  // from Regular<E>

Returns: true if S_1 = S_2, where S_1 and S_2 are the infinite sequences of values that would be generated, respectively, by repeated future calls to e1() and e2(). Otherwise returns false.

result_type operator()(E& e);  // from UniformRandomNumberGenerator<E>

Effects: Sets e's state to e_{i+1} = TA(e_i).

Returns: GA(e_{i+1}).

Complexity: as specified in 26.5.2.2 via the UniformRandomNumberGenerator concept.

explicit E::E(result_type s);

Effects: Creates an engine with an initial state that depends on s.

template<SeedSequence Sseq> explicit E::E(Sseq& q);

Effects: Creates an engine with an initial state that depends on a sequence produced by one call to SeedSequence::generate(q, ...).

Complexity: Same as complexity of SeedSequence::generate(q, ...) when called on a sequence whose length is size of state.

Note: This constructor (as well as the corresponding seed() function below) may be particularly useful to applications requiring a large number of independent random sequences.

void seed(E& e);

Postcondition: e == E().

§ 26.5.2.3
14 Complexity: same as E().

void seed(E& e, result_type s);
15 Postcondition: e == E(s).
16 Complexity: same as E(s).

template<SeedSequence Sseq> void seed(E& e, Sseq& q);
17 Postcondition: e == E(q) (using the original value of q).
18 Complexity: same as E(q).

void discard(E& e, unsigned long long z);
19 Effects: Advances the engine’s state from e_i to e_{i+z} by any means equivalent to the default implementation specified above.
20 Complexity: no worse than the complexity of z consecutive calls to operator().
21 Note: This operation is common in user code, and can often be implemented in an engine-specific manner so as to provide significant performance improvements over the default implementation specified above.

template<OutputStreamable OS> OS& operator<<(OS& os, const E& e);
22 Effects: With os.fmtflags set to ios_base::dec|ios_base::left and the fill character set to the space character, writes to os the textual representation of e’s current state. In the output, adjacent numbers are separated by one or more space characters.
23 Returns: the updated os.
24 Postcondition: The os.fmtflags and fill character are unchanged.

template<InputStreamable IS> IS& operator>>(IS& is, E& e);
25 Precondition: is provides a textual representation that was previously written using an output stream whose imbued locale was the same as that of is, and whose associated types OutputStreamable::charT and OutputStreamable::traits were respectively the same as those of is.
26 Effects: With is.fmtflags set to ios::dec, sets e’s state as determined by reading its textual representation from is. If bad input is encountered, ensures that e’s state is unchanged by the operation and calls is.setstate(ios::failbit) (which may throw ios::failure 27.5.4.3). If a textual representation written via os << x was subsequently read via is >> v, then x == v provided that there have been no intervening invocations of x or of v.
27 Returns: the updated is.
28 Postcondition: The is.fmtflags are unchanged.

26.5.2.4 Concept RandomNumberEngineAdaptor [rand.concept.adapt]

A random number engine adaptor (commonly shortened to adaptor) a of type A is a random number engine that takes values produced by some other random number engine or engines, and applies an algorithm to those values in order to deliver a sequence of values with different randomness properties. Engines adapted in this way are termed base engines in this context. The terms unary, binary, and so on, may be used to characterize an adaptor depending on the number n of base engines that adaptor utilizes.
The base engines of \( A \) are arranged in an arbitrary but fixed order, and that order is consistently used whenever functions are applied to those base engines in turn. In this context, the notation \( b_i \) denotes the \( i^{th} \) of \( A \)'s base engines, \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), and \( B_i \) denotes the type of \( b_i \).

```cpp
concept RandomNumberEngineAdaptor<
type A, typename B0, typename... Bi>
: RandomNumberEngine<A> {
  requires RandomNumberEngine<B0>
    && RandomNumberEngine<Bi>...
    && Constructible<A, const B0&, const Bi&...>
    && Constructible<A, B0&&, Bi&&>;
}
```

\( A::A(); \)  // from RandomNumberEngine\(<A> \)

\( \text{Effects: Each } b_i \text{ is initialized, in turn, as if by its respective default constructor.} \)

```cpp
bool operator==(const A& a1, const A& a2); // from RandomNumberEngine\(<A> \)
```

\( \text{Returns: true if each pair of corresponding } b_i \text{ are equal. Otherwise returns false.} \)

\( A::A(\text{result_type } s); \)  // from RandomNumberEngine\(<A> \)

\( \text{Effects: Each } b_i \text{ is initialized, in turn, with the next available value from the list } s + 0, s + 1, \ldots . \)

```cpp
template<SeedSequence Sseq> void A::A(Sseq& q); // from RandomNumberEngine<\( A \)>
```

\( \text{Effects: Each } b_i \text{ is initialized, in turn, as argument.} \)

```cpp
void seed(A& a); // from RandomNumberEngine<\( A \)>
```

\( \text{Effects: For each } b_i \text{, in turn, invokes } RandomNumberEngine::\text{seed}(b_i). \)

```cpp
void seed(A& a, result_type s); // from RandomNumberEngine<\( A \)>
```

\( \text{Effects: For each } b_i \text{, in turn, invokes } RandomNumberEngine::\text{seed}(b_i, s) \text{ with the next available value from the list } s + 0, s + 1, \ldots . \)

```cpp
template<SeedSequence Sseq> void seed(A& a, Sseq& q); // from RandomNumberEngine<\( A \)>
```

\( \text{Effects: For each } b_i \text{, in turn, invokes } RandomNumberEngine::\text{seed}(b_i, q). \)

\( A \) shall also satisfy the following additional requirements:

a) The complexity of each function shall be at most the sum of the complexities of the corresponding functions applied to each base engine.

b) The state of \( A \) shall include the state of each of its base engines. The size of \( A \)'s state shall be no less than the sum of the base engines' respective sizes.

c) Copying \( A \)'s state (e.g., during copy construction or copy assignment) shall include copying, in turn, the state of each base engine of \( A \).

d) The textual representation of \( A \) shall include, in turn, the textual representation of each of its base engines.

e) Any constructor satisfying the requirement \( \text{Constructible<} A, \text{ const RandomNumberEngine}\&... \) or satisfying the requirement \( \text{Constructible<} A, \text{ RandomNumberEngine}\&... \) shall have \( n \) or more parameters such that the underlying type of parameter \( i, 1 \leq i \leq n \), is \( B_i \), and such that all remaining parameters, if any, have default values. The constructor shall create an engine adaptor initializing each \( b_i \), in turn, with a copy of the value of the corresponding argument.
26.5.2.5 Concept RandomNumberDistribution

A random number distribution (commonly shortened to distribution) d of type D is a function object returning values that are distributed according to an associated mathematical probability density function \( p(z) \) or an associated discrete probability function \( P(z_i) \). A distribution’s specification identifies its associated probability function \( p(z) \) or \( P(z_i) \).

An associated probability function is typically expressed using certain externally-supplied quantities known as the parameters of the distribution. Such distribution parameters are identified in this context by writing, for example, \( p(z \mid a, b) \) or \( P(z_i \mid a, b) \), to name specific parameters, or by writing, for example, \( p(z \mid \{p\}) \) or \( P(z_i \mid \{p\}) \), to denote a distribution’s parameters \( p \) taken as a whole.

```cpp
concept RandomNumberDistribution<typename D> : Regular<D> {
    ArithmeticType result_type;
    Regular param_type;
    requires Constructible<D, const param_type&>;
    void reset(D& d);
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG> result_type operator()(D& d, URNG& g);
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG> result_type operator()(D& d, URNG& g, const param_type& p);
    param_type param(const D& d);
    void param(D& d, const param_type&);
    result_type min(const D& d);
    result_type max(const D& d);
    template<OutputStreamable OS> OS& operator<<(OS& os, const D& d);
    template<InputStreamable IS> IS& operator>>(IS& is, D& d);
}
```

Regular param_type;

Requires:

a) For each of the constructors of D taking arguments corresponding to parameters of the distribution, param_type shall provide a corresponding constructor subject to the same requirements and taking arguments identical in number, type, and default values.

b) For each of the member functions of D that return values corresponding to parameters of the distribution, param_type shall provide a corresponding member function with the identical name, type, and semantics.

c) param_type shall provide a declaration of the form typedef D distribution_type;.

Remark: It is unspecified whether param_type is declared as a (nested) class or via a typedef. In this subclause 26.5, declarations of D::param_type are in the form of typedefs only for convenience of exposition.

```cpp
D::D(const param_type& p);
```

Effects: Creates a distribution whose behavior is indistinguishable from that of a distribution newly created directly from the values used to create p.

```cpp
bool operator==(const D& d1, const D& d2); // from Regular<D>
```
Returns: true if \( d1.\text{param}() == d2.\text{param}() \) and \( S_1 = S_2 \), where \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) are the infinite sequences of values that would be generated, respectively, by repeated future calls to \( d1(g1) \) and \( d2(g2) \) whenever \( g1 == g2 \). Otherwise returns false.

```cpp
void reset(D& d);
```

Effects: Subsequent uses of the distribution do not depend on values produced by any engine prior to invoking reset.

Complexity: constant.

```cpp
template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG> result_type operator()(D& d, URNG& g);
```

Effects: With \( p = \text{param}() \), the sequence of numbers returned by successive invocations with the same object \( u \) is randomly distributed according to the associated probability function \( p(z \mid \{p\}) \) or \( P(z_i \mid \{p\}) \).

For distributions \( x \) and \( y \) of identical type \( D \):

a) The sequence of numbers produced by repeated invocations of \( x(u) \) shall be independent of any invocation of \( \text{os} \ll x \) or of any const member function of \( D \) between any of the invocations \( x(u) \).

b) If a textual representation is written using \( \text{os} \ll x \) and that representation is restored into the same or a different object \( y \) using \( \text{is} \gg y \), repeated invocations of \( y(u) \) shall produce the same sequence of numbers as would repeated invocations of \( x(u) \).

Complexity: amortized constant number of invocations of \( u \).

```cpp
template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG> result_type operator()(D& d, URNG& g, const param_type& p);
```

Effects: The sequence of numbers returned by successive invocations with the same objects \( g \) and \( p \) is randomly distributed according to the associated probability function \( p(z \mid \{p\}) \) or \( P(z_i \mid \{p\}) \).

```cpp
param_type param(const D& d);
```

Returns: a value \( p \) such that \( \text{param}(D(p)) == p \).

Complexity: no worse than the complexity of \( D(p) \).

```cpp
void param(D& d, const param_type& p);
```

Postcondition: \( \text{param}(d) == p \).

Complexity: no worse than the complexity of \( D(p) \).

```cpp
result_type min(const D& d);
```

Returns: the greatest lower bound on the values potentially returned by \( \text{operator()} \), as determined by the current values of the distribution’s parameters.

Complexity: constant.

```cpp
result_type max(const D& d);
```

Returns: the least upper bound on the values potentially returned by \( \text{operator()} \), as determined by the current values of the distribution’s parameters.

Complexity: constant.

```cpp
template<OutputStreamable OS> OS& operator<<(OS& os, const D& d);
```

§ 26.5.2.5
Effects: Writes to os a textual representation for the parameters and the additional internal data of d.

Returns: the updated os.

Postcondition: The os.fmtflags and fill character are unchanged.

template<InputStreamable IS> IS& operator>>(IS& is, D& d);

Precondition: is provides a textual representation that was previously written using an output stream whose imbued locale was the same as that of is, and whose associated types OutputStreamable::charT and OutputStreamable::traits were respectively the same as those of is.

Effects: Restores from is the parameters and the additional internal data of d. If bad input is encountered, ensures that d is unchanged by the operation and calls is.setstate(ios::failbit) (which may throw ios::failure 27.5.4.3).

Returns: the updated is.

Postcondition: The is.fmtflags are unchanged.

26.5.3 Random number engine class templates

1 Except where specified otherwise, the complexity of all functions specified in the following sections is constant.

2 Except where specified otherwise, no function described in this section 26.5.3 throws an exception.

3 For every class E instantiated from a template specified in this section 26.5.3, a concept map RandomNumberEngine<E> shall be defined in namespace std so as to provide mappings from free functions to the corresponding member functions. Descriptions are provided here only for engine operations that are not described in 26.5.2.3 or for operations where there is additional semantic information. Declarations for copy constructors, for copy assignment operators, for streaming operators, and for equality and inequality operators are not shown in the synopses.

26.5.3.1 Class template linear_congruential_engine

1 A linear_congruential_engine random number engine produces unsigned integer random numbers. The state \( x_i \) of a linear_congruential_engine object \( x \) is of size 1 and consists of a single integer. The transition algorithm is a modular linear function of the form \( TA(x_i) = (a \cdot x_i + c) \mod m \); the generation algorithm is \( GA(x_i) = x_i + 1 \).

2 template<UnsignedIntegralLike UIntType, UIntType a, UIntType c, UIntType m>
   requires IntegralType<UIntType>
   && True<m == 0u || (a < m && c < m)>
   class linear_congruential_engine
   {
   public:
     // types
     typedef UIntType result_type;

     // engine characteristics
     static constexpr result_type multiplier = a;
     static constexpr result_type increment = c;
     static constexpr result_type modulus = m;
     static constexpr result_type min() { return c == 0u ? 1u: 0u};
     static constexpr result_type max() { return m - 1u};
     static constexpr result_type default_seed = 1u;

   § 26.5.3.1
class template mersenne_twister_engine

A mersenne_twister_engine random number engine produces unsigned integer random numbers in the closed interval \([0, 2^w - 1]\). The state \(x_i\) of a mersenne_twister_engine object \(x\) is of size \(n\) and consists of a sequence \(X\) of \(n\) values of the type delivered by \(x\); all subscripts applied to \(X\) are to be taken modulo \(n\).

The transition algorithm employs a twisted generalized feedback shift register defined by shift values \(n\) and \(m\), a twist value \(r\), and a conditional xor-mask \(a\). To improve the uniformity of the result, the bits of the raw shift register are additionally tempered (i.e., scrambled) according to a bit-scrambling matrix defined by values \(u, d, s, b, t, c,\) and \(l\).

The state transition is performed as follows:

a) Concatenate the upper \(w-r\) bits of \(X_{i-n}\) with the lower \(r\) bits of \(X_{i+1-n}\) to obtain an unsigned integer value \(Y\).

b) With \(\alpha = a \cdot (Y \text{ bitand } 1)\), set \(X_i\) to \(X_{i+m-n} \text{ xor } (Y \text{ rshift } 1) \text{ xor } \alpha\).

The sequence \(X\) is initialized with the help of an initialization multiplier \(f\).

The generation algorithm determines the unsigned integer values \(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4\) as follows, then delivers \(z_4\) as its result:

a) Let \(z_1 = X_i \text{ xor } ((X_i \text{ rshift } u) \text{ bitand } d)\).
b) Let \( z_2 = z_1 \text{xor} (z_1 \text{lshift} w s) \text{bitand} b \).

c) Let \( z_3 = z_2 \text{xor} (z_2 \text{lshift} w t) \text{bitand} c \).

d) Let \( z_4 = z_3 \text{xor} (z_3 \text{rshift} \ell) \).

template<unsigned_integral_like UIntType, size_t w, size_t n, size_t m, size_t r, 
        UIntType a, size_t u, UIntType d, size_t s, 
        UIntType b, size_t t, 
        UIntType c, size_t l, UIntType f>
requires IntegralType<UIntType>
    && True<1u <= m && m <= n
    && r <= w && u <= w && t <= w && l <= w
    && w <= numeric_limits<UIntType>::digits
    && a <= (1u<<w) - 1u && b <= (1u<<w) - 1u && c <= (1u<<w) - 1u
    && d <= (1u<<w) - 1u && f <= (1u<<w) - 1u>
class mersenne_twister_engine
{
public:
  // types
  typedef UIntType result_type;
  // engine characteristics
  static constexpr size_t word_size = w;
  static constexpr size_t state_size = n;
  static constexpr size_t shift_size = m;
  static constexpr size_t mask_bits = r;
  static constexpr UIntType xor_mask = a;
  static constexpr size_t tempering_u = u;
  static constexpr UIntType tempering_d = d;
  static constexpr size_t tempering_s = s;
  static constexpr UIntType tempering_b = b;
  static constexpr size_t tempering_t = t;
  static constexpr UIntType tempering_c = c;
  static constexpr size_t tempering_l = l;
  static constexpr UIntType initialization_multiplier = f;
  static constexpr result_type min() { return 0; }
  static constexpr result_type max() { return (1u<<w) - 1u; }
  static constexpr result_type default_seed = 5489u;
  // constructors and seeding functions
  explicit mersenne_twister_engine(result_type value = default_seed);
  template<seed_sequence Sseq> explicit mersenne_twister_engine(Sseq& q);
  void seed(result_type value = default_seed);
  template<seed_sequence Sseq> void seed(Sseq& q);
  // generating functions
  result_type operator();
  void discard(unsigned long long z);
};

4 The textual representation of \( x_i \) consists of the values of \( X_{i-n}, \ldots, X_{i-1} \), in that order.

   explicit mersenne_twister_engine(result_type value = default_seed);

5 Effects: Constructs a mersenne_twister_engine object. Sets \( X_{i-n} \) to value mod \( 2^w \). Then, itera-
tively for \(i = 1 \ldots n\), sets \(X_i\) to
\[
[f \cdot (X_{i-1} \text{xor} (X_{i-1} \text{rshift}(w - 2))) + i \mod n \mod 2^w .
\]

6  Complexity: \(O(n)\).

```cpp
template<SeedSequence Sseq> explicit mersenne_twister_engine(Sseq& q);
```

7  Effects: Constructs a \texttt{mersenne_twister_engine} object. With \(k = \lceil w/32 \rceil\) and \(a\) an array (or equivalent) of length \(n \cdot k\), invokes \texttt{SeedSequence::generate(q, a + 0, a + n \cdot k)} and then, iteratively for \(i = -n \ldots -1\), sets \(X_i\) to \((\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} a_{k(i+n)+j} \cdot 2^{32j}) \mod 2^w\). Finally, if the most significant \(w - r\) bits of \(X_{-n}\) are zero, and if each of the other resulting \(X_i\) is 0, changes \(X_{-n}\) to \(2^w - 1\).

26.5.3.3 Class template \texttt{subtract_with_carry_engine} \[rand.eng.sub\]

1 A \texttt{subtract_with_carry_engine} random number engine produces unsigned integer random numbers.

2 The state \(x_i\) of a \texttt{subtract_with_carry_engine} object \(x\) is of size \(O(r)\), and consists of a sequence \(X\) of \(r\) integer values \(0 \leq X_i < m = 2^w\); all subscripts applied to \(X\) are to be taken modulo \(r\). The state \(x_i\) additionally consists of an integer \(c\) (known as the \texttt{carry}) whose value is either 0 or 1.

3 The state transition is performed as follows:
   a) Let \(Y = X_{i-s} - X_{i-r} - c\).
   b) Set \(X_i\) to \(y = Y \mod m\). Set \(c\) to 1 if \(Y < 0\), otherwise set \(c\) to 0.

   \[\text{Note: This algorithm corresponds to a modular linear function of the form } TA(x_i) = (a \cdot x_i) \mod b, \text{ where } b \text{ is of the form } m^r - m^s + 1 \text{ and } a = b - (b - 1)/m. \text{ — end note}\]

4 The generation algorithm is given by \(GA(x_i) = y\), where \(y\) is the value produced as a result of advancing the engine's state as described above.

```cpp
template<UnsignedIntegralLike UIntType, size_t w, size_t s, size_t r>
requires IntegralType<UIntType>
&& True<0 < s && s < r && 0 < w && w <= numeric_limits<UIntType>::digits>
class subtract_with_carry_engine
{
public:
  // types
  typedef UIntType result_type;

  // engine characteristics
  static constexpr size_t word_size = w;
  static constexpr size_t short_lag = s;
  static constexpr size_t long_lag = r;
  static constexpr result_type min() { return 0; }
  static constexpr result_type max() { return m - 1; }
  static constexpr result_type default_seed = 19780503u;

  // constructors and seeding functions
  explicit subtract_with_carry_engine(result_type value = default_seed);
  template<SeedSequence Sseq> explicit subtract_with_carry_engine(Sseq& q);
  void seed(result_type value = default_seed);
  template<SeedSequence Sseq> void seed(Sseq& q);
```
\[
// generating functions
result_type operator()();
void discard(unsigned long long z);
\]
5 The textual representation consists of the values of \(X_{i-r}, \ldots, X_{i-1}\), in that order, followed by \(c\).

\[
\text{explicit subtract_with_carry_engine(result_type value = default_seed);} \]
6 \textbf{Effects:} Constructs a \texttt{subtract_with_carry_engine} object. Sets the values of \(X_{i-r}, \ldots, X_{i-1}\), in that order, as specified below. If \(X_{i-1}\) is then 0, sets \(c\) to 1; otherwise sets \(c\) to 0.

To set the values \(X_k\), first construct \(e\), a \texttt{linear_congruential_engine} object, as if by the following definition:

\[
\text{linear_congruential_engine<result_type, 40014u,0u,2147483563u> e(value == 0u ? default_seed : value);}
\]
7 Then, to set each \(X_k\), obtain new values \(z_0, \ldots, z_{n-1}\) from \(n = \lceil w/32 \rceil\) successive invocations of \(e\) taken modulo \(2^{32}\). Set \(X_k\) to \(\left(\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} z_j \cdot 2^{32j}\right) \mod m\).

\[7\]
\textbf{Complexity:} Exactly \(n \cdot r\) invocations of \(e\).

\[
\text{template<SeedSequence Sseq> explicit subtract_with_carry_engine(Sseq& q);} \]
8 \textbf{Effects:} Constructs a \texttt{subtract_with_carry_engine} object. With \(k = \lceil w/32 \rceil\) and \(a\) an array (or equivalent) of length \(r \cdot k\), invokes \texttt{SeedSequence::generate(q, a+0, a+r \cdot k)} and then, iteratively for \(i = -r, \ldots, -1\), sets \(X_i\) to \(\left(\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} a_{k(i+r)+j} \cdot 2^{32j}\right) \mod m\). If \(X_{i-1}\) is then 0, sets \(c\) to 1; otherwise sets \(c\) to 0.  

\[\text{§ 26.5.4 \textbf{Random number engine adaptor class templates}} \quad \text{[rand.adapt]}\]
1 Except where specified otherwise, the complexity of all functions specified in the following sections is constant.
2 Except where specified otherwise, no function described in this section 26.5.4 throws an exception.
3 For every class \(A\) instantiated from a template specified in this section 26.5.4, a concept map \texttt{RandomNumberEngineAdaptor<E>} shall be defined in namespace \texttt{std} so as to provide mappings from free functions to the corresponding member functions. Descriptions are provided here only for adaptor operations that are not described in section 26.5.2.4 or for operations where there is additional semantic information. Declarations for copy constructors, for copy assignment operators, for streaming operators, and for equality and inequality operators are not shown in the synopses.

\[\text{26.5.4.1 \textbf{Class template discard_block_engine}} \quad \text{[rand.adapt.disc]}\]
1 A \texttt{discard_block_engine} random number engine adaptor produces random numbers selected from those produced by some base engine \(e\). The state \(x_i\) of a \texttt{discard_block_engine} engine adaptor object \(x\) consists of the state \(e_i\) of its base engine \(e\) and an additional integer \(n\). The size of the state is the size of \(e\)'s state plus 1.
2 The transition algorithm discards all but \(r > 0\) values from each block of \(p \geq r\) values delivered by \(e\). The state transition is performed as follows: If \(n \geq r\), advance the state of \(e\) from \(e_i\) to \(e_{i+p-r}\) and set \(n\) to 0. In any case, then increment \(n\) and advance \(e\)'s then-current state \(e_j\) to \(e_{j+1}\).
3 The generation algorithm yields the value returned by the last invocation of \(e()\) while advancing \(e\)'s state as described above.
template<RandomNumberEngine Engine, size_t p, size_t r>
 requires True<1 <= r && r <= p>
 class discard_block_engine
 {
 public:
  // types
  typedef typename Engine::result_type result_type;
  // engine characteristics
  static constexpr size_t block_size = p;
  static constexpr size_t used_block = r;
  static constexpr result_type min() { return Engine::min; }
  static constexpr result_type max() { return Engine::max; }
  // constructors and seeding functions
  discard_block_engine();
  explicit discard_block_engine(const Engine& e);
  explicit discard_block_engine(Engine&& e);
  explicit discard_block_engine(result_type s);
  template<SeedSequence Sseq> explicit discard_block_engine(Sseq& q);
  void seed();
  void seed(result_type s);
  template<SeedSequence Sseq> void seed(Sseq& q);
  // generating functions
  result_type operator()();
  void discard(unsigned long long z);
  // property functions
  const Engine& base() const;
 private:
  Engine e; // exposition only
  int n; // exposition only
 };

4 The textual representation consists of the textual representation of e followed by the value of n.

5 In addition to its behavior pursuant to section 26.5.2.4, each constructor that is not a copy constructor sets n to 0.

26.5.4.2 Class template independent_bits_engine

An independent_bits_engine random number engine adaptor combines random numbers that are produced by some base engine e, so as to produce random numbers with a specified number of bits w. The state x_i of an independent_bits_engine engine adaptor object x consists of the state e_i of its base engine e; the size of the state is the size of e’s state.

The transition and generation algorithms are described in terms of the following integral constants:

a) Let \( R = e.\text{max}() - e.\text{min}() + 1 \) and \( m = \lceil \log_2 R \rceil \).

b) With \( n \) as determined below, let \( w_0 = \lfloor w/n \rfloor \), \( n_0 = n - w \mod n \), \( y_0 = 2^{w_0} \lfloor R/2^{w_0} \rfloor \), and \( y_1 = 2^{w_0+1} \lfloor R/2^{w_0+1} \rfloor \).

c) Let \( n = \lfloor w/m \rfloor \) if and only if the relation \( R - y_0 \leq \lfloor y_0/n \rfloor \) holds as a result. Otherwise let \( n = 1 + \lfloor w/m \rfloor \).
The relation \( w = n_0w_0 + (n - n_0)(w_0 + 1) \) always holds. — end note]

The transition algorithm is carried out by invoking \( e() \) as often as needed to obtain \( n_0 \) values less than \( y_0 + e_{\text{min}}() \) and \( n - n_0 \) values less than \( y_1 + e_{\text{min}}() \).

The generation algorithm uses the values produced while advancing the state as described above to yield a quantity \( S \) obtained as if by the following algorithm:

\[
S = 0;
\]

\[
\text{for } (k = 0; k \neq n_0; k += 1) \{ \\
\text{do } u = e() - e_{\text{min}}(); \text{ while } (u \geq y_0); \\
S = 2^{w_0} \cdot S + u \mod 2^{w_0}; \\
\}
\]

\[
\text{for } (k = n_0; k \neq n; k += 1) \{ \\
\text{do } u = e() - e_{\text{min}}(); \text{ while } (u \geq y_1); \\
S = 2^{w_0+1} \cdot S + u \mod 2^{w_0+1}; \\
\}
\]

```cpp
template<RandomNumberEngine Engine, size_t w, UnsignedIntegralLike UIntType>
requires IntegralType<UIntType>
    && True<0u < w && w <= numeric_limits<result_type>::digits>
class independent_bits_engine
{
    public:
        // types
        typedef UIntType result_type;

        // engine characteristics
        static constexpr result_type min() { return 0; }  
        static constexpr result_type max() { return \( 2^w - 1 \); }

        // constructors and seeding functions
        independent_bits_engine();
        explicit independent_bits_engine(const Engine& e);
        explicit independent_bits_engine(Engine&& e);
        explicit independent_bits_engine(result_type s);
        template<SeedSequence Sseq> explicit independent_bits_engine(Sseq& q);
        void seed();
        void seed(result_type s);
        template<SeedSequence Sseq> void seed(Sseq& q);

        // generating functions
        result_type operator()();
        void discard(unsigned long long z);

        // property functions
        const Engine& base() const;

    private:
        Engine e;  // exposition only
};
```

The textual representation consists of the textual representation of \( e \).
A **shuffle_order_engine** random number engine adaptor produces the same random numbers that are produced by some base engine \( e \), but delivers them in a different sequence. The state \( x_i \) of a **shuffle_order_engine** engine adaptor object \( x \) consists of the state \( e_i \) of its base engine \( e \), an additional value \( Y \) of the type delivered by \( e \), and an additional sequence \( V \) of \( k \) values also of the type delivered by \( e \). The size of the state is the size of \( e \)’s state plus \( k + 1 \).

The transition algorithm permutes the values produced by \( e \). The state transition is performed as follows:

1. Calculate an integer \( j = \left\lfloor \frac{k \cdot (Y - e_{\text{min}})}{e_{\text{max}} - e_{\text{min}} + 1} \right\rfloor \).
2. Set \( Y \) to \( V_j \) and then set \( V_j \) to \( e() \).

The generation algorithm yields the last value of \( Y \) produced while advancing \( e \)’s state as described above.

The textual representation consists of the textual representation of \( e \), followed by the \( k \) values of \( V \), followed by the value of \( Y \).

In addition to its behavior pursuant to section 26.5.2.4, each constructor that is not a copy constructor initializes \( V[0], \ldots, V[k-1] \) and \( Y \), in that order, with values returned by successive invocations of \( e() \).
26.5.5 Engines and engine adaptors with predefined parameters

typedef linear_congruential_engine<uint_fast32_t, 16807, 0, 2147483647> minstd_rand0;

1 Required behavior: The 10000th consecutive invocation of a default-constructed object of type \texttt{minstd\_rand0} shall produce the value 1043618065.

typedef linear_congruential_engine<uint_fast32_t, 48271, 0, 2147483647> minstd_rand;

2 Required behavior: The 10000th consecutive invocation of a default-constructed object of type \texttt{minstd\_rand} shall produce the value 399268537.

typedef mersenne_twister_engine<uint_fast32_t,
32,624,397,31,0x9908b0df,11,0xffffffff,7,0x9d2c5680,15,0xefc60000,18,1812433253>
mt19937;

3 Required behavior: The 10000th consecutive invocation of a default-constructed object of type \texttt{mt19937} shall produce the value 4123659995.

typedef mersenne_twister_engine<uint_fast64_t,
64,312,156,31,0xb5026f5aa96619e9,29,
0x5555555555555555,17,
0x71d67ffeda60000,37,
0xfffff0000000000,43,
6364136223846793005>
mt19937_64;

4 Required behavior: The 10000th consecutive invocation of a default-constructed object of type \texttt{mt19937\_64} shall produce the value 998154732273789042.

typedef subtract_with_carry_engine<uint_fast32_t, 24, 10, 24>
rانlux24_base;

5 Required behavior: The 10000th consecutive invocation of a default-constructed object of type \texttt{ranlux24\_base} shall produce the value 7937952.

typedef subtract_with_carry_engine<uint_fast64_t, 48, 5, 12>
rانlux48_base;

6 Required behavior: The 10000th consecutive invocation of a default-constructed object of type \texttt{ranlux48\_base} shall produce the value 61839128582725.

typedef discard_block_engine<ranlux24_base, 223, 23>
rانlux24;

7 Required behavior: The 10000th consecutive invocation of a default-constructed object of type \texttt{ranlux24} shall produce the value 9901578.

typedef discard_block_engine<ranlux48_base, 389, 11>
rانlux48;

8 Required behavior: The 10000th consecutive invocation of a default-constructed object of type \texttt{ranlux48} shall produce the value 249142670248501.

typedef shuffle_order_engine<minstd_rand0,256>
knuth_b;

§ 26.5.5
Required behavior: The 10000\textsuperscript{th} consecutive invocation of a default-constructed object of type \texttt{kimuth\_b} shall produce the value 1112339016.

typedef implementation-defined
default_random_engine;

Required behavior: A concept map \texttt{RandomNumberEngine\_default\_random\_engine}, or equivalent, shall be defined in namespace \texttt{std} so as to provide mappings from free functions to the corresponding member functions.

Remark: The choice of engine type named by this \texttt{typedef} is implementation-defined. [\texttt{Note:} The implementation may select this type on the basis of performance, size, quality, or any combination of such factors, so as to provide at least acceptable engine behavior for relatively casual, inexpert, and/or lightweight use. Because different implementations may select different underlying engine types, code that uses this \texttt{typedef} need not generate identical sequences across implementations. — end note]

\section*{26.5.6 Class random\_device \[rand.device\]}

A \texttt{random\_device} uniform random number generator produces non-deterministic random numbers. A concept map \texttt{UniformRandomNumberGenerator\_random\_device} shall be defined in namespace \texttt{std} so as to provide mappings from free functions to the corresponding member functions.

If implementation limitations prevent generating non-deterministic random numbers, the implementation may employ a random number engine.

\begin{verbatim}
class random_device
{
 public:
  // types
  typedef unsigned int result_type;

  // generator characteristics
  static constexpr result_type min() { return numeric_limits\_result\_type\_min(); }
  static constexpr result_type max() { return numeric_limits\_result\_type\_max(); }

  // constructors
  explicit random_device(const string\& token = implementation\_defined);

  // generating functions
  result\_type operator\_()\;

  // property functions
  double entropy() const;

  // no copy functions
  random_device\_const\_random\_device\_& ) = delete;
  void operator\_=(const random\_device\_& ) = delete;
};

explicit random_device\_const\_random\_device\_&()

Effects: Constructs a \texttt{random\_device} non-deterministic uniform random number generator object. The semantics and default value of the \texttt{token} parameter are implementation-defined.\footnote{The parameter is intended to allow an implementation to differentiate between different sources of randomness.}
4    **Throws:** A value of an implementation-defined type derived from `exception` if the `random_device` could not be initialized.

    double entropy() const;

5    **Returns:** If the implementation employs a random number engine, returns 0.0. Otherwise, returns an entropy estimate\(^\text{275}\) for the random numbers returned by `operator()`, in the range `min()` to \(\log_2(max() + 1)\).

6    **Throws:** Nothing.

    result_type operator()();

7    **Returns:** A non-deterministic random value, uniformly distributed between `min()` and `max()`, inclusive. It is implementation-defined how these values are generated.

8    **Throws:** A value of an implementation-defined type derived from `exception` if a random number could not be obtained.

### 26.5.7 Utilities

#### 26.5.7.1 Class `seed_seq`

No function described in this section 26.5.7.1 throws an exception.

A concept map `SeedSequence<seed_seq>` shall be defined in namespace `std` so as to provide mappings from free functions to the corresponding member functions.

```cpp
class seed_seq
{
  public:
    // types
    typedef uint_least32_t result_type;

    // constructors
    seed_seq();
    template<IntegralLike T>
    requires IntegralType<T>
    seed_seq(initializer_list<T> il);
    template<InputIterator Iter>
    requires IntegralLike<Iter::value_type>
    && IntegralType<Iter::value_type>
    seed_seq(Iter begin, Iter end);

    // generating functions
    template<RandomAccessIterator Iter>
    requires UnsignedIntegralLike<Iter::value_type>
    && OutputIterator<Iter, const result_type&>
    && IntegralType<Iter::value_type>
    && True<sizeof uint32_t <= sizeof Iter::value_type>
    void generate(Iter begin, Iter end);

    // property functions
    size_t size() const;
```

\[\text{275)}\) If a device has \(n\) states whose respective probabilities are \(P_0, \ldots, P_{n-1}\), the device entropy \(S\) is defined as \(S = -\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} P_i \cdot \log P_i\).
template<OutputIterator<auto,const result_type&> Iter>
void param(Iter dest) const;

private:
    vector<result_type> v;    // exposition only
};

seed_seq();

Effects: Constructs a seed_seq object as if by default-constructing its member v.

template<IntegralLike T>
requires IntegralType<T>
seed_seq(initializer_list<T> il);

Effects: Same as seed_seq(il.begin(), il.end()).

template<InputIterator Iter>
requires IntegralLike<Iter::value_type>
&& IntegralType<Iter::value_type>
seed_seq(Iter begin, Iter end);

Effects: Constructs a seed_seq object by the following algorithm:

for( InputIterator s = begin; s != end; ++s)
    v.push_back((*s) mod2 32);

t = (n ≥ 623) ? 11 : (n ≥ 68) ? 7 : (n ≥ 39) ? 5 : (n ≥ 7) ? 3 : (n - 1)/2;

Effects: Does nothing if begin == end. Otherwise, with s = v.size() and n = end - begin, fills
the supplied range [begin, end) according to the following algorithm in which each operation is to be
carried out modulo 2^32, each indexing operator applied to begin is to be taken modulo n, and T(x) is
defined as x xor (x rshift 27):

a) By way of initialization, set each element of the range to the value 0x8b8b8b8b. Additionally, for
use in subsequent steps, let p = (n - t)/2 and let q = p + t, where

b) With m as the larger of s + 1 and n, transform the elements of the range: iteratively for k =
0, ..., m - 1, calculate values

r1 = 1664525 \cdot T(begin[k] \xor begin[k + p] \xor begin[k - 1])

r2 = r1 + \begin{cases}
    s, & k = 0 \\
    k \mod n + v[k - 1], & 0 < k \leq s \\
    k \mod n, & s < k
\end{cases}

and, in order, increment begin[k + p] by r1, increment begin[x + q] by r2, and set begin[k]
to r2.

§ 26.5.7.1
c) Transform the elements of the range three more times, beginning where the previous step ended:

iteratively for \( k = m, \ldots, m+n-1 \), calculate values

\[
\begin{align*}
    r_3 &= 1566083941 \cdot T(\text{begin}[k] + \text{begin}[k + p] + \text{begin}[k - 1]) \\
    r_4 &= r_3 - (k \mod n)
\end{align*}
\]

and, in order, update \( \text{begin}[k + p] \) by xoring it with \( r_4 \), update \( \text{begin}[k + q] \) by xoring it with \( r_3 \), and set \( \text{begin}[k] \) to \( r_4 \).

\[
\text{size\_t size() const;
}
\]

\textbf{Returns:} The number of 32-bit units that would be returned by a call to \texttt{param()}.

\textbf{Complexity:} constant time.

\[
\text{template<OutputIterator<auto, const result\_type&> Iter> void param(Iter dest) const;}
\]

\textbf{Effects:} Copies the sequence of prepared 32-bit units to the given destination, as if by executing the following statement:

\[
\text{copy(v.begin(), v.end(), dest);}
\]

\subsection{26.5.7.2 Function template generate\_canonical \[\text{rand.util.canonical}\]}

Each function instantiated from the template described in this section \text{26.5.7.2} maps the result of one or more invocations of a supplied uniform random number generator \( g \) to one member of the specified \texttt{RealType} such that, if the values \( g_i \) produced by \( g \) are uniformly distributed, the instantiation’s results \( t_j, 0 \leq t_j < 1 \), are distributed as uniformly as possible as specified below.

\[ \text{[Note: Obtaining a value in this way can be a useful step in the process of transforming a value generated by a uniform random number generator into a value that can be delivered by a random number distribution. — end note]} \]

\[
\text{template<FloatingPointLike RealType, size\_t bits, UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
RealType generate\_canonical(URNG& g);}
\]

\textbf{Complexity:} Exactly \( k = \max(1, \lfloor b/\log_2 R \rfloor) \) invocations of \( g \), where \( b^{276} \) is the lesser of \texttt{numeric\_limits<RealType>::digits} and \( \texttt{bits} \), and \( R \) is the value of \( g.\text{max}() - g.\text{min}() + 1 \).

\textbf{Effects:} Invokes \( g() \) \( k \) times to obtain values \( g_0, \ldots, g_{k-1} \), respectively. Calculates a quantity

\[
S = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (g_i - g.\text{min}()) \cdot R^i
\]

using arithmetic of type \texttt{RealType}.

\textbf{Returns:} \( S/R^k \).

\textbf{Throws:} What and when \( g \) throws.

\text{276) \( b \) is introduced to avoid any attempt to produce more bits of randomness than can be held in \texttt{RealType}.}
26.5.8 Random number distribution class templates

For every class \( D \) specified in this section 26.5.8 or instantiated from a template specified in this section, a concept map \( \text{RandomNumberDistribution}<D> \) shall be defined in namespace \( \text{std} \) so as to provide mappings from free functions to the corresponding member functions. Descriptions are provided here only for distribution operations that are not described in 26.5.2.5 or for operations where there is additional semantic information. Declarations for copy constructors, for copy assignment operators, for streaming operators, and for equality and inequality operators are not shown in the synopses.

The algorithms for producing each of the specified distributions are implementation-defined.

The value of each probability density function \( p(z) \) and of each discrete probability function \( P(z_i) \) specified in this section is 0 everywhere outside its stated domain.

26.5.8.1 Uniform distributions

26.5.8.1.1 Class template uniform_int_distribution

A \( \text{uniform_int_distribution} \) random number distribution produces random integers \( i, a \leq i \leq b \), distributed according to the constant discrete probability function

\[
P(i | a, b) = 1/(b - a + 1).
\]

```cpp
template<IntegralLike IntType = int>
requires IntegralType<IntType>
class uniform_int_distribution
{
public:
    // types
    typedef IntType result_type;
    typedef unspecified param_type;

    // constructors and reset functions
    explicit uniform_int_distribution(IntType a = 0, IntType b = numeric_limits<IntType>::max());
    explicit uniform_int_distribution(const param_type& parm);
    void reset();

    // generating functions
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
    result_type operator()(URNG& g);
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
    result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

    // property functions
    result_type a() const;
    result_type b() const;
    param_type param() const;
    void param(const param_type& parm);
    result_type min() const;
    result_type max() const;
};
```

```cpp
explicit uniform_int_distribution(IntType a = 0, IntType b = numeric_limits<IntType>::max());
```

Precondition: \( a \leq b \).

§ 26.5.8.1.1
Effects: Constructs a `uniform_int_distribution` object; `a` and `b` correspond to the respective parameters of the distribution.

```
result_type a() const;
```

Returns: The value of the `a` parameter with which the object was constructed.

```
result_type b() const;
```

Returns: The value of the `b` parameter with which the object was constructed.

### 26.5.8.1.2 Class template `uniform_real_distribution` [rand.dist.uni.real]

A `uniform_real_distribution` random number distribution produces random numbers `x`, `a ≤ x < b`, distributed according to the constant probability density function

\[ p(x | a, b) = \frac{1}{b - a} \]

```
template<FloatingPointLike RealType = double>
    requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
    class uniform_real_distribution
    {
public:
    // types
    typedef RealType result_type;
    typedef unspecified param_type;

    // constructors and reset functions
    explicit uniform_real_distribution(RealType a = 0.0, RealType b = 1.0);
    explicit uniform_real_distribution(const param_type& parm);
    void reset();

    // generating functions
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
        result_type operator()(URNG& g);
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
        result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

    // property functions
    result_type a() const;
    result_type b() const;
    param_type param() const;
    void param(const param_type& parm);
    result_type min() const;
    result_type max() const;
    };
```

Explicit `uniform_real_distribution(RealType a = 0.0, RealType b = 1.0);`

Precondition: `a ≤ b` and `b - a ≤ numeric_limits<RealType>::max()`.

Effects: Constructs a `uniform_real_distribution` object; `a` and `b` correspond to the respective parameters of the distribution.

```
result_type a() const;
```

Returns: The value of the `a` parameter with which the object was constructed.
Returns: The value of the b parameter with which the object was constructed.

26.5.8.2 Bernoulli distributions [rand.dist.bern]

26.5.8.2.1 Class bernoulli_distribution [rand.dist.bern.bernoulli]

A bernoulli_distribution random number distribution produces bool values b distributed according to the discrete probability function

\[ P(b | p) = \begin{cases} p & \text{if } b = \text{true} \\ 1 - p & \text{if } b = \text{false} \end{cases} \]

class bernoulli_distribution
{
public:
  // types
  typedef bool result_type;
  typedef unspecified param_type;

  // constructors and reset functions
  explicit bernoulli_distribution(double p = 0.5);
  explicit bernoulli_distribution(const param_type& parm);
  void reset();

  // generating functions
  template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
  result_type operator()(URNG& g);
  template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
  result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

  // property functions
  double p() const;
  param_type param() const;
  void param(const param_type& parm);
  result_type min() const;
  result_type max() const;
};

explicit bernoulli_distribution(double p = 0.5);

Precondition: 0 ≤ p ≤ 1.

Effects: Constructs a bernoulli_distribution object; p corresponds to the parameter of the distribution.

double p() const;

Returns: The value of the p parameter with which the object was constructed.
26.5.8.2.2 Class template \texttt{binomial\_distribution} \hspace{1em} \texttt{[rand.dist.bern.bin]}

1 A \texttt{binomial\_distribution} random number distribution produces integer values \( i \geq 0 \) distributed according to the discrete probability function

\[
P(i \mid t, p) = \binom{t}{i} \cdot p^i \cdot (1 - p)^{t-i}.
\]

\begin{verbatim}
template<IntegralLike IntType = int>
   requires IntegralType<IntType>
   class binomial_distribution
{
   public:
      // types
      typedef IntType result_type;
      typedef unspecified param_type;

      // constructors and reset functions
      explicit binomial_distribution(IntType t = 1, double p = 0.5);
      explicit binomial_distribution(const param_type& parm);
      void reset();

      // generating functions
      template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
         result_type operator()(URNG& g);
      template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
         result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

      // property functions
      IntType t() const;
      double p() const;
      param_type param() const;
      void param(const param_type& parm);
      result_type min() const;
      result_type max() const;
};
\end{verbatim}

2 \hspace{1em} Precondition: \( 0 \leq p \leq 1 \) and \( 0 \leq t \).

3 \hspace{1em} Effects: Constructs a \texttt{binomial\_distribution} object; \( t \) and \( p \) correspond to the respective parameters of the distribution.

IntType t() const;

4 \hspace{1em} Returns: The value of the \( t \) parameter with which the object was constructed.

double p() const;

5 \hspace{1em} Returns: The value of the \( p \) parameter with which the object was constructed.

26.5.8.2.3 Class template \texttt{geometric\_distribution} \hspace{1em} \texttt{[rand.dist.bern.geo]}

1 A \texttt{geometric\_distribution} random number distribution produces integer values \( i \geq 0 \) distributed accord-
ing to the discrete probability function

\[ P(i \mid p) = p \cdot (1 - p)^i. \]

template<IntegralLike IntType = int>
  requires IntegralType<IntType>
  class geometric_distribution
{
  public:
    // types
    typedef IntType result_type;
    typedef unspecified param_type;

    // constructors and reset functions
    explicit geometric_distribution(double p = 0.5);
    explicit geometric_distribution(const param_type& parm);
    void reset();

    // generating functions
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
      result_type operator()(URNG& g);
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
      result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

    // property functions
    double p() const;
    param_type param() const;
    void param(const param_type& parm);
    result_type min() const;
    result_type max() const;
};

explicit geometric_distribution(double p = 0.5);

2  
Precondition: 0 < p < 1.

3  
Effects: Constructs a geometric_distribution object; p corresponds to the parameter of the distribution.

double p() const;

4  
Returns: The value of the p parameter with which the object was constructed.

26.5.8.2.4 Class template negative_binomial_distribution

A negative_binomial_distribution random number distribution produces random integers \( i \geq 0 \) distributed according to the discrete probability function

\[ P(i \mid k, p) = \binom{k + i - 1}{i} \cdot p^k \cdot (1 - p)^i. \]

template<IntegralLike IntType = int>
  requires IntegralType<IntType>
  class negative_binomial_distribution
{

public:
    // types
    typedef IntType result_type;
    typedef unspecified param_type;
    // constructor and reset functions
    explicit negative_binomial_distribution(IntType k = 1, double p = 0.5);
    explicit negative_binomial_distribution(const param_type& parm);
    void reset();
    // generating functions
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
    result_type operator()(URNG& g);
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
    result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);
    // property functions
    IntType k() const;
    double p() const;
    param_type param() const;
    void param(const param_type& parm);
    result_type min() const;
    result_type max() const;
};

explicit negative_binomial_distribution(IntType k = 1, double p = 0.5);

1 Precondition: 0 < p ≤ 1 and 0 < k.
2 Effects: Constructs a negative_binomial_distribution object; k and p correspond to the respective parameters of the distribution.

IntType k() const;
3 Returns: The value of the k parameter with which the object was constructed.

double p() const;
4 Returns: The value of the p parameter with which the object was constructed.

26.5.8.3 Poisson distributions

26.5.8.3.1 Class template poisson_distribution

A poisson_distribution random number distribution produces integer values \( i \geq 0 \) distributed according to the discrete probability function

\[
P(i \mid \mu) = \frac{e^{-\mu} \mu^i}{i!}.
\]

The distribution parameter \( \mu \) is also known as this distribution's mean.

template<Integral Like IntType = int>
requires IntegralType<IntType>
class poisson_distribution{
    public:
    // types
typedef int result_type;
typedef unspecified param_type;

// constructors and reset functions
explicit poisson_distribution(double mean = 1.0);
explicit poisson_distribution(const param_type& parm);
void reset();

// generating functions
template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
result_type operator()(URNG& g);
template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

// property functions
double mean() const;
param_type param() const;
void param(const param_type& parm);
result_type min() const;
result_type max() const;
}

effects: Constructs a poisson_distribution object; mean corresponds to the parameter of the distribution.

26.5.8.3.2 Class template exponential_distribution

An exponential_distribution random number distribution produces random numbers \( x > 0 \) distributed according to the probability density function

\[ p(x \mid \lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \]

26.5.8.3.2 Class template exponential_distribution

An exponential_distribution random number distribution produces random numbers \( x > 0 \) distributed according to the probability density function

\[ p(x \mid \lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \]
template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
    result_type operator()(URNG& g);

template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
    result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

    // property functions
    RealType lambda() const;
    param_type param() const;
    void param(const param_type& parm);
    result_type min() const;
    result_type max() const;
};

explicit exponential_distribution(RealType lambda = 1.0);

    // Precondition: 0 < lambda.
    // Effects: Constructs a exponential_distribution object; lambda corresponds to the parameter of the distribution.

    RealType lambda() const;

    // Returns: The value of the lambda parameter with which the object was constructed.

26.5.8.3.3 Class template gamma_distribution

1 A gamma_distribution random number distribution produces random numbers \( x > 0 \) distributed according to the probability density function

\[
p(x | \alpha, \beta) = \frac{e^{-x/\beta}}{\beta^{\alpha} \cdot \Gamma(\alpha) \cdot x^{\alpha-1}}.
\]

template<FloatingPointLike RealType = double>
    requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
    class gamma_distribution
    {
        public:
            // types
            typedef RealType result_type;
            typedef unspecified param_type;

            // constructors and reset functions
            explicit gamma_distribution(RealType alpha = 1.0, RealType beta = 1.0);
            explicit gamma_distribution(const param_type& parm);
            void reset();

            // generating functions
            template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
                result_type operator()(URNG& g);
            template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
                result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

            // property functions
            RealType alpha() const;
            RealType beta() const;

        }
```cpp
param_type param() const;
void param(const param_type& parm);
result_type min() const;
result_type max() const;
};

explicit gamma_distribution(RealType alpha = 1.0, RealType beta = 1.0);

// Precondition: 0 < alpha and 0 < beta.

// Effects: Constructs a gamma_distribution object; alpha and beta correspond to the parameters of the distribution.

RealType alpha() const;

// Returns: The value of the alpha parameter with which the object was constructed.

RealType beta() const;

// Returns: The value of the beta parameter with which the object was constructed.

26.5.8.3.4 Class template weibull_distribution

A weibull_distribution random number distribution produces random numbers \( x \geq 0 \) distributed according to the probability density function

\[
p(x \mid a, b) = \frac{a}{b} \cdot \left( \frac{x}{b} \right)^{a-1} \cdot \exp \left( - \left( \frac{x}{b} \right)^{a} \right).
\]

```

```
explicit weibull_distribution(RealType a = 1.0, RealType b = 1.0);

Precondition: 0 < a and 0 < b.

Effects: Constructs a weibull_distribution object; a and b correspond to the respective parameters of the distribution.

RealType a() const;

Returns: The value of the a parameter with which the object was constructed.

RealType b() const;

Returns: The value of the b parameter with which the object was constructed.

26.5.8.3.5 Class template extreme_value_distribution

An extreme_value_distribution random number distribution produces random numbers x distributed according to the probability density function

\[ p(x \mid a, b) = \frac{1}{b} \cdot \exp \left( \frac{a - x}{b} - \exp \left( \frac{a - x}{b} \right) \right). \]

template<FloatingPointLike RealType = double>
  requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
  class extreme_value_distribution
  {
    public:
      // types
      typedef RealType result_type;
      typedef unspecified param_type;

      // constructor and reset functions
      explicit extreme_value_distribution(RealType a = 0.0, RealType b = 1.0);
      explicit extreme_value_distribution(const param_type& parm);
      void reset();

      // generating functions
      template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
        result_type operator()(URNG& g);
      template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
        result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

      // property functions
      RealType a() const;
      RealType b() const;
      param_type param() const;
      void param(const param_type& parm);
      result_type min() const;
      result_type max() const;
  };

explicit extreme_value_distribution(RealType a = 0.0, RealType b = 1.0);

[277] The distribution corresponding to this probability density function is also known (with a possible change of variable) as the Gumbel Type I, the log-Weibull, or the Fisher-Tippett Type I distribution.

§ 26.5.8.3.5
Precondition: 0 < b.

Effects: Constructs an extreme_value_distribution object; a and b correspond to the respective parameters of the distribution.

RealType a() const;

Returns: The value of the a parameter with which the object was constructed.

RealType b() const;

Returns: The value of the b parameter with which the object was constructed.

26.5.8.4 Normal distributions

26.5.8.4.1 Class template normal_distribution

A normal_distribution random number distribution produces random numbers x distributed according to the probability density function

\[ p(x|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \exp \left( -\frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right). \]

The distribution parameters \( \mu \) and \( \sigma \) are also known as this distribution’s mean and standard deviation.

template<FloatingPointLike RealType = double>
requires FloatingPointType<RealType>

class normal_distribution
{
public:

    // types
    typedef RealType result_type;
    typedef unspecified param_type;

    // constructors and reset functions
    explicit normal_distribution(RealType mean = 0.0, RealType stddev = 1.0);
    explicit normal_distribution(const param_type& parm);
    void reset();

    // generating functions
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
    result_type operator()(URNG& g);
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
    result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

    // property functions
    RealType mean() const;
    RealType stddev() const;
    param_type param() const;
    void param(const param_type& parm);
    result_type min() const;
    result_type max() const;
};

explicit normal_distribution(RealType mean = 0.0, RealType stddev = 1.0);
\textbf{Precondition:} \(0 < \text{stddev.}\)

\textbf{Effects:} Constructs a \texttt{normal_distribution} object; \texttt{mean} and \texttt{stddev} correspond to the respective parameters of the distribution.

```
RealType mean() const;
```

\textit{Returns:} The value of the \texttt{mean} parameter with which the object was constructed.

```
RealType stddev() const;
```

\textit{Returns:} The value of the \texttt{stddev} parameter with which the object was constructed.

26.5.8.4.2 \textbf{Class template \texttt{lognormal_distribution}} \[\text{rand.dist.norm.lognormal}\]

A \texttt{lognormal_distribution} random number distribution produces random numbers \(x > 0\) distributed according to the probability density function

\[
p(x \mid m, s) = \frac{1}{sx\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \exp \left( -\frac{(\ln x - m)^2}{2s^2} \right).
\]

```
template<FloatingPointLike RealType = double>
requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
class lognormal_distribution
{
public:
  // types
  typedef RealType result_type;
  typedef unspecified param_type;

  // constructor and reset functions
  explicit lognormal_distribution(RealType m = 0.0, RealType s = 1.0);
  explicit lognormal_distribution(const param_type& parm);
  void reset();

  // generating functions
  template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
  result_type operator()(URNG& g);
  template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
  result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

  // property functions
  RealType m() const;
  RealType s() const;
  param_type param() const;
  void param(const param_type& parm);
  result_type min() const;
  result_type max() const;
};
```

\textbf{Precondition:} \(0 < s.\)

\textbf{Effects:} Constructs a \texttt{lognormal_distribution} object; \texttt{m} and \texttt{s} correspond to the respective parameters of the distribution.

\textsection{26.5.8.4.2}
RealType m() const;

Returns: The value of the \( m \) parameter with which the object was constructed.

RealType s() const;

Returns: The value of the \( s \) parameter with which the object was constructed.

26.5.8.4.3 Class template \texttt{chi\_squared\_distribution}  

A \texttt{chi\_squared\_distribution} random number distribution produces random numbers \( x > 0 \) distributed according to the probability density function

\[
p(x | n) = \frac{x^{(n/2)-1} \cdot e^{-x/2}}{\Gamma(n/2) \cdot 2^{n/2}}.
\]

template<
FloatingPointLike RealType = double>

requires FloatingPointType<RealType>

class chi_squared_distribution

{  
  public:
    // types
    typedef RealType result_type;
    typedef unspecified param_type;

    // constructor and reset functions
    explicit chi_squared_distribution(RealType n = 1);
    explicit chi_squared_distribution(const param_type& parm);
    void reset();

    // generating functions
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
      result_type operator()(URNG& g);
    template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
      result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

    // property functions
    RealType n() const;
    param_type param() const;
    void param(const param_type& parm);
    result_type min() const;
    result_type max() const;

  };

explicit chi_squared_distribution(RealType n = 1);

Precondition: \( 0 < n \).

Effects: Constructs a \texttt{chi\_squared\_distribution} object; \( n \) corresponds to the parameter of the distribution.

RealType n() const;

Returns: The value of the \( n \) parameter with which the object was constructed.
Class template `cauchy_distribution`

A `cauchy_distribution` random number distribution produces random numbers \( x \) distributed according to the probability density function

\[
p(x \mid a, b) = \left( \pi b \left( 1 + \left( \frac{x - a}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right)^{-1}.
\]

```cpp
template<FloatingPointLike RealType = double>
    requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
    class cauchy_distribution
    {
        public:
            // types
            typedef RealType result_type;
            typedef unspecified param_type;

            // constructor and reset functions
            explicit cauchy_distribution(RealType a = 0.0, RealType b = 1.0);
            explicit cauchy_distribution(const param_type& parm);
            void reset();

            // generating functions
            template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
                result_type operator()(URNG& g);
            template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
                result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

            // property functions
            RealType a() const;
            RealType b() const;
            param_type param() const;
            void param(const param_type& parm);
            result_type min() const;
            result_type max() const;
    };
```

`explicit cauchy_distribution(RealType a = 0.0, RealType b = 1.0);`

**Precondition:** \( 0 < b \).
**Effects:** Constructs a `cauchy_distribution` object; \( a \) and \( b \) correspond to the respective parameters of the distribution.

```cpp
RealType a() const;
```

**Returns:** The value of the \( a \) parameter with which the object was constructed.

```cpp
RealType b() const;
```

**Returns:** The value of the \( b \) parameter with which the object was constructed.

Class template `fisher_f_distribution`

A `fisher_f_distribution` random number distribution produces random numbers \( x \geq 0 \) distributed ac-
cording to the probability density function

\[ p(x \mid m, n) = \frac{\Gamma((m + n)/2)}{\Gamma(m/2) \Gamma(n/2)} \cdot \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^{m/2} \cdot x^{(m/2)-1} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{mx}{n}\right)^{-(m+n)/2}. \]

\[
\text{template}<\text{FloatingPointLike RealType }= \text{double}>
\text{requires FloatingPointType<RealType>}
\\text{class fisher_f_distribution}
\{
\text{public:}
\text{// types}
\text{typedef RealType result_type;}
\text{typedef unspecified param_type;}
\text{// constructor and reset functions}
\text{explicit fisher_f_distribution(RealType m = 1, RealType n = 1);}
\text{explicit fisher_f_distribution(const param_type& parm);}
\text{void reset();}
\text{// generating functions}
\text{template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>}
\text{result_type operator() (URNG& g);}
\text{template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>}
\text{result_type operator() (URNG& g, const param_type& parm);}
\text{// property functions}
\text{RealType m() const;}
\text{RealType n() const;}
\text{param_type param() const;}
\text{void param(const param_type& parm);}
\text{result_type min() const;}
\text{result_type max() const;}
\};

\text{explicit fisher_f_distribution(RealType m = 1, RealType n = 1);} \\
\text{Precondition: } 0 < m \text{ and } 0 < n.
\text{Effects: Constructs a fisher_f_distribution object; } m \text{ and } n \text{ correspond to the respective parameters of the distribution.}

\text{RealType m() const;}
\text{Returns: The value of the } m \text{ parameter with which the object was constructed.}

\text{RealType n() const;}
\text{Returns: The value of the } n \text{ parameter with which the object was constructed.}

\text{26.5.8.4.6 Class template student_t_distribution [rand.dist.norm.t]}

\text{A student_t_distribution random number distribution produces random numbers } x \text{ distributed according to the probability density function}

\[ p(x \mid n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n\pi}} \cdot \frac{\Gamma((n + 1)/2)}{\Gamma(n/2)} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{n}\right)^{-(n+1)/2}. \]
template<FloatingPointLike RealType = double>
    requires FloatingPointType<RealType>
    class student_t_distribution
    {  
        public:
            // types
            typedef RealType result_type;
            typedef unspecified param_type;
            
            // constructor and reset functions
            explicit student_t_distribution(RealType n = 1);
            explicit student_t_distribution(const param_type& parm);
            void reset();
            
            // generating functions
            template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
                result_type operator()(URNG& g);
            template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
                result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);
            
            // property functions
            RealType n() const;
            param_type param() const;
            void param(const param_type& parm);
            result_type min() const;
            result_type max() const;
    };

    explicit student_t_distribution(RealType n = 1);

    // Precondition: 0 < n.

    // Effects: Constructs a student_t_distribution object; n and n correspond to the respective parameters of the distribution.

    RealType n() const;

    // Returns: The value of the n parameter with which the object was constructed.

26.5.8.5 Sampling distributions [rand.dist.samp]

26.5.8.5.1 Class template discrete_distribution [rand.dist.samp.discrete]

A discrete_distribution random number distribution produces random integers $i$, $0 \leq i < n$, distributed according to the discrete probability function

$$P(i | p_0, \ldots, p_{n-1}) = p_i.$$  

2 Unless specified otherwise, the distribution parameters are calculated as: $p_k = w_k / S$ for $k = 0, \ldots, n-1$, in which the values $w_k$, commonly known as the weights, shall be non-negative, non-NaN, and non-infinity. Moreover, the following relation shall hold: $0 < S = w_0 + \cdots + w_{n-1}$.  

template<IntegralLike IntType = int>
    requires IntegralType<IntType>
    class discrete_distribution
    {
public:
// types
typedef IntType result_type;
typedef unspecified param_type;

// constructor and reset functions
discrete_distribution();
template<InputIterator Iter>
   requires Convertible<Iter::value_type, double>
   discrete_distribution(Iter firstW, Iter lastW);
discrete_distribution(initializer_list<double> wl);
template<Callable<auto, double> Func>
   requires Convertible<Func::result_type, double>
   discrete_distribution(size_t nw, double xmin, double xmax, Func fw);
explicit discrete_distribution(const param_type& parm);
void reset();

// generating functions
template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
   result_type operator()(URNG& g);
template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
   result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);

// property functions
vector<double> probabilities() const;
param_type param() const;
void param(const param_type& parm);
result_type min() const;
result_type max() const;
};

Effects: Constructs a discrete_distribution object with \( n = 1 \) and \( p_0 = 1 \). [Note: Such an object will always deliver the value 0. — end note]

Effects: Constructs a discrete_distribution object with probabilities given by the formula above.

Effects: Same as discrete_distribution(wl.begin(), wl.end()).

Effects: Constructs a discrete_distribution object with probabilities given by the formula above,
using the following values: If $nw = 0$, let $w_0 = 1$. Otherwise, let $w_k = f_w(x_{\text{min}} + k \cdot \delta + \delta/2)$ for $k = 0, \ldots, n-1$.

**Complexity:** The number of invocations of $fw$ shall not exceed $n$.

```cpp
class piecewise_constant_distribution {
public:
  // types
  typedef RealType result_type;
  typedef unspecified param_type;

  // constructor and reset functions
  piecewise_constant_distribution();
  template<InputIterator IterB, InputIterator IterW>
  requires Convertible<IterB::value_type, result_type> && Convertible<IterW::value_type, double>
  piecewise_constant_distribution(IterB firstB, IterB lastB, IterW firstW);
  template<Callable<decltype(auto,RealType)> Func>
  requires Convertible<Func::result_type, double>
  piecewise_constant_distribution(initializer_list<RealType> bl, Func fw);
  template<Callable<decltype(RealType, double)> Func>
  requires Convertible<Func::result_type, double>
  piecewise_constant_distribution(size_t nw, RealType xmin, RealType xmax, Func fw);
  explicit piecewise_constant_distribution(const param_type& parm);
  void reset();

  // generating functions
  template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
  result_type operator()(URNG& g);
  template<UniformRandomNumberGenerator URNG>
  result_type operator()(URNG& g, const param_type& parm);
};
```

**26.5.8.5.2 Class template piecewise_constant_distribution [rand.dist.samp.pconst]**

A `piecewise_constant_distribution` random number distribution produces random numbers $x$, $b_0 \leq x < b_n$, uniformly distributed over each subinterval $[b_i, b_{i+1})$ according to the probability density function

$$p(x \mid b_0, \ldots, b_n, \rho_0, \ldots, \rho_{n-1}) = \rho_i, \text{ for } b_i \leq x < b_{i+1}.$$ 

The $n+1$ distribution parameters $b_i$, also known as this distribution’s *interval boundaries*, shall satisfy the relation $b_i < b_{i+1}$ for $i = 0, \ldots, n-1$. Unless specified otherwise, the remaining $n$ distribution parameters are calculated as:

$$\rho_k = \frac{w_k \cdot (b_{k+1} - b_k)}{S} \text{ for } k = 0, \ldots, n-1,$$

in which the values $w_k$, commonly known as the *weights*, shall be non-negative, non-NaN, and non-infinity. Moreover, the following relation shall hold: $0 < S = w_0 + \cdots + w_{n-1}$.
// property functions
vector<RealType> intervals() const;
vector<double> densities() const;
param_type param() const;
void param(const param_type& parm);
result_type min() const;
result_type max() const;
};
piecewise_constant_distribution();

Effects: Constructs a piecewise_constant_distribution object with \( n = 1, \rho_0 = 1, b_0 = 0, \) and \( b_1 = 1. \)

template<InputIterator IterB, InputIterator IterW>
requires Convertible<IterB::value_type, result_type> && Convertible<IterW::value_type, double>
piecewise_constant_distribution(IterB firstB, IterB lastB,
        IterW firstW);

Precondition: If \( \text{firstB} == \text{lastB} \) or \( \text{++firstB} == \text{lastB} \), let \( n = 1, w_0 = 1, b_0 = 0, \) and \( b_1 = 1. \) Otherwise, \( [\text{firstB}, \text{lastB}] \) shall form a sequence \( b \) of length \( n + 1 \), the length of the sequence \( w \) starting from \( \text{firstW} \) shall be at least \( n \), and any \( w_k \) for \( k \geq n \) shall be ignored by the distribution.

Effects: Constructs a piecewise_constant_distribution object with parameters as specified above.

template<Callable<auto,RealType> Func>
requires Convertible<Func::result_type, double>
piecewise_constant_distribution(initializer_list<RealType> bl, Func fw);

Effects: Constructs a piecewise_constant_distribution object with parameters taken or calculated from the following values: If \( \text{bl.size()} < 2 \), let \( n = 1, w_0 = 1, b_0 = 0, \) and \( b_1 = 1. \) Otherwise, let \( [\text{bl.begin()}, \text{bl.end()}] \) form a sequence \( b_0, \ldots, b_n \), and let \( w_k = \text{fw}((b_{k+1}+b_k)/2) \) for \( k = 0, \ldots, n-1. \)

Complexity: The number of invocations of \( \text{fw} \) shall not exceed \( n. \)

template<Callable<auto, double> Func>
requires Convertible<Func::result_type, double>
piecewise_constant_distribution(size_t nw, RealType xmin, RealType xmax, Func fw);

Precondition: If \( \text{nw} = 0 \), let \( n = 1, \) otherwise let \( n = \text{nw}. \) The relation \( 0 < \delta = (\text{xmax} - \text{xmin})/n \) shall hold.

Effects: Constructs a piecewise_constant_distribution object with parameters taken or calculated from the following values: Let \( b_k = \text{xmin}+k\cdot\delta \) for \( k = 0, \ldots, n \), and \( w_k = \text{fw}(b_k+\delta/2) \) for \( k = 0, \ldots, n-1. \)

Complexity: The number of invocations of \( \text{fw} \) shall not exceed \( n. \)

vector<result_type> intervals() const;

Returns: A vector<result_type> whose size member returns \( n + 1 \) and whose operator[] member returns \( b_k \) when invoked with argument \( k \) for \( k = 0, \ldots, n. \)

vector<double> densities() const;

Returns: A vector<result_type> whose size member returns \( n \) and whose operator[] member returns \( \rho_k \) when invoked with argument \( k \) for \( k = 0, \ldots, n-1. \)
26.5.8.5.3 Class template piecewise_linear_distribution

A piecewise_linear_distribution random number distribution produces random numbers \( x, \, b_0 \leq x < b_n \), distributed over each subinterval \([b_i, b_{i+1})\) according to the probability density function

\[
p(x \mid b_0, \ldots, b_n, \rho_0, \ldots, \rho_n) = \rho_i \cdot \frac{x - b_i}{b_{i+1} - b_i} + \rho_{i+1} \cdot \frac{b_{i+1} - x}{b_{i+1} - b_i}, \text{ for } b_i \leq x < b_{i+1}.
\]

The \( n + 1 \) distribution parameters \( b_i \), also known as this distribution’s interval boundaries, shall satisfy the relation \( b_i < b_{i+1} \) for \( i = 0, \ldots, n-1 \). Unless specified otherwise, the remaining \( n + 1 \) distribution parameters are calculated as \( \rho_k = w_k / S \) for \( k = 0, \ldots, n \), in which the values \( w_k \), commonly known as the weights at boundaries, shall be non-negative, non-NaN, and non-infinity. Moreover, the following relation shall hold:

\[
0 < S = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (\rho_k + \rho_{k+1}) \cdot (b_{k+1} - b_k).
\]
piecewise_linear_distribution();

Effects: Constructs a piecewise_linear_distribution object with \( n = 1, \rho_0 = \rho_1 = 1, b_0 = 0, \) and \( b_1 = 1. \)

template<
    InputIterator IterB,
    InputIterator IterW>
requires Convertible<
    IterB::value_type,
    result_type>
    &&
    Convertible<
    IterW::value_type,
    double>

    piecewise_linear_distribution(
    IterB firstB,
    IterB lastB,
    IterW firstW);

Precondition: If \( \text{firstB} == \text{lastB} \) or \( ++\text{firstB} == \text{lastB} \), let \( n = 1, \rho_0 = \rho_1 = 1, b_0 = 0, \) and \( b_1 = 1. \) Otherwise, \([\text{firstB}, \text{lastB})\] shall form a sequence \( b \) of length \( n + 1 \), the length of the sequence \( w \) starting from \( \text{firstW} \) shall be at least \( n + 1 \), and any \( w_k \) for \( k \geq n + 1 \) shall be ignored by the distribution.

Effects: Constructs a piecewise_linear_distribution object with parameters as specified above.

template<
    Callable<
        auto,
        RealType>
    Func>
requires Convertible<
    Func::result_type,
    double>

    piecewise_linear_distribution(
    initializer_list<
        RealType>
    bl,
    Func fw);

Effects: Constructs a piecewise_linear_distribution object with parameters taken or calculated from the following values: If \( \text{bl.size()} < 2 \), let \( n = 1, \rho_0 = \rho_1 = 1, b_0 = 0, \) and \( b_1 = 1. \) Otherwise, let \( [\text{bl.begin()}, \text{bl.end()}) \) form a sequence \( b_0, \ldots, b_n \), and let \( w_k = \text{fw}(b_k) \) for \( k = 0, \ldots, n. \)

Complexity: The number of invocations of \( \text{fw} \) shall not exceed \( n + 1 \).

template<
    Callable<
        auto,
        double>
    Func>
requires Convertible<
    Func::result_type,
    double>

    piecewise_linear_distribution(
    size_t nw,
    RealType xmin,
    RealType xmax,
    Func fw);

Precondition: If \( \text{nw} = 0 \), let \( n = 1 \), otherwise let \( n = \text{nw}. \) The relation \( 0 < \delta = (\text{xmax} - \text{xmin})/n \) shall hold.

Effects: Constructs a piecewise_linear_distribution object with parameters taken or calculated from the following values: Let \( b_k = \text{xmin} + k \cdot \delta \) for \( k = 0, \ldots, n, \) and \( w_k = \text{fw}(b_k + \delta) \) for \( k = 0, \ldots, n. \)

Complexity: The number of invocations of \( \text{fw} \) shall not exceed \( n + 1 \).

vector<
    result_type>
    intervals() const;

Returns: A vector<result_type> whose size member returns \( n + 1 \) and whose operator[] member returns \( b_k \) when invoked with argument \( k \) for \( k = 0, \ldots, n. \)

template<class T>
    class valarray;

class slice; // A BLAS-like slice out of an array

26.6 Numeric arrays [numarray]

26.6.1 Header <valarray> synopsis [valarray.syn]

namespace std {
    #include <initializer_list>

    template<class T>
        class valarray; // An array of type T

class slice; // a BLAS-like slice out of an array

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template<class T> class slice_array;
class gslice; // a generalized slice out of an array
template<class T> class gslice_array;
template<class T> class mask_array; // a masked array
template<class T> class indirect_array; // an indirected array

template<class T> void swap(valarray<T>&, valarray<T>&);

template<class T> valarray<T> operator* (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator* (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator* (const T&, const valarray<T>&);

template<class T> valarray<T> operator/ (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator/ (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator/ (const T&, const valarray<T>&);

template<class T> valarray<T> operator% (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator% (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator% (const T&, const valarray<T>&);

template<class T> valarray<T> operator+ (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator+ (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator+ (const T&, const valarray<T>&);

template<class T> valarray<T> operator- (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator- (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator- (const T&, const valarray<T>&);

template<class T> valarray<T> operator^ (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator^ (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator^ (const T&, const valarray<T>&);

template<class T> valarray<T> operator& (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator& (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator& (const T&, const valarray<T>&);

template<class T> valarray<T> operator| (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator| (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator| (const T&, const valarray<T>&);

template<class T> valarray<T> operator<< (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator<< (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator<< (const T&, const valarray<T>&);

template<class T> valarray<T> operator>> (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator>> (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator>>(const T&, const valarray<T>&);

template<class T> valarray<bool> operator&&(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator&&(const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator&&(const T&, const valarray<T>&);

template<class T> valarray<bool> operator||(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator||(const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator||(const T&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T>
  valarray<bool> operator==(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator==(const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator==(const T&, const valarray<T>&);

valarray<bool> operator!=(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator!=(const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator!=(const T&, const valarray<T>&);

valarray<bool> operator<(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator<(const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator<(const T&, const valarray<T>&);

valarray<bool> operator>(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator>(const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator>(const T&, const valarray<T>&);

valarray<bool> operator<=(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator<=(const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator<=(const T&, const valarray<T>&);

valarray<bool> operator>=(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator>=(const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator>=(const T&, const valarray<T>&);

valarray<T> abs (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> acos (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> asin (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> atan (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> atan2(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> atan2(const valarray<T>&, const T&);
valarray<T> atan2(const T&, const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> cos (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> cosh (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> exp (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> log (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> log10(const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> pow(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> pow(const valarray<T>&, const T&);
valarray<T> pow(const T&, const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> sin (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> sinh (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> sqrt (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> tan (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T> tanh (const valarray<T>&);

template<class T> unspecified1 begin (valarray<T>& v);
template<class T> unspecified2 begin (const valarray<T>& v);
template<class T> unspecified1 end (valarray<T>& v);
template <class T> unspecified2 end(const valarray<T>& v);
}

1 The header `<valarray>` defines five class templates (`valarray`, `slice_array`, `gslice_array`, `mask_array`, and `indirect_array`), two classes (`slice` and `gslice`), and a series of related function templates for representing and manipulating arrays of values.

2 The `valarray` array classes are defined to be free of certain forms of aliasing, thus allowing operations on these classes to be optimized.

3 Any function returning a `valarray<T>` is permitted to return an object of another type, provided all the const member functions of `valarray<T>` are also applicable to this type. This return type shall not add more than two levels of template nesting over the most deeply nested argument type.278

4 Implementations introducing such replacement types shall provide additional functions and operators as follows:

   — for every function taking a `const valarray<T>&`, identical functions taking the replacement types shall be added;
   — for every function taking two `const valarray<T>&` arguments, identical functions taking every combination of `const valarray<T>&` and replacement types shall be added.

5 In particular, an implementation shall allow a `valarray<T>` to be constructed from such replacement types and shall allow assignments and computed assignments of such types to `valarray<T>`, `slice_array<T>`, `gslice_array<T>`, `mask_array<T>` and `indirect_array<T>` objects.

6 These library functions are permitted to throw a `bad_alloc` (18.6.2.1) exception if there are not sufficient resources available to carry out the operation. Note that the exception is not mandated.

26.6.2 Class template valarray

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<class T> class valarray {
        public:
            typedef T value_type;
            // 26.6.2.1 construct/destroy:
            valarray();
            explicit valarray(size_t);
            valarray(const T&, size_t);
            valarray(const T*, size_t);
            valarray(const valarray&);
            valarray(valarray&&);
            valarray(const slice_array<T>&);
            valarray(const gslice_array<T>&);
            valarray(const mask_array<T>&);
            valarray(const indirect_array<T>&);
            valarray(initializer_list<T>);
            ~valarray();
        
        // 26.6.2.2 assignment:
            valarray<T>& operator=(const valarray<T>&);
    }
}
```

278) Clause 18.3.1 recommends a minimum number of recursively nested template instantiations. This requirement thus indirectly suggests a minimum allowable complexity for valarray expressions.
valarray<T>& operator=(valarray<T>&&);
valarray& operator=(initializer_list<T>);
valarray<T>& operator=(const T&);
valarray<T>& operator=(const slice_array<T>&);
valarray<T>& operator=(const gslice_array<T>&);
valarray<T>& operator=(const mask_array<T>&);
valarray<T>& operator=(const indirect_array<T>&);

// 26.6.2.3 element access:
const T& operator[](size_t) const;
T& operator[](size_t);

// 26.6.2.4 subset operations:
valarray<T> operator[](slice) const;
slice_array<T> operator[](slice);
valarray<T> operator[](const gslice&)
const;
gslice_array<T> operator[](const gslice&);
valarray<T> operator[](const valarray<bool>&)
const;
mask_array<T> operator[](const valarray<bool>&);
valarray<T> operator[](const valarray<size_t>&)
const;
indirect_array<T> operator[](const valarray<size_t>&);

// 26.6.2.5 unary operators:
valarray<T> operator+() const;
valarray<T> operator-() const;
valarray<T> operator~() const;
valarray<bool> operator!() const;

// 26.6.2.6 computed assignment:
valarray<T>& operator*= (const T&);
valarray<T>& operator/= (const T&);
valarray<T>& operator%= (const T&);
valarray<T>& operator+= (const T&);
valarray<T>& operator-= (const T&);
valarray<T>& operator^= (const T&);
valarray<T>& operator&= (const T&);
valarray<T>& operator|= (const T&);
valarray<T>& operator<<=(const T&);
valarray<T>& operator>>=(const T&);
valarray<T>& operator*= (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T>& operator/= (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T>& operator%= (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T>& operator+= (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T>& operator-= (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T>& operator^= (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T>& operator|= (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T>& operator&= (const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T>& operator<<=(const valarray<T>&);
valarray<T>& operator>>=(const valarray<T>&);

// 26.6.2.7 member functions:
void swap(valarray&);
size_t size() const;

§ 26.6.2
The class template `valarray<T>` is a one-dimensional smart array, with elements numbered sequentially from zero. It is a representation of the mathematical concept of an ordered set of values. The illusion of higher dimensionality may be produced by the familiar idiom of computed indices, together with the powerful subsetting capabilities provided by the generalized subscript operators.\(^{279}\)

An implementation is permitted to qualify any of the functions declared in `<valarray>` as `inline`.\(^{280}\)

### 26.6.2.1 `valarray` constructors

```cpp
valarray<T> shift (int) const;
valarray<T> cshift (int) const;
valarray<T> apply (T func(T)) const;
valarray<T> apply (T func (const T&)) const;
void resize (size_t sz, T c = T());
```

1. **valarray();**
   Effects: Constructs an object of class `valarray<T>` which has zero length.\(^ {281}\)

2. **explicit valarray(size_t);**
   The array created by this constructor has a length equal to the value of the argument. The elements of the array are value-initialized (8.5).

3. **valarray(const T&, size_t);**
   The array created by this constructor has a length equal to the second argument. The elements of the array are initialized with the value of the first argument.

4. **valarray(const T*, size_t);**
   The array created by this constructor has a length equal to the second argument n. The values of the elements of the array are initialized with the first n values pointed to by the first argument.\(^ {282}\) If the value of the second argument is greater than the number of values pointed to by the first argument, the behavior is undefined.

5. **valarray(const valarray<T>&);**
   The array created by this constructor has the same length as the argument array. The elements are initialized with the values of the corresponding elements of the argument array.\(^ {283}\)

6. **valarray(valarray<T>&& v);**

\(^{279}\) The intent is to specify an array template that has the minimum functionality necessary to address aliasing ambiguities and the proliferation of temporaries. Thus, the `valarray` template is neither a matrix class nor a field class. However, it is a very useful building block for designing such classes.

\(^{280}\) For convenience, such objects are referred to as “arrays” throughout the remainder of 26.6.

\(^{281}\) This default constructor is essential, since arrays of `valarray` may be useful. The length of an empty array can be increased. After initialization, the length of an empty array can be increased with the `resize` member function.

\(^{282}\) This constructor is the preferred method for converting a C array to a `valarray` object.

\(^{283}\) This copy constructor creates a distinct array rather than an alias. Implementations in which arrays share storage are permitted, but they shall implement a copy-on-reference mechanism to ensure that arrays are conceptually distinct.
The array created by this constructor has the same length as the argument array. The elements are initialized with the values of the corresponding elements of the argument array. After construction, \( v \) is in a valid but unspecified state.

**Complexity:** Constant.

**Throws:** Nothing.

\[
\text{valarray(initializer\_list<T> il);} \\
\text{Effects: Same as valarray(il.begin(), il.end()).}
\]

\[
\text{valarray(const slice\_array<T>&);} \\
\text{valarray(const gslice\_array<T>&);} \\
\text{valarray(const mask\_array<T>&);} \\
\text{valarray(const indirect\_array<T>&);} \\
\]

These conversion constructors convert one of the four reference templates to a valarray.

\[
\text{~valarray();} \\
\text{The destructor is applied to every element of } *this; \text{ an implementation may return all allocated memory.}
\]

26.6.2.2 valarray assignment

\[
\text{valarray\_T\& operator=(const valarray\_T\& & v);} \\
\text{Effects: Each element of the } *this \text{ array is assigned the value of the corresponding element of the argument array. The resulting behavior is undefined if the length of the argument array } v \text{ is not equal to the length of the } *this \text{ array. resizes } *this \text{ to make the two arrays the same length, as if by calling resize(v.size()), before performing the assignment.}
\]

\[
\text{Postcondition: size() == v.size().}
\]

\[
\text{valarray\_T\& operator=(valarray\_T\& & v);} \\
\text{Effects: } *this \text{ obtains the value of } v. \text{ After the assignment, } v \text{ is in a valid but unspecified state. If the length of } v \text{ is not equal to the length of } *this, \text{ resizes } *this \text{ to make the two arrays the same length, as if by calling resize(v.size()), before performing the assignment.}
\]

\[
\text{Complexity: Constant.} \\
\text{Throws: Nothing.}
\]

\[
\text{valarray\& operator=(initializer\_list<T> il);} \\
\text{Effects: } *this = \text{valarray}(il). \\
\text{Returns: } *this.
\]

\[
\text{valarray\_T\& operator=(const T&);} \\
\text{The scalar assignment operator causes each element of the } *this \text{ array to be assigned the value of the argument.}
\]

\[
\text{valarray\_T\& operator=(const slice\_array<T>&);} \\
\text{valarray\_T\& operator=(const gslice\_array<T>&);} \\
\text{valarray\_T\& operator=(const mask\_array<T>&);} \\
\text{valarray\_T\& operator=(const indirect\_array<T>&);} \\
\]

§ 26.6.2.2
Requires: The length of the array to which the argument refers equals \texttt{size()}. These operators allow the results of a generalized subscripting operation to be assigned directly to a \texttt{valarray}. If the value of an element in the left-hand side of a \texttt{valarray} assignment operator depends on the value of another element in that left-hand side, the resulting behavior is undefined.

26.6.2.3 \texttt{valarray} element access

\begin{verbatim}
const T& operator[](size_t) const;
T& operator[](size_t);
\end{verbatim}

The subscript operator returns a reference to the corresponding element of the array.

Thus, the expression (\texttt{a[i] = q, a[i]} == q) evaluates as true for any non-constant \texttt{valarray<T> a}, any \texttt{T q}, and for any \texttt{size_t i} such that the value of \texttt{i} is less than the length of \texttt{a}.

The expression \texttt{&a[i+j] == &a[i] + j} evaluates as true for all \texttt{size_t i} and \texttt{size_t j} such that \texttt{i+j} is less than the length of the array \texttt{a}.

Likewise, the expression \texttt{&a[i] != &b[j]} evaluates as \texttt{true} for any two arrays \texttt{a} and \texttt{b} and for any \texttt{size_t i} and \texttt{size_t j} such that \texttt{i} is less than the length of \texttt{a} and \texttt{j} is less than the length of \texttt{b}. This property indicates an absence of aliasing and may be used to advantage by optimizing compilers.\footnote{Compilers may take advantage of inlining, constant propagation, loop fusion, tracking of pointers obtained from \texttt{operator new}, and other techniques to generate efficient \texttt{valarrays}.}

The reference returned by the subscript operator for an array is guaranteed to be valid until the member function \texttt{resize(size_t, T)} (26.6.2.7) is called for that array or until the lifetime of that array ends, whichever happens first.

If the subscript operator is invoked with a \texttt{size_t} argument whose value is not less than the length of the array, the behavior is undefined.

26.6.2.4 \texttt{valarray} subset operations

\begin{verbatim}
valarray<T> operator[](slice) const;
slice_array<T> operator[](slice);
valarray<T> operator[](const gslice&) const;
gslice_array<T> operator[](const gslice&);
valarray<T> operator[](const valarray<bool>&) const;
mask_array<T> operator[](const valarray<bool>&);
valarray<T> operator[](const valarray<size_t>&) const;
indirect_array<T> operator[](const valarray<size_t>&);
\end{verbatim}

Each of these operations returns a subset of the array. The \texttt{const}-qualified versions return this subset as a new \texttt{valarray}. The non-\texttt{const} versions return a class template object which has reference semantics to the original array.

26.6.2.5 \texttt{valarray} unary operators

\begin{verbatim}
valarray<T> operator+() const;
valarray<T> operator-() const;
valarray<T> operator~() const;
valarray<bool> operator!() const;
\end{verbatim}

\footnote{Compilers may take advantage of inlining, constant propagation, loop fusion, tracking of pointers obtained from \texttt{operator new}, and other techniques to generate efficient \texttt{valarrays}.}
Each of these operators may only be instantiated for a type `T` to which the indicated operator can be applied and for which the indicated operator returns a value which is of type `T` (bool for `operator!`) or which may be unambiguously implicitly converted to type `T` (bool for `operator!`).

Each of these operators returns an array whose length is equal to the length of the array. Each element of the returned array is initialized with the result of applying the indicated operator to the corresponding element of the array.

### 26.6.2.6 valarray computed assignment

[valarray.cassign]

```cpp
class valarray {
public:
  valarray<T>& operator*=(const valarray<T>&);
  valarray<T>& operator/=(const valarray<T>&);
  valarray<T>& operator%=(const valarray<T>&);
  valarray<T>& operator+=(const valarray<T>&);
  valarray<T>& operator-=(const valarray<T>&);
  valarray<T>& operator^=(const valarray<T>&);
  valarray<T>& operator&=(const valarray<T>&);
  valarray<T>& operator|=(const valarray<T>&);
  valarray<T>& operator<<=(const valarray<T>&);
  valarray<T>& operator>>=(const valarray<T>&);

private:
```

Each of these operators may only be instantiated for a type `T` to which the indicated operator can be applied. Each of these operators performs the indicated operation on each of its elements and the corresponding element of the argument array.

The array is then returned by reference.

If the array and the argument array do not have the same length, the behavior is undefined. The appearance of an array on the left-hand side of a computed assignment does **not** invalidate references or pointers.

If the value of an element in the left-hand side of a valarray computed assignment operator depends on the value of another element in that left hand side, the resulting behavior is undefined.

```cpp
valarray<T>& operator*=(const T&);
valarray<T>& operator/=(const T&);
valarray<T>& operator%=(const T&);
valarray<T>& operator+=(const T&);
valarray<T>& operator-=(const T&);
valarray<T>& operator^=(const T&);
valarray<T>& operator&=(const T&);
valarray<T>& operator|=(const T&);
valarray<T>& operator<<=(const T&);
valarray<T>& operator>>=(const T&);
```

Each of these operators may only be instantiated for a type `T` to which the indicated operator can be applied.

Each of these operators applies the indicated operation to each element of the array and the non-array argument.

The array is then returned by reference.

The appearance of an array on the left-hand side of a computed assignment does **not** invalidate references or pointers to the elements of the array.
26.6.2.7 valarray member functions

void swap(valarray<T>& v);

Effects: *this obtains the value of v. v obtains the value of *this.

Complexity: Constant.

Throws: Nothing.

size_t size() const;

Returns: the number of elements in the array.

Complexity: constant time.

T sum() const;

The function may only be instantiated for a type T to which operator+= can be applied. This function returns the sum of all the elements of the array.

If the array has length 0, the behavior is undefined. If the array has length 1, sum() returns the value of element 0. Otherwise, the returned value is calculated by applying operator+= to a copy of an element of the array and all other elements of the array in an unspecified order.

T min() const;

This function returns the minimum value contained in *this. The value returned for an array of length 0 is undefined. For an array of length 1, the value of element 0 is returned. For all other array lengths, the determination is made using operator<.

T max() const;

This function returns the maximum value contained in *this. The value returned for an array of length 0 is undefined. For an array of length 1, the value of element 0 is returned. For all other array lengths, the determination is made using operator<.

valarray<T> shift(int n) const;

This function returns an object of class valarray<T> of length size(), each of whose elements I is (*this)[I + n] if I + n is non-negative and less than size(), otherwise T(). Thus if element zero is taken as the leftmost element, a positive value of n shifts the elements left n places, with zero fill.

[Example: If the argument has the value -2, the first two elements of the result will be value-initialized (8.5); the third element of the result will be assigned the value of the first element of the argument; etc. — end example]

valarray<T> cshift(int n) const;

This function returns an object of class valarray<T> of length size() that is a circular shift of *this. If element zero is taken as the leftmost element, a non-negative value of n shifts the elements circularly left n places and a negative value of n shifts the elements circularly right -n places.

valarray<T> apply(T func(T)) const;
valarray<T> apply(T func(const T&)) const;

These functions return an array whose length is equal to the array. Each element of the returned array is assigned the value returned by applying the argument function to the corresponding element of the array.
void resize(size_t sz, T c = T());

This member function changes the length of the *this array to sz and then assigns to each element the value of the second argument. Resizing invalidates all pointers and references to elements in the array.

26.6.3 valarray non-member operations

26.6.3.1 valarray binary operators

```cpp
template<class T> valarray<T> operator* (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator/ (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator% (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator+ (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator- (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator^ (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
```

1 Each of these operators may only be instantiated for a type T to which the indicated operator can be applied and for which the indicated operator returns a value which is of type T or which can be unambiguously implicitly converted to type T.

2 Each of these operators returns an array whose length is equal to the lengths of the argument arrays. Each element of the returned array is initialized with the result of applying the indicated operator to the corresponding elements of the argument arrays.

3 If the argument arrays do not have the same length, the behavior is undefined.

```cpp
template<class T> valarray<T> operator* (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator* (const T&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator/ (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator/ (const T&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator% (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator% (const T&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator+ (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator+ (const T&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator- (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator- (const T&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator^ (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator^ (const T&, const valarray<T>&);
```

§ 26.6.3.1
template<class T> valarray<T> operator| (const T&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator<<(const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> operator>>(const valarray<T>&, const T&);

Each of these operators may only be instantiated for a type \( T \) to which the indicated operator can be applied and for which the indicated operator returns a value which is of type \( T \) or which can be unambiguously implicitly converted to type \( T \).

Each of these operators returns an array whose length is equal to the length of the array argument. Each element of the returned array is initialized with the result of applying the indicated operator to the corresponding element of the array argument and the non-array argument.

### 26.6.3.2 valarray logical operators

```cpp
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator==(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator!=(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator<(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator>(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator<=(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator>=(const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
```

Each of these operators may only be instantiated for a type \( T \) to which the indicated operator can be applied and for which the indicated operator returns a value which is of type bool or which can be unambiguously implicitly converted to type bool.

Each of these operators returns a bool array whose length is equal to the length of the array arguments. Each element of the returned array is initialized with the result of applying the indicated operator to the corresponding elements of the argument arrays.

If the two array arguments do not have the same length, the behavior is undefined.
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator&& (const T&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator||(const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<bool> operator||(const T&, const valarray<T>&);

4 Each of these operators may only be instantiated for a type T to which the indicated operator can be applied and for which the indicated operator returns a value which is of type bool or which can be unambiguously implicitly converted to type bool.

5 Each of these operators returns a bool array whose length is equal to the length of the array argument. Each element of the returned array is initialized with the result of applying the indicated operator to the corresponding element of the array and the non-array argument.

26.6.3.3 valarray transcendental [valarray.transcend]

template<class T> valarray<T> abs (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> acos (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> asin (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> atan (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> atan2 (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> atan2 (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> atan2 (const T&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> cos (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> cosh (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> exp (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> log (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> log10 (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> pow (const valarray<T>&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> pow (const valarray<T>&, const T&);
template<class T> valarray<T> pow (const T&, const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> sin (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> sinh (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> sqrt (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> tan (const valarray<T>&);
template<class T> valarray<T> tanh (const valarray<T>&);

1 Each of these functions may only be instantiated for a type T to which a unique function with the indicated name can be applied (unqualified). This function shall return a value which is of type T or which can be unambiguously implicitly converted to type T.

26.6.3.4 valarray specialized algorithms [valarray.special]

template <class T> void swap(valarray<T>& x, valarray<T>& y);

1 Effects: x.swap(y).

26.6.4 Class slice [class.slice]

namespace std {
    class slice {
    public:
        slice();
        slice(size_t, size_t, size_t);
The `slice` class represents a BLAS-like slice from an array. Such a slice is specified by a starting index, a length, and a stride.\footnote{BLAS stands for Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms. C++ programs may instantiate this class. See, for example, Dongarra, Du Croz, Duff, and Hammerling: A set of Level 3 Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms; Technical Report MCS-P1-0888, Argonne National Laboratory (USA), Mathematics and Computer Science Division, August, 1988.}

### 26.6.4.1 slice constructors

```cpp
slice();
slice(size_t start, size_t length, size_t stride);
slice(const slice&);
```

The default constructor is equivalent to `slice(0, 0, 0)`. A default constructor is provided only to permit the declaration of arrays of slices. The constructor with arguments for a slice takes a start, length, and stride parameter.

- Example: `slice(3, 8, 2)` constructs a slice which selects elements 3, 5, 7, ... 17 from an array.  

### 26.6.4.2 slice access functions

```cpp
size_t start() const;
size_t size() const;
size_t stride() const;
```

**Returns:** the start, length, or stride specified by a `slice` object.

**Complexity:** constant time.

### 26.6.5 Class template slice_array

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class T> class slice_array {
        public:
            typedef T value_type;

            void operator= (const valarray<T>&) const;
            void operator*= (const valarray<T>&) const;
            void operator/= (const valarray<T>&) const;
            void operator%= (const valarray<T>&) const;
            void operator^= (const valarray<T>&) const;
            void operator&= (const valarray<T>&) const;
            void operator|= (const valarray<T>&) const;
            void operator<<=(const valarray<T>&) const;
            void operator>>=(const valarray<T>&) const;
            slice_array(const slice_array&);

    };
}
```
The slice_array template is a helper template used by the slice subscript operator

```
slice_array<T> valarray<T>::operator[](slice);
```

It has reference semantics to a subset of an array specified by a slice object.

Example: The expression 

```
a[slice(1, 5, 3)] = b;
```

has the effect of assigning the elements of b to a slice of the elements in a. For the slice shown, the elements selected from a are 1, 4, ..., 13. — end example

26.6.5.1 slice_array assignment

These assignment operators have reference semantics, assigning the values of the argument array elements to selected elements of the valarray<T> object to which the slice_array object refers.

26.6.5.2 slice_array computed assignment

These computed assignments have reference semantics, applying the indicated operation to the elements of the argument array and selected elements of the valarray<T> object to which the slice_array object refers.

26.6.5.3 slice_array fill function

This function has reference semantics, assigning the value of its argument to the elements of the valarray<T> object to which the slice_array object refers.

26.6.6 The gslice class

This function has reference semantics, assigning the value of its argument to the elements of the valarray<T> object to which the slice_array object refers.
This class represents a generalized slice out of an array. A \texttt{gslice} is defined by a starting offset \((s)\), a set of lengths \((l_j)\), and a set of strides \((d_j)\). The number of lengths shall equal the number of strides.

A \texttt{gslice} represents a mapping from a set of indices \((i_j)\), equal in number to the number of strides, to a single index \(k\). It is useful for building multidimensional array classes using the \texttt{valarray} template, which is one-dimensional. The set of one-dimensional index values specified by a \texttt{gslice} are

\[
k = s + \sum_j i_j d_j
\]

where the multidimensional indices \(i_j\) range in value from 0 to \(l_{ij} - 1\).

[Example: The \texttt{gslice} specification]

\begin{verbatim}
start  = 3
length = \{2, 4, 3\}
stride = \{19, 4, 1\}
\end{verbatim}

yields the sequence of one-dimensional indices

\[
k = 3 + (0,1) \times 19 + (0,1,2,3) \times 4 + (0,1) \times 1
\]

which are ordered as shown in the following table:

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
(0,0,0,3), \\
(0,0,1,4), \\
(0,0,2,5), \\
(0,1,0,7), \\
(0,1,1,8), \\
(0,1,2,9), \\
(0,2,0,11), \\
(0,2,1,12), \\
(0,2,2,13), \\
(0,3,0,15), \\
(0,3,1,16), \\
(0,3,2,17), \\
(1,0,0,22), \\
(1,0,1,23), \\
\ldots \\
(1,3,2,36)
\end{array}
\]

That is, the highest-ordered index turns fastest. — \textit{end example}]

It is possible to have degenerate generalized slices in which an address is repeated.

[Example: If the stride parameters in the previous example are changed to \{1, 1, 1\}, the first few elements of the resulting sequence of indices will be]
If a degenerate slice is used as the argument to the non-const version of `operator[](const gslice&)`, the resulting behavior is undefined.

### 26.6.6.1 gslice constructors

```cpp
gslice();
gslice(size_t start, const valarray<size_t>& lengths,
    const valarray<size_t>& strides);
gslice(const gslice&);
```

The default constructor is equivalent to `gslice(0, valarray<size_t>(), valarray<size_t>())`. The constructor with arguments builds a `gslice` based on a specification of start, lengths, and strides, as explained in the previous section.

### 26.6.6.2 gslice access functions

```cpp
size_t start() const;
valarray<size_t> size() const;
valarray<size_t> stride() const;
```

Returns: the representation of the start, lengths, or strides specified for the `gslice`.

Complexity: `start()` is constant time. `size()` and `stride()` are linear in the number of strides.

### 26.6.7 Class template gslice_array

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class T> class gslice_array {
    public:
        typedef T value_type;

        void operator= (const valarray<T>&) const;
        void operator*= (const valarray<T>&) const;
        void operator/= (const valarray<T>&) const;
        void operator%= (const valarray<T>&) const;
        void operator+= (const valarray<T>&) const;
        void operator-= (const valarray<T>&) const;
        void operator^= (const valarray<T>&) const;
        void operator&= (const valarray<T>&) const;
        void operator|= (const valarray<T>&) const;
        void operator<<=(const valarray<T>&) const;
        void operator>>=(const valarray<T>&) const;

        gslice_array(const gslice_array&);
        gslice_array();
    }
}
```
const gslice_array& operator=(const gslice_array&) const;
void operator=(const T&) const;

gslice_array() = delete; // as implied by declaring copy constructor above

This template is a helper template used by the slice subscript operator
gslice_array<T> valarray<T>::operator[](const gslice&);

It has reference semantics to a subset of an array specified by a gslice object.

Thus, the expression a[gslice(1, length, stride)] = b has the effect of assigning the elements of b to a generalized slice of the elements in a.

26.6.7.1 gslice_array assignment

These assignment operators have reference semantics, assigning the values of the argument array elements to selected elements of the valarray<T> object to which the gslice_array refers.

26.6.7.2 gslice_array

These computed assignments have reference semantics, applying the indicated operation to the elements of the argument array and selected elements of the valarray<T> object to which the gslice_array object refers.

26.6.7.3 gslice_array fill function

This function has reference semantics, assigning the value of its argument to the elements of the valarray<T> object to which the gslice_array object refers.

26.6.8 Class template mask_array

namespace std {
  template <class T> class mask_array {
  public:
    typedef T value_type;

  ...
This template is a helper template used by the mask subscript operator:

```cpp
mask_array<T> valarray<T>::operator[] (const valarray<bool>&).
```

It has reference semantics to a subset of an array specified by a boolean mask. Thus, the expression

```cpp
a[mask] = b;
```

has the effect of assigning the elements of `b` to the masked elements in `a` (those for which the corresponding element in `mask` is `true`).

### 26.6.8.1 mask_array assignment

```cpp
void operator=(const valarray<T>&) const;
const mask_array& operator=(const mask_array&) const;
```

These assignment operators have reference semantics, assigning the values of the argument array elements to selected elements of the `valarray<T>` object to which it refers.

### 26.6.8.2 mask_array computed assignment

```cpp
void operator+=(const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator-=(const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator^=(const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator&=(const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator|=(const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator<<=(const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator>>=(const valarray<T>&) const;
```

These computed assignments have reference semantics, applying the indicated operation to the elements of the argument array and selected elements of the `valarray<T>` object to which the mask object refers.

### 26.6.8.3 mask_array fill function

```cpp
§ 26.6.8.3
```
This function has reference semantics, assigning the value of its argument to the elements of the `valarray<T>` object to which the `mask_array` object refers.

### 26.6.9 Class template indirect_array  

```cpp
template <class T> class indirect_array {
public:
    typedef T value_type;

    void operator=(const valarray<T>&) const;
    void operator*= (const valarray<T>&) const;
    void operator/= (const valarray<T>&) const;
    void operator%= (const valarray<T>&) const;
    void operator+= (const valarray<T>&) const;
    void operator-= (const valarray<T>&) const;
    void operator^= (const valarray<T>&) const;
    void operator&= (const valarray<T>&) const;
    void operator|= (const valarray<T>&) const;
    void operator<<=(const valarray<T>&) const;
    void operator>>=(const valarray<T>&) const;

    indirect_array(const indirect_array&);
    ~indirect_array();
    const indirect_array& operator=(const indirect_array&) const;
    void operator=(const T&) const;
    indirect_array() = delete;  // as implied by declaring copy constructor above
};
```

This template is a helper template used by the indirect subscript operator `indirect_array<T> valarray<T>::operator[](const valarray<size_t>&)`.

It has reference semantics to a subset of an array specified by an `indirect_array`. Thus the expression `a[indirect] = b;` has the effect of assigning the elements of `b` to the elements in `a` whose indices appear in `indirect`.

#### 26.6.9.1 indirect_array assignment  

```cpp
void operator=(const valarray<T>&) const;
const indirect_array& operator=(const indirect_array&) const;
```

These assignment operators have reference semantics, assigning the values of the argument array elements to selected elements of the `valarray<T>` object to which it refers.

If the `indirect_array` specifies an element in the `valarray<T>` object to which it refers more than once, the behavior is undefined.

Example:

```cpp
int addr[] = {2, 3, 1, 4, 4};
valarray<size_t> indirect(addr, 5);
```
valarray<double> a(0., 10), b(1., 5);
a[indirect] = b;

results in undefined behavior since element 4 is specified twice in the indirection. — end example]

26.6.9.2 indirect_array computed assignment [indirect.array.comp.assign]

void operator*= (const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator/= (const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator%= (const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator+= (const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator-= (const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator^= (const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator&= (const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator|= (const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator<<=(const valarray<T>&) const;
void operator>>=(const valarray<T>&) const;

1 These computed assignments have reference semantics, applying the indicated operation to the elements of the argument array and selected elements of the valarray<T> object to which the indirect_array object refers.
2 If the indirect_array specifies an element in the valarray<T> object to which it refers more than once, the behavior is undefined.

26.6.9.3 indirect_array fill function [indirect.array.fill]

void operator=(const T&) const;

1 This function has reference semantics, assigning the value of its argument to the elements of the valarray<T> object to which the indirect_array object refers.

26.6.10 valarray range access [valarray.range]

1 In the begin and end function templates that follow, unspecified1 is a type that meets the requirements of a mutable random access iterator (24.2.5) whose value_type is the template parameter T and whose reference type is T&. unspecified2 is a type that meets the requirements of a constant random access iterator (24.2.5) whose value_type is the template parameter T and whose reference type is const T&.

template <class T>
unspecified1 begin(valarray<T>& v);
template <class T>
unspecified2 begin(const valarray<T>& v);

2 Returns: an iterator referencing the first value in the numeric array.

template <class T>
unspecified1 end(valarray<T>& v);
template <class T>
unspecified2 end(const valarray<T>& v);

3 Returns: an iterator referencing one past the last value in the numeric array.

26.7 Generalized numeric operations [numeric.ops]

Header <numeric> synopsis
namespace std {
    template <class InputIterator, class T>
    T accumulate(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, T init);
    template <class InputIterator, class T, class BinaryOperation>
    T accumulate(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, T init,
                  BinaryOperation binary_op);

    template <class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class T>
    T inner_product(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
                    InputIterator2 first2, T init);
    template <class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class T,
              class BinaryOperation1, class BinaryOperation2>
    T inner_product(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
                    InputIterator2 first2, T init,
                    BinaryOperation1 binary_op1,
                    BinaryOperation2 binary_op2);

    template <class InputIterator, class OutputIterator>
    OutputIterator partial_sum(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                                 OutputIterator result);
    template <class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class BinaryOperation>
    OutputIterator partial_sum(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                                 OutputIterator result,
                                 BinaryOperation binary_op);

    template <class InputIterator, class OutputIterator>
    OutputIterator adjacent_difference(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                                         OutputIterator result);
    template <class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class BinaryOperation>
    OutputIterator adjacent_difference(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                                         OutputIterator result,
                                         BinaryOperation binary_op);

    template <class ForwardIterator, class T>
    void iota(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, T value);
}

The requirements on the types of algorithms' arguments that are described in the introduction to Clause 25 also apply to the following algorithms.

### 26.7.1 Accumulate

```cpp
template <class InputIterator, class T>
T accumulate(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, T init);
template <class InputIterator, class T, class BinaryOperation>
T accumulate(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, T init,
              BinaryOperation binary_op);
```
1  \textit{Effects}: Computes its result by initializing the accumulator \texttt{acc} with the initial value \texttt{init} and then modifies it with \texttt{acc = acc + \texttt{i} or acc = binary_op(acc, \texttt{i})} for every iterator \texttt{i} in the range \texttt{[first, last)} in order.\footnote{accumulate is similar to the APL reduction operator and Common Lisp reduce function, but it avoids the difficulty of defining the result of reduction on an empty sequence by always requiring an initial value.}

2  \textit{Requires}: \texttt{T} shall meet the requirements of CopyConstructible (34) and Assignable (23.2) types. In the range \texttt{[first, last]}, \texttt{binary_op} shall neither modify elements nor invalidate iterators or subranges.\footnote{The use of fully closed ranges is intentional.}

\section*{26.7.2 Inner product} \footnote{The use of fully closed ranges is intentional.}

\begin{verbatim}
template <class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class T>
T inner_product(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
               InputIterator2 first2, T init);

template <class InputIterator1, class InputIterator2, class T,
          class BinaryOperation1, class BinaryOperation2>
T inner_product(InputIterator1 first1, InputIterator1 last1,
               InputIterator2 first2, T init,
               BinaryOperation1 binary_op1,
               BinaryOperation2 binary_op2);
\end{verbatim}

1  \textit{Effects}: Computes its result by initializing the accumulator \texttt{acc} with the initial value \texttt{init} and then modifying it with \texttt{acc = acc + (\texttt{i1} * \texttt{i2}) or acc = binary_op1(acc, binary_op2(*\texttt{i1}, \texttt{i2})} for every iterator \texttt{i1} in the range \texttt{[first, last)} and iterator \texttt{i2} in the range \texttt{[first2, first2 + (last - first)]} in order.

2  \textit{Requires}: \texttt{T} shall meet the requirements of CopyConstructible (34) and Assignable (23.2) types. In the ranges \texttt{[first, last]} and \texttt{[first2, first2 + (last - first)]} \texttt{binary_op1} and \texttt{binary_op2} shall neither modify elements nor invalidate iterators or subranges.\footnote{The use of fully closed ranges is intentional.}

\section*{26.7.3 Partial sum} \footnote{The use of fully closed ranges is intentional.}

\begin{verbatim}
template <class InputIterator, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator partial_sum(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                           OutputIterator result);

template <class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class BinaryOperation>
OutputIterator partial_sum(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
                           OutputIterator result, BinaryOperation binary_op);
\end{verbatim}

1  \textit{Effects}: Assigns to every element referred to by iterator \texttt{i} in the range \texttt{[result, result + (last - first)]} a value correspondingly equal to

\begin{verbatim}
  (\ldots(*(\texttt{first} + *(\texttt{first} + 1)) + \ldots) + *(\texttt{first} + (i - result)))
\end{verbatim}

or

\begin{verbatim}
  binary_op(binary_op(\ldots,
                      binary_op(*\texttt{first}, *(\texttt{first} + 1)),\ldots), *(\texttt{first} + (i - result)))
\end{verbatim}
26.7.4 Adjacent difference

```
template <class InputIterator, class OutputIterator>
OutputIterator adjacent_difference(
    InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
    OutputIterator result);
```

```
template <class InputIterator, class OutputIterator, class BinaryOperation>
OutputIterator adjacent_difference(
    InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
    OutputIterator result,
    BinaryOperation binary_op);
```

Effects: Assigns to every element referred to by iterator \( i \) in the range \([\text{result} + 1, \text{result} + (\text{last} - \text{first}))\) a value correspondingly equal to

\[
*(\text{first} + (i - \text{result})) - *(\text{first} + (i - \text{result}) - 1)
\]

or

\[
\text{binary}_\text{op}(*(\text{first} + (i - \text{result})), *(\text{first} + (i - \text{result}) - 1)).
\]

result gets the value of \(*\text{first} \).

Requires: In the ranges \([\text{first}, \text{last}]\) and \([\text{result}, \text{result} + (\text{last} - \text{first})]\), \text{binary}_\text{op} shall neither modify elements nor invalidate iterators or subranges.289

Remarks: result may be equal to first.

Returns: result + (last - first).

Complexity: Exactly \((last - first) - 1\) applications of \text{binary}_\text{op}.

26.7.5 Iota

```
template <class ForwardIterator, class T>
void iota(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, T value);
```

Requires: \( T \) shall meet the requirements of CopyConstructible and Assignable types, and shall be convertible to \text{Forward}_\text{Iterator}'s value type. The expression ++val, where val has type \( T \), shall be well formed.

Effects: For each element referred to by the iterator \( i \) in the range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\), assigns \(*i = \text{value} \) and increments \( \text{value} \) as if by ++value.

Complexity: Exactly \( \text{last} - \text{first} \) increments and assignments.

289) The use of fully closed ranges is intentional.
290) The use of fully closed ranges is intentional.

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26.8 C Library

1 The header `<ctgmath>` simply includes the headers `<ccomplex>` and `<cmath>`.

2 [Note: The overloads provided in C99 by magic macros are already provided in `<ccomplex>` and `<cmath>` by “sufficient” additional overloads. — end note]

3 The header `<tgmath.h>` effectively includes the headers `<complex.h>` and `<math.h>`.

4 Tables 109 and 110 describe headers `<cmath>` and `<cstdlib>`, respectively.

Table 109 — Header `<cmath>` synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macros:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP_FAST_FMA</td>
<td>FP_ILOGBNAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP_FAST_FMAF</td>
<td>FP_INFINITE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP_FAST_FMA</td>
<td>FP_SSLBNAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP_ILOGBO</td>
<td>FP_NORMAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>double_t</td>
<td>float_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abs</td>
<td>cosh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acos</td>
<td>erf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acosh</td>
<td>erf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asin</td>
<td>exp2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asinh</td>
<td>exp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atan</td>
<td>expm1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atan2</td>
<td>fabs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atanh</td>
<td>fdim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cbt</td>
<td>floor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ceil</td>
<td>fma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>copysign</td>
<td>fmax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cos</td>
<td>fmin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Templates:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fpclassify</td>
<td>isgreater</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>islessequal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>isnan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>isunordered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isfinite</td>
<td>isinf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>islessgreater</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>isnormal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>signbit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isgreater</td>
<td>isless</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 110 — Header `<cstdlib>` synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macro:</td>
<td>RAND_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>div_t</td>
<td>ldiv_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lldiv_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abs</td>
<td>ldiv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>div</td>
<td>llabs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>labs</td>
<td>lldiv</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 The contents of these headers are the same as the Standard C library headers `<math.h>` and `<stdlib.h>` respectively, with the following changes:
The `rand` function has the semantics specified in the C standard, except that the implementation may specify that particular library functions may call `rand`. It is implementation-defined whether the `rand` function may introduce data races (17.6.4.8). [Note: The random number generation (26.5) facilities in this standard are often preferable to `rand`. — end note]

In addition to the `int` versions of certain math functions in `<cstdlib>`, C++ adds `long` and `long long` overloaded versions of these functions, with the same semantics.

The added signatures are:

```c
long abs(long); // labs()
long long abs(long long); // llabs()
ldiv_t div(long, long); // ldiv()
lldiv_t div(long long, long long); // lldiv()
```

In addition to the `double` versions of the math functions in `<cmath>`, C++ adds `float` and `long double` overloaded versions of these functions, with the same semantics.

The added signatures are:

```c
float abs(float);
float acos(float);
float acosh(float);
float asin(float);
float asinh(float);
float atan(float);
float atan2(float, float);
float atanh(float);
float cbrt(float);
float ceil(float);
float copysign(float, float);
float cos(float);
float cosh(float);
float erf(float);
float erfc(float);
float exp(float);
float exp2(float);
float expm1(float);
float fabs(float);
float fdim(float, float);
float floor(float);
float fmax(float, float);
float fmin(float, float);
float fmod(float, float);
float frexp(float, int*);
float hypot(float, float);
int ilogb(float);
float ldexp(float, int);
float lgamma(float);
long long lrint(float);
long long llrint(float);
float log(float);
float log10(float);
float log1p(float);
float log2(float);
float logb(float);
```
long lrint(float);
long lround(float);
float modf(float, float*);
float nearbyint(float);
float nextafter(float, float);
float nexttoward(float, long double);
float pow(float, float);
float remainder(float, float);
float remquo(float, float, int *);
float rint(float);
float round(float);
float scalbln(float, long);
float scalbn(float, int);
float sin(float);
float sinh(float);
float sqrt(float);
float tan(float);
float tanh(float);
float tgamma(float);
float trunc(float);

double abs(double); // fabs()

long double abs(long double);
long double acos(long double);
long double acosh(long double);
long double asin(long double);
long double asinh(long double);
long double atan(long double);
long double atan2(long double, long double);
long double atanh(long double);
long double cbrt(long double);
long double ceil(long double);
copysign(long double, long double);
long double cos(long double);
long double cosh(long double);
long double erf(long double);
long double erfc(long double);
long double exp(long double);
long double exp2(long double);
long double expm1(long double);
fabs(long double);
long double fdim(long double, long double);
long double floor(long double);
fma(long double, long double, long double);
long double fmax(long double, long double);
fmin(long double, long double);
fmod(long double, long double);
frexp(long double, int*);
long double hypot(long double, long double);
int ilogb(long double);
lrint(float, int);
lround(float, int);
llrint(long double);
llround(long double);
Moreover, there shall be additional overloads sufficient to ensure:

1. If any argument corresponding to a `double` parameter has type `long double`, then all arguments corresponding to `double` parameters are effectively cast to `long double`.

2. Otherwise, if any argument corresponding to a `double` parameter has type `double` or an integer type, then all arguments corresponding to `double` parameters are effectively cast to `double`.

3. Otherwise, all arguments corresponding to `double` parameters are effectively cast to `float`.

The templates defined in `<cmath>` replace the C99 macros with the same names. The templates have the following declarations:

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class T> bool signbit(T x);
    template <class T> int fpclassify(T x);
    template <class T> bool isfinite(T x);
    template <class T> bool isinf(T x);
    template <class T> bool isnan(T x);
    template <class T> bool isnormal(T x);
    template <class T> bool isgreater(T x, T y);
    template <class T> bool isgreaterequal(T x, T y);
    template <class T> bool isless(T x, T y);
    template <class T> bool islessequal(T x, T y);
    template <class T> bool islessgreater(T x, T y);
    template <class T> bool isunordered(T x, T y);
}
```
The templates behave the same as the C99 macros with corresponding names defined in C99 7.12.3, Classification macros, and C99 7.12.14, Comparison macros.

See also: ISO C 7.5, 7.10.2, 7.10.6.
27 Input/output library

27.1 General

This Clause describes components that C++ programs may use to perform input/output operations.

The following subclauses describe requirements for stream parameters, and components for forward declarations of iostreams, predefined iostreams objects, base iostreams classes, stream buffering, stream formatting and manipulators, string streams, and file streams, as summarized in Table 111.

Table 111 — Input/output library summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subclause</th>
<th>Header(s)</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>27.3 Forward declarations</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.4 Standard iostream objects</td>
<td>&lt;iostream&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>27.5 Iostreams base classes</td>
<td>&lt;ios&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>27.6 Stream buffers</td>
<td>&lt;streambuf&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>27.7 Formatting and manipulators</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;ostream&gt;</td>
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<td>&lt;iomanip&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>27.8 String streams</td>
<td>&lt;sstream&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>27.9 File streams</td>
<td>&lt;fstream&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;cstdio&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;cinttypes&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6 illustrates relationships among various types described in this clause. A line from A to B indicates that A is an alias (e.g. a typedef) for B or that A is defined in terms of B.

Figure 6 — Stream position, offset, and size types [non-normative]
27.2 Iostreams requirements

27.2.1 Imbue Limitations

1 No function described in Clause 27 except for `ios_base::imbue` and `basic_filebuf::pubimbue` causes any instance of `basic_ios::imbue` or `basic_streambuf::imbue` to be called. If any user function called from a function declared in Clause 27 or as an overriding virtual function of any class declared in Clause 27 calls `imbue`, the behavior is undefined.

27.2.2 Positioning Type Limitations

1 The classes of Clause 27 with template arguments `charT` and `traits` behave as described if `traits::pos_type` and `traits::off_type` are `streampos` and `streamoff` respectively. Except as noted explicitly below, their behavior when `traits::pos_type` and `traits::off_type` are other types is implementation-defined.

27.2.3 Thread safety

1 Concurrent access to a stream object (27.8, 27.9), stream buffer object (27.6), or C Library stream (27.9.2) by multiple threads may result in a data race (1.10) unless otherwise specified (27.4). [Note: data races result in undefined behavior (1.10). — end note]

27.3 Forward declarations

Header `<iosfwd>` synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
  template<class charT> class char_traits;
  template<> class char_traits<char>;
  template<> class char_traits<char16_t>;
  template<> class char_traits<char32_t>;
  template<> class char_traits<wchar_t>;
  template<class T> class allocator;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_ios;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_streambuf;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_istream;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_ostream;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_iostream;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_stringbuf;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_istringstream;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_ostringstream;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_wistringstream;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_wostream;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_wiostream;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_wstring;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_wistringstream;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_wostringstream;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_wistream;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_wostream;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_wios;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_wios;
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_what;
}
```

§ 27.3
class basic_stringstream;

template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
  class basic_filebuf;
template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
  class basic_ifstream;
template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
  class basic_ofstream;
template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
  class basic_fstream;

template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
  class istreambuf_iterator;
template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
  class ostreambuf_iterator;

typedef basic_ios<char>    ios;
typedef basic_ios<wchar_t> wios;

typedef basic_stringbuf<char> streambuf;
typedef basic_istream<char> istream;
typedef basic_ostream<char> ostream;
typedef basic_iostream<char> iostream;

typedef basic_stringbuf<char> stringbuf;
typedef basic_istream<char>  istreamstring;
typedef basic_ostream<char>  ostringstream;
typedef basic_iostream<char>  iostreamstring;

typedef basic_stringbuf<wchar_t> wstreambuf;
typedef basic_istream<wchar_t> wistream;
typedef basic_ostream<wchar_t> wostream;
typedef basic_iostream<wchar_t> wiostream;

typedef basic_stringbuf<wchar_t> wstringbuf;
typedef basic_istream<wchar_t> wistringstring;
typedef basic_ostream<wchar_t> wostreamstring;
typedef basic_iostream<wchar_t> wiostreamstring;

typedef basic_stringbuf<wchar_t> wfstreambuf;
typedef basic_istream<wchar_t> wfstream;
typedef basic_ostream<wchar_t> wofstream;
typedef basic_iostream<wchar_t> wfstream;

typedef fpos<char_traits<char>::state_type> streampos;
typedef fpos<char_traits<wchar_t>::state_type> wstreampos;

Default template arguments are described as appearing both in `<iosfwd>` and in the synopsis of other
headers but it is well-formed to include both `<iosfwd>` and one or more of the other headers.

[Note: The class template specialization `basic_ios<charT,traits>` serves as a virtual base class for the class templates `basic_istream`, `basic_ostream`, and class templates derived from them. `basic_iostream` is a class template derived from both `basic_istream<charT,traits>` and `basic_ostream<charT,traits>`.

The class template specialization `basic_streambuf<charT,traits>` serves as a base class for template classes `basic_stringbuf` and `basic_filebuf`.

The class template specialization `basic_istream<charT,traits>` serves as a base class for template classes `basic_iostream` and `basic_ifstream`.

The class template specialization `basic_ostream<charT,traits>` serves as a base class for template classes `basic_iostream` and `basic_ofstream`.

The class template specialization `basic_iostream<charT,traits>` serves as a base class for template classes `basic_stringstream` and `basic_fstream`.

Other typedefs define instances of class templates specialized for `char` or `wchar_t` types.

Specializations of the class template `fpos` are used for specifying file position information.

The types `streampos` and `wstreampos` are used for positioning streams specialized on `char` and `wchar_t` respectively.

This synopsis suggests a circularity between `streampos` and `char_traits<char>`. An implementation can avoid this circularity by substituting equivalent types. One way to do this might be

```cpp
template<class stateT> class fpos { ... }; // depends on nothing
typedef ... _STATE; // implementation private declaration of stateT
typedef fpos<_STATE> streampos;

template<> struct char_traits<char> {
    typedef streampos
    pos_type;
};
```

— end note]

### 27.4 Standard iostream objects

#### Header `<iostream>` synopsis

```cpp
#include <ios>
#include <streambuf>
#include <istream>
#include <ostream>

namespace std {
    extern istream cin;
    extern ostream cout;
    extern ostream cerr;
    extern ostream clog;
    extern wistream wcin;
```
The header `<iostream>` declares objects that associate objects with the standard C streams provided for by
the functions declared in `<cstdio>` (27.9.2), and includes all the headers necessary to use these objects.

The objects are constructed and the associations are established at some time prior to or during the first
time an object of class `ios_base::Init` is constructed, and in any case before the body of `main` begins
execution. The objects are not destroyed during program execution. If a translation unit includes `<iostream>`
or explicitly constructs an `ios_base::Init` object, these stream objects shall be constructed before dynamic
initialization of non-local objects defined later in that translation unit.

Mixing operations on corresponding wide- and narrow-character streams follows the same semantics as
mixing such operations on FILEs, as specified in Amendment 1 of the ISO C standard.

Concurrent access to a synchronized (27.5.2.4) standard iostream object’s formatted and unformatted in-
put (27.7.1.1) and output (27.7.2.1) functions or a standard C stream by multiple threads shall not result
in a data race (1.10). [Note: users must still synchronize concurrent use of these objects and streams by
multiple threads if they wish to avoid interleaved characters. — end note]

### 27.4.1 Narrow stream objects

```cpp
istream cin;
```

1. The object `cin` controls input from a stream buffer associated with the object `stdin`, declared in
`<cstdio>`.
2. After the object `cin` is initialized, `cin.tie()` returns `&cout`. Its state is otherwise the same as required
for `basic_ios<char>::init` (27.5.4.1).

```cpp
ostream cout;
```

3. The object `cout` controls output to a stream buffer associated with the object `stdout`, declared in
`<cstdio>` (27.9.2).

```cpp
ostream cerr;
```

4. The object `cerr` controls output to a stream buffer associated with the object `stderr`, declared in
`<cstdio>` (27.9.2).
5. After the object `cerr` is initialized, `cerr.flags() & unitbuf` is nonzero and `cerr.tie()` returns
`&cout`. Its state is otherwise the same as required for `basic_ios<char>::init` (27.5.4.1).

```cpp
ostream clog;
```

6. The object `clog` controls output to a stream buffer associated with the object `stderr`, declared in
`<cstdio>` (27.9.2).

### 27.4.2 Wide stream objects

```cpp
wistream wcin;
```

292) If it is possible for them to do so, implementations are encouraged to initialize the objects earlier than required.
293) Constructors and destructors for static objects can access these objects to read input from `stdin` or write output to
`stdout` or `stderr`.

§ 27.4.2
The object \texttt{wcin} controls input from a stream buffer associated with the object \texttt{stdin}, declared in <cstdio>.

After the object \texttt{wcin} is initialized, \texttt{wcin.tie()} returns \&\texttt{wcout}. Its state is otherwise the same as required for \texttt{basic_ios<wchar_t>::init} (27.5.4.1).

\begin{verbatim}
ostream wcout;
\end{verbatim}

The object \texttt{wcout} controls output to a stream buffer associated with the object \texttt{stdout}, declared in <cstdio> (27.9.2).

\begin{verbatim}
ostream wcerr;
\end{verbatim}

The object \texttt{wcerr} controls output to a stream buffer associated with the object \texttt{stderr}, declared in <cstdio> (27.9.2).

After the object \texttt{wcerr} is initialized, \texttt{wcerr.flags()} \& \texttt{unitbuf} is nonzero and \texttt{wcerr.tie()} returns \&\texttt{wcout}. Its state is otherwise the same as required for \texttt{basic_ios<wchar_t>::init} (27.5.4.1).

\begin{verbatim}
ostream wclog;
\end{verbatim}

The object \texttt{wclog} controls output to a stream buffer associated with the object \texttt{stderr}, declared in <cstdio> (27.9.2).
// 27.5.5.2 adjustfield:
ios_base& internal (ios_base& str);
ios_base& left (ios_base& str);
ios_base& right (ios_base& str);

// 27.5.5.3 basefield:
ios_base& dec (ios_base& str);
ios_base& hex (ios_base& str);
ios_base& oct (ios_base& str);

// 27.5.5.4 floatfield:
ios_base& fixed (ios_base& str);
ios_base& scientific (ios_base& str);
ios_base& hexfloat (ios_base& str);
ios_base& defaultfloat(ios_base& str);

// 27.5.5.5 error reporting:
enum class io_errc {
    stream = 1
};

concept_map ErrorCodeEnum<io_errc> { };  
error_code make_error_code(io_errc e);
error_condition make_error_condition(io_errc e);
const error_category& iostream_category();

27.5.1 Types [stream.types]

typedef implementation-defined streamoff;

1 The type streamoff is a synonym for one of the signed basic integral types of sufficient size to represent
the maximum possible file size for the operating system.\footnotemark[294]

typedef implementation-defined streamsize;

2 The type streamsize is a synonym for one of the signed basic integral types. It is used to represent
the number of characters transferred in an I/O operation, or the size of I/O buffers.\footnotemark[295]

27.5.2 Class ios_base [ios.base]

namespace std {
n
class ios_base {
    public:
        class failure;

        typedef T1 fmtflags;

\footnotemark[294] Typically long long.
\footnotemark[295] streamsize is used in most places where ISO C would use size_t. Most of the uses of streamsize could use size_t, except for the strstreambuf constructors, which require negative values. It should probably be the signed type corresponding to size_t (which is what Posix.2 calls ssize_t).
static const fmtflags boolalpha;
static const fmtflags dec;
static const fmtflags fixed;
static const fmtflags hex;
static const fmtflags internal;
static const fmtflags left;
static const fmtflags oct;
static const fmtflags right;
static const fmtflags scientific;
static const fmtflags showbase;
static const fmtflags showpoint;
static const fmtflags showpos;
static const fmtflags skipws;
static const fmtflags unitbuf;
static const fmtflags uppercase;
static const fmtflags adjustfield;
static const fmtflags basefield;
static const fmtflags floatfield;

typedef T2 iostate;
static const iostate badbit;
static const iostate eofbit;
static const iostate failbit;
static const iostate goodbit;

typedef T3 openmode;
static const openmode app;
static const openmode ate;
static const openmode binary;
static const openmode in;
static const openmode out;
static const openmode trunc;

typedef T4 seekdir;
static const seekdir beg;
static const seekdir cur;
static const seekdir end;

class Init;

// 27.5.2.2 fmtflags state:
fmtflags flags() const;
fmtflags flags(fmtflags fmtfl);
fmtflags setf(fmtflags fmtfl);
fmtflags setf(fmtflags fmtfl, fmtflags mask);
void unsetf(fmtflags mask);

streamsize precision() const;
streamsize precision(streamsize prec);
streamsize width() const;
streamsize width(streamsize wide);

// 27.5.2.3 locales:
locale imbue(const locale& loc);
locale getloc() const;
// 27.5.2.5 storage:
static int xalloc();
long& iword(int index);
void*& pword(int index);

// destructor
virtual ~ios_base();

// 27.5.2.6 callbacks;
enum event { erase_event, imbue_event, copyfmt_event);
typedef void (*event_callback)(event, ios_base&, int index);
void register_callback(event_callback fn, int index);

ios_base(const ios_base&) = delete;
ios_base& operator=(const ios_base&) = delete;

static bool sync_with_stdio(bool sync = true);

protected:
ios_base();

private:
static int index; // exposition only
long* iarray; // exposition only
void** parray; // exposition only

};

ios_base defines several member types:
— a class failure derived from system_error;
— a class Init;
— three bitmask types, fmtflags, iostate, and openmode;
— an enumerated type, seekdir.

It maintains several kinds of data:
— state information that reflects the integrity of the stream buffer;
— control information that influences how to interpret (format) input sequences and how to generate (format) output sequences;
— additional information that is stored by the program for its private use.

[Note: For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as:
— static int index, specifies the next available unique index for the integer or pointer arrays maintained for the private use of the program, initialized to an unspecified value;
— long* iarray, points to the first element of an arbitrary-length long array maintained for the private use of the program;
— void** parray, points to the first element of an arbitrary-length pointer array maintained for the private use of the program. — end note]
27.5.2.1 Types

27.5.2.1.1 Class ios_base::failure

namespace std {
    class ios_base::failure : public system_error {
    public:
        explicit failure(const string& msg, const error_code& ec = io_errc::stream);
        explicit failure(const char* msg, const error_code& ec = io_errc::stream);
    }
}

1 The class failure defines the base class for the types of all objects thrown as exceptions, by functions in the iostreams library, to report errors detected during stream buffer operations.

2 When throwing ios_base::failure exceptions, implementations should provide values of ec that identify the specific reason for the failure. [Note: Errors arising from the operating system would typically be reported as system_category() errors with an error value of the error number reported by the operating system. Errors arising from within the stream library would typically be reported as error_code(io_errc::stream, iostream_category()). — end note]

    explicit failure(const string& msg, , const error_code& ec = io_errc::stream);
    
    Effects: Constructs an object of class failure by constructing the base class with msg and ec.

    explicit failure(const char* msg, const error_code& ec = io_errc::stream);

    Effects: Constructs an object of class failure by constructing the base class with msg and ec.

27.5.2.1.2 Type ios_base::fmtflags

typedef T1 fmtflags;

1 The type fmtflags is a bitmask type (17.5.2.1.3). Setting its elements has the effects indicated in Table 112.

2 Type fmtflags also defines the constants indicated in Table 113.

27.5.2.1.3 Type ios_base::iostate

typedef T2 iostate;

1 The type iostate is a bitmask type (17.5.2.1.3) that contains the elements indicated in Table 114.

2 Type iostate also defines the constant:

    — goodbit, the value zero.

27.5.2.1.4 Type ios_base::openmode

typedef T3 openmode;

1 The type openmode is a bitmask type (17.5.2.1.3). It contains the elements indicated in Table 115.
Table 112 — fmtflags effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Effect(s) if set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>boolalpha</td>
<td>insert and extract bool type in alphabetic format</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dec</td>
<td>converts integer input or generates integer output in decimal base</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fixed</td>
<td>generate floating-point output in fixed-point notation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hex</td>
<td>converts integer input or generates integer output in hexadecimal base</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>internal</td>
<td>adds fill characters at a designated internal point in certain generated output, or identical to right if no such point is designated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>left</td>
<td>adds fill characters on the right (final positions) of certain generated output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oct</td>
<td>converts integer input or generates integer output in octal base</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>right</td>
<td>adds fill characters on the left (initial positions) of certain generated output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scientific</td>
<td>generates floating-point output in scientific notation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>showbase</td>
<td>generates a prefix indicating the numeric base of generated integer output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>showpoint</td>
<td>generates a decimal-point character unconditionally in generated floating-point output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>showpos</td>
<td>generates a + sign in non-negative generated numeric output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skipws</td>
<td>skips leading whitespace before certain input operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unitbuf</td>
<td>flushes output after each output operation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uppercase</td>
<td>replaces certain lowercase letters with their uppercase equivalents in generated output</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 113 — fmtflags constants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>Allowable values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adjustfield</td>
<td>left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basefield</td>
<td>dec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>floatfield</td>
<td>scientific</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 114 — iostate effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Effect(s) if set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>badbit</td>
<td>indicates a loss of integrity in an input or output sequence (such as an irrecoverable read error from a file):</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eofbit</td>
<td>indicates that an input operation reached the end of an input sequence;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>failbit</td>
<td>indicates that an input operation failed to read the expected characters, or that an output operation failed to generate the desired characters.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 115 — openmode effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Effect(s) if set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>app</td>
<td>seek to end before each write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ate</td>
<td>open and seek to end immediately after opening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>binary</td>
<td>perform input and output in binary mode (as opposed to text mode)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>open for input</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out</td>
<td>open for output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trunc</td>
<td>truncate an existing stream when opening</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
27.5.2.1.5 Type `ios_base::seekdir`

typedef T4 seekdir;

The type `seekdir` is an enumerated type (17.5.2.1.2) that contains the elements indicated in Table 116.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>beg</td>
<td>request a seek (for subsequent input or output) relative to the beginning of the stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cur</td>
<td>request a seek relative to the current position within the sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
<td>request a seek relative to the current end of the sequence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

27.5.2.1.6 Class `ios_base::Init`

```cpp
namespace std {
    class ios_base::Init {
        public:
            Init();
            ~Init();
        private:
            static int init_cnt; // exposition only
    };
}
```

1 The class `Init` describes an object whose construction ensures the construction of the eight objects declared in `<iostream>` (27.4) that associate file stream buffers with the standard C streams provided for by the functions declared in `<cstdio>` (27.9.2).

2 For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as:

   — static int `init_cnt`, counts the number of constructor and destructor calls for class `Init`, initialized to zero.

   `Init();`

3 `Effects:` Constructs an object of class `Init`. If `init_cnt` is zero, the function stores the value one in `init_cnt`, then constructs and initializes the objects `cin`, `cout`, `cerr`, `clog` (27.4.1), `wcin`, `wcout`, `wcerr`, and `wclog` (27.4.2). In any case, the function then adds one to the value stored in `init_cnt`.

   `~Init();`

4 `Effects:` Destroys an object of class `Init`. The function subtracts one from the value stored in `init_cnt` and, if the resulting stored value is one, calls `cout.flush()`, `cerr.flush()`, `clog.flush()`, `wcout.flush()`, `wcerr.flush()`, and `wclog.flush()`.

27.5.2.2 `ios_base` state functions

```cpp
fmtflags flags() const;
```

1 `Returns:` The format control information for both input and output.

```cpp
fmtflags flags(fmtflags fmtfl);
```
Postcondition: `fmtfl == flags()`.

Returns: The previous value of `flags()`.

```cpp
fmtflags setf(fmtflags fmtfl);
```

Effects: Sets `fmtfl` in `flags()`.

Returns: The previous value of `flags()`.

```cpp
fmtflags setf(fmtflags fmtfl, fmtflags mask);
```

Effects: Clears `mask` in `flags()`, sets `fmtfl & mask` in `flags()`.

Returns: The previous value of `flags()`.

```cpp
void unsetf(fmtflags mask);
```

Effects: Clears `mask` in `flags()`.

```cpp
streamsize precision() const;
```

Returns: The precision to generate on certain output conversions.

```cpp
streamsize precision(streamsize prec);
```

Postcondition: `prec == precision()`.

Returns: The previous value of `precision()`.

```cpp
streamsize width() const;
```

Returns: The minimum field width (number of characters) to generate on certain output conversions.

```cpp
streamsize width(streamsize wide);
```

Postcondition: `wide == width()`.

Returns: The previous value of `width()`.

### 27.5.2.3 ios_base functions

```cpp
locale imbue(const locale& loc);
```

Effects: Calls each registered callback pair \((\text{fn}, \text{index})\) \((27.5.2.6)\) as \((\ast \text{fn})(\text{imbue\_event}, \ast \text{this}, \text{index})\) at such a time that a call to `ios_base::getloc()` from within `fn` returns the new locale value `loc`.

Returns: The previous value of `getloc()`.

Postcondition: `loc == getloc()`.

```cpp
locale getloc() const;
```

Returns: If no locale has been imbued, a copy of the global C++ locale, `locale()`, in effect at the time of construction. Otherwise, returns the imbued locale, to be used to perform locale-dependent input and output operations.

### 27.5.2.4 ios_base static members

```cpp
bool sync_with_stdio(bool sync = true);
```
Returns: true if the previous state of the standard iostream objects (27.4) was synchronized and otherwise returns false. The first time it is called, the function returns true.

Effects: If any input or output operation has occurred using the standard streams prior to the call, the effect is implementation-defined. Otherwise, called with a false argument, it allows the standard streams to operate independently of the standard C streams.

When a standard iostream object str is synchronized with a standard stdio stream f, the effect of inserting a character c by

\[ \text{fputc}(f, c); \]

is the same as the effect of

\[ \text{str.rdbuf}() \rightarrow \text{sputc}(c); \]

for any sequences of characters; the effect of extracting a character c by

\[ c = \text{fgetc}(f); \]

is the same as the effect of

\[ c = \text{str.rdbuf}() \rightarrow \text{sbumpc}(c); \]

for any sequences of characters; and the effect of pushing back a character c by

\[ \text{ungetc}(c, f); \]

is the same as the effect of

\[ \text{str.rdbuf}() \rightarrow \text{sputbackc}(c); \]

for any sequence of characters.\(^{296}\)

### 27.5.2.5 ios_base storage functions

```
static int xalloc();
```

Returns: index ++.

```
long& iword(int idx);
```

Effects: If iarray is a null pointer, allocates an array of long of unspecified size and stores a pointer to its first element in iarray. The function then extends the array pointed at by iarray as necessary to include the element iarray[idx]. Each newly allocated element of the array is initialized to zero. The reference returned is invalid after any other operations on the object.\(^{297}\) However, the value of the storage referred to is retained, so that until the next call to copyfmt, calling iword with the same index yields another reference to the same value. If the function fails\(^{298}\) and *this is a base subobject of a basic_ios<> object or subobject, the effect is equivalent to calling basic_ios<>::setstate(badbit) on the derived object (which may throw failure).

Returns: On success iarray[idx]. On failure, a valid long& initialized to 0.

\(^{296}\) This implies that operations on a standard iostream object can be mixed arbitrarily with operations on the corresponding stdio stream. In practical terms, synchronization usually means that a standard iostream object and a standard stdio object share a buffer.

\(^{297}\) An implementation is free to implement both the integer array pointed at by iarray and the pointer array pointed at by parray as sparse data structures, possibly with a one-element cache for each.

\(^{298}\) for example, because it cannot allocate space.
### void* & pword(int idx);

**Effects:** If `parray` is a null pointer, allocates an array of pointers to `void` of unspecified size and stores a pointer to its first element in `parray`. The function then extends the array pointed at by `parray` as necessary to include the element `parray[idx]`. Each newly allocated element of the array is initialized to a null pointer. The reference returned is invalid after any other operations on the object. However, the value of the storage referred to is retained, so that until the next call to `copyfmt`, calling `pword` with the same index yields another reference to the same value. If the function fails and `*this` is a base subobject of a `basic_ios<>` object or subobject, the effect is equivalent to calling `basic_ios<>::setstate(badbit)` on the derived object (which may throw `failure`).

**Returns:** On success `parray[idx]`. On failure a valid `void*` initialized to 0.

**Remarks:** After a subsequent call to `pword(int)` for the same object, the earlier return value may no longer be valid.

#### 27.5.2.6 ios_base callbacks

```cpp
void register_callback(event_callback fn, int index);
```

**Effects:** Registers the pair `(fn, index)` such that during calls to `imbue()` (27.5.2.3), `copyfmt()`, or `~ios_base()` (27.5.2.7), the function `fn` is called with argument `index`. Functions registered are called when an event occurs, in opposite order of registration. Functions registered while a callback function is active are not called until the next event.

**Requires:** The function `fn` shall not throw exceptions.

**Remarks:** Identical pairs are not merged. A function registered twice will be called twice.

#### 27.5.2.7 ios_base constructors/destructor

```cpp
ios_base();
```

**Effects:** Each `ios_base` member has an indeterminate value after construction. These members shall be initialized by calling `basic_ios::init`. If an `ios_base` object is destroyed before these initializations have taken place, the behavior is undefined.

```cpp
~ios_base()
```

**Effects:** Destroys an object of class `ios_base`. Calls each registered callback pair `(fn, index)` (27.5.2.6) as `(fn)(erase_event, *this, index)` at such time that any `ios_base` member function called from within `fn` has well defined results.

#### 27.5.3 Class template fpos

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<class stateT> class fpos {
    public:
        // 27.5.3.1 Members
        stateT state() const;
        void state(stateT);
    private;
        stateT st; // exposition only
    };  
}
```

---

299) for example, because it cannot allocate space.
27.5.3.1 \texttt{fpos} Members

```c
void state(stateT s);
1   \textit{Effects:} Assign \texttt{s} to \texttt{st}.

stateT state() const;
2   \textit{Returns:} Current value of \texttt{st}.
```

27.5.3.2 \texttt{fpos} requirements

1 Operations specified in Table 117 are permitted. In that table,
   
   \begin{itemize}
   \item \texttt{P} refers to an instance of \texttt{fpos},
   \item \texttt{p} and \texttt{q} refer to values of type \texttt{P},
   \item \texttt{O} refers to type \texttt{streamoff},
   \item \texttt{o} refers to a value of type \texttt{streamoff},
   \item \texttt{sz} refers to a value of type \texttt{streamsize} and
   \item \texttt{i} refers to a value of type \texttt{int}.
   \end{itemize}

\begin{table}[ht]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|p{5cm}|}
\hline
\textbf{Expression} & \textbf{Return type} & \textbf{Operational semantics} & \textbf{Assertion/note} \\
\hline
\texttt{P(i)} & \texttt{fpos} & \texttt{P(i)} & \texttt{p == P(i)} \textit{note: a destructor is assumed.} \\
\texttt{P p(i);} & & & \\
\texttt{P p = i;} & & & \\
\texttt{P(o)} & \texttt{OFF_T} & \texttt{converts to offset} & \texttt{P(O(p)) == p} \\
\texttt{O(p)} & \texttt{OFF_T} & \texttt{converts to offset} & \texttt{P(O(p)) == p} \\
\hline
\texttt{p == q} & \texttt{convertible to bool} & \texttt{==} & \texttt{is an equivalence relation} \\
\texttt{p != q} & \texttt{convertible to bool} & \texttt{!(p == q)} & \\
\texttt{q = p + o} & \texttt{fpos} & \texttt{+ offset} & \texttt{q - o == p} \\
\texttt{p += o} & \texttt{fpos} & \texttt{- offset} & \texttt{q + o == p} \\
\texttt{q = p - o} & \texttt{fpos} & \texttt{- offset} & \texttt{q + o == p} \\
\texttt{p -= o} & \texttt{fpos} & \texttt{+ offset} & \texttt{q - o == p} \\
\texttt{o = p - q} & \texttt{OFF_T} & \texttt{distance} & \texttt{q + o == p} \\
\texttt{streamsize(o)} & \texttt{streamsize} & \texttt{converts} & \texttt{streamsize(O(sz)) == sz} \\
\texttt{O(sz)} & \texttt{OFF_T} & \texttt{converts} & \texttt{streamsize(O(sz)) == sz} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Position type requirements}
\end{table}

2 [\textit{Note:} Every implementation is required to supply overloaded operators on \texttt{fpos} objects to satisfy the requirements of 27.5.3.2. It is unspecified whether these operators are members of \texttt{fpos}, global operators, or provided in some other way. \textit{--- end note}]}

3 Stream operations that return a value of type \texttt{traits::pos_type} return \texttt{P(O(-1))} as an invalid value to signal an error. If this value is used as an argument to any \texttt{istream}, \texttt{ostream}, or \texttt{streambuf} member that accepts a value of type \texttt{traits::pos_type} then the behavior of that function is undefined.

\section*{§ 27.5.3.2}
27.5.4 Class template basic_ios

```cpp
namespace std {
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
  class basic_ios : public ios_base {
public:

  // types:
  typedef charT char_type;
  typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
  typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
  typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
  typedef traits traits_type;

  operator unspecified-bool-type() const;
  bool operator!() const;
  iostate rdstate() const;
  void clear(iostate state = goodbit);
  void setstate(iostate state);
  bool good() const;
  bool eof() const;
  bool fail() const;
  bool bad() const;

  iostate exceptions() const;
  void exceptions(iostate except);

  // 27.5.4.1 Constructor/destructor:
  explicit basic_ios(basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* sb);
  virtual ~basic_ios();

  // 27.5.4.2 Members:
  basic_ostream<charT,traits>* tie() const;
  basic_ostream<charT,traits>* tie(basic_ostream<charT,traits>* tiestr);
  basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* rdbuf() const;
  basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* rdbuf(basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* sb);
  basic_ios& copyfmt(const basic_ios& rhs);
  char_type fill() const;
  char_type fill(char_type ch);
  locale imbue(const locale& loc);
  char narrow(char_type c, char dfault) const;
  char_type widen(char c) const;

  basic_ios(const basic_ios&) = delete;
  basic_ios& operator=(const basic_ios&) = delete;

  protected:
  basic_ios();
  void init(basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* sb);
  void move(basic_ios&& rhs);
}
```


```cpp
void swap(basic_ios& rhs);
void set_rdbuf(basic_streambuf<charT, traits>* sb);
```

```cpp

};
```

27.5.4.1 basic_ios constructors [basic.ios.cons]

```cpp
explicit basic_ios(basic_streambuf<charT, traits>* sb);
```

1. **Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_ios`, assigning initial values to its member objects by calling `init(sb)`.

```cpp
basic_ios();
```

2. **Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_ios` (27.5.2.7) leaving its member objects uninitialized. The object shall be initialized by calling its `init` member function. If it is destroyed before it has been initialized the behavior is undefined.

```cpp
~basic_ios();
```

3. **Remarks:** The destructor does not destroy `rdbuf()`.

```cpp
void init(basic_streambuf<charT, traits>* sb);
```

**Postconditions:** The postconditions of this function are indicated in Table 118.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rdbuf()</td>
<td>sb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tie()</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rdstate()</td>
<td>goodbit if sb is not a null pointer, otherwise badbit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exceptions()</td>
<td>goodbit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flags()</td>
<td>skipws</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>width()</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>precision()</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fill()</td>
<td>widen(’ ’);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getloc()</td>
<td>a copy of the value returned by <code>locale()</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iarray()</td>
<td>a null pointer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parray()</td>
<td>a null pointer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

27.5.4.2 Member functions [basic.ios.members]

```cpp
basic_ostream<charT, traits>* tie() const;
```

1. **Returns:** An output sequence that is tied to (synchronized with) the sequence controlled by the stream buffer.

```cpp
basic_ostream<charT, traits>* tie(basic_ostream<charT, traits>* tiestr);
```

2. **Postcondition:** `tiestr == tie()`. 

3. **Returns:** The previous value of `tie()`.

§ 27.5.4.2 966
basic_streambuf<
charT,traits>* rdbuf() const;

Returns: A pointer to the streambuf associated with the stream.

basic_streambuf<
charT,traits>* rdbuf(basic_streambuf<
charT,traits>* sb);

Postcondition: sb == rdbuf().

Effects: Calls clear().

Returns: The previous value of rdbuf().

locale imbue(const locale& loc);

Effects: Calls ios_base::imbue(loc) (27.5.2.3) and if rdbuf() != 0 then rdbuf() -> pubimbue(loc) (27.6.2.2.1).

Returns: The prior value of ios_base::imbue().

char narrow(char_type c, char dfault) const;

Returns: use_facet< ctype<char_type> >(getloc()).narrow(c,dfault)

char_type widen(char c) const;

Returns: use_facet< ctype<char_type> >(getloc()).widen(c)

char_type fill() const;

Returns: The character used to pad (fill) an output conversion to the specified field width.

char_type fill(char_type fillch);

Postcondition: traits::eq(fillch, fill())

Returns: The previous value of fill().

basic_ios& copyfmt(const basic_ios& rhs);

Effects: If (this == &rhs) does nothing. Otherwise assigns to the member objects of *this the corresponding member objects of rhs as follows:

1. calls each registered callback pair (fn, index) as (*fn)(erase_event, *this, index);
2. assigns to the member objects of *this the corresponding member objects of rhs, except that
   — rdstate(), rdbuf(), and exceptions() are left unchanged;
   — the contents of arrays pointed at by pword and iword are copied, not the pointers themselves;\(^{300}\)
   — if any newly stored pointer values in *this point at objects stored outside the object rhs
     and those objects are destroyed when rhs is destroyed, the newly stored pointer values are
     altered to point at newly constructed copies of the objects;
3. calls each callback pair that was copied from rhs as (*fn)(copyfmt_event, *this, index);
4. calls exceptions(rhs.except()).

Note: The second pass through the callback pairs permits a copied pword value to be zeroed, or to
have its referent deep copied or reference counted, or to have other special action taken. [Editor's note:

300) This suggests an infinite amount of copying, but the implementation can keep track of the maximum element of the arrays
that is non-zero.

§ 27.5.4.2
I have no idea what this is supposed to convey. Does it say anything useful, or should it be removed?

Postconditions: The postconditions of this function are indicated in Table 119.

Table 119 — basic_ios::copyfmt() effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rdbuf()</td>
<td>unchanged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tie()</td>
<td>rhs.tie()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rdstate()</td>
<td>unchanged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exceptions()</td>
<td>rhs.exceptions()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flags()</td>
<td>rhs.flags()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>width()</td>
<td>rhs.width()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>precision()</td>
<td>rhs.precision()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fill()</td>
<td>rhs.fill()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>getloc()</td>
<td>rhs.getloc()</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Returns: *this.

void move(basic_ios& rhs);

Postconditions: *this shall have the state that rhs had before the function call, except that rdbuf() shall return 0. rhs shall be in a valid but unspecified state, except that rhs.rdbuf() shall return the same value as it returned before the function call, and rhs.tie() shall return 0.

void swap(basic_ios& rhs);

Effects: The states of *this and rhs shall be exchanged, except that rdbuf() shall return the same value as it returned before the function call, and rhs.rdbuf() shall return the same value as it returned before the function call.

Throws: Nothing.

void set_rdbuf(basic_streambuf<charT, traits>* sb);

Effects: Associates the basic_streambuf object pointed to by sb with this stream without calling clear().

Postconditions: rdbuf() == sb.

Throws: Nothing.

27.5.4.3 basic_ios flags functions

operator unspecified-bool-type() const;

Returns: If fail() then a value that will evaluate false in a boolean context; otherwise a value that will evaluate true in a boolean context. The value type returned shall not be convertible to int.

[Note: This conversion can be used in contexts where a bool is expected (e.g., an if condition); however, implicit conversions (e.g., to int) that can occur with bool are not allowed, eliminating some sources of user error. One possible implementation choice for this type is pointer-to-member. — end note]

bool operator!() const;

§ 27.5.4.3 968
iostate rdstate() const;

Returns: The error state of the stream buffer.

void clear(iostate state = goodbit);

Postcondition: If rdbuf()! = 0 then state == rdstate(); otherwise rdstate() == (state | ios_base::badbit).

Effects: If ((state | (rdbuf() ? goodbit : badbit)) & exceptions()) == 0, returns. Otherwise, the function throws an object fail of class basic_ios::failure (27.5.2.1.1), constructed with implementation-defined argument values.

void setstate(iostate state);

Effects: Calls clear(rdstate() | state) (which may throw basic_ios::failure (27.5.2.1.1)).

bool good() const;

Returns: rdstate() == 0

bool eof() const;

Returns: true if eofbit is set in rdstate().

bool fail() const;

Returns: true if failbit or badbit is set in rdstate().\(^{301}\)

bool bad() const;

Returns: true if badbit is set in rdstate().

iostate exceptions() const;

Returns: A mask that determines what elements set in rdstate() cause exceptions to be thrown.

void exceptions(iostate except);

Postcondition: except == exceptions().

Effects: Calls clear(rdstate()).

\(^{301}\) Checking badbit also for fail() is historical practice.
ios_base& showbase(ios_base& str);
  Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::showbase).
  Returns: str.

ios_base& noshowbase(ios_base& str);
  Effects: Calls str.unsetf(ios_base::showbase).
  Returns: str.

ios_base& showpoint(ios_base& str);
  Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::showpoint).
  Returns: str.

ios_base& noshowpoint(ios_base& str);
  Effects: Calls str.unsetf(ios_base::showpoint).
  Returns: str.

ios_base& showpos(ios_base& str);
  Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::showpos).
  Returns: str.

ios_base& noshowpos(ios_base& str);
  Effects: Calls str.unsetf(ios_base::showpos).
  Returns: str.

ios_base& skipws(ios_base& str);
  Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::skipws).
  Returns: str.

ios_base& noskipws(ios_base& str);
  Effects: Calls str.unsetf(ios_base::skipws).
  Returns: str.

ios_base& uppercase(ios_base& str);
  Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::uppercase).
  Returns: str.

ios_base& nouppercase(ios_base& str);
  Effects: Calls str.unsetf(ios_base::uppercase).
  Returns: str.

ios_base& unitbuf(ios_base& str);
  Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::unitbuf).
  Returns: str.
ios_base& nounitbuf(ios_base& str);

Effects: Calls str.unsetf(ios_base::unitbuf).
Returns: str.

27.5.5.2 adjustfield manipulators

ios_base& internal(ios_base& str);

Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::internal, ios_base::adjustfield).
Returns: str.

ios_base& left(ios_base& str);

Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::left, ios_base::adjustfield).
Returns: str.

ios_base& right(ios_base& str);

Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::right, ios_base::adjustfield).
Returns: str.

27.5.5.3 basefield manipulators

ios_base& dec(ios_base& str);

Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::dec, ios_base::basefield).
Returns: str.\footnote{The function signature \texttt{dec(ios\_base&)} can be called by the function signature \texttt{basic\_ostream\& stream::operator\texttt{\textless\textless}(ios\_base\& \texttt{*})(ios\_base\&)}}

ios_base& hex(ios_base& str);

Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::hex, ios_base::basefield).
Returns: str.

ios_base& oct(ios_base& str);

Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::oct, ios_base::basefield).
Returns: str.

27.5.5.4 floatfield manipulators

ios_base& fixed(ios_base& str);

Effects: Calls str.setf(ios_base::fixed, ios_base::floatfield).
Returns: str.

ios_base& scientific(ios_base& str);

§ 27.5.5.4
\[\text{Effects:}\] Calls \texttt{\texttt{str.setf(ios\_base::scientific,\ ios\_base::floatfield)}}.

\[\text{Returns:}\] \texttt{str}.

\texttt{ios\_base\& hexfloat(ios\_base\& str)};

\[\text{Effects:}\] Calls \texttt{\texttt{str.setf(ios\_base::fixed | ios\_base::scientific,\ ios\_base::floatfield)}}.

\[\text{Returns:}\] \texttt{str}.

\[\text{Note:}\] The more obvious use of \texttt{ios\_base::hex} to specify hexadecimal floating-point format would change the meaning of existing well defined programs. C++2003 gives no meaning to the combination of \texttt{fixed} and \texttt{scientific}. — end note

\texttt{ios\_base\& defaultfloat(ios\_base\& str)};

\[\text{Effects:}\] Calls \texttt{\texttt{str.unsetf(ios\_base::floatfield)}}.

\[\text{Returns:}\] \texttt{str}.

\subsection{27.5.5.5 Error reporting} \hfill \texttt{[error.reporting]}

\texttt{error\_code make\_error\_code(io\_errc e)};

\[\text{Returns:}\] \texttt{error\_code(static\_cast<int>(e),\ iostream\_category())}.

\texttt{error\_condition make\_error\_condition(io\_errc e)};

\[\text{Returns:}\] \texttt{error\_condition(static\_cast<int>(e),\ iostream\_category())}.

\texttt{const error\_category\& iostream\_category();}

\[\text{Returns:}\] a reference to an object of a type derived from class \texttt{error\_category}.

The object's \texttt{default\_error\_condition} and \texttt{equivalent} virtual functions shall behave as specified for the class \texttt{error\_category}. The object's \texttt{name} virtual function shall return a pointer to the string "iostream".

\section{27.6 Stream buffers} \hfill \texttt{[stream.buffers]}

\textbf{Header \texttt{<streambuf> synopsis}}

\begin{verbatim}
namespace std {
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
  class basic_streambuf;
  typedef basic_streambuf<char> streambuf;
  typedef basic_streambuf<wchar_t> wstreambuf;
}
\end{verbatim}

The header \texttt{<streambuf>} defines types that control input from and output to \texttt{character} sequences.

\subsection{27.6.1 Stream buffer requirements} \hfill \texttt{[streambuf.reqts]}

Stream buffers can impose various constraints on the sequences they control. Some constraints are:

- The controlled input sequence can be not readable.
- The controlled output sequence can be not writable.
— The controlled sequences can be associated with the contents of other representations for character sequences, such as external files.
— The controlled sequences can support operations directly to or from associated sequences.
— The controlled sequences can impose limitations on how the program can read characters from a sequence, write characters to a sequence, put characters back into an input sequence, or alter the stream position.

Each sequence is characterized by three pointers which, if non-null, all point into the same charT array object. The array object represents, at any moment, a (sub)sequence of characters from the sequence. Operations performed on a sequence alter the values stored in these pointers, perform reads and writes directly to or from associated sequences, and alter “the stream position” and conversion state as needed to maintain this subsequence relationship. The three pointers are:

— the beginning pointer, or lowest element address in the array (called xbeg here);
— the next pointer, or next element address that is a current candidate for reading or writing (called xnext here);
— the end pointer, or first element address beyond the end of the array (called xend here).

The following semantic constraints shall always apply for any set of three pointers for a sequence, using the pointer names given immediately above:

— If xnext is not a null pointer, then xbeg and xend shall also be non-null pointers into the same charT array, as described above; otherwise, xbeg and xend shall also be null.
— If xnext is not a null pointer and xnext < xend for an output sequence, then a write position is available. In this case, *xnext shall be assignable as the next element to write (to put, or to store a character value, into the sequence).
— If xnext is not a null pointer and xbeg < xnext for an input sequence, then a putback position is available. In this case, xnext[-1] shall have a defined value and is the next (preceding) element to store a character that is put back into the input sequence.
— If xnext is not a null pointer and xnext < xend for an input sequence, then a read position is available. In this case, *xnext shall have a defined value and is the next element to read (to get, or to obtain a character value, from the sequence).

27.6.2 Class template basic_streambuf<charT,traits> [streambuf]

namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_streambuf {
        public:

            // types:
typedef charT char_type;
typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
typedef traits traits_type;

            virtual ~basic_streambuf();

            // 27.6.2.2.1 locales:

§ 27.6.2 973
locale pubinbue(const locale& loc);
locale getloc() const;

// 27.6.2.2.2 buffer and positioning:
basic_streambuf<char_type,traits>*
pubsetbuf(char_type* s, streamsize n);
pos_type pubseekoff(off_type off, ios_base::seekdir way,
ios_base::openmode which =
ios_base::in | ios_base::out);
pos_type pubseekpos(pos_type sp,
ios_base::openmode which =
ios_base::in | ios_base::out);
int pubsync();

// Get and put areas:
// 27.6.2.2.3 Get area:
streamsize in_avail();
int_type snextc();
int_type sbumpc();
int_type sgetc();
streamsize sgetn(char_type* s, streamsize n);

// 27.6.2.2.4 Putback:
int_type sputbackc(char_type c);
int_type sungetc();

// 27.6.2.2.5 Put area:
int_type sputc(char_type c);
streamsize sputn(const char_type* s, streamsize n);

protected:
basic_streambuf();
basic_streambuf(const basic_streambuf& rhs);
basic_streambuf& operator=(const basic_streambuf& rhs);
void swap(basic_streambuf& rhs);

// 27.6.2.3.2 Get area:
char_type* eback() const;
char_type* gptr() const;
char_type* egptr() const;
void gbump(int n);
void setg(char_type* gbeg, char_type* gnext, char_type* gend);

// 27.6.2.3.3 Put area:
char_type* pbase() const;
char_type* pptr() const;
char_type* epptr() const;
void pbump(int n);
void setp(char_type* pbeg, char_type* pend);

// 27.6.2.4 virtual functions:
// 27.6.2.4.1 Locales:
virtual void imbue(const locale& loc);
The class template `basic_streambuf<charT,traits>` serves as an abstract base class for deriving various stream buffers whose objects each control two character sequences:

— a character input sequence;
— a character output sequence.

[Note: This paragraph is intentionally empty. — end note]

[Note: This paragraph is intentionally empty. — end note]

### 27.6.2.1 basic_streambuf constructors  [streambuf.cons]

#### basic_streambuf()

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_streambuf<charT,traits>` and initializes:

— all its pointer member objects to null pointers,
— the `getloc()` member to a copy the global locale, `locale()`, at the time of construction.

**Remarks:** Once the `getloc()` member is initialized, results of calling locale member functions, and of members of facets so obtained, can safely be cached until the next time the member `imbue` is called.

#### basic_streambuf(const basic_streambuf& rhs);

**Effects:** Constructs a copy of `rhs`.

**Postconditions:**
— `eback() == rhs.eback()`  

---

303 The default constructor is protected for class `basic_streambuf` to assure that only objects for classes derived from this class may be constructed.
basic_streambuf();

Effects: None.

### 27.6.2.2 basic_streambuf public member functions

#### 27.6.2.2.1 Locales

locale pubimbue(const locale& loc);

*Postcondition:* loc == getloc().

*Effects:* Calls imbue(loc).

*Returns:* Previous value of getloc().

### 27.6.2.2.2 Buffer management and positioning

basic_streambuf<char_type,traits>* pubsetbuf(char_type* s, streamsize n);

Returns: setbuf(s, n).

pos_type pubseekoff(off_type off, ios_base::seekdir way, ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::in | ios_base::out);

*Returns:* seekoff(off, way, which).

pos_type pubseekpos(pos_type sp, ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::in | ios_base::out);

*Returns:* seekpos(sp, which).

int pubsync();

*Returns:* sync().

#### 27.6.2.2.3 Get area

streamsize in_avail();

*Returns:* If a read position is available, returns egptr() - gptr(). Otherwise returns showmanyc() (27.6.2.4.3).
int_type snextc();
Effects: Calls sbumpc().
Returns: If that function returns traits::eof(), returns traits::eof(). Otherwise, returns sgetc().

int_type sbumpc();
Returns: If the input sequence read position is not available, returns uflow(). Otherwise, returns traits::to_int_type(*gptr()) and increments the next pointer for the input sequence.

int_type sgetc();
Returns: If the input sequence read position is not available, returns underflow(). Otherwise, returns traits::to_int_type(*gptr()).

streamsize sgetn(char_type* s, streamsize n);
Returns: xsgetn(s, n).

27.6.2.2.4 Putback [streambuf.pub.pback]

int_type sputbackc(char_type c);
Returns: If the input sequence putback position is not available, or if traits::eq(c, gptr()[-1]) is false, returns pbackfail(traits::to_int_type(c)). Otherwise, decrements the next pointer for the input sequence and returns traits::to_int_type(*gptr()).

int_type sungetc();
Returns: If the input sequence putback position is not available, returns pbackfail(). Otherwise, decrements the next pointer for the input sequence and returns traits::to_int_type(*gptr()).

27.6.2.2.5 Put area [streambuf.pub.put]

int_type sputc(char_type c);
Returns: If the output sequence write position is not available, returns overflow(traits::to_int_type(c)). Otherwise, stores c at the next pointer for the output sequence, increments the pointer, and returns traits::to_int_type(c).

streamsize sputn(const char_type* s, streamsize n);
Returns: xsputn(s, n).

27.6.2.3 basic_streambuf protected member functions [streambuf.protected]

27.6.2.3.1 Assignment [streambuf.assign]

basic_streambuf& operator=(const basic_streambuf& rhs);
Effects: Assigns the data members of rhs to *this.
Postconditions:
— eback() == rhs.eback()
— gptr() == rhs.gptr()
— egptr() == rhs.egptr()
— pbase() == rhs.pbase()
— pptr() == rhs.pptr()
— epptr() == rhs.epptr()
— getloc() == rhs.getloc()

Returns: *this.

void swap(basic_streambuf& rhs);

Effects: Swaps the data members of rhs and *this.

27.6.2.3.2 Get area access

    char_type* eback() const;

Returns: The beginning pointer for the input sequence.

    char_type* gptr() const;

Returns: The next pointer for the input sequence.

    char_type* egptr() const;

Returns: The end pointer for the input sequence.

void gbump(int n);

Effects: Adds n to the next pointer for the input sequence.

void setg(char_type* gbeg, char_type* gnext, char_type* gend);

Postconditions: gbeg == eback(), gnext == gptr(), and gend == egptr().

27.6.2.3.3 Put area access

    char_type* pbase() const;

Returns: The beginning pointer for the output sequence.

    char_type* pptr() const;

Returns: The next pointer for the output sequence.

    char_type* epptr() const;

Returns: The end pointer for the output sequence.

void pbump(int n);

Effects: Adds n to the next pointer for the output sequence.

void setp(char_type* pbeg, char_type* pend);

Postconditions: pbeg == pbase(), pbeg == pptr(), and pend == epptr().
27.6.2.4 basic_streambuf virtual functions

27.6.2.4.1 Locales

void imbue(const locale&)

1  Effects: Change any translations based on locale.
2  Remarks: Allows the derived class to be informed of changes in locale at the time they occur. Between
   invocations of this function a class derived from streambuf can safely cache results of calls to locale
   functions and to members of facets so obtained.
3  Default behavior: Does nothing.

27.6.2.4.2 Buffer management and positioning

basic_streambuf* setbuf(char_type* s, streamsize n);

1  Effects: Influences stream buffering in a way that is defined separately for each class derived from
   basic_streambuf in this Clause (27.8.1.4, 27.9.1.5).
2  Default behavior: Does nothing. Returns this.

pos_type seekoff(off_type off, ios_base::seekdir way,
   ios_base::openmode which
   = ios_base::in | ios_base::out);

3  Effects: Alters the stream positions within one or more of the controlled sequences in a way that is
   defined separately for each class derived from basic_streambuf in this Clause (27.8.1.4, 27.9.1.5).
4  Default behavior: Returns pos_type(off_type(-1)).

pos_type seekpos(pos_type sp,
   ios_base::openmode which
   = ios_base::in | ios_base::out);

5  Effects: Alters the stream positions within one or more of the controlled sequences in a way that is
   defined separately for each class derived from basic_streambuf in this Clause (27.8.1, 27.9.1.1).
6  Default behavior: Returns pos_type(off_type(-1)).

int sync();

7  Effects: Synchronizes the controlled sequences with the arrays. That is, if pbase() is non-null the
   characters between pbase() and pptr() are written to the controlled sequence. The pointers may
   then be reset as appropriate.
8  Returns:-1 on failure. What constitutes failure is determined by each derived class (27.9.1.5).
9  Default behavior: Returns zero.

27.6.2.4.3 Get area

streamsize showmanyc();\(^{304}\)

\(^{304}\)The morphemes of showmanycare ‘‘es-how-many-see’’, not ‘‘show-manic’’.

§ 27.6.2.4.3
Returns: an estimate of the number of characters available in the sequence, or -1. If it returns a positive value, then successive calls to underflow() will not return traits::eof() until at least that number of characters have been extracted from the stream. If showmanyc() returns -1, then calls to underflow() or uflow() will fail.\textsuperscript{305}

Default behavior: Returns zero.

Remarks: Uses traits::eof().

streamsize xsgetn(char_type* s, streamsize n);

Effects: Assigns up to n characters to successive elements of the array whose first element is designated by s. The characters assigned are read from the input sequence as if by repeated calls to sbumpc(). Assigning stops when either n characters have been assigned or a call to sbumpc() would return traits::eof().

Returns: The number of characters assigned.\textsuperscript{306}

Remarks: Uses traits::eof().

int_type underflow();

Remarks: The public members of basic_streambuf call this virtual function only if gptr() is null or gptr() >= egptr()

Returns: traits::to_int_type(c), where c is the first character of the pending sequence, without moving the input sequence position past it. If the pending sequence is null then the function returns traits::eof() to indicate failure.

The pending sequence of characters is defined as the concatenation of:

a) If gptr() is non-NULL, then the egptr() - gptr() characters starting at gptr(), otherwise the empty sequence.

b) Some sequence (possibly empty) of characters read from the input sequence.

The result character is

a) If the pending sequence is non-empty, the first character of the sequence.

b) If the pending sequence is empty then the next character that would be read from the input sequence.

The backup sequence is defined as the concatenation of:

a) If eback() is null then empty,

b) Otherwise the gptr() - eback() characters beginning at eback().

Effects: The function sets up the gptr() and egptr() satisfying one of:

a) If the pending sequence is non-empty, egptr() is non-null and egptr() - gptr() characters starting at gptr() are the characters in the pending sequence

b) If the pending sequence is empty, either gptr() is null or gptr() and egptr() are set to the same non-NULL pointer.

\textsuperscript{305} underflow or uflow might fail by throwing an exception prematurely. The intention is not only that the calls will not return eof() but that they will return “immediately.”

\textsuperscript{306} Classes derived from basic_streambuf can provide more efficient ways to implement xsgetn() and xsputn() by overriding these definitions from the base class.
If `eback()` and `gptr()` are non-null then the function is not constrained as to their contents, but the “usual backup condition” is that either:

a) If the backup sequence contains at least `gptr() - eback()` characters, then the `gptr() - eback()` characters starting at `eback()` agree with the last `gptr() - eback()` characters of the backup sequence.

b) Or the `n` characters starting at `gptr() - n` agree with the backup sequence (where `n` is the length of the backup sequence)

*Default behavior:* Returns `traits::eof()`.

```cpp
int_type uflow();
```

*Requires:* The constraints are the same as for `underflow()`, except that the result character shall be transferred from the pending sequence to the backup sequence, and the pending sequence shall not be empty before the transfer.

*Default behavior:* Calls `underflow()`. If `underflow()` returns `traits::eof()`, returns `traits::eof()`. Otherwise, returns the value of `traits::to_int_type(*gptr())` and increment the value of the next pointer for the input sequence.

*Returns:* `traits::eof()` to indicate failure.

### 27.6.2.4.4 Putback

```cpp
int_type pbackfail(int_type c = traits::eof());
```

*Remarks:* The public functions of `basic_streambuf` call this virtual function only when `gptr()` is null, `gptr() == eback()`, or `traits::eq(traits::to_char_type(c),gptr()[−1])` returns `false`. Other calls shall also satisfy that constraint.

The pending sequence is defined as for `underflow()`, with the modifications that

— If `traits::eq_int_type(c,traits::eof())` returns `true`, then the input sequence is backed up one character before the pending sequence is determined.

— If `traits::eq_int_type(c,traits::eof())` return false, then `c` is prepended. Whether the input sequence is backed up or modified in any other way is unspecified.

*Postcondition:* On return, the constraints of `gptr()`, `eback()`, and `pptr()` are the same as for `underflow()`.

*Returns:* `traits::eof()` to indicate failure. Failure may occur because the input sequence could not be backed up, or if for some other reason the pointers could not be set consistent with the constraints. `pbackfail()` is called only when put back has really failed.

Returns some value other than `traits::eof()` to indicate success.

*Default behavior:* Returns `traits::eof()`.

### 27.6.2.4.5 Put area

```cpp
streamsize xsputn(const char_type* s, streamsize n);
```

*Effects:* Writes up to `n` characters to the output sequence as if by repeated calls to `sputc(c)`. The characters written are obtained from successive elements of the array whose first element is designated by `s`. Writing stops when either `n` characters have been written or a call to `sputc(c)` would return
traits::eof(). Is unspecified whether the function calls overflow() when pptr() == epptr()
becomes true or whether it achieves the same effects by other means.

Returns: The number of characters written.

int_type overflow(int_type c = traits::eof());

Effects: consumes some initial subsequence of the characters of the pending sequence. The pending
sequence is defined as the concatenation of

a) if pbase() is NULL then the empty sequence otherwise, pptr() - pbase() characters beginning
at pbase().

b) if traits::eq_int_type(c,traits::eof()) returns true, then the empty sequence otherwise,
the sequence consisting of c.

Remarks: The member functions sputc() and sputn() call this function in case that no room can be
found in the put buffer enough to accomodate the argument character sequence.

Requires: Every overriding definition of this virtual function shall obey the following constraints:

1) The effect of consuming a character on the associated output sequence is specified307

2) Let r be the number of characters in the pending sequence not consumed. If r is non-zero then
pbase() and pptr() shall be set so that: pptr() - pbase() == r and the r characters starting
at pbase() are the associated output stream. In case r is zero (all characters of the pending
sequence have been consumed) then either pbase() is set to NULL, or pbase() and pptr() are
both set to the same NULL non-value.

3) The function may fail if either appending some character to the associated output stream fails or
if it is unable to establish pbase() and pptr() according to the above rules.

Returns: traits::eof() or throws an exception if the function fails.

Otherwise, returns some value other than traits::eof() to indicate success.308

Default behavior: Returns traits::eof().

27.7 Formatting and manipulators [iostream.format]

Header <istream> synopsis

namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_istream;
    typedef basic_istream<char> istream;
    typedef basic_istream<wchar_t> wistream;

template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_iostream;
    typedef basic_iostream<char> iostream;
    typedef basic_iostream<wchar_t> wiostream;

template <class charT, class traits>

307) That is, for each class derived from an instance of basic_streambuf in this Clause (27.8.1, 27.9.1.1), a specification of
how consuming a character effects the associated output sequence is given. There is no requirement on a program-defined class.
308) Typically, overflow returns c to indicate success, except when traits::eq_int_type(c,traits::eof()) returns true, in
which case it returns traits::not_eof(c).

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basic_istream<char,traits>& ws(basic_istream<char,traits>& is);

template <class charT, class traits, class T>
  basic_istream<charT, traits>&
  operator>>(basic_istream<charT, traits>&& is, T& x);
}

Header <ostream> synopsis

namespace std {
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_ostream;
  typedef basic_ostream<char> ostream;
  typedef basic_ostream<wchar_t> wostream;
  template <class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>& endl(basic_ostream<charT,traits>& os);
  template <class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>& ends(basic_ostream<charT,traits>& os);
  template <class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>& flush(basic_ostream<charT,traits>& os);
  template <class charT, class traits, class T>
    basic_ostream<charT, traits>&
    operator<<(basic_ostream<charT, traits>&& os, const T& x);
}

Header <iomanip> synopsis

namespace std {
    // types T1, T2, ..., are unspecified implementation types
    T1 resetiosflags(ios_base::fmtflags mask);
    T2 setiosflags (ios_base::fmtflags mask);
    T3 setbase(int base);
    template<charT> T4 setfill(charT c);
    T5 setprecision(int n);
    T6 setw(int n);
    template <class moneyT>
    T7 get_money(moneyT& mon, bool int1 = false);
    template <class moneyT>
    T8 put_money(const moneyT& mon, bool int1 = false);
    template <class charT>
    T9 get_time(struct tm* tmb, const charT* fmt);
    template <class charT>
    T10 put_time(const struct tm* tmb, const charT* fmt);
}

27.7.1 Input streams

The header <istream> defines two types and a function signature that control input from a stream buffer along with a function template that extracts from stream rvalues.

27.7.1.1 Class template basic_istream
typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
typedef traits traits_type;

// 27.7.1.1.1 Constructor/destructor:
explicit basic_istream(basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* sb);
basic_istream(basic_istream&& rhs);
virtual ~basic_istream();

// 27.7.1.1.2 Assign/swap:
basic_istream& operator=(basic_istream&& rhs);
void swap(basic_istream& rhs);

// 27.7.1.1.3 Prefix/suffix:
class sentry;

// 27.7.1.2 Formatted input:
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(
    basic_istream<charT,traits>& (*pf)(basic_istream<charT,traits>&&));
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(
    basic_istream<charT,traits>& (*pf)(basic_ios<charT,traits>&));
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(
    ios_base& (*pf)(ios_base&));
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(bool& n);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(short& n);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(unsigned short& n);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(int& n);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(long& n);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(unsigned long& n);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(long long& n);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(unsigned long long& n);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(float& f);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(double& f);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(long double& f);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(void*& p);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(
    basic_streambuf<char_type,traits>* sb);

// 27.7.1.3 Unformatted input:
streamsize gcount() const;
int_type get();
basic_istream<charT,traits>& get(char_type& c);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& get(char_type* s, streamsize n);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& get(char_type* s, streamsize n,
    char_type delim);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& get(basic_streambuf<char_type,traits>&& sb);
basic_istream<charT,traits>& get(basic_streambuf<char_type,traits>& sb,
    char_type delim);

basic_istream<charT,traits>& getline(char_type* s, streamsize n);
The class `basic_istream` defines a number of member function signatures that assist in reading and interpreting input from sequences controlled by a stream buffer.

Two groups of member function signatures share common properties: the formatted input functions (or extractors) and the unformatted input functions. Both groups of input functions are described as if they obtain (or extract) input characters by calling `rdbuf()->sbumpc()` or `rdbuf()->sgetc()`. They may use other public members of `istream`.

If `rdbuf()->sbumpc()` or `rdbuf()->sgetc()` returns `traits::eof()`, then the input function, except as explicitly noted otherwise, completes its actions and does `setstate(eofbit)`, which may throw `ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)`, before returning.
If one of these called functions throws an exception, then unless explicitly noted otherwise, the input function sets `badbit` in error state. If `badbit` is on in `exceptions()`, the input function rethrows the exception without completing its actions, otherwise it does not throw anything and proceeds as if the called function had returned a failure indication.

### 27.7.1.1.1 `basic_istream` constructors

```cpp
explicit basic_istream(basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* sb);
```

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_istream`, assigning initial values to the base class by calling `basic_ios::init(sb)` (27.5.4.1).

**Postcondition:** `gcount() == 0`

```cpp
basic_istream(basic_istream&& rhs);
```

**Effects:** Move constructs from the rvalue `rhs`. This is accomplished by default constructing the base class, copying the `gcount()` from `rhs`, calling `basic_ios<charT, traits>::move(rhs)` to initialize the base class, and setting the `gcount()` for `rhs` to 0.

```cpp
virtual ~basic_istream();
```

**Effects:** Destroys an object of class `basic_istream`.

**Remarks:** Does not perform any operations of `rdbuf()`.

### 27.7.1.1.2 `basic_istream` assign and swap

```cpp
basic_istream& operator=(basic_istream&& rhs);
```

**Effects:** `swap(rhs);`

**Returns:** `*this`.

```cpp
void swap(basic_istream& rhs);
```

**Effects:** Calls `basic_ios<charT, traits>::swap(rhs)`. Exchanges the values returned by `gcount()` and `rhs.gcount()`.

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits>
t void swap(basic_istream<charT, traits>& x, basic_istream<charT, traits>& y);
```

**Effects:** `x.swap(y)`.

### 27.7.1.1.3 `basic_istream::sentry`

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_istream<charT,traits>::sentry {
        typedef traits traits_type;
        bool ok_; // exposition only
    public:
        explicit sentry(basic_istream<charT,traits>& is, bool noskipws = false);
        ~sentry();
        explicit operator bool() const { return ok_; }
        sentry(const sentry&) = delete;
        sentry& operator=(const sentry&) = delete;
    };
}
```

§ 27.7.1.1.3
The class `sentry` defines a class that is responsible for doing exception safe prefix and suffix operations.

```cpp
explicit sentry(basic_istream<charT,traits>& is, bool noskipws = false);
```

**Effects:** If `is.good()` is `true false`, calls `is.setstate(failbit)`. Otherwise, prepares for formatted or unformatted input. First, if `is.tie()` is not a null pointer, the function calls `is.tie()->flush()` to synchronize the output sequence with any associated external C stream. Except that this call can be suppressed if the put area of `is.tie()` is empty. Further an implementation is allowed to defer the call to `flush` until a call of `is.rdbuf()->underflow()` occurs. If no such call occurs before the `sentry` object is destroyed, the call to `flush` may be eliminated entirely.\(^{309}\) If `noskipws` is zero and `is.flags() & ios_base::skipws` is nonzero, the function extracts and discards each character as long as the next available input character `c` is a whitespace character. If `is.rdbuf()->sbumpc()` or `is.rdbuf()->sgetc()` returns `traits::eof()`, the function calls `setstate(failbit | eofbit)` (which may throw `ios_base::failure`).

**Remarks:** The constructor `explicit sentry(basic_istream<charT,traits>& is, bool noskipws = false)` uses the currently imbued locale in `is`, to determine whether the next input character is whitespace or not.

To decide if the character `c` is a whitespace character, the constructor performs as if it executes the following code fragment:

```cpp
const ctype<charT>& ctype = use_facet<ctype<charT> >(is.getloc());
if (ctype.is(ctype.space,c)!=0)
  // c is a whitespace character.
```

If, after any preparation is completed, `is.good()` is `true, ok_. != false` otherwise, `ok_ == false`. During preparation, the constructor may call `setstate(failbit)` (which may throw `ios_base::failure`).\(^{310}\)

```
~sentry();
```

**Effects:** None.

```cpp
explicit operator bool() const;
```

**Effects:** Returns `ok_`.

### 27.7.1.2 Formatted input functions

#### 27.7.1.2.1 Common requirements

Each formatted input function begins execution by constructing an object of class `sentry` with the `noskipws` (second) argument `false`. If the `sentry` object returns `true`, when converted to a value of type `bool`, the function endeavors to obtain the requested input. If an exception is thrown during input then `ios::badbit` is turned on\(^{311}\) in `*this`'s error state. If `(exceptions()&badbit) != 0` then the exception is reraised.

---

309) This will be possible only in functions that are part of the library. The semantics of the constructor used in user code is as specified.

310) The sentry constructor and destructor can also perform additional implementation-dependent operations.

311) This is done without causing an `ios::failure` to be thrown.

§ 27.7.1.2.1 987
In any case, the formatted input function destroys the `sentry` object. If no exception has been thrown, it returns `*this`.

### 27.7.1.2.2 Arithmetic Extractors

```cpp
operator>>(unsigned short& val);
operator>>(unsigned int& val);
operator>>(long& val);
operator>>(unsigned long& val);
operator>>(long long& val);
operator>>(unsigned long long& val);
operator>>(float& val);
operator>>(double& val);
operator>>(long double& val);
operator>>(bool& val);
operator>>(void*& val);
```

As in the case of the inserter, these extractors depend on the locale's `num_get<>` (22.4.2.1) object to perform parsing the input stream data. These extractors behave as formatted input functions (as described in 27.7.1.2.1). After a sentry object is constructed, the conversion occurs as if performed by the following code fragment:

```cpp
typedef num_get< charT, istreambuf_iterator<charT, traits> > numget;
iosstate err = iosstate::goodbit;
use_facet<numget>(loc).get(*this, 0, *this, err, val);
setstate(err);
```

In the above fragment, `loc` stands for the private member of the `basic_ios` class. [Note: The first argument provides an object of the `istreambuf_iterator` class which is an iterator pointed to an input stream. It bypasses istreams and uses streambufs directly. — end note] Class `locale` relies on this type as its interface to `istream`, so that it does not need to depend directly on `istream`.

The conversion occurs as if performed by the following code fragment (using the same notation as for the preceding code fragment):

```cpp
typedef num_get< charT, istreambuf_iterator<charT, traits> > numget;
iosstate err = iosstate_base::goodbit;
long lval;
use_facet<numget>(loc).get(*this, 0, *this, err, lval);
if (err != 0)
  +
  else if (lval < numeric_limits<short>::min())
    err = ios_base::failbit;
  else if (lval > numeric_limits<short>::max() - 1)
    err = ios_base::failbit;
  if (lval < numeric_limits<short>::min()) {
    err |= ios_base::failbit;
    val = numeric_limits<short>::min();
  } else if (numeric_limits<short>::max() < lval) {
    err |= ios_base::failbit;
    val = numeric_limits<short>::max();
  } else
    val = static_cast<short>(lval);
setstate(err);
```
The conversion occurs as if performed by the following code fragment (using the same notation as for the preceding code fragment):

```cpp
typedef num_get<charT, istreambuf_iterator<charT, traits>> numget;
iosstate err = iostate_base::goodbit;
long lval;
use_facet<numget>(loc).get(*this, 0, *this, err, lval);
if (err != iostate::goodbit)
        +
    else if (lval < numeric_limits<int>::min())
            || numeric_limits<int>::max() < lval)
        err = ios_base::failbit;
    if (lval < numeric_limits<int>::min()) {
        err |= ios_base::failbit;
        val = numeric_limits<int>::min();
    } else if (numeric_limits<int>::max() < lval) {
        err |= ios_base::failbit;
        val = numeric_limits<int>::max();
    } else
        val = static_cast<int>(lval);
setstate(err);
```

### 27.7.1.2.3 basic_istream::operator>>([istream::extractors]

```cpp
basic_istream<charT, traits>& operator>>(
    (basic_istream<charT, traits>& (*pf)(basic_istream<charT, traits>&))

1 Effects: None. This extractor does not behave as a formatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.2.1.)

2 Returns: pf(*this).312

basic_istream<charT, traits>& operator>>(
    (basic_ios<charT, traits>& (*pf)(basic_ios<charT, traits>&))
)

3 Effects: Calls pf(*this). This extractor does not behave as a formatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.2.1).

4 Returns: *this.

basic_istream<charT, traits>& operator>>(
    (ios_base& (*pf)(ios_base&))
)

5 Effects: Calls pf(*this).313 This extractor does not behave as a formatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.2.1).

6 Returns: *this.

```
template<class traits>
    basic_istream<char,traits>& operator>>(basic_istream<char,traits>& in,
        signed char* s);

7    Effects: Behaves like a formatted input member (as described in 27.7.1.2.1) of in. After a sentry
          object is constructed, operator>> extracts characters and stores them into successive locations of an
          array whose first element is designated by s. If width() is greater than zero, n is width(). Otherwise n
          is the number of elements of the largest array of char_type that can store a terminating charT(). n
          is the maximum number of characters stored.

8    Characters are extracted and stored until any of the following occurs:
         — n-1 characters are stored;
         — end of file occurs on the input sequence;
         — ct.is(ct.space,c) is true for the next available input character c, where ct is use_facet<ctype<
                   charT> >(in.getloc()).

9    operator>> then stores a null byte (charT()) in the next position, which may be the first position if
    no characters were extracted. operator>> then calls width(0).

10   If the function extracted no characters, it calls setstate(failbit), which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3).

11   Returns: in.

template<class charT, class traits>
    basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>(basic_istream<charT,traits>& in,
        charT& c);

template<class traits>
    basic_istream<char,traits>& operator>>(basic_istream<char,traits>& in,
        unsigned char& c);

template<class traits>
    basic_istream<char,traits>& operator>>(basic_istream<char,traits>& in,
        signed char& c);

12   Effects: Behaves like a formatted input member (as described in 27.7.1.2.1) of in. After a sentry
          object is constructed a character is extracted from in, if one is available, and stored in c. Otherwise,
          the function calls in.setstate(failbit).

13   Returns: in.

basic_istream<charT,traits>& operator>>
    (basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* sb);

14   Effects: Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1). If sb is null,
          calls setstate(failbit), which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3). After a sentry object is
          constructed, extracts characters from *this and inserts them in the output sequence controlled by sb.
          Characters are extracted and inserted until any of the following occurs:
          — end-of-file occurs on the input sequence;
          — inserting in the output sequence fails (in which case the character to be inserted is not extracted);
          — an exception occurs (in which case the exception is caught).

15   If the function inserts no characters, it calls setstate(failbit), which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3). If it
    inserted no characters because it caught an exception thrown while extracting characters from
    *this and failbit is on in exceptions() (27.5.4.3), then the caught exception is rethrown.
27.7.1.3 Unformatted input functions

Each unformatted input function begins execution by constructing an object of class `sentry` with the default argument `noskipws` (second) argument `true`. If the `sentry` object returns `true`, when converted to a value of type `bool`, the function endeavors to obtain the requested input. Otherwise, if the `sentry` constructor exits by throwing an exception or if the `sentry` object returns `false`, when converted to a value of type `bool`, the function returns without attempting to obtain any input. In either case the number of extracted characters is set to 0; unformatted input functions taking a character array of non-zero size as an argument shall also store a null character (using `charT()` in the first location of the array. If an exception is thrown during input then `ios::badbit` is turned on\(^{314}\) in `*this`'s error state. (Exceptions thrown from `basic_ios<>::clear()` are not caught or rethrown.) If `(exceptions()&badbit) != 0` then the exception is rethrown. It also counts the number of characters extracted. If no exception has been thrown it ends by storing the count in a member object and returning the value specified. In any event the `sentry` object is destroyed before leaving the unformatted input function.

```
streamsize gcount() const;
```

Effects: None. This member function does not behave as an unformatted input function (as described in \[27.7.1.3\], paragraph 1).

```
int_type get();
```

Effects: Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in \[27.7.1.3\], paragraph 1). After constructing a `sentry` object, extracts a character `c`, if one is available. Otherwise, the function calls `setstate(failbit)`, which may throw `ios_base::failure` (27.5.4.3),

```
Returns: c if available, otherwise traits::eof().
```

```
basic_istream<charT,traits>& get(char_type& c);
```

Effects: Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in \[27.7.1.3\], paragraph 1). After constructing a `sentry` object, extracts a character, if one is available, and assigns it to `c`.\(^{315}\) Otherwise, the function calls `setstate(failbit)` (which may throw `ios_base::failure` (27.5.4.3)).

```
Returns: *this.
```

```
basic_istream<charT,traits>& get(char_type* s, streamsize n, char_type delim );
```

Effects: Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in \[27.7.1.3\], paragraph 1). After constructing a `sentry` object, extracts characters and stores them into successive locations of an array whose first element is designated by `s`.\(^{316}\) Characters are extracted and stored until any of the following occurs:

- `n` is less than one or `n - 1` characters are stored;
- end-of-file occurs on the input sequence (in which case the function calls `setstate(eofbit));
- `traits::eq(c, delim)` for the next available input character `c` (in which case `c` is not extracted).

---

\(^{314}\) This is done without causing an `ios::failure` to be thrown.

\(^{315}\) Note that this function is not overloaded on types `signed char` and `unsigned char`.

\(^{316}\) Note that this function is not overloaded on types `signed char` and `unsigned char`. 
If the function stores no characters, it calls `setstate(failbit)` (which may throw `ios_base::failure`).

In any case, if `n` is greater than zero it then stores a null character into the next successive location of the array.

*Returns:* `*this`.

```cpp
basic_istream<charT,traits>& get(char_type* s, streamsize n)
```

*Effects:* Calls `get(s, n, widen(‘\n’))`

*Returns:* Value returned by the call.

```cpp
basic_istream<charT,traits>& get(basic_streambuf<char_type,traits>& sb, char_type delim);
```

*Effects:* Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1). After constructing a sentry object, extracts characters and inserts them in the output sequence controlled by `sb`. Characters are extracted and inserted until any of the following occurs:

- end-of-file occurs on the input sequence;
- inserting in the output sequence fails (in which case the character to be inserted is not extracted);
- `traits::eq(c, delim)` for the next available input character `c` (in which case `c` is not extracted);
- an exception occurs (in which case, the exception is caught but not rethrown).

If the function inserts no characters, it calls `setstate(failbit)`, which may throw `ios_base::failure`.

*Returns:* `*this`.

```cpp
basic_istream<charT,traits>& getline(char_type* s, streamsize n, char_type delim);
```

*Effects:* Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1). After constructing a sentry object, extracts characters and stores them into successive locations of an array whose first element is designated by `s`. Characters are extracted and stored until one of the following occurs:

1. end-of-file occurs on the input sequence (in which case the function calls `setstate(eofbit)`);
2. `traits::eq(c, delim)` for the next available input character `c` (in which case the input character is extracted but not stored);
3. `n` is less than one or `n - 1` characters are stored (in which case the function calls `setstate(failbit)`).

These conditions are tested in the order shown.

If the function extracts no characters, it calls `setstate(failbit)` (which may throw `ios_base::failure`).

---

317) Note that this function is not overloaded on types `signed char` and `unsigned char`.
318) Since the final input character is “extracted,” it is counted in the `gcount()`, even though it is not stored.
319) This allows an input line which exactly fills the buffer, without setting `failbit`. This is different behavior than the historical AT&T implementation.
320) This implies an empty input line will not cause `failbit` to be set.
In any case, if \( n \) is greater than zero, it then stores a null character (using \texttt{charT()} \) into the next successive location of the array.

*Returns:* \texttt{*this}.

[Example:

```cpp
#include <iostream>

int main() {
    using namespace std;
    const int line_buffer_size = 100;

    char buffer[line_buffer_size];
    int line_number = 0;
    while (cin.getline(buffer, line_buffer_size, '\n') || cin.gcount()) {
        int count = cin.gcount();
        if (cin.eof())
            cout << "Partial final line": // cin.fail() is false
        else if (cin.fail()) {
            cout << "Partial long line";
            cin.clear(cin.rdstate() & "ios_base::failbit");
        } else {
            count--;
            // Don't include newline in count
            cout << "Line " << ++line_number;
        }
        cout << "(" << count << " chars): " << buffer << endl;
    }
}
```

— end example]

\texttt{basic_istream<charT,traits>& getline(char_type* s, streamsize n);} \n
*Returns:* \texttt{getline(s,n,widen('\n'))}

\texttt{basic_istream<charT,traits>& ignore(streamsize n = 1, int_type delim = traits::eof());}

*Effects:* Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1). After constructing a sentry object, extracts characters and discards them. Characters are extracted until any of the following occurs:

- if \( n \neq \text{numeric_limits<streamsize>::max()} \) (18.3.1), \( n \) characters are extracted
- end-of-file occurs on the input sequence (in which case the function calls \texttt{setstate(eofbit)}, which may throw \texttt{ios_base::failure} (27.5.4.3));
- \texttt{traits::eq_int_type(traits::to_int_type(c), delim)} for the next available input character \( c \) (in which case \( c \) is extracted).

*Remarks:* The last condition will never occur if \texttt{traits::eq_int_type(delim, traits::eof())}.

*Returns:* \texttt{*this}.

\texttt{int_type peek();}

*Effects:* Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1). After constructing a sentry object, reads but does not extract the current input character.
Returns: traits::eof() if good() is false. Otherwise, returns rdbuf()->sgetc().

basic_istream<

Effects: Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1). After constructing a sentry object, if !good() calls setstate(failbit) which may throw an exception, and return. Otherwise extracts characters and stores them into successive locations of an array whose first element is designated by s.\footnote{Note that this function is not overloaded on types signed char and unsigned char.} Characters are extracted and stored until either of the following occurs:

- $n$ characters are stored;
- end-of-file occurs on the input sequence (in which case the function calls setstate(failbit|eofbit), which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)).

Returns: *this.

streamsize readsome(

Effects: Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1). After constructing a sentry object, if !good() calls setstate(failbit) which may throw an exception, and return. Otherwise extracts characters and stores them into successive locations of an array whose first element is designated by s. If rdbuf()->in_avail() == -1, calls setstate(eofbit) (which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)), and extracts no characters;

- If rdbuf()->in_avail() == 0, extracts no characters
- If rdbuf()->in_avail() > 0, extracts min(rdbuf()->in_avail(),n)).

Returns: The number of characters extracted.

basic_istream<

Effects: Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1). After constructing a sentry object, if !good() calls setstate(failbit) which may throw an exception, and return. If rdbuf() is not null, calls rdbuf->sputbackc(). If rdbuf() is null, or if sputbackc() returns traits::eof(), calls setstate(badbit) (which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)). [Note: this function extracts no characters, so the value returned by the next call to gcount() is 0. — end note]

Returns: *this.

basic_istream<

Effects: Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1). After constructing a sentry object, if !good() calls setstate(failbit) which may throw an exception, and return. If rdbuf() is not null, calls rdbuf->sungetc(). If rdbuf() is null, or if sungetc() returns traits::eof(), calls setstate(badbit) (which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)). [Note: this function extracts no characters, so the value returned by the next call to gcount() is 0. — end note]

Returns: *this.

int sync();

Effects: Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1), except that it does not count the number of characters extracted and does not affect the value returned by subsequent calls to gcount(). After constructing a sentry object, if rdbuf() is a null pointer, returns
-1. Otherwise, calls `rdbuf()->pubsync()` and, if that function returns -1 calls `setstate(badbit)` (which may throw `ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)`, and returns -1. Otherwise, returns zero.

```
pos_type tellg();
```

**Effects:** Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1), except that it does not count the number of characters extracted and does not affect the value returned by subsequent calls to `gcount()`.

**Returns:** After constructing a sentry object, if `fail() != false`, returns `pos_type(-1)` to indicate failure. Otherwise, returns `rdbuf()->pubseekoff(0, cur, in)`.

```
basic_istream<charT,traits>& seekg(pos_type pos);
```

**Effects:** Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1), except that it does not count the number of characters extracted and does not affect the value returned by subsequent calls to `gcount()`. After constructing a sentry object, if `fail() != true`, executes `rdbuf()->pubseekpos(pos, ios_base::in)`. In case of failure, the function calls `setstate(failbit)` (which may throw `ios_base::failure`).

**Returns:** *this.

```
basic_istream<charT,traits>& seekg(off_type off, ios_base::seekdir dir);
```

**Effects:** Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1), except that it does not count the number of characters extracted and does not affect the value returned by subsequent calls to `gcount()`. After constructing a sentry object, if `fail() != true`, executes `rdbuf()->pubseekoff(off, dir, ios_base::in)`. 

**Returns:** *this.

### 27.7.1.4 Standard basic_istream manipulators [istream.manip]

```
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits>
    basic_istream<charT,traits>& ws(basic_istream<charT,traits>& is);
}
```

**Effects:** Behaves as an unformatted input function (as described in 27.7.1.3, paragraph 1), except that it does not count the number of characters extracted and does not affect the value returned by subsequent calls to `is.gcount()`. After constructing a sentry object extracts characters as long as the next available character `c` is whitespace or until there are no more characters in the sequence. Whitespace characters are distinguished with the same criterion as used by `sentry::sentry (27.7.1.1.3)`. If `ws` stops extracting characters because there are no more available it sets `eofbit`, but not `failbit`.

**Returns:** `is`.

### 27.7.1.5 Class template basic_iostream [iostreamclass]

```
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_iostream :
        public basic_istream<charT,traits>,
        public basic_ostream<charT,traits> {
        public:
            // types:

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typedef charT char_type;
typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
typedef traits traits_type;

// constructor/destructor
explicit basic_iostream(basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* sb);
basic_iostream(basic_iostream&& rhs);
virtual ~basic_iostream();

// assign/swap
basic_iostream& operator=(basic_iostream&& rhs);
void swap(basic_iostream& rhs);

};

template <class charT, class traits>
void swap(basic_iostream<charT, traits>& x, basic_iostream<charT, traits>& y);

The class basic_iostream inherits a number of functions that allow reading input and writing output to sequences controlled by a stream buffer.

27.7.1.5.1 basic_iostream constructors

explicit basic_iostream(basic_streambuf<charT,traits>* sb);

1 Effects: Constructs an object of class basic_iostream, assigning initial values to the base classes by calling basic_istream<charT,traits>(sb) (27.7.1.1) and basic_ostream<charT,traits>(sb) (27.7.2.1)
2 Postcondition: rdbuf()==sb and gcount()==0.

basic_iostream(basic_iostream&& rhs);

3 Effects: Move constructs from the rvalue rhs by constructing the basic_istream base class with move(rhs).

27.7.1.5.2 basic_iostream destructor

virtual ~basic_iostream();

1 Effects: Destroys an object of class basic_iostream.
2 Remarks: Does not perform any operations on rdbuf().

27.7.1.5.3 basic_iostream assign and swap

basic_iostream& operator=(basic_iostream&& rhs);

1 Effects: swap(rhs).

void swap(basic_iostream& rhs);

2 Effects: Calls basic_istream<charT, traits>::swap(rhs).

template <class charT, class traits>
void swap(basic_iostream<charT, traits>& x, basic_iostream<charT, traits>& y);

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Effects: `x.swap(y)`.

### 27.7.1.6 Rvalue stream extraction

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits, class T>
basic_istream<charT, traits>& operator>>(basic_istream<charT, traits>&& is, T& x);
```

Effects: `is >> x`

Returns: `is`

### 27.7.2 Output streams

The header `<ostream>` defines a type and several function signatures that control output to a stream buffer along with a function template that inserts into stream rvalues.

#### 27.7.2.1 Class template `basic_ostream`

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>>
    class basic_ostream : virtual public basic_ios<charT, traits> { public:
        // types (inherited from basic_ios (27.5.4)):
        typedef charT char_type;
        typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
        typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
        typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
        typedef traits traits_type;

        // 27.7.2.2 Constructor/destructor:
        explicit basic_ostream(basic_streambuf<char_type, traits>* sb);
        basic_ostream(basic_ostream&& rhs);
        virtual ~basic_ostream();

        // 27.7.2.3 Assign/swap
        basic_ostream& operator=(basic_ostream&& rhs);
        void swap(basic_ostream& rhs);

        // 27.7.2.4 Prefix/suffix:
        class sentry;

        // 27.7.2.6 Formatted output:
        basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(const
            basic_ostream<charT, traits>&& (pf)(basic_ostream<charT, traits>&&)));
        basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(const
            basic_ios<charT, traits>&& (pf)(basic_ios<charT, traits>&&)));
        basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(const
            ios_base& (pf)(ios_base&)));

        basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(bool n);
        basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(short n);
        basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(unsigned short n);
        basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(int n);
        basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(unsigned int n);
    }
}
```

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basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<((long n);
basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<((unsigned long n);
basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<((long long n);
basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<((unsigned long long n);
basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<(float f);
basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<(double f);
basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<(long double f);

basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<((const void* p);
basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<(const streambuf<char_type,traits>* sb);

// 27.7.2.7 Unformatted output:
basic_ostream<charT,traits>& put(char_type c);
basic_ostream<charT,traits>& write(const char_type* s, streamsize n);

basic_ostream<charT,traits>& flush();

// 27.7.2.5 seeks:
pos_type tellp();
basic_ostream<charT,traits>& seekp(pos_type);
basic_ostream<charT,traits>& seekp(off_type, ios_base::seekdir);};

// 27.7.2.6.4 character inserters
template<class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<charT,traits>&, charT);
template<class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<charT,traits>&, char);
template<class traits>
    basic_ostream<char,traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<char,traits>&, char);

// signed and unsigned
template<class traits>
    basic_ostream<char,traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<char,traits>&, signed char);
template<class traits>
    basic_ostream<char,traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<char,traits>&, unsigned char);

template<class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<charT,traits>&, const charT*);
template<class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<charT,traits>&, const char*);

// signed and unsigned
template<class traits>
    basic_ostream<char,traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<char,traits>&, const char*);
The class `basic_ostream` defines a number of member function signatures that assist in formatting and writing output to output sequences controlled by a stream buffer.

Two groups of member function signatures share common properties: the formatted output functions (or inserters) and the unformatted output functions. Both groups of output functions generate (or insert) output characters by actions equivalent to calling `rdbuf()->sputc(int_type)`. They may use other public members of `basic_ostream` except that they shall not invoke any virtual members of `rdbuf()` except `overflow()`, `xspun()`, and `sync()`.

If one of these called functions throws an exception, then unless explicitly noted otherwise the output function sets `badbit` in error state. If `badbit` is on in `exceptions()`, the output function rethrows the exception without completing its actions, otherwise it does not throw anything and treat as an error.

### 27.7.2.2 Basic_ostream constructors

```cpp
explicit basic_ostream(basic_streambuf<charT, traits>* sb);
```

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_ostream`, assigning initial values to the base class by calling `basic_ios<charT, traits>::init(sb)` (27.5.4.1).

**Postcondition:** `rdbuf() == sb`.

```cpp
virtual ~basic_ostream();
```

**Effects:** Destroys an object of class `basic_ostream`.

**Remarks:** Does not perform any operations on `rdbuf()`.

```cpp
basic_ostream(basic_ostream&& rhs);
```

**Effects:** Move constructs from the rvalue `rhs`. This is accomplished by default constructing the base class and calling `basic_ios<charT, traits>::move(rhs)` to initialize the base class.

### 27.7.2.3 Class basic_ostream assign and swap

```cpp
basic_ostream& operator=(basic_ostream&& rhs);
```

**Effects:** `swap(rhs)`.

**Returns:** `*this`.

```cpp
void swap(basic_ostream& rhs);
```

**Effects:** Calls `basic_ios<charT, traits>::swap(rhs)`.

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits>
void swap(basic_ostream<charT, traits>& x, basic_ostream<charT, traits>& y);
```
27.7.2.4 Class basic_ostream::sentry

namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_ostream<charT, traits>::sentry {
    public:
        bool ok_; // exposition only
        explicit sentry(basic_ostream<charT, traits>& os);
        ~sentry();
        explicit operator bool() const { return ok_; }
        sentry(const sentry&) = delete;
        sentry& operator=(const sentry&) = delete;
    };
}

The class sentry defines a class that is responsible for doing exception safe prefix and suffix operations.

explicit sentry(basic_ostream<charT, traits>& os);

If os.good() is nonzero, prepares for formatted or unformatted output. If os.tie() is not a null pointer, calls os.tie()->flush().322

If, after any preparation is completed, os.good() is true, ok_ == true otherwise, ok_ == false. During preparation, the constructor may call setstate(failbit) (which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3))323

    -sentry();

    If ((os.flags() & ios_base::unitbuf) && !uncaught_exception()) is true, calls os.flush().

    Effects: Returns ok_.

27.7.2.5 basic_ostream seek members

pos_type tellp();

    Returns: if fail() != false, returns pos_type(-1) to indicate failure. Otherwise, returns rdbuf()->pubseekoff(0, cur, out).

    basic_ostream<charT, traits>& seekp(pos_type pos);

    Effects: If fail() != true, executes rdbuf()->pubseekpos(pos, ios_base::out). In case of failure, the function calls setstate(failbit) (which may throw ios_base::failure).

    Returns: *this.

basic_ostream<charT, traits>& seekp(off_type off, ios_base::seekdir dir);

    Effects: If fail() != true, executes rdbuf()->pubseekoff(off, dir, ios_base::out).

    Returns: *this.

322) The call os.tie()->flush() does not necessarily occur if the function can determine that no synchronization is necessary.
323) The sentry constructor and destructor can also perform additional implementation-dependent operations.
27.7.2.6 Formatted output functions

27.7.2.6.1 Common requirements

1 Each formatted output function begins execution by constructing an object of class `sentry`. If this object returns `true` when converted to a value of type `bool`, the function endeavors to generate the requested output. If the generation fails, then the formatted output function does `setstate(ios_base::failbit)`, which might throw an exception. If an exception is thrown during output, then `ios::badbit` is turned on in `*this`’s error state. If `(exceptions()&badbit) != 0` then the exception is rethrown. Whether or not an exception is thrown, the `sentry` object is destroyed before leaving the formatted output function. If no exception is thrown, the result of the formatted output function is `*this`.

2 The descriptions of the individual formatted output operations describe how they perform output and do not mention the `sentry` object.

27.7.2.6.2 Arithmetic Inserters

```cpp
operator<<(bool val);
operator<<(short val);
operator<<(unsigned short val);
operator<<(int val);
operator<<(unsigned int val);
operator<<(long val);
operator<<(unsigned long val);
operator<<(long long val);
operator<<(unsigned long long val);
operator<<(float val);
operator<<(double val);
operator<<(long double val);
operator<<(const void* val);
```

**Effects:** The classes `num_get<>` and `num_put<>` handle locale-dependent numeric formatting and parsing. These inserter functions use the imbued `locale` value to perform numeric formatting. When `val` is of type `bool`, `long`, `unsigned long`, `long long`, `unsigned long long`, `double`, `long double`, or `const void*`, the formatting conversion occurs as if it performed the following code fragment:

```cpp
bool failed = use_facet<
    num_put<charT,ostreambuf_iterator<charT,traits> > >
   >(getloc()).put(*this, *this, fill(), val).failed();
```

When `val` is of type `short` the formatting conversion occurs as if it performed the following code fragment:

```cpp
ios_base::fmtflags baseflags = ios_base::flags() & ios_base::basefield;
bool failed = use_facet<
    num_put<charT,ostreambuf_iterator<charT,traits> > >
   >(getloc()).put(*this, *this, fill(),
    baseflags == ios_base::oct || baseflags == ios_base::hex
     ? static_cast<long>(static_cast<unsigned short>(val))
     : static_cast<long>(val)).failed();
```

When `val` is of type `int` the formatting conversion occurs as if it performed the following code fragment:

324) without causing an `ios::failure` to be thrown.
ios_base::fmtflags baseflags = ios_base::flags() & ios_base::basefield;
bool failed = use_facet<
    num_put<charT,ostreambuf_iterator<charT,traits> >
   >(getloc()).put(*this, *this, fill(),
   baseflags == ios_base::oct || baseflags == ios_base::hex
   ? static_cast<long>(static_cast<unsigned int>(val))
   : static_cast<long>(val)).failed();

When val is of type **unsigned short** or **unsigned int** the formatting conversion occurs as if it performed the following code fragment:

    bool failed = use_facet<
        num_put<charT,ostreambuf_iterator<charT,traits> >
        >(getloc()).put(*this, *this, fill(),
        static_cast<unsigned long>(val)).failed();

When val is of type **float** the formatting conversion occurs as if it performed the following code fragment:

    bool failed = use_facet<
        num_put<charT,ostreambuf_iterator<charT,traits> >
        >(getloc()).put(*this, *this, fill(),
        static_cast<double>(val)).failed();

The first argument provides an object of the **ostreambuf_iterator<>** class which is an iterator for class **basic_ostream<>**. It bypasses ostream and uses streambufs directly. Class locale relies on these types as its interface to iostreams, since for flexibility it has been abstracted away from direct dependence on ostream. The second parameter is a reference to the base subobject of type **ios_base**. It provides formatting specifications such as field width, and a locale from which to obtain other facets. If **failed** is **true** then does **setstate(badbit)**, which may throw an exception, and returns.

**Returns:** *this.

### 27.7.2.6.3 basic_ostream::operator<<

[ostream.inserters]

**basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<(**

(basic_ostream<charT,traits>& (*pf)(basic_ostream<charT,traits>&))

**Effects:** None. Does not behave as a formatted output function (as described in 27.7.2.6.1).

**Returns:** pf(*this). 325

**basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<(**

(basic_ios<charT,traits>& (*pf)(basic_ios<charT,traits>&))

**Effects:** Calls pf(*this). This inserter does not behave as a formatted output function (as described in 27.7.2.6.1).

**Returns:** *this. 326

**basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<(**

(ios_base& (*pf)(ios_base&))

---

325 See, for example, the function signature endl(basic_ostream&) (27.7.2.8).
326 See, for example, the function signature dec(ios_base&) (27.5.5.3).
Effects: Calls `pf(*this)`. This inserter does not behave as a formatted output function (as described in 27.7.2.6.1).

Returns: `*this`.

```cpp
basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(basic_streambuf<charT, traits>* sb);
```

Effects: Behaves as an unformatted output function (as described in 27.7.2.7, paragraph 1). After the sentry object is constructed, if `sb` is null calls `setstate(badbit)` (which may throw `ios_base::failure`).

Gets characters from `sb` and inserts them in `*this`. Characters are read from `sb` and inserted until any of the following occurs:

- end-of-file occurs on the input sequence;
- inserting in the output sequence fails (in which case the character to be inserted is not extracted);
- an exception occurs while getting a character from `sb`.

If the function inserts no characters, it calls `setstate(failbit)` (which may throw `ios_base::failure`) (27.5.4.3)).

If an exception was thrown while extracting a character, the function sets `failbit` in error state, and if `failbit` is on in `exceptions()` the caught exception is rethrown.

Returns: `*this`.

27.7.2.6.4 Character inserter function templates

```cpp
template<class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<charT, traits>& out, charT c);

template<class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<charT, traits>& out, char c);

    // specialization
    template<class traits>
        basic_ostream<char, traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<char, traits>& out, char c);

    // signed and unsigned
    template<class traits>
        basic_ostream<char, traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<char, traits>& out, signed char c);

    template<class traits>
        basic_ostream<char, traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<char, traits>& out, unsigned char c);
```

Effects: Behaves like a formatted inserter (as described in 27.7.2.6.1) of `out`. After a `sentry` object is constructed it inserts characters. In case `c` has type `char` and the character type of the stream is not `char`, then the character to be inserted is `out.widen(c)`; otherwise the character is `c`. Padding is determined as described in 22.4.2.2.2. `width(0)` is called. The insertion character and any required padding are inserted into `out`.

Returns: `out`.

```cpp
template<class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT, traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<charT, traits>& out, const charT* s);
```
template<class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<charT,traits>& out,
        const char* s);

template<class traits>
    basic_ostream<char,traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<char,traits>& out,
        const char* s);

template<class traits>
    basic_ostream<char,traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<char,traits>& out,
        const signed char* s);

template<class traits>
    basic_ostream<char,traits>& operator<<(basic_ostream<char,traits>& out,
        const unsigned char* s);

Requires: s shall not be a null pointer.
Effects: Behaves like a formatted inserter (as described in 27.7.2.6.1) of out. After a sentry object is
constructed it inserts n characters starting at s, where n is the number that would be computed as if by:

- traits::length(s) for the overload where the first argument is of type basic_ostream<charT, 
  traits>& and the second is of type const charT*, and also for the overload where the first 
  argument is of type basic_ostream<char, traits>& and the second is of type const char*,
- std::char_traits<char>::length(s) for the overload where the first argument is of type 
  basic_ostream<char, traits>& and the second is of type const char*,
- traits::length(reinterpret_cast<const char*>(s)) for the other two overloads.

Padding is determined as described in 22.4.2.2.2. The n characters starting at s are widened using
out.widen (27.5.4.2). The widened characters and any required padding are inserted into out. Calls
width(0).

Returns: out.

27.7.2.7 Unformatted output functions
[ostream.unformatted]

Each unformatted output function begins execution by constructing an object of class sentry. If this object
returns true, while converting to a value of type bool, the function endeavors to generate the requested
output. If an exception is thrown during output, then ios::badbit is turned on in *this’s error state.
If (exceptions() & badbit) != 0 then the exception is rethrown. In any case, the unformatted output
function ends by destroying the sentry object, then, if no exception was thrown, returning the value specified
for the unformatted output function.

basic_ostream<charT,traits>& put(char_type c);

Effects: Behaves as an unformatted output function (as described in 27.7.2.7, paragraph 1). After
constructing a sentry object, inserts the character c, if possible.328
Otherwise, calls setstate(badbit) (which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)).

Returns: *this.

basic_ostream& write(const char_type* s, streamsize n);

---

327) without causing an ios::failure to be thrown.
328) Note that this function is not overloaded on types signed char and unsigned char.
Effects: Behaves as an unformatted output function (as described in 27.7.2.7, paragraph 1). After constructing a sentry object, obtains characters to insert from successive locations of an array whose first element is designated by s. Characters are inserted until either of the following occurs:

- n characters are inserted;
- inserting in the output sequence fails (in which case the function calls setstate(badbit), which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)).

Returns: *this.

basic_ostream& flush();

Effects: Behaves as an unformatted output function (as described in 27.7.2.6.1, paragraph 1). If rdbuf() is not a null pointer, constructs a sentry object. If this object returns true when converted to a value of type bool the function calls rdbuf()->pubsync(). If that function returns -1 calls setstate(badbit) (which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)). Otherwise, if the sentry object returns false, does nothing.

Returns: *this.

27.7.2.8 Standard basic_ostream manipulators [ostream.manip]

namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>& endl(basic_ostream<charT,traits>&& os);
}

Effects: Calls os.put(os.widen(’\n’)), then os.flush().

Returns: os.

namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>& ends(basic_ostream<charT,traits>&& os);
}

Effects: Inserts a null character into the output sequence: calls os.put(charT()).

Returns: os.

namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>& flush(basic_ostream<charT,traits>&& os);
}

Effects: Calls os.flush().

Returns: os.

27.7.2.9 Rvalue stream insertion [ostream.rvalue]

template <class charT, class traits, class T>
    basic_ostream<charT,traits>&
    operator<<((basic_ostream<charT, traits>&& os, const T& x));

Note that this function is not overloaded on types signed char and unsigned char.
The header `<iomanip>` defines several functions that support extractors and inserters that alter information maintained by class `ios_base` and its derived classes.

```cpp
void f(ios_base& str, ios_base::fmtflags mask) {
    // reset specified flags
    str.setf(ios_base::fmtflags(0), mask);
}
```

The expression `out << resetiosflags(mask)` shall have type `basic_ostream<charT, traits>&` and value `out`. The expression `in >> resetiosflags(mask)` shall have type `basic_istream<charT, traits>&` and value `in`.

```cpp
void f(ios_base& str, ios_base::fmtflags mask) {
    // set specified flags
    str.setf(ios_base::fmtflags(0), mask);
}
```

The expression `out << setiosflags(mask)` shall have type `basic_ostream<charT, traits>&` and value `out`. The expression `in >> setiosflags(mask)` shall have type `basic_istream<charT, traits>&` and value `in`.

```cpp
void f(ios_base& str, int base) {
    // set basefield
    str.setf(base == 8 ? ios_base::oct :
              base == 10 ? ios_base::dec :
              base == 2 ? ios_base::hex :
              base == 16 ? ios_base::lowercase :
                          ios_base::uppercase);
}
```

The expression `cin >> resetiosflags(ios_base::skipws)` clears `ios_base::skipws` in the format flags stored in the `basic_istream<charT, traits>` object `cin` (the same as `cin >> noskipws`), and the expression `cout << resetiosflags(ios_base::showbase)` clears `ios_base::showbase` in the format flags stored in the `basic_ostream<charT, traits>` object `cout` (the same as `cout << noshowbase`).
base == 16 ? ios_base::hex :
ios_base::fmtflags(0), ios_base::basefield);
}

The expression out <<setbase(base) shall have type basic_ostream<charT, traits>& and value out. The expression in >>setbase(base) shall have type basic_istream<charT, traits>& and value in.

\texttt{unspe\textit{c}cified setfill(char_type c);}

\textbf{Returns:} An object of unspecified type such that if out is an object of type basic_ostream<charT, traits> and c has type charT then the expression out <<setfill(c) behaves as if it called f(out, c), where the function f is defined as:

\begin{verbatim}
  template<class charT, class traits>
  void f(basic_ios<charT,traits>& str, charT c) {
    // set fill character
    str.fill(c);
  }
\end{verbatim}

The expression out <<setfill(c) shall have type basic_ostream<charT, traits>& and value out.

\texttt{unspe\textit{c}cified setprecision(int n);}

\textbf{Returns:} An object of unspecified type such that if out is an object of type basic_ostream<charT, traits> then the expression out <<setprecision(n) behaves as if it called f(out, n), or if in is an object of type basic_istream<charT, traits> then the expression in >>setprecision(n) behaves as if it called f(in, n), where the function f is defined as:

\begin{verbatim}
  void f(ios_base& str, int n) {
    // set precision
    str.precision(n);
  }
\end{verbatim}

The expression out <<setprecision(n) shall have type basic_ostream<charT, traits>& and value out. The expression in >>setprecision(n) shall have type basic_istream<charT, traits>& and value in.

\texttt{unspe\textit{c}cified setw(int n);}

\textbf{Returns:} An object of unspecified type such that if out is an instance of basic_ostream<charT, traits> then the expression out <<setw(n) behaves as if it called f(out, n), or if in is an object of type basic_istream<charT, traits> then the expression in >>setw(n) behaves as if it called f(in, n), where the function f is defined as:

\begin{verbatim}
  void f(ios_base& str, int n) {
    // set width
    str.width(n);
  }
\end{verbatim}

The expression out <<setw(n) shall have type basic_ostream<charT, traits>& and value out. The expression in >>setw(n) shall have type basic_istream<charT, traits>& and value in.

\subsection*{27.7.4 Extended Manipulators} \texttt{[ext.manip]}

The header \texttt{<iomanip>} defines several functions that support extractors and inserters that allow for the parsing and formatting of sequences and values for money and time.
template <class moneyT> unspecified get_money(moneyT& mon, bool intl = false);

Requirements: The type moneyT shall be either long double or a specialization of the basic_string template (Clause 21).

Effects: The expression in >> get_money(mon, intl) described below behaves as a formatted input function (27.7.1.2.1).

Returns: An object of unspecified type such that if in is an object of type basic_istream<charT, traits> then the expression in >> get_money(mon, intl) behaves as if it called f(in, mon, intl), where the function f is defined as:

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits, class moneyT>
void f(basic_ios<charT, traits>& str, moneyT& mon, bool intl) {
  typedef istreambuf_iterator<charT, traits> Iter;
  typedef money_get<charT, Iter> MoneyGet;

  ios_base::iostate err = ios_base::goodbit;
  const MoneyGet &mg = use_facet<MoneyGet>(str.getloc());

  mg.get(Iter(str.rdbuf()), Iter(), intl, str, err, mon);

  if (ios_base::goodbit != err)
    str.setstate(err);
}
```

The expression in >> get_money(mon, intl) shall have type basic_istream<charT, traits>& and value in.

template <class moneyT> unspecified put_money(const moneyT& mon, bool intl = false);

Requirements: The type moneyT shall be either long double or a specialization of the basic_string template (Clause 21).

Returns: An object of unspecified type such that if out is an object of type basic_ostream<charT, traits> then the expression out << put_money(mon, intl) behaves as a formatted input function that calls f(out, mon, intl), where the function f is defined as:

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits, class moneyT>
void f(basic_ios<charT, traits>& str, const moneyT& mon, bool intl) {
  typedef ostreambuf_iterator<charT, traits> Iter;
  typedef money_put<charT, Iter> MoneyPut;

  const MoneyPut& mp = use_facet<MoneyPut>(str.getloc());
  const Iter end = mp.put(Iter(str.rdbuf()), intl, str, str.fill(), mon);

  if (end.failed())
    str.setstate(ios::badbit);
}
```

The expression out << put_money(mon, intl) shall have type basic_ostream<charT, traits>& and value out.

template <class charT> unspecified get_time(struct tm* tmb, const charT* fmt);

Requirements: The argument tmb shall be a valid pointer to an object of type struct tm, and the argument fmt shall be a valid pointer to an array of objects of type charT with char_traits<charT>::length(fmt) elements.
Returns: An object of unspecified type such that if \( \text{in} \) is an object of type `basic_istream<charT, traits>` then the expression \( \text{in} \gg get\_time(tmb, \text{fmt}) \) behaves as if it called \( f(\text{in}, \text{tmb}, \text{fmt}) \), where the function \( f \) is defined as:

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits>
void f(basic_istream<charT, traits>& str, struct tm* tmb, const charT* fmt) {
    typedef istreambuf_iterator<charT, traits> Iter;
    typedef time_get<charT, Iter> TimeGet;
    ios_base::iostate err = ios_base::goodbit;
    const TimeGet& tg = use_facet<TimeGet>(str.getloc());
    tm.get(Iter(str.rdbuf()), Iter(), str, err, tmb,
           fmt, fmt + traits::length(fmt));
    if (err != ios_base::goodbit)
        str.setstate(err);
}
```

The expression \( \text{in} \gg get\_time(tmb, \text{fmt}) \) shall have type `basic_istream<charT, traits>&` and value \( \text{in} \).

```cpp
template <class charT> unspecified put_time(const struct tm* tmb, const charT* fmt);
```

Requires: The argument \( \text{tmb} \) shall be a valid pointer to an object of type `struct tm`, and the argument \( \text{fmt} \) shall be a valid pointer to an array of objects of type `charT` with `char_traits<charT>::length(fmt)` elements.

Returns: An object of unspecified type such that if \( \text{out} \) is an object of type `basic_ostream<charT, traits>` then the expression \( \text{out} \ll put\_time(tmb, \text{fmt}) \) behaves as if it called \( f(\text{out}, \text{tmb}, \text{fmt}) \), where the function \( f \) is defined as:

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits>
void f(basic_ostream<charT, traits>& str, const struct tm* tmb, const charT* fmt) {
    typedef ostreambuf_iterator<charT, traits> Iter;
    typedef time_put<charT, Iter> TimePut;
    const TimePut& tp = use_facet<TimePut>(str.getloc());
    const Iter end = tp.put(Iter(str.rdbuf()), str, str.fill(), tmb,
                            fmt, fmt + traits::length(fmt));
    if (end.failed())
        str.setstate(ios_base::badbit);
}
```

The expression \( \text{out} \ll put\_time(tmb, \text{fmt}) \) shall have type `basic_istream<charT, traits>&` and value \( \text{out} \).

### 27.8 String-based streams

The header `<sstream>` defines four class templates and eight types that associate stream buffers with objects of class `basic_string`, as described in 21.3.

Header `<sstream>` synopsis

```
namespace std {
```
template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
         class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
class basic_stringbuf;

typedef basic_stringbuf<char> stringbuf;
typedef basic_stringbuf<wchar_t> wstringbuf;

template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
         class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
class basic_istringstream;

typedef basic_istringstream<char> istringstream;
typedef basic_istringstream<wchar_t> wistringstream;

template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
         class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
class basic_ostringstream;

typedef basic_ostringstream<char> ostringstream;
typedef basic_ostringstream<wchar_t> wostringstream;

template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
         class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
class basic_stringstream;

typedef basic_stringstream<char> stringstream;
typedef basic_stringstream<wchar_t> wstringstream;

27.8.1 Class template basic_stringbuf

namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
              class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
class basic_stringbuf : public basic_streambuf<charT,traits> { 
    public:
        typedef charT char_type;
        typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
        typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
        typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
        typedef traits traits_type;
        typedef Allocator allocator_type;

        // 27.8.1.1 Constructors:
        explicit basic_stringbuf(ios_base::openmode which
                                = ios_base::in | ios_base::out);
        explicit basic_stringbuf
                           (const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str,
                            ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::in | ios_base::out);
        basic_stringbuf(basic_stringbuf&& rhs);

        // 27.8.1.2 Assign and swap:
        basic_stringbuf& operator=(basic_stringbuf&& rhs);
        void swap(basic_stringbuf& rhs);

        // 27.8.1.3 Get and set:
        basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator> str() const;
The class `basic_stringbuf` is derived from `basic_streambuf` to associate possibly the input sequence and possibly the output sequence with a sequence of arbitrary characters. The sequence can be initialized from, or made available as, an object of class `basic_string`.

For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as:

- `ios_base::openmode mode`, has in set if the input sequence can be read, and out set if the output sequence can be written.

### 27.8.1.1 basic_stringbuf constructors

#### explicit basic_stringbuf(ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::in | ios_base::out);

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_stringbuf`, initializing the base class with `basic_streambuf()` (27.6.2.1), and initializing `mode` with `which`.

**Postcondition:** `str()` == ""

#### explicit basic_stringbuf(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& s, ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::in | ios_base::out);

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_stringbuf`, initializing the base class with `basic_streambuf()` (27.6.2.1), and initializing `mode` with `which`. Then calls `str(s)`. 

#### basic_stringbuf(basic_stringbuf&& rhs);

**Effects:** Move constructs from the rvalue `rhs`. It is implementation-defined whether the sequence pointers in `*this (eback(), gptr(), egptr(), pbase(), pptr(), epptr())` obtain the values which
rhs had. Whether they do or not, *this and rhs reference separate buffers (if any at all) after the construction. The openmode, locale and any other state of rhs is also copied.

**Postconditions:** Let rhs_p refer to the state of rhs just prior to this construction and let rhs_a refer to the state of rhs just after this construction.

- $\text{str()} == \text{rhs_p.str()}$
- $\text{gptr()} - \text{eback()} == \text{rhs_p.gptr()} - \text{rhs_p.eback()}$
- $\text{egptr()} - \text{eback()} == \text{rhs_p.egptr()} - \text{rhs_p.eback()}$
- $\text{pptr()} - \text{pbase()} == \text{rhs_p.pptr()} - \text{rhs_p.pbase()}$
- $\text{epptr()} - \text{pbase()} == \text{rhs_p.epptr()} - \text{rhs_p.pbase()}$
- if (eback()) $\text{eback()} != \text{rhs_a.eback()}$
- if (gptr()) $\text{gptr()} != \text{rhs_a.gptr()}$
- if (egptr()) $\text{egptr()} != \text{rhs_a.egptr()}$
- if (pbase()) $\text{pbase()} != \text{rhs_a.pbase()}$
- if (pptr()) $\text{pptr()} != \text{rhs_a.pptr()}$
- if (epptr()) $\text{epptr()} != \text{rhs_a.epptr()}$

### 27.8.1.2 Assign and swap

```cpp
basic_stringbuf& operator=(basic_stringbuf&& rhs);
```

**Effects:** swap(rhs).

**Returns:** *this.

```cpp
void swap(basic_stringbuf& rhs);
```

**Effects:** Exchanges the state of *this and rhs.

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
void swap(basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>& x,
          basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>& y);
```

**Effects:** x.swap(y).

### 27.8.1.3 Member functions

```cpp
basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator> str() const;
```

**Returns:** A basic_string object whose content is equal to the basic_stringbuf underlying character sequence. If the basic_stringbuf was created only in input mode, the resultant basic_string contains the character sequence in the range [eback(),egptr()). If the basic_stringbuf was created with which & ios_base::out being true then the resultant basic_string contains the character sequence in the range [pbase(),high_mark), where high_mark represents the position one past the highest initialized character in the buffer. Characters can be initialized by writing to the stream, by constructing the basic_stringbuf with a basic_string, or by calling the str(basic_string) member function. In the case of calling the str(basic_string) member function, all characters initialized prior to the call are now considered uninitialized (except for those characters re-initialized
by the new `basic_string`). Otherwise the `basic_stringbuf` has been created in neither input nor output mode and a zero length `basic_string` is returned.

```cpp
void str(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& s);
```

**Effects:** Copies the content of `s` into the `basic_stringbuf` underlying character sequence and initializes the input and output sequences according to `mode`.

**Postconditions:** If `mode & ios_base::out` is true, `pbase()` points to the first underlying character and `eptr() >= pbase() + s.size()` holds; in addition, if `mode & ios_base::in` is true, `pptr()` == `pbase()` + `s.data()` holds, otherwise `pptr()` == `pbase()` is true. If `mode & ios_base::in` is true, `eback()` points to the first underlying character, and both `gptr()` == `eback()` and `egptr() == eback() + s.size()` hold.

### 27.8.1.4 Overridden virtual functions

#### int_type underflow();

**Returns:** If the input sequence has a read position available, returns `traits::to_int_type(*gptr())`. Otherwise, returns `traits::eof()`. Any character in the underlying buffer which has been initialized is considered to be part of the input sequence.

#### int_type pbackfail(int_type c = traits::eof());

**Effects:** Puts back the character designated by `c` to the input sequence, if possible, in one of three ways:

- If `traits::eq_int_type(c,traits::eof())` returns `false` and if the input sequence has a put-back position available, and if `traits::eq(to_char_type(c),gptr()[−1])` returns `true`, assigns `gptr() - 1` to `gptr()`.
  
  Returns: `c`.

- If `traits::eq_int_type(c,traits::eof())` returns `false` and if the input sequence has a put-back position available, and if `mode & ios_base::out` is nonzero, assigns `c` to `*--gptr()`.
  
  Returns: `c`.

- If `traits::eq_int_type(c,traits::eof())` returns `true` and if the input sequence has a put-back position available, assigns `gptr() - 1` to `gptr()`.
  
  Returns: `traits::not_eof(c)`.

**Returns:** `traits::eof()` to indicate failure.

**Remarks:** If the function can succeed in more than one of these ways, it is unspecified which way is chosen.

#### int_type overflow(int_type c = traits::eof());

**Effects:** Appends the character designated by `c` to the output sequence, if possible, in one of two ways:

- If `traits::eq_int_type(c,traits::eof())` returns `false` and if either the output sequence has a write position available or the function makes a write position available (as described below), the function calls `sputc(c)`.
  
  Signals success by returning `c`. 

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— If `traits::eq_int_type(c,traits::eof())` returns `true`, there is no character to append.

Signals success by returning a value other than `traits::eof()`.

**Remarks:** The function can alter the number of write positions available as a result of any call.

**Returns:** `traits::eof()` to indicate failure.

The function can make a write position available only if `(mode & ios_base::out) != 0`. To make a write position available, the function reallocates (or initially allocates) an array object with a sufficient number of elements to hold the current array object (if any), plus at least one additional write position. If `(mode & ios_base::in) != 0`, the function alters the read end pointer `egptr()` to point just past the new write position.

```cpp
pos_type seekoff(off_type off, ios_base::seekdir way,
                 ios_base::openmode which
                 = ios_base::in | ios_base::out);
```

**Effects:** Alters the stream position within one of the controlled sequences, if possible, as indicated in Table 120.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>(which &amp; ios_base::in) == ios_base::in</code></td>
<td>positions the input sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>(which &amp; ios_base::out) == ios_base::out</code></td>
<td>positions the output sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>`(which &amp; (ios_base::in</td>
<td>ios_base::out)) == (ios_base::in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otherwise</td>
<td>the positioning operation fails.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For a sequence to be positioned, if its next pointer (either `gptr()` or `pptr()`) is a null pointer and the new offset `newoff` is nonzero, the positioning operation fails. Otherwise, the function determines `newoff` as indicated in Table 121.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>newoff Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>way == ios_base::beg</code></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>way == ios_base::cur</code></td>
<td>the high mark pointer minus the beginning pointer (<code>high_mark - xbeg</code>).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>way == ios_base::end</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If `(newoff + off) < 0`, or if `newoff + off` refers to an uninitialized character (as defined in 27.8.1.3 paragraph 1), the positioning operation fails. Otherwise, the function assigns `xbeg + newoff + off` to the next pointer `xnext`. 

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Returns: \texttt{pos\_type(newoff)}, constructed from the resultant offset \texttt{newoff} (of type \texttt{off\_type}), that stores the resultant stream position, if possible. If the positioning operation fails, or if the constructed object cannot represent the resultant stream position, the return value is \texttt{pos\_type(off\_type(-1))}.

\texttt{pos\_type seekpos(pos\_type sp, ios\_base::openmode which = ios\_base::in | ios\_base::out);} 

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Effects: Equivalent to \texttt{seekoff(off\_type(sp), ios\_base::beg, which)}. Alters the stream position within the controlled sequences, if possible, to correspond to the stream position stored in \texttt{sp} (as described below).

- If \texttt{(which & ios\_base::in)} != 0, positions the input sequence.
- If \texttt{(which & ios\_base::out)} != 0, positions the output sequence.
- If \texttt{sp} is an invalid stream position, or if the function positions neither sequence, the positioning operation fails. If \texttt{sp} has not been obtained by a previous successful call to one of the positioning functions (\texttt{seekoff, seekpos, tellg, tellp}) the effect is undefined.

Returns: \texttt{sp} to indicate success, or \texttt{pos\_type(off\_type(-1))} to indicate failure.

\texttt{basic\_streambuf\langle charT, traits\rangle\* setbuf(charT* s, streamsize n);} 

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Effects: implementation-defined, except that \texttt{setbuf(0,0)} has no effect.

Returns: this.

27.8.2 Class template basic\_istringstream 

namespace std 

{

template <class charT, class traits = char\_traits\langle charT\rangle, 

class Allocator = allocator\langle charT\rangle>

class basic\_istringstream : public basic\_istream\langle charT, traits\rangle { 

public:

typedef charT char\_type;

typedef typename traits::int\_type int\_type;

typedef typename traits::pos\_type pos\_type;

typedef typename traits::off\_type off\_type;

typedef traits traits\_type;

typedef Allocator allocator\_type;

// 27.8.2.1 Constructors:
explicit basic\_istringstream(ios\_base::openmode which = ios\_base::in);
explicit basic\_istringstream(
    const basic\_string\langle charT, traits, Allocator\rangle\& str,
    ios\_base::openmode which = ios\_base::in);

basic\_istringstream(basic\_istringstream\&\& rhs);

// 27.8.2.2 Assign and swap:
basic\_istringstream\& operator=(basic\_istringstream\&\& rhs);
void swap(basic\_istringstream\& rhs);

// 27.8.2.3 Members:
basic\_stringbuf\langle charT, traits, Allocator\rangle\* rdbuf() const;

basic\_string\langle charT, traits, Allocator\rangle str() const;
void str(const basic\_string\langle charT, traits, Allocator\rangle\& s);
private:
    basic_stringbuf<charT,traits,Allocator> sb; // exposition only
};

template <class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
void swap(basic_istringstream<charT, traits, Allocator>& x,  
          basic_istringstream<charT, traits, Allocator>& y);

The class basic_istringstream<charT, traits, Allocator> supports reading objects of class basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>. It uses a basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator> object to control the associated storage. For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as:

— sb, the stringbuf object.

### 27.8.2.1 basic_istringstream constructors

[istringstream.cons]

explicit basic_istringstream(ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::in);

1. **Effects:** Constructs an object of class basic_istringstream<charT, traits>, initializing the base class with basic_istream(&sb) and initializing sb with basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>(which|ios_base::in)) (27.8.1.1).

explicit basic_istringstream(
    const basic_string<charT,traits,allocator>& str,  
    ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::in);

2. **Effects:** Constructs an object of class basic_istringstream<charT, traits>, initializing the base class with basic_istream(&sb) and initializing sb with basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>(str, which|ios_base::in)) (27.8.1.1).

basic_istringstream(basic_istringstream&& rhs);

3. **Effects:** Move constructs from the rvalue rhs. This is accomplished by move constructing the base class, and the contained basic_stringbuf. Next basic_istream<charT,traits>::set_rdbuf(&sb) is called to install the contained basic_stringbuf.

### 27.8.2.2 Assign and swap

[istringstream.assign]

basic_istringstream& operator=(basic_istringstream&& rhs);

1. **Effects:** swap(rhs).

2. **Returns:** *this.

void swap(basic_istringstream& rhs);

3. **Effects:** Exchanges the state of *this and rhs by calling basic_istream<charT,traits>::swap(rhs) and sb.swap(rhs.sb).

template <class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
void swap(basic_istringstream<charT, traits, Allocator>& x,  
          basic_istringstream<charT, traits, Allocator>& y);

4. **Effects:** x.swap(y).
27.8.2.3 Member functions

```cpp
class basic_istringstream<traits, Allocator>* rdbuf() const;
Returns: const_cast<basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>*>(&sb).

class basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator> str() const;
Returns: rdbuf()->str().

template<typename charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
class basic_ostringstream : public basic_ostream<charT, traits> {
public:

// types:
  typedef charT char_type;
  typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
  typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
  typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
  typedef traits_type traits;
  typedef Allocator allocator_type;

// 27.8.3.1 Constructors/destructor:
  explicit basic_ostringstream(ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::out);
  explicit basic_ostringstream(const basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>& s,
                              ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::out);
  basic_ostringstream(basic_ostringstream&& rhs);

// 27.8.3.2 Assign/swap:
  basic_ostringstream& operator=(basic_ostringstream&& rhs);
  void swap(basic_ostringstream& rhs);

// 27.8.3.3 Members:
  basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>* rdbuf() const;
  class basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator> str() const;
  void str(const basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>& s);
private:
  basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator> sb; // exposition only
};
```

27.8.3 Class template basic_ostringstream

```cpp
namespace std {
  template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
            class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
class basic_ostringstream : public basic_ostream<charT, traits> {
public:

  // types:
  typedef charT char_type;
  typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
  typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
  typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
  typedef traits_type traits;
  typedef Allocator allocator_type;

  // 27.8.3.1 Constructors/destructor:
  explicit basic_ostringstream(ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::out);
  explicit basic_ostringstream(const basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>& s,
                              ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::out);
  basic_ostringstream(basic_ostringstream&& rhs);

  // 27.8.3.2 Assign/swap:
  basic_ostringstream& operator=(basic_ostringstream&& rhs);
  void swap(basic_ostringstream& rhs);

  // 27.8.3.3 Members:
  basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>* rdbuf() const;
  class basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator> str() const;
  void str(const basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>& s);
private:
  basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator> sb; // exposition only
};
```

§ 27.8.3
The class `basic_ostringstream<charT, traits, Allocator>` supports writing objects of class `basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>`. It uses a `basic_stringbuf` object to control the associated storage. For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as:

— `sb`, the `stringbuf` object.

### 27.8.3.1 basic_ostringstream constructors

```cpp
explicit basic_ostringstream(ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::out);
```

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_ostringstream`, initializing the base class with `basic_ostream(&sb)` and initializing `sb` with `basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>(which | ios_base::out))` (27.8.1.1).

```cpp
explicit basic_ostringstream(
    const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str,
    ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::out);
```

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_ostringstream<charT, traits>`, initializing the base class with `basic_ostream(&sb)` and initializing `sb` with `basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>(str, which | ios_base::out))` (27.8.1.1).

```cpp
basic_ostringstream(basic_ostringstream&& rhs);
```

**Effects:** Move constructs from the rvalue `rhs`. This is accomplished by move constructing the base class, and the contained `basic_stringbuf`. Next `basic_ostream<charT,traits>::set_rdbuf(&sb)` is called to install the contained `basic_stringbuf`.

### 27.8.3.2 Assign and swap

```cpp
basic_ostringstream& operator=(basic_ostringstream&& rhs);
```

**Effects:** `swap(rhs)`.

```cpp
void swap(basic_ostringstream& rhs);
```

**Effects:** Exchanges the state of `*this` and `rhs` by calling `basic_ostream<charT,traits>::swap(rhs)` and `sb.swap(rhs.sb)`.

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
void swap(basic_ostringstream<charT, traits, Allocator>& x,
    basic_ostringstream<charT, traits, Allocator>& y);
```

**Effects:** `x.swap(y)`.

### 27.8.3.3 Member functions

```cpp
basic_stringbuf<charT,traits,Allocator>* rdbuf() const;
```

**Returns:** `const_cast<basic_stringbuf<charT,traits,Allocator>*>(&sb)`.

```cpp
basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator> str() const;
```

**Returns:** `rdbuf()->str()`.

```cpp
void str(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& s);
```
Effects: Calls rdbuf()->str(s).

27.8.4 Class template basic_stringstream

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>,
              class Allocator = allocator<charT> >
    class basic_stringstream
        : public basic_iostream<charT,traits> {
    public:

        // types:
        typedef charT char_type;
        typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
        typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
        typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
        typedef traits traits_type;
        typedef Allocator allocator_type;

        // constructors/destructor
        explicit basic_stringstream(
            ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::out|ios_base::in);
        explicit basic_stringstream(
            const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str,
            ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::out|ios_base::in);
        basic_stringstream(basic_stringstream&& rhs);
        basic_stringstream& operator=(basic_stringstream&& rhs);
        void swap(basic_stringstream& rhs);

        // 27.8.5.1 Assign/swap:
        basic_stringstream& operator=(basic_stringstream&& rhs);
        void swap(basic_stringstream& rhs);

        // Members:
        basic_stringbuf<charT,traits,Allocator>* rdbuf() const;
        basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator> str() const;
        void str(const basic_string<charT,traits,Allocator>& str);
    private:
        basic_stringbuf<charT, traits> sb; // exposition only
    };

    template <class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
    void swap(basic_stringstream<charT, traits, Allocator>& x,
              basic_stringstream<charT, traits, Allocator>& y);
}
```

1 The class template basic_stringstream<charT, traits> supports reading and writing from objects of class basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>. It uses a basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator> object to control the associated sequence. For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as

— sb, the stringbuf object.

27.8.5 basic_stringstream constructors
explicit basic_stringstream(
    ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::out|ios_base::in);

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_stringstream<charT, traits>`, initializing the base class with `basic_iostream(&sb)` and initializing `sb` with `basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>(which)`.

explicit basic_stringstream(
    const basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>& str,
    ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::out|ios_base::in);

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_stringstream<charT, traits>`, initializing the base class with `basic_iostream(&sb)` and initializing `sb` with `basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>(str, which)`.

basic_stringstream(basic_stringstream&& rhs);

**Effects:** Move constructs from the rvalue `rhs`. This is accomplished by move constructing the base class, and the contained `basic_stringbuf`. Next `basic_istream<charT, traits>::set_rdbuf(&sb)` is called to install the contained `basic_stringbuf`.

### 27.8.5.1 Assign and swap

```
basic_stringstream& operator=(basic_stringstream&& rhs);
```

**Effects:** `swap(rhs)`.

**Returns:** *this.

```
void swap(basic_stringstream& rhs);
```

**Effects:** Exchanges the state of *this and rhs by calling `basic_iostream<charT, traits>::swap(rhs)` and `sb.swap(rhs.sb)`.

```
template <class charT, class traits, class Allocator>
void swap(basic_stringstream<charT, traits, Allocator>& x,
          basic_stringstream<charT, traits, Allocator>& y);
```

**Effects:** `x.swap(y)`.

### 27.8.6 Member functions

```
basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>* rdbuf() const;
```

**Returns:** `const_cast<basic_stringbuf<charT, traits, Allocator>*>(&sb)`

```
basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator> str() const;
```

**Returns:** `rdbuf()->str()`.

```
void str(const basic_string<charT, traits, Allocator>& str);
```

**Effects:** Calls `rdbuf()->str(str)`.

§ 27.8.6
27.9 File-based streams

27.9.1 File streams

The header `<fstream>` defines four class templates and eight types that associate stream buffers with files and assist reading and writing files.

Header `<fstream>` synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_filebuf;
    typedef basic_filebuf<char> filebuf;
    typedef basic_filebuf<wchar_t> wfilebuf;

template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_ifstream;
    typedef basic_ifstream<char> ifstream;
    typedef basic_ifstream<wchar_t> wifstream;

template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_ofstream;
    typedef basic_ofstream<char> ofstream;
    typedef basic_ofstream<wchar_t> wofstream;

template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_fstream;
    typedef basic_fstream<char> fstream;
    typedef basic_fstream<wchar_t> wfstream;
}
```

In this subclause, the type name `FILE` refers to the type `FILE` declared in `<cstdio>` (27.9.2).

[Note: The class template `basic_filebuf` treats a file as a source or sink of bytes. In an environment that uses a large character set, the file typically holds multibyte character sequences and the `basic_filebuf` object converts those multibyte sequences into wide character sequences. — end note]

27.9.1.1 Class template `basic_filebuf`

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_filebuf : public basic_streambuf<charT,traits> {
        public:
            typedef charT char_type;
            typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
            typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
            typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
            typedef traits traits_type;

            // 27.9.1.2 Constructors/destructor:
            basic_filebuf();
            basic_filebuf(basic_filebuf&& rhs);
            virtual ~basic_filebuf();

            // 27.9.1.3 Assign/swap:
            basic_filebuf& operator=(basic_filebuf&& rhs);
            void swap(basic_filebuf& rhs);
    }
```
1 The class `basic_filebuf<charT, traits>` associates both the input sequence and the output sequence with a file.

2 The restrictions on reading and writing a sequence controlled by an object of class `basic_filebuf<charT, traits>` are the same as for reading and writing with the Standard C library `FILEs`.

3 In particular:
   - If the file is not open for reading the input sequence cannot be read.
   - If the file is not open for writing the output sequence cannot be written.
   - A joint file position is maintained for both the input sequence and the output sequence.

4 An instance of `basic_filebuf` behaves as described in §27.9.1.1 provided `traits::pos_type` is `fpos<traits::state_type>`. Otherwise the behavior is undefined.

5 In order to support file I/O and multibyte/wide character conversion, conversions are performed using members of a facet, referred to as `a_codecvt` in following sections, obtained as if by

   ```
   const codecvt<charT, char, typename traits::state_type>& a_codecvt = 
   use_facet<codecvt<charT, char, typename traits::state_type>>(getloc());
   ```

### 27.9.1.2 basic_filebuf constructors

```
template <class charT, class traits>
void swap(basic_filebuf<charT, traits>& x, basic_filebuf<charT, traits>& y);
```
basic_filebuf();

1  **Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_filebuf<CharT,traits>`, initializing the base class with `basic_streambuf<CharT,traits>()` (27.6.2.1).

2  **Postcondition:** `is_open() == false`.

basic_filebuf(basic_filebuf&& rhs);

3  **Effects:** Move constructs from the rvalue `rhs`. It is implementation-defined whether the sequence pointers in `*this` (`eback()`, `gptr()`, `egptr()`, `pbase()`, `pptr()`, `epptr()`) obtain the values which `rhs` had. Whether they do or not, `*this` and `rhs` reference separate buffers (if any at all) after the construction. Additionally `*this` references the file which `rhs` did before the construction, and `rhs` references no file after the construction. The openmode, locale and any other state of `rhs` is also copied.

4  **Postconditions:** Let `rhs_p` refer to the state of `rhs` just prior to this construction and let `rhs_a` refer to the state of `rhs` just after this construction.
   - `is_open() == rhs_p.is_open()`
   - `rhs_a.is_open() == false`
   - `gptr() - eback() == rhs_p.gptr() - rhs_p.eback()`
   - `egptr() - eback() == rhs_p.egptr() - rhs_p.eback()`
   - `pptr() - pbase() == rhs_p.pptr() - rhs_p.pbase()`
   - `epptr() - pbase() == rhs_p.epptr() - rhs_p.pbase()`
   - `if (eback()) eback() != rhs_a.eback()`  
   - `if (gptr()) gptr() != rhs_a.gptr()`  
   - `if (egptr()) egptr() != rhs_a.egptr()`  
   - `if (pbase()) pbase() != rhs_a.pbase()`  
   - `if (pptr()) pptr() != rhs_a.pptr()`  
   - `if (epptr()) epptr() != rhs_a.epptr()`

virtual ~basic_filebuf();

5  **Effects:** Destroys an object of class `basic_filebuf<CharT,traits>`. Calls `close()`. If an exception occurs during the destruction of the object, including the call to `close()`), the exception is caught but not rethrown (see 17.6.4.11).

27.9.1.3 Assign and swap

`basic_filebuf& operator=(basic_filebuf&& rhs);`

1  **Effects:** `swap(rhs)`.

2  **Returns:** `*this`.

`void swap(basic_filebuf& rhs);`

3  **Effects:** Exchanges the state of `*this` and `rhs`.

§ 27.9.1.3
template <class charT, class traits>
void swap(basic_filebuf<charT, traits>& x,
          basic_filebuf<charT, traits>& y);

Effects: x.swap(y).

27.9.1.4 Member functions

bool is_open() const;

Returns: true if a previous call to open succeeded (returned a non-null value) and there has been no
intervening call to close.

basic_filebuf<charT, traits>* open(const char* s,
                                    ios_base::openmode mode);

Effects: If is_open() != false, returns a null pointer. Otherwise, initializes the filebuf as required.
It then opens a file, if possible, whose name is the NTBS s (as if by calling std::fopen(s, modstr)).
The NTBS modstr is determined from mode & ~ios_base::ate as indicated in Table 122. If mode is
not some combination of flags shown in the table then the open fails.

Table 122 — File open modes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ios_base flag combination</th>
<th>stdio equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>binary</td>
<td>in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>&quot;u&quot;</td>
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<tr>
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<td>+</td>
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<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 If the open operation succeeds and (mode & ios_base::ate) != 0, positions the file to the end (as
if by calling std::fseek(file, 0, SEEK_END)).\(^{331}\)

4 If the repositioning operation fails, calls close() and returns a null pointer to indicate failure.

5 Returns: this if successful, a null pointer otherwise.

\(^{331}\) The macro SEEK_END is defined, and the function signatures fopen(const char*, const char*) and fseek(FILE*, long, int) are declared, in <cstdio> (27.9.2).
basic_filebuf<charT,traits>* open(const string& s,  
ios_base::openmode mode);  
Returns: open(s.c_str(), mode);

basic_filebuf<charT,traits>* close();

6  Effects: If is_open() == false, returns a null pointer. If a put area exists, calls overflow(traits::eof()) to flush characters. If the last virtual member function called on *this (between underflow, overflow, seekoff, and seekpos) was overflow then calls a_codecvt.unshift (possibly several times) to determine a termination sequence, inserts those characters and calls overflow(traits::eof()) again. Finally, regardless of whether any of the preceding calls fails or throws an exception, the function closes the file (as if by calling std::fclose(file)). If any of the calls made by the function, including std::fclose, fails, close fails by returning a null pointer. If one of these calls throws an exception, the exception is caught and rethrown after closing the file.

Returns: this on success, a null pointer otherwise.

Postcondition: is_open() == false.

27.9.1.5 Overridden virtual functions

streamsize showmanyc();

Effects: Behaves the same as basic_streambuf::showmanyc (27.6.2.4).

Remarks: An implementation might well provide an overriding definition for this function signature if it can determine that more characters can be read from the input sequence.

int_type underflow();

Effects: Behaves according to the description of basic_streambuf<charT,traits>::underflow(), with the specialization that a sequence of characters is read from the input sequence as if by reading from the associated file into an internal buffer (extern_buf) and then as if by doing

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{char} & \quad \text{extern_buf[XSIZE]}; \\
\text{char*} & \quad \text{extern_end}; \\
\text{charT} & \quad \text{intern_buf[ISIZE]}; \\
\text{charT*} & \quad \text{intern_end}; \\
\text{codecvt_base::result} & \quad r = \\
& \quad \text{a_codecvt.in(state, extern_buf, extern_buf+XSIZE, extern_end,}
& \quad \quad \quad \text{intern_buf, intern_buf+ISIZE, intern_end);} \\
\end{align*}
\]

This shall be done in such a way that the class can recover the position (fpos_t) corresponding to each character between intern_buf and intern_end. If the value of r indicates that a_codecvt.in() ran out of space in intern_buf, retry with a larger intern_buf.

int_type uflow();

Effects: Behaves according to the description of basic_streambuf<charT,traits>::uflow(), with the specialization that a sequence of characters is read from the input with the same method as used by underflow.

int_type pbackfail(int_type c = traits::eof());

---

332) The function signature fclose(FILE*) is declared in <cstdio> (27.9.2).
Effects: Puts back the character designated by \( c \) to the input sequence, if possible, in one of three ways:

- If \( \text{traits}::\text{eq} \text{\_int} \text{\_type}(c, \text{traits}::\text{eof}()) \) returns false and if the function makes a putback position available and if \( \text{traits}::\text{eq}(\text{to\_char\_type}(c), \text{gptr}()[-1]) \) returns true, decrements the next pointer for the input sequence, \( \text{gptr}() \).
  
  Returns: \( c \).

- If \( \text{traits}::\text{eq} \text{\_int} \text{\_type}(c, \text{traits}::\text{eof}()) \) returns false and if the function makes a putback position available and if the function is permitted to assign to the putback position, decrements the next pointer for the input sequence, and stores \( c \) there.
  
  Returns: \( c \).

- If \( \text{traits}::\text{eq} \text{\_int} \text{\_type}(c, \text{traits}::\text{eof}()) \) returns true, and if either the input sequence has a putback position available or the function makes a putback position available, decrements the next pointer for the input sequence, \( \text{gptr}() \).
  
  Returns: \( \text{traits}::\text{not} \text{\_eof}(c) \).

Returns: \( \text{traits}::\text{eof}() \) to indicate failure.

Remarks: If is_open() == false, the function always fails.

The function does not put back a character directly to the input sequence.

If the function can succeed in more than one of these ways, it is unspecified which way is chosen. The function can alter the number of putback positions available as a result of any call.

```cpp
int\_type\_overflow(int\_type c = traits::eof());
```

Effects: Behaves according to the description of basic\_streambuf<\charT, traits>::overflow(c), except that the behavior of “consuming characters” is performed by first converting as if by:

```cpp
char* b = pbase();
char* p = pptr();
char* end;
char xbuf[XSIZE];
char* xbuf\_end;
codecvt\_base::result r =
a\_codecvt.out(state, b, p, end, xbuf, xbuf+XSIZE, xbuf\_end);
```

and then

- If \( r == \text{codecvt\_base}::\text{error} \) then fail.

- If \( r == \text{codecvt\_base}::\text{noconv} \) then output characters from \( b \) up to (and not including) \( p \).

- If \( r == \text{codecvt\_base}::\text{partial} \) then output to the file characters from \( xbuf \) to \( xbuf\_end \), and repeat using characters from \( \text{end} \) to \( \text{p} \). If output fails, fail (without repeating).

- Otherwise output from \( xbuf \) to \( xbuf\_end \), and fail if output fails. At this point if \( b != p \) and \( b == \text{end} (xbuf isn’t large enough) \) then increase XSIZE and repeat from the beginning.

Returns: \( \text{traits}::\text{not} \text{\_eof}(c) \) to indicate success, and \( \text{traits}::\text{eof}() \) to indicate failure. If is\_open() == false, the function always fails.
Effects: If `setbuf(0,0)` is called on a stream before any I/O has occurred on that stream, the stream becomes unbuffered. Otherwise the results are implementation-defined. “Unbuffered” means that `pbase()` and `pptr()` always return null and output to the file should appear as soon as possible.

```cpp
pos_type seekoff(off_type off, ios_base::seekdir way,
    ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::in | ios_base::out);
```

**Effects**: Let `width` denote `a_codecvt.encoding()`. If `is_open()` == false, or `off` != 0 & width <= 0, then the positioning operation fails. Otherwise, if `way` != `basic_ios::cur` or `off` != 0, and if the last operation was output, then update the output sequence and write any unshift sequence. Next, seek to the new position: if `width` > 0, call `std::fseek(file, width * off, whence)`, otherwise call `std::fseek(file, 0, whence)`.

**Remarks**: “The last operation was output” means either the last virtual operation was overflow or the put buffer is non-empty. “Write any unshift sequence” means, if `width` if less than zero then call `a_codecvt.unshift(state, xbuf, xbuf+XSIZE, xbuf_end)` and output the resulting unshift sequence. The function determines one of three values for the argument `whence`, of type `int`, as indicated in Table 123.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>way Value</th>
<th>stdio Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>basic_ios::beg</code></td>
<td>SEEK_SET</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>basic_ios::cur</code></td>
<td>SEEK_CUR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>basic_ios::end</code></td>
<td>SEEK_END</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Returns**: a newly constructed `pos_type` object that stores the resultant stream position, if possible. If the positioning operation fails, or if the object cannot represent the resultant stream position, returns `pos_type(off_type(-1))`.

```cpp
pos_type seekpos(pos_type sp,
    ios_base::openmode which = ios_base::in | ios_base::out);
```

Alters the file position, if possible, to correspond to the position stored in `sp` (as described below). Altering the file position performs as follows:

1. if `(om & ios_base::out) != 0`, then update the output sequence and write any unshift sequence;
2. set the file position to `sp`;
3. if `(om & ios_base::in) != 0`, then update the input sequence;

where `om` is the open mode passed to the last call to `open()`. The operation fails if `is_open()` returns false.

If `sp` is an invalid stream position, or if the function positions neither sequence, the positioning operation fails. If `sp` has not been obtained by a previous successful call to one of the positioning functions (`seekoff` or `seekpos`) on the same file the effects are undefined.

**Returns**: `sp` on success. Otherwise returns `pos_type(off_type(-1))`.

```cpp
int sync();
```

**Effects**: If a put area exists, calls `filebuf::overflow` to write the characters to the file. If a get area exists, the effect is implementation-defined.
Precondition: If the file is not positioned at its beginning and the encoding of the current locale as determined by `aCodecvt.encoding()` is state-dependent (22.4.1.4.2) then that facet is the same as the corresponding facet of `locc`.

Effects: Causes characters inserted or extracted after this call to be converted according to `locc` until another call of `imbue`.

Remark: This may require reconversion of previously converted characters. This in turn may require the implementation to be able to reconstruct the original contents of the file.

27.9.1.6 Class template basic_ifstream

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_ifstream : public basic_istream<charT,traits> {
        public:
            typedef charT char_type;
            typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
            typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
            typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
            typedef traits traits_type;

            // 27.9.1.7 Constructors:
            basic_ifstream();
            explicit basic_ifstream(const char* s,
                                    ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in);
            explicit basic_ifstream(const string& s,
                                    ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in);
            basic_ifstream(basic_ifstream&& rhs);
            // 27.9.1.8 Assign/swap:
            basic_ifstream& operator=(basic_ifstream&& rhs);
            void swap(basic_ifstream& rhs);
            // 27.9.1.9 Members:
            basic_filebuf<charT,traits>* rdbuf() const;
            bool is_open() const;
            void open(const char* s, ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in);
            void open(const string& s, ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in);
            void close();
            private:
            basic_filebuf<charT,traits> sb; // exposition only
        };
    }
    template <class charT, class traits>
    void swap(basic_ifstream<charT, traits>& x,
              basic_ifstream<charT, traits>& y);
}
```

The class `basic_ifstream<charT, traits>` supports reading from named files. It uses a `basic_filebuf<charT, traits>` object to control the associated sequence. For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as:

— `sb`, the `filebuf` object.

§ 27.9.1.6
### 27.9.1.7 basic_ifstream constructors

**basic_ifstream();**

*Effects:* Constructs an object of class `basic_ifstream<charT,traits>`, initializing the base class with `basic_istream(&sb)` and initializing sb with `basic_filebuf<charT,traits>()` (27.7.1.1.1, 27.9.1.2).

```cpp
explicit basic_ifstream(const char* s,
ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in);
```

*Effects:* Constructs an object of class `basic_ifstream`, initializing the base class with `basic_istream(&sb)` and initializing sb with `basic_filebuf<charT, traits>()` (27.7.1.1.1, 27.9.1.2), then calls `rdbuf()->open(s, mode | ios_base::in)`. If that function returns a null pointer, calls `setstate(failbit)`.

```cpp
explicit basic_ifstream(const string& s,
ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in);
```

*Effects:* the same as `basic_ifstream(s.c_str(), mode)`.

```cpp
basic_ifstream(basic_ifstream&& rhs);
```

*Effects:* Move constructs from the rvalue `rhs`. This is accomplished by move constructing the base class, and the contained `basic_filebuf`. Next `basic_istream<charT,traits>::set_rdbuf(&sb)` is called to install the contained `basic_filebuf`.

### 27.9.1.8 Assign and swap

**basic_ifstream& operator=(basic_ifstream&& rhs);**

*Effects:* swap(rhs).

*Returns:* *this.

```cpp
void swap(basic_ifstream& rhs);
```

*Effects:* Exchanges the state of *this and rhs by calling `basic_istream<charT,traits>::swap(rhs)` and `sb.swap(rhs.sb)`.

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits>
void swap(basic_ifstream<charT, traits>& x,
basic_ifstream<charT, traits>& y);
```

*Effects:* x.swap(y).

### 27.9.1.9 Member functions

**basic_filebuf<charT,traits>* rdbuf() const;**

*Returns:* const_cast`<basic_filebuf<charT,traits>*>(&sb).

```cpp
bool is_open() const;
```

*Returns:* rdbuf()->is_open().

```cpp
void open(const char* s, ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in);
```
Effects: Calls rdbuf()->open(s, mode | ios_base::in). If that function does not return a null pointer calls clear(), otherwise calls setstate(failbit) (which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)).

```cpp
void open(const string& s, ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in);
```

Effects: calls open(s.c_str(), mode).

```cpp
void close();
```

Effects: Calls rdbuf()->close() and, if that function returns a null pointer, calls setstate(failbit) (which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)).

27.9.1.10 Class template basic_ofstream

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_ofstream : public basic_ostream<charT,traits> {
        public:
            typedef charT char_type;
            typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
            typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
            typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
            typedef traits traits_type;

        // 27.9.1.11 Constructors:
        basic_ofstream();
        explicit basic_ofstream(const char* s,
            ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::out);
        explicit basic_ofstream(const string& s,
            ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::out);
        basic_ofstream(basic_ofstream&& rhs);

        // 27.9.1.12 Assign/swap:
        basic_ofstream& operator=(basic_ofstream&& rhs);
        void swap(basic_ofstream& rhs);

        // 27.9.1.13 Members:
        basic_filebuf<charT,traits>* rdbuf() const;

        bool is_open() const;
        void open(const char* s, ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::out);
        void open(const string& s, ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::out);
        void close();
        private:
            basic_filebuf<charT,traits> sb; // exposition only
        }
    template <class charT, class traits>
    void swap(basic_ofstream<charT, traits>& x,
        basic_ofstream<charT, traits>& y);
}
```

The class basic_ofstream<charT, traits> supports writing to named files. It uses a basic_filebuf<charT, traits> object to control the associated sequence. For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as:
— sb, the filebuf object.

### 27.9.1.11 basic_ofstream constructors

basic_ofstream();

*Effects:* Constructs an object of class `basic_ofstream<charT,traits>`, initializing the base class with `basic_ostream(&sb)` and initializing `sb` with `basic_filebuf<charT,traits>()` ([27.7.2.2, 27.9.1.2]).

```cpp
explicit basic_ofstream(const char* s,
ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::out);
```

*Effects:* Constructs an object of class `basic_ofstream<charT,traits>`, initializing the base class with `basic_ostream(&sb)` and initializing `sb` with `basic_filebuf<charT,traits>()` ([27.7.2.2, 27.9.1.2]), then calls `rdbuf()->open(s, mode|ios_base::out)`. If that function returns a null pointer, calls `setstate(failbit)`.

```cpp
explicit basic_ofstream(const string& s,
ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::out);
```

*Effects:* the same as `basic_ofstream(s.c_str(), mode)`;

```cpp
basic_ofstream(basic_ofstream&& rhs);
```

*Effects:* Move constructs from the rvalue `rhs`. This is accomplished by move constructing the base class, and the contained `basic_filebuf`. Next `basic_ostream<charT,traits>::set_rdbuf(&sb)` is called to install the contained `basic_filebuf`.

### 27.9.1.12 Assign and swap

```cpp
basic_ofstream& operator=(basic_ofstream&& rhs);
```

*Effects:* swap(rhs).

*Returns:* *this.

```cpp
void swap(basic_ofstream& rhs);
```

*Effects:* Exchanges the state of *this and rhs by calling `basic_ostream<charT,traits>::swap(rhs)` and `sb.swap(rhs.sb)`.

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits>
void swap(basic_ofstream<charT, traits>& x,
basic_ofstream<charT, traits>& y);
```

*Effects:* x.swap(y).

### 27.9.1.13 Member functions

```cpp
basic_filebuf<charT,traits>* rdbuf() const;
```

*Returns:* `const_cast<basic_filebuf<charT,traits>*>(&sb)`.

```cpp
bool is_open() const;
```

*Returns:* `rdbuf()->is_open()`.

```cpp
void open(const char* s, ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::out);
```

§ 27.9.1.13
Effects: Calls rdbuf()->open(s, mode | ios_base::out). If that function does not return a null pointer calls clear(), otherwise calls setstate(failbit) (which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)).

Effects: Calls rdbuf()->close() and, if that function fails (returns a null pointer), calls setstate(failbit) (which may throw ios_base::failure (27.5.4.3)).

Effects: calls open(s.c_str(), mode);

27.9.1.14 Class template basic_fstream

```
namespace std {
  template <class charT, class traits=char_traits<charT> >
  class basic_fstream
    : public basic_iostream<charT,traits> {

  public:
    typedef charT               char_type;
    typedef typename traits::int_type int_type;
    typedef typename traits::pos_type pos_type;
    typedef typename traits::off_type off_type;
    typedef traits             traits_type;

    // constructors/destructor
    basic_fstream();
    explicit basic_fstream(const char* s,
               ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in|ios_base::out);
    explicit basic_fstream(const string& s,
               ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in|ios_base::out);
    basic_fstream(basic_fstream&& rhs);
    basic_fstream& operator=(basic_fstream&& rhs);
    void swap(basic_fstream& rhs);

    // Members:
    basic_filebuf<charT,traits>* rdbuf() const;
    bool is_open() const;
    void open(const char* s,
               ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in|ios_base::out);
    void open(const string& s,
               ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in|ios_base::out);
    void close();

  private:
    basic_filebuf<charT,traits> sb; // exposition only
  }

  template <class charT, class traits>
  void swap(basic_fstream<charT, traits>& x,
             basic_fstream<charT, traits>& y);
}  
```
The class template `basic_fstream<charT,traits>` supports reading and writing from named files. It uses a `basic_filebuf<charT,traits>` object to control the associated sequences. For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as:

— `sb`, the `basic_filebuf` object.

### 27.9.1.15 basic_fstream constructors

```cpp
basic_fstream();
```

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_fstream<charT,traits>`, initializing the base class with `basic_iostream(&sb)` and initializing `sb` with `basic_filebuf<charT,traits>()`.

```cpp
explicit basic_fstream(const char* s, ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in|ios_base::out);
```

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_fstream<charT, traits>`, initializing the base class with `basic_iostream(&sb)` and initializing `sb` with `basic_filebuf<charT, traits>()`. Then calls `rdbuf()->open(s, mode)`. If that function returns a null pointer, calls `setstate(failbit)`.

```cpp
explicit basic_fstream(const string& s, ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in|ios_base::out);
```

**Effects:** the same as `basic_fstream(s.c_str(), mode);`

```cpp
basic_fstream(basic_fstream&& rhs);
```

**Effects:** Move constructs from the rvalue `rhs`. This is accomplished by move constructing the base class, and the contained `basic_filebuf`. Next `basic_istream<charT,traits>::set_rdbuf(&sb)` is called to install the contained `basic_filebuf`.

### 27.9.1.16 Assign and swap

```cpp
basic_fstream& operator=(basic_fstream&& rhs);
```

**Effects:** `swap(rhs)`.

```cpp
void swap(basic_fstream& rhs);
```

**Effects:** Exchanges the state of `*this` and `rhs` by calling `basic_iostream<charT,traits>::swap(rhs)` and `sb.swap(rhs.sb)`.

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits>
void swap(basic_fstream<charT, traits>& x, basic_fstream<charT, traits>& y);
```

**Effects:** `x.swap(y)`.

### 27.9.1.17 Member functions

```cpp
basic_filebuf<charT,traits>* rdbuf() const;
```

**Returns:** `const_cast<basic_filebuf<charT,traits>*>(&sb)`.

```cpp
bool is_open() const;
```

---

§ 27.9.1.17
Returns: rdbuf() \rightarrow is\_open().

```cpp
void open(const char* s,
           ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in|ios_base::out);
```

Effects: Calls rdbuf() -> open(s, mode). If that function does not return a null pointer calls clear(), otherwise calls setstate(failbit), (which may throw ios_base::failure) (27.5.4.3).

```cpp
void open(const string& s,
          ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in|ios_base::out);
```

Effects: calls open(s.c_str(), mode);

```cpp
void close();
```

Effects: Calls rdbuf() -> close() and, if that function returns returns a null pointer, calls setstate(failbit) (27.5.4.3) (which may throw ios_base::failure).

### 27.9.2 C Library files

Table 124 describes header `<cstdio>`.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macros:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BUFSIZ</td>
<td>FOPEN_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EOF</td>
<td>L_tmpnam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FILENAME_MAX</td>
<td>NULL <code>&lt;cstdio&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types:</td>
<td>FILE fpos_t size_t <code>&lt;cstdio&gt;</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clearerr</td>
<td>fopen fsetpos putc setbuf vprintf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fclose</td>
<td>fprintf ftell putchar setvbuf vscanf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feof</td>
<td>fputc fwrite puts snprintf vsnprintf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ferror</td>
<td>fputs getc rename sprintf vsprintf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ffflush</td>
<td>fread getchar remove tmpfile vsscanf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fgetc</td>
<td>freopen gets rewind tmpnam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fgetpos</td>
<td>fscanf perror scanf ungetc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fgetws</td>
<td>fseek printf sscanf vsprintf</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Calls to the function tmpnam with an argument of NULL may introduce a data race (17.6.4.8) with other calls to tmpnam with an argument of NULL.

See also: ISO C 7.9, Amendment 1 4.6.2.

Table 125 describes header `<cinttypes>`. [Note: The macros defined by `<cinttypes>` are provided unconditionally. In particular, the symbol \_\_STDC_FORMAT_MACROS, mentioned in C99 footnote 182, plays no role in C++. end note]
Table 125 — Header `<cinttypes>` synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macros:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRI{d i o u x X}[FAST LEAST]{8 16 32 64}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRI{d i o u x X}{MAX PTR}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCN{d i o u x X}[FAST LEAST]{8 16 32 64}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCN{d i o u x X}{MAX PTR}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types:</td>
<td>imaxdiv_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abs</td>
<td>imaxabs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>div</td>
<td>imaxdiv</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
28 Regular expressions library [re]

28.1 General [re.general]

1 This Clause describes components that C++ programs may use to perform operations involving regular expression matching and searching.

2 The following subclauses describe a basic regular expression class template and its traits that can handle char-like template arguments, two specializations of this template class that handle sequences of char and wchar_t, a class template that holds the result of a regular expression match, a series of algorithms that allow a character sequence to be operated upon by a regular expression, and two iterator types for enumerating regular expression matches, as described in Table 126.

Table 126 — Regular expressions library summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subclause</th>
<th>Header(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28.2 Definitions</td>
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<tr>
<td>28.3 Requirements</td>
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<td>28.5 Constants</td>
<td></td>
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<td>28.6 Exception type</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>28.7 Traits</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.8 Regular expression template &lt;regex&gt;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.9 Submatches</td>
<td></td>
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<td>28.10 Match results</td>
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<td>28.11 Algorithms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.12 Iterators</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.13 Grammar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28.2 Definitions [re.def]

1 The following definitions shall apply to this Clause:

28.2.1 collating element [defns.regex.collating.element]

a sequence of one or more characters within the current locale that collate as if they were a single character.

28.2.2 finite state machine [defns.regex.finite.state.machine]

an unspecified data structure that is used to represent a regular expression, and which permits efficient matches against the regular expression to be obtained.

28.2.3 format specifier [defns.regex.format.specifier]

a sequence of one or more characters that is to be replaced with some part of a regular expression match.
28.2.4 [defs.regex.matched]
matched
a sequence of zero or more characters is matched by a regular expression when the characters in the sequence
 correspond to a sequence of characters defined by the pattern.

28.2.5 [defs.regex.primary.equivalence.class]
primary equivalence class
a set of one or more characters which share the same primary sort key: that is the sort key weighting that
depends only upon character shape, and not accentation, case, or locale specific tailorings.

28.2.6 [defs.regex.regular.expression]
regular expression
a pattern that selects specific strings from a set of character strings.

28.2.7 [defs.regex.subexpression]
sub-expression
a subset of a regular expression that has been marked by parenthesis.

28.3 Requirements [re.req]

1 This subclause defines requirements on classes representing regular expression traits. [Note: The class
 template regex_traits, defined in Clause 28.7, satisfies these requirements. — end note]

2 The class template basic_regex, defined in Clause 28.8, needs a set of related types and functions to
 complete the definition of its semantics. These types and functions are provided as a set of member typedefs
 and functions in the template parameter traits used by the basic_regex class template. This subclause
 defines the semantics guaranteed by these members.

3 To specialize class template basic_regex for a character container CharT and its related regular expression
 traits class Traits, use basic_regex<CharT, Traits>.

4 In Table 127 X denotes a traits class defining types and functions for the character container type charT;
u is an object of type X; v is an object of type const X; p is a value of type const charT*; I1 and I2 are
 Input Iterators; F1 and F2 are forward iterators; c is a value of type const charT; s is an object of type
 X::string_type; cs is an object of type const X::string_type; b is a value of type bool; i is a value of
 type int; cl is an object of type X::char_class_type, and loc is an object of type X::locale_type.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X::char_type</td>
<td>charT</td>
<td>The character container type used in the implementation of class template basic_regex.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::string_type</td>
<td>std::basic_string&lt;charT&gt;</td>
<td>A copy constructible type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::locale_type</td>
<td>A copy constructible type</td>
<td>A type that represents the locale used by the traits class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::char_class_type</td>
<td>A bitmask type (17.5.2.1.3).</td>
<td>A bitmask type representing a particular character classification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X::length(p)</td>
<td>std::size_t</td>
<td>Yields the smallest i such that p[i] == 0. Complexity is linear in i.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

§ 28.3
Table 127 — Regular expression traits class requirements (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>v.translate(c)</td>
<td>X::char_type</td>
<td>Returns a character such that for any character d that is to be considered equivalent to c then v.translate(c) == v.translate(d).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v.translate_nocase(c)</td>
<td>X::char_type</td>
<td>For all characters C that are to be considered equivalent to c when comparisons are to be performed without regard to case, then v.translate_nocase(c) == v.translate_nocase(C).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v.transform(F1, F2)</td>
<td>X::string_type</td>
<td>Returns a sort key for the character sequence designated by the iterator range [F1,F2) such that if the character sequence [G1,G2) sorts before the character sequence [H1,H2) then v.transform(G1, G2) &lt; v.transform(H1, H2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v.transform_primary(F1, F2)</td>
<td>X::string_type</td>
<td>Returns a sort key for the character sequence designated by the iterator range [F1,F2) such that if the character sequence [G1,G2) sorts before the character sequence [H1,H2) when character case is not considered then v.transform_primary(G1, G2) &lt; v.transform_primary(H1, H2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v.lookup_collatename(F1, F2)</td>
<td>X::string_type</td>
<td>Returns a sequence of characters that represents the collating element consisting of the character sequence designated by the iterator range [F1,F2). Returns an empty string if the character sequence is not a valid collating element.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v.lookup_classname(F1, F2, b)</td>
<td>X::char_class_type</td>
<td>Converts the character sequence designated by the iterator range [F1,F2) into a value of a bitmask type that can subsequently be passed to isctype. Values returned from lookup_classname can be bitwise or’ed together; the resulting value represents membership in either of the corresponding character classes. If b is true, the returned bitmask is suitable for matching characters without regard to their case. Returns 0 if the character sequence is not the name of a character class recognized by X. The value returned shall be independent of the case of the characters in the sequence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v.isctype(c, cl)</td>
<td>bool</td>
<td>Returns true if character c is a member of one of the character classes designated by cl, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 127 — Regular expression traits class requirements (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Return type</th>
<th>Assertion/note pre-/post-condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>v.value(c, I)</td>
<td>int</td>
<td>Returns the value represented by the digit ( c ) in base ( I ) if the character ( c ) is a valid digit in base ( I ); otherwise returns (-1). [Note: the value of ( I ) will only be 8, 10, or 16. — end note]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u.imbue(loc)</td>
<td>X::locale_type</td>
<td>Imbues u with the locale loc and returns the previous locale used by u if any.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v.getloc()</td>
<td>X::locale_type</td>
<td>Returns the current locale used by v, if any.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 \[Note: Class template regex_traits satisfies the requirements for a regular expression traits class when it is specialized for char or wchar_t. This Class template is described in the header <regex>, and is described in Clause 28.7. — end note\]

28.4 Header <regex> synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    #include <initializer_list>

    // 28.5, regex constants:
    namespace regex_constants {
        typedef bitmask_type syntax_option_type;
        typedef bitmask_type match_flag_type;
        typedef implementation-defined error_type;
    } // namespace regex_constants

    // 28.6, class regex_error:
    class regex_error;

    // 28.7, class template regex_traits:
    template <class charT> struct regex_traits;

    // 28.8, class template basic_regex:
    template <class charT, class traits = regex_traits<charT> > class basic_regex;

    typedef basic_regex<char> regex;
    typedef basic_regex<wchar_t> wregex;

    // 28.8.6, basic_regex swap:
    template <class charT, class traits>
        void swap(basic_regex<charT, traits>& e1, basic_regex<charT, traits>& e2);

    // 28.9, class template sub_match:
    template <class BidirectionalIterator>
        class sub_match;

    typedef sub_match<const char*> csub_match;
    typedef sub_match<const wchar_t*> wcsub_match;
    typedef sub_match<const string::const_iterator> sssub_match;
    typedef sub_match<const wstring::const_iterator> wssub_match;
```
// 28.9.2, sub_match non-member operators:

```cpp
template <class BiIter>
bool operator==(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
template <class BiIter>
bool operator!=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
template <class BiIter>
bool operator<(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
template <class BiIter>
bool operator<=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
template <class BiIter>
bool operator>=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
template <class BiIter>
bool operator>(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
```

```cpp
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator==(const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator!=(const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<Bi Iter>::value_type, ST, SA>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator<(const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator>(const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator>=(const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator<=(const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
```

```cpp
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator==(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& rhs);
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator!=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& rhs);
```

§ 28.4
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator<(
    const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    const basic_string<
        typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator>(
    const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    const basic_string<
        typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator<=(
    const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    const basic_string<
        typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator>=(
    const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    const basic_string<
        typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator==(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* lhs,
    const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator!=(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* lhs,
    const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator<(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* lhs,
    const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator>(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* lhs,
    const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator>=(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* lhs,
    const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator<=(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* lhs,
    const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator==(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator!=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator<(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator>(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator>=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* rhs);

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator<=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* rhs);
template <class BiIter>
  bool operator<=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
  typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* rhs);

template <class BiIter>
  bool operator<=(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& lhs,
  const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

template <class BiIter>
  bool operator!=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
  typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& rhs);

template <class BiIter>
  bool operator!=(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& lhs,
  const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

template <class BiIter>
  bool operator<(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& lhs,
  const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

template <class BiIter>
  bool operator<(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
  typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& rhs);

template <class charT, class ST, class BiIter>
  basic_ostream<charT, ST>&
  operator<<(basic_ostream<charT, ST>& os, const sub_match<BiIter>& m);

// 28.10, class template match_results:
  template <class BidirectionalIterator,
            class Allocator = allocator<sub_match<BidirectionalIterator> > >
    class match_results;

typedef match_results<const char*> cmatch;
typedef match_results<const wchar_t*> wcmatch;
typedef match_results<string::const_iterator> smatch;
typedef match_results<wstring::const_iterator> wsmatch;

// match_results comparisons
template <class BidirectionalIterator, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m1,
    const match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m2);

template <class BidirectionalIterator, class Allocator>
bool operator!=(const match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m1,
    const match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m2);

// 28.10.6, match_results swap:
template <class BidirectionalIterator, class Allocator>
void swap(match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m1,
    match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m2);

// 28.11.2, function template regex_match:
template <class BidirectionalIterator, class Allocator,
    class charT, class traits>
bool regex_match(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last,
    match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m,
    const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
    regex_constants::match_default);

template <class BidirectionalIterator, class charT, class traits>
bool regex_match(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last,
    const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
    regex_constants::match_default);

template <class charT, class Allocator, class traits>
bool regex_match(const charT* str, match_results<const charT*, Allocator>& m,
    const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
    regex_constants::match_default);

template <class ST, class SA, class Allocator, class charT, class traits>
bool regex_match(const basic_string<charT, ST, SA>& s,
    match_results<typename basic_string<charT, ST, SA>::const_iterator,
    Allocator>& m,
    const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
    regex_constants::match_default);

template <class charT, class traits>
bool regex_match(const charT* str,
    const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
    regex_constants::match_default);

template <class ST, class SA, class charT, class traits>
bool regex_match(const basic_string<charT, ST, SA>& s,
    const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
    regex_constants::match_default);

// 28.11.3, function template regex_search:
template <class BidirectionalIterator, class Allocator,
    class charT, class traits>
§ 28.4 1043
bool regex_search(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last, 
  match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m, 
  const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e, 
  regex_constants::match_flag_type flags = 
  regex_constants::match_default);

template <class BidirectionalIterator, class charT, class traits>
bool regex_search(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last, 
  const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e, 
  regex_constants::match_flag_type flags = 
  regex_constants::match_default);

template <class charT, class Allocator, class traits>
bool regex_search(const charT* str, 
  match_results<const charT*, Allocator>& m, 
  const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e, 
  regex_constants::match_flag_type flags = 
  regex_constants::match_default);

// 28.11.4, function template regex_replace:
// 28.12.1, class template regex_iterator:

§ 28.4
class charT = typename iterator_traits<BidirectionalIterator>::value_type,
class traits = regex_traits<charT> >
class regex_iterator;

typedef regex_iterator<const char*> cregex_iterator;
typedef regex_iterator<const wchar_t*> wcregex_iterator;
typedef regex_iterator<string::const_iterator> sregex_iterator;
typedef regex_iterator<wstring::const_iterator> wregex_iterator;

class regex_token_iterator;

typedef regex_token_iterator<const char*> cregex_token_iterator;
typedef regex_token_iterator<const wchar_t*> wcregex_token_iterator;
typedef regex_token_iterator<string::const_iterator> sregex_token_iterator;
typedef regex_token_iterator<wstring::const_iterator> wregex_token_iterator;

28.5 Namespace std::regex_constants

The namespace std::regex_constants holds symbolic constants used by the regular expression library. This namespace provides three types, syntax_option_type, match_flag_type, and error_type, along with several constants of these types.

28.5.1 Bitmask Type syntax_option_type

namespace std {
    namespace regex_constants {
        typedef bitmask_type syntax_option_type;
        static const syntax_option_type icase;
        static const syntax_option_type nosubs;
        static const syntax_option_type optimize;
        static const syntax_option_type collate;
        static const syntax_option_type ECMAScript;
        static const syntax_option_type basic;
        static const syntax_option_type extended;
        static const syntax_option_type awk;
        static const syntax_option_type grep;
        static const syntax_option_type egrep;
    }
}

The type syntax_option_type is an implementation-defined bitmask type (17.5.2.1.3). Setting its elements has the effects listed in table 128. A valid value of type syntax_option_type shall have exactly one of the elements ECMAScript, basic, extended, awk, grep, egrep, set.

28.5.2 Bitmask Type regex_constants::match_flag_type

namespace std {
    namespace regex_constants {
    
§ 28.5.2
Table 128 — syntax_option_type effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Effect(s) if set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>icase</td>
<td>Specifies that matching of regular expressions against a character container sequence shall be performed without regard to case.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nosubs</td>
<td>Specifies that when a regular expression is matched against a character container sequence, no sub-expression matches shall be stored in the supplied match_results structure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>optimize</td>
<td>Specifies that the regular expression engine should pay more attention to the speed with which regular expressions are matched, and less to the speed with which regular expression objects are constructed. Otherwise it has no detectable effect on the program output.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>collate</td>
<td>Specifies that character ranges of the form &quot;[a-b]&quot; shall be locale sensitive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECMAScript</td>
<td>Specifies that the grammar recognized by the regular expression engine shall be that used by ECMAScript in ECMA-262, as modified in 28.13.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basic</td>
<td>Specifies that the grammar recognized by the regular expression engine shall be that used by basic regular expressions in POSIX, Base Definitions and Headers, Section 9, Regular Expressions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extended</td>
<td>Specifies that the grammar recognized by the regular expression engine shall be that used by extended regular expressions in POSIX, Base Definitions and Headers, Section 9, Regular Expressions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>awk</td>
<td>Specifies that the grammar recognized by the regular expression engine shall be that used by the utility awk in POSIX.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grep</td>
<td>Specifies that the grammar recognized by the regular expression engine shall be that used by the utility grep in POSIX.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>egrep</td>
<td>Specifies that the grammar recognized by the regular expression engine shall be that used by the utility grep when given the -E option in POSIX.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

typedef bitmask_type match_flag_type;

static const match_flag_type match_default = 0;
static const match_flag_type match_not_bol;
static const match_flag_type match_not_eol;
static const match_flag_type match_not_bow;
static const match_flag_type match_not_eow;
static const match_flag_type match_any;
static const match_flag_type match_not_null;
static const match_flag_type match_continuous;
static const match_flag_type match_prev_avail;
static const match_flag_type format_default = 0;
static const match_flag_type format_sed;
static const match_flag_type format_no_copy;
static const match_flag_type format_first_only;

1 The type regex_constants::match_flag_type is an implementation-defined bitmask type (17.5.2.1.3). Matching a regular expression against a sequence of characters [first,last) proceeds according to the rules of the grammar specified for the regular expression object, modified according to the effects listed in table 129 for any bitmask elements set.
Table 129 — regex_constants::match_flag_type effects when obtaining a match against a character container sequence \([\text{first, last})\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Effect(s) if set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>match_not_bol</td>
<td>The first character in the sequence ([\text{first, last})) shall be treated as though it is not at the beginning of a line, so the character (^\sim) in the regular expression shall not match ([\text{first, first})).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>match_not_eol</td>
<td>The last character in the sequence ([\text{first, last})) shall be treated as though it is not at the end of a line, so the character (&quot;$) in the regular expression shall not match ([\text{last, last})).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>match_not_bow</td>
<td>The expression (&quot;\b) shall not match the sub-sequence ([\text{first, first})).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>match_not_eow</td>
<td>The expression (&quot;\b) shall not match the sub-sequence ([\text{last, last})).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>match_any</td>
<td>If more than one match is possible then any match is an acceptable result.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>match_not_null</td>
<td>The expression shall not match an empty sequence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>match_continuous</td>
<td>The expression shall only match a sub-sequence that begins at \text{first}.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>match_prev_avail</td>
<td>\text{--first} is a valid iterator position. When this flag is set the flags match_not_bol and match_not_bow shall be ignored by the regular expression algorithms 28.11 and iterators 28.12.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>format_default</td>
<td>When a regular expression match is to be replaced by a new string, the new string shall be constructed using the rules used by the ECMAScript replace function in ECMA-262, part 15.4.11 String.prototype.replace. In addition, during search and replace operations all non-overlapping occurrences of the regular expression shall be located and replaced, and sections of the input that did not match the expression shall be copied unchanged to the output string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>format_sed</td>
<td>When a regular expression match is to be replaced by a new string, the new string shall be constructed using the rules used by the sed utility in POSIX.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>format_no_copy</td>
<td>During a search and replace operation, sections of the character container sequence being searched that do not match the regular expression shall not be copied to the output string.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>format_first_only</td>
<td>When specified during a search and replace operation, only the first occurrence of the regular expression shall be replaced.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28.5.3 Implementation-defined error_type

```cpp
namespace std {
    namespace regex_constants {
        typedef implementation-defined error_type;

        static const error_type error_collate;
        static const error_type error_ctype;
        static const error_type error_escape;
        static const error_type error_backref;
        static const error_type error_brack;
        static const error_type error_paren;
        static const error_type error_brace;
        static const error_type error_badbrace;
        static const error_type error_range;
        static const error_type error_space;
    }
}
```

§ 28.5.3 1047
The type `error_type` is an implementation-defined enumeration type (17.5.2.1.2). Values of type `error_type` represent the error conditions described in table 130:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Error condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>error_collate</code></td>
<td>The expression contained an invalid collating element name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>error_ctype</code></td>
<td>The expression contained an invalid character class name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>error_escape</code></td>
<td>The expression contained an invalid escaped character, or a trailing escape.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>error_backref</code></td>
<td>The expression contained an invalid back reference.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>error_brack</code></td>
<td>The expression contained mismatched [ and ].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>error_paren</code></td>
<td>The expression contained mismatched ( and ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>error_brace</code></td>
<td>The expression contained mismatched { and }.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>error_badbrace</code></td>
<td>The expression contained an invalid range in a {} expression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>error_range</code></td>
<td>The expression contained an invalid character range, such as [b-a] in most encodings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>error_space</code></td>
<td>There was insufficient memory to convert the expression into a finite state machine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>error_badrepeat</code></td>
<td>One of *?+{ was not preceded by a valid regular expression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>error_complexity</code></td>
<td>The complexity of an attempted match against a regular expression exceeded a pre-set level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>error_stack</code></td>
<td>There was insufficient memory to determine whether the regular expression could match the specified character sequence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 28.6 Class `regex_error` [re.badexp]

```cpp
class regex_error : public std::runtime_error {
public:
  explicit regex_error(regex_constants::error_type ecode);
  regex_constants::error_type code() const;
};
```

1 The class `regex_error` defines the type of objects thrown as exceptions to report errors from the regular expression library.

`regex_error(regex_constants::error_type ecode);`

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `regex_error`.

**Postcondition:** ecode == code()

`regex_constants::error_type code() const;`

**Returns:** The error code that was passed to the constructor.

### 28.7 Class template `regex_traits` [re.traits]

§ 28.7
namespace std {
    template <class charT>
    struct regex_traits {
        public:
            typedef charT char_type;
            typedef std::basic_string<char_type> string_type;
            typedef std::locale locale_type;
            typedef bitmask_type char_class_type;

            regex_traits();
            static std::size_t length(const char_type* p);
            charT translate(charT c) const;
            charT translate_nocase(charT c) const;
            template <class ForwardIterator>
            string_type transform(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last) const;
            template <class ForwardIterator>
            string_type transform_primary(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last) const;
            template <class ForwardIterator>
            string_type lookup_collatename(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last) const;
            template <class ForwardIterator>
            char_class_type lookup_classname(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, bool icase = false) const;
            bool isctype(charT c, char_class_type f) const;
            int value(charT ch, int radix) const;
            locale_type imbue(locale_type l);
            locale_type getloc() const;
    };
}

The specializations regex_traits<char> and regex_traits<wchar_t> shall be valid and shall satisfy the requirements for a regular expression traits class (28.3).

typedef bitmask_type char_class_type;

The type char_class_type is used to represent a character classification and is capable of holding an implementation-specific set returned by lookup_classname.

static std::size_t length(const char_type* p);

Returns: char_traits<charT>::length(p);

charT translate(charT c) const;

Returns: (c).

charT translate_nocase(charT c) const;

Returns: use_facet<ctype<charT>>(getloc()).tolower(c).

template <class ForwardIterator>
string_type transform(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last) const;

Effects:

string_type str(first, last);
return use_facet<collate<charT>>(getloc());
getloc().transform(&str.begin(), &str.begin() + str.length());

template <class ForwardIterator>
string_type transform_primary(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last) const;

Effects: if typeid(use_facet<collate<charT> >) == typeid(collate_byname<charT>) and the form of the sort key returned by collate_byname<charT>::transform(first, last) is known and can be converted into a primary sort key then returns that key, otherwise returns an empty string.

template <class ForwardIterator>
string_type lookup_collatename(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last) const;

Returns: a sequence of one or more characters that represents the collating element consisting of the character sequence designated by the iterator range [first,last). Returns an empty string if the character sequence is not a valid collating element.

template <class ForwardIterator>
char_class_type lookup_classname(
    ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last, bool icase = false) const;

Returns: an unspecified value that represents the character classification named by the character sequence designated by the iterator range [first,last]. If the parameter icase is true then the returned mask identifies the character classification without regard to the case of the characters being matched, otherwise it does honor the case of the characters being matched.\(^3\)\(^3\) The value returned shall be independent of the case of the characters in the character sequence. If the name is not recognized then returns a value that compares equal to 0.

Remarks: For regex_traits<char>, at least the names "d", "w", "s", "alnum", "alpha", "blank", "cntrl", "digit", "graph", "lower", "print", "punct", "space", "upper" and "xdigit" shall be recognized. For regex_traits<wchar_t>, at least the names L"d", L"w", L"s", L"alnum", L"alpha", L"blank", L"cntrl", L"digit", L"graph", L"lower", L"print", L"punct", L"space", L"upper" and L"xdigit" shall be recognized.

bool isctype(charT c, char_class_type f) const;

Effects: Determines if the character c is a member of the character classification represented by f.

Returns: Converts f into a value m of type std::ctype_base::mask in an unspecified manner, and returns true if use_facet<ctype<charT> >::getloc()).is(c, m) is true. Otherwise returns true if f bitwise or'ed with the result of calling lookup_classname with an iterator pair that designates the character sequence "w" is not equal to 0 and c == ' ', or if f bitwise or'ed with the result of calling lookup_classname with an iterator pair that designates the character sequence "blank" is not equal to 0 and c is one of an implementation-defined subset of the characters for which isspace(c, getloc()) returns true, otherwise returns false.

int value(charT ch, int radix) const;

Precondition: The value of radix shall be 8, 10, or 16.

Returns: the value represented by the digit ch in base radix if the character ch is a valid digit in base radix; otherwise returns -1.

locale_type imbue(locale_type loc);

Effects: Imbues this with a copy of the locale loc. [Note: calling imbue with a different locale than the one currently in use invalidates all cached data held by *this. — end note]

\(^3\)\(^3\) For example, if the parameter icase is true then [:lower:] is the same as [:alpha:].
Returns: if no locale has been previously imbued then a copy of the global locale in effect at the time of construction of *this, otherwise a copy of the last argument passed to imbue.

Postcondition: getloc() == loc.

locale_type getloc() const;

Returns: if no locale has been imbued then a copy of the global locale in effect at the time of construction of *this, otherwise a copy of the last argument passed to imbue.

28.8 Class template basic_regex

For a char-like type charT, specializations of class template basic_regex represent regular expressions constructed from character sequences of charT characters. In the rest of 28.8, charT denotes a given char-like type. Storage for a regular expression is allocated and freed as necessary by the member functions of class basic_regex.

Objects of type specialization of basic_regex are responsible for converting the sequence of charT objects to an internal representation. It is not specified what form this representation takes, nor how it is accessed by algorithms that operate on regular expressions. [Note: implementations will typically declare some function templates as friends of basic_regex to achieve this — end note]

The functions described in this Clause report errors by throwing exceptions of type regex_error.

namespace std {
    template <class charT,
        class traits = regex_traits<charT> >
    class basic_regex {
        public:
// types:
typedef charT value_type;
typedef regex_constants::syntax_option_type flag_type;
typedef typename traits::locale_type locale_type;

// 28.8.1, constants:
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type icase = regex_constants::icase;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type nosubs = regex_constants::nosubs;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type optimize = regex_constants::optimize;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type collate = regex_constants::collate;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type ECMAScript = regex_constants::ECMAScript;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type basic = regex_constants::basic;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type extended = regex_constants::extended;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type awk = regex_constants::awk;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type grep = regex_constants::grep;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type egrep = regex_constants::egrep;

§ 28.8
// 28.8.2, construct/copy/destroy:
basic_regex();
explicit basic_regex(const charT* p,
  flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
basic_regex(const charT* p, size_t len, flag_type f);
basic_regex(const basic_regex&);
basic_regex(basic_regex&&);
template <class ST, class SA>
  explicit basic_regex(const basic_string<charT, ST, SA>& p,
    flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
template <class ForwardIterator>
basic_regex(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
    flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
basic_regex(initializer_list<charT>,
    flag_type = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
~basic_regex();

basic_regex& operator=(const basic_regex&);
basic_regex& operator=(basic_regex&&);
basic_regex& operator=(const charT* ptr);
basic_regex& operator=(initializer_list<charT> il);
template <class ST, class SA>
  basic_regex& operator=(const basic_string<charT, ST, SA>& p);

// 28.8.3, assign:
basic_regex& assign(const basic_regex& that);
basic_regex& assign(basic_regex&& that);
basic_regex& assign(const charT* ptr,
    flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
basic_regex& assign(const charT* p, size_t len, flag_type f);
template <class string_traits, class A>
basic_regex& assign(const basic_string<charT, string_traits, A>& s,
    flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
template <class InputIterator>
basic_regex& assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
    flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
basic_regex& assign(initializer_list<charT>,
    flag_type = regex_constants::ECMAScript);

// 28.8.4, const operations:
unsigned mark_count() const;
flag_type flags() const;

// 28.8.5, locale:
locale_type imbue(locale_type loc);
locale_type getloc() const;

// 28.8.6, swap:
void swap(basic_regex&);
};
}

28.8.1 basic_regex constants [re.regex.const]

§ 28.8.1 1052
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type icase = regex_constants::icase;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type nosubs = regex_constants::nosubs;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type optimize = regex_constants::optimize;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type collate = regex_constants::collate;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type ECMAScript = regex_constants::ECMAScript;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type basic = regex_constants::basic;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type extended = regex_constants::extended;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type awk = regex_constants::awk;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type grep = regex_constants::grep;
static const regex_constants::syntax_option_type egrep = regex_constants::egrep;

1 The static constant members are provided as synonyms for the constants declared in namespace regex_constants.

### 28.8.2 basic_regex constructors

[re.regex.construct]

```cpp
1 basic_regex();
```

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_regex` that does not match any character sequence.

```cpp
2 basic_regex(const charT* p, flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
```

**Requires:** `p` shall not be a null pointer.

**Throws:** `regex_error` if `p` is not a valid regular expression.

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_regex`; the object’s internal finite state machine is constructed from the regular expression contained in the array of `charT` of length `char_traits<charT>::length(p)` whose first element is designated by `p`, and interpreted according to the flags `f`.

**Postconditions:** `flags()` returns `f`. `mark_count()` returns the number of marked sub-expressions within the expression.

```cpp
3 basic_regex(const charT* p, size_t len, flag_type f);
```

**Requires:** `p` shall not be a null pointer.

**Throws:** `regex_error` if `p` is not a valid regular expression.

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `basic_regex`; the object’s internal finite state machine is constructed from the regular expression contained in the sequence of characters `[p,p+len)`, and interpreted according the flags specified in `f`.

**Postconditions:** `flags()` returns `f`. `mark_count()` returns the number of marked sub-expressions within the expression.

```cpp
4 basic_regex(const basic_regex& e);
```
basic_regex(basic_regex&& e);

Effects: Move constructs an object of class basic_regex from e.
Postconditions: flags() and mark_count() return the values that e.flags() and e.mark_count(), respectively, had before construction. e is in a valid state with unspecified value.

Throws: nothing.

template <class ST, class S4>
basic_regex(const basic_string<charT, ST, S4>& s,
flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);

Throws: regex_error if s is not a valid regular expression.
Effects: Constructs an object of class basic_regex; the object’s internal finite state machine is constructed from the regular expression contained in the string s, and interpreted according to the flags specified in f.
Postconditions: flags() returns f. mark_count() returns the number of marked sub-expressions within the expression.

template <class ForwardIterator>
basic_regex(ForwardIterator first, ForwardIterator last,
flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);

Throws: regex_error if the sequence [first,last) is not a valid regular expression.
Effects: Constructs an object of class basic_regex; the object’s internal finite state machine is constructed from the regular expression contained in the sequence of characters [first,last), and interpreted according to the flags specified in f.
Postconditions: flags() returns f. mark_count() returns the number of marked sub-expressions within the expression.

basic_regex(initializer_list<charT> il,
flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);

Effects: Same as basic_regex(il.begin(), il.end(), f).

28.8.3 basic_regex assign [re.regex.assign]

basic_regex& operator=(const basic_regex& e);
Effects: returns assign(e).

basic_regex& operator=(basic_regex&& e);
Effects: returns assign(std::move(e)).

basic_regex& operator=(const charT* ptr);
Requires: ptr shall not be a null pointer.
Effects: returns assign(ptr).

basic_regex& operator=(initializer_list<charT> il);
Effects: returns \texttt{assign(il.begin(), il.end())}.

\begin{verbatim}
template <class ST, class SA>
  basic_regex& operator=(const basic_string<charT, ST, SA>& p);
\end{verbatim}

Effects: returns \texttt{assign(p)}.

\begin{verbatim}
basic_regex& assign(const basic_regex& that);
\end{verbatim}

Effects: copies \texttt{that} into \texttt{*this} and returns \texttt{*this}.

\textbf{Postconditions:} \texttt{flags()} and \texttt{mark_count()} return \texttt{that.flags()} and \texttt{that.mark_count()}, respectively.

\begin{verbatim}
basic_regex& assign(basic_regex&& that);
\end{verbatim}

Effects: move assigns from \texttt{that} into \texttt{*this} and returns \texttt{*this}.

\textbf{Postconditions:} \texttt{flags()} and \texttt{mark_count()} return the values that \texttt{that.flags()} and \texttt{that.mark_count()}, respectively, had before assignment. \texttt{that} is in a valid state with unspecified value.

\textbf{Throws:} nothing.

\begin{verbatim}
basic_regex& assign(const charT* ptr, flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Returns:} assign(string_type(ptr), f).

\begin{verbatim}
basic_regex& assign(const charT* ptr, size_t len,
  flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Returns:} assign(string_type(ptr, len), f).

\begin{verbatim}
template <class string_traits, class A>
  basic_regex& assign(const basic_string<charT, string_traits, A>& s,
    flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Throws:} regex\_error if \texttt{s} is not a valid regular expression.

\textbf{Returns:} \texttt{*this}.

Effects: Assigns the regular expression contained in the string \texttt{s}, interpreted according the flags specified in \texttt{f}. If an exception is thrown, \texttt{*this} is unchanged.

\textbf{Postconditions:} If no exception is thrown, \texttt{flags()} returns \texttt{f} and \texttt{mark_count()} returns the number of marked sub-expressions within the expression.

\begin{verbatim}
template <class InputIterator>
  basic_regex& assign(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,
    flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Requires:} The type \texttt{InputIterator} shall satisfy the requirements for an Input Iterator (24.2.1).

\textbf{Returns:} assign(string_type(first, last), f).

\begin{verbatim}
basic_regex& assign(initializer_list<charT> il,
  flag_type f = regex_constants::ECMAScript);
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Effects:} Same as \texttt{assign(il.begin(), il.end(), f)}.

\textbf{Returns:} \texttt{*this}.
28.8.4 basic_regex constant operations

unsigned mark_count() const;
1 Effects: Returns the number of marked sub-expressions within the regular expression.

flag_type flags() const;
2 Effects: Returns a copy of the regular expression syntax flags that were passed to the object’s constructor or to the last call to assign.

28.8.5 basic_regex locale

locale_type imbue(locale_type loc);
1 Effects: Returns the result of traits_inst.imbue(loc) where traits_inst is a (default initialized) instance of the template type argument traits stored within the object. After a call to imbue the basic_regex object does not match any character sequence.

locale_type getloc() const;
2 Effects: Returns the result of traits_inst.getloc() where traits_inst is a (default initialized) instance of the template parameter traits stored within the object.

28.8.6 basic_regex swap

void swap(basic_regex& e);
1 Effects: Swaps the contents of the two regular expressions.
2 Postcondition: *this contains the regular expression that was in e, e contains the regular expression that was in *this.
3 Complexity: constant time.

28.8.7 basic_regex non-member functions

28.8.7.1 basic_regex non-member swap

template <class charT, class traits>
void swap(basic_regex<charT, traits>& lhs, basic_regex<charT, traits>& rhs);
1 Effects: Calls lhs.swap(rhs).

28.9 Class template sub_match

Class template sub_match denotes the sequence of characters matched by a particular marked sub-expression.

namespace std {
    template <class BidirectionalIterator>
    class sub_match : public std::pair<BidirectionalIterator, BidirectionalIterator> {
        public:
            typedef typename iterator_traits<BidirectionalIterator>::
                value_type value_type;
            typedef typename iterator_traits<BidirectionalIterator>::
                difference_type difference_type;

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typedef BidirectionalIterator iterator;

bool matched;

difference_type length() const;
operator basic_string<value_type>() const;
basic_string<value_type> str() const;

int compare(const sub_match& s) const;
int compare(const basic_string<value_type>& s) const;
int compare(const value_type* s) const;
};

28.9.1 sub_match members

difference_type length() const;

1 Returns: (matched ? distance(first, second) : 0).

operator basic_string<value_type>() const;

2 Returns: matched ? basic_string<value_type>(first, second) : basic_string<value_type>().
basic_string<value_type> str() const;

3 Returns: matched ? basic_string<value_type>(first, second) : basic_string<value_type>().

int compare(const sub_match& s) const;

4 Returns: str().compare(s.str()).

int compare(const basic_string<value_type>& s) const;

5 Returns: str().compare(s).

int compare(const value_type* s) const;

6 Returns: str().compare(s).

28.9.2 sub_match non-member operators

template <class BiIter>
bool operator==(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

1 Returns: lhs.compare(rhs) == 0.

template <class BiIter>
bool operator!=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

2 Returns: lhs.compare(rhs) != 0.

template <class BiIter>
bool operator<(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

3 Returns: lhs.compare(rhs) < 0.

template <class BiIter>
bool operator<=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

§ 28.9.2
Returns: $\text{lhs.compare(rhs)} \leq 0$.

\begin{verbatim}
template <class BiIter>
bool operator>=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
\end{verbatim}

Returns: $\text{lhs.compare(rhs)} \geq 0$.

\begin{verbatim}
template <class BiIter>
bool operator>(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
\end{verbatim}

Returns: $\text{lhs.compare(rhs)} > 0$.

\begin{verbatim}
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator==(const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
\end{verbatim}

Returns: $\text{lhs == rhs.str()}$.

\begin{verbatim}
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator!=(const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
\end{verbatim}

Returns: $\text{lhs != rhs.str()}$.

\begin{verbatim}
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator<(const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
\end{verbatim}

Returns: $\text{lhs < rhs.str()}$.

\begin{verbatim}
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator>(const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
\end{verbatim}

Returns: $\text{lhs > rhs.str()}$.

\begin{verbatim}
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator>=(const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
\end{verbatim}

Returns: $\text{lhs >= rhs.str()}$.

\begin{verbatim}
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator<=(const basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& lhs, const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);
\end{verbatim}

Returns: $\text{lhs <= rhs.str()}$.
template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator==(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
const basic_string<
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& rhs);

Returns: lhs.str() == rhs.

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator!=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
const basic_string<
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& rhs);

Returns: lhs.str() != rhs.

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator<(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
const basic_string<
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& rhs);

Returns: lhs.str() < rhs.

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator>(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
const basic_string<
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& rhs);

Returns: lhs.str() > rhs.

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator>=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
const basic_string<
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& rhs);

Returns: lhs.str() >= rhs.

template <class BiIter, class ST, class SA>
bool operator<=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
const basic_string<
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type, ST, SA>& rhs);

Returns: lhs.str() <= rhs.

template <class BiIter>
bool operator==(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* lhs,
const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

Returns: lhs == rhs.str().

template <class BiIter>
bool operator!=(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* lhs,
const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

Returns: lhs != rhs.str().

template <class BiIter>
bool operator<(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* lhs,
const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

Returns: lhs < rhs.str().

§ 28.9.2
template <class BiIter>
bool operator>(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* lhs,
const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

Returns: \( \text{lhs} > \text{rhs.str()} \).

template <class BiIter>
bool operator>=(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* lhs,
const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

Returns: \( \text{lhs} >= \text{rhs.str()} \).

template <class BiIter>
bool operator<=(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* lhs,
const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

Returns: \( \text{lhs} <= \text{rhs.str()} \).

template <class BiIter>
bool operator==(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* rhs);

Returns: \( \text{lhs.str()} == \text{rhs} \).

template <class BiIter>
bool operator!=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* rhs);

Returns: \( \text{lhs.str()} != \text{rhs} \).

template <class BiIter>
bool operator<=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* rhs);

Returns: \( \text{lhs.str()} >= \text{rhs} \).

template <class BiIter>
bool operator>(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* rhs);

Returns: \( \text{lhs.str()} > \text{rhs} \).

 template <class BiIter>
bool operator>=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const* rhs);

Returns: \( \text{lhs.str()} >= \text{rhs} \).

 template <class BiIter>
bool operator==(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& lhs,
const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

Returns: \( \text{basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type>(1, \text{lhs})} == \text{rhs.str()} \).
bool operator!=(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& lhs,
    const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

  Returns: basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type>(1, lhs) != rhs.str().

template <class BiIter>
bool operator<(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& lhs,
    const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

  Returns: basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type>(1, lhs) < rhs.str().

template <class BiIter>
bool operator>(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& lhs,
    const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

  Returns: basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type>(1, lhs) > rhs.str().

template <class BiIter>
bool operator>=(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& lhs,
    const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

  Returns: basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type>(1, lhs) >= rhs.str().

template <class BiIter>
bool operator<=(typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& lhs,
    const sub_match<BiIter>& rhs);

  Returns: basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type>(1, lhs) <= rhs.str().

template <class BiIter>
bool operator==(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& rhs);

  Returns: lhs.str() == basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type>(1, rhs).

template <class BiIter>
bool operator!=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& rhs);

  Returns: lhs.str() != basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type>(1, rhs).

template <class BiIter>
bool operator<(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& rhs);

  Returns: lhs.str() < basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type>(1, rhs).

template <class BiIter>
bool operator>(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& rhs);

  Returns: lhs.str() > basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type>(1, rhs).

template <class BiIter>
bool operator>=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& rhs);

  Returns: lhs.str() >= basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type>(1, rhs).

template <class BiIter>
bool operator<=(const sub_match<BiIter>& lhs,
    typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type const& rhs);

  Returns: lhs.str() <= basic_string<typename iterator_traits<BiIter>::value_type>(1, rhs).
28.10  Class template match_results

Class template match_results denotes a collection of character sequences representing the result of a regular expression match. Storage for the collection is allocated and freed as necessary by the member functions of class template match_results.

The class template match_results shall satisfy the requirements of an allocator-aware container and of a sequence container, as specified in 23.2.3, except that only operations defined for const-qualified sequence containers are supported.

The sub_match object stored at index 0 represents sub-expression 0, i.e., the whole match. In this case the sub_match member matched is always true. The sub_match object stored at index \( n \) denotes what matched the marked sub-expression \( n \) within the matched expression. If the sub-expression \( n \) participated in a regular expression match then the sub_match member matched evaluates to true, and members first and second denote the range of characters \([\text{first}, \text{second})\) which formed that match. Otherwise matched is false, and members first and second point to the end of the sequence that was searched. [Note: The sub_match objects representing different sub-expressions that did not participate in a regular expression match need not be distinct. — end note]

namespace std {
    template <class BidirectionalIterator, 
              class Allocator = allocator<sub_match<BidirectionalIterator> > 
    class match_results {
        public:
            typedef sub_match<BidirectionalIterator>               value_type;
            typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::const_reference const_reference;
            typedef const_reference                                 reference;
            typedef implementation-defined                        const_iterator;
            typedef const_iterator                                 iterator;
            typedef typename iterator_traits<BidirectionalIterator>::
                difference_type                                       difference_type;
            typedef typename allocator_traits<Allocator>::size_type size_type;
            typedef Allocator                                       allocator_type;
            typedef typename iterator_traits<BidirectionalIterator>::
                value_type                                            value_type;
            typedef basic_string<char_type>                         string_type;

            // 28.10.1, construct/copy/destroy:
            explicit match_results(const Allocator& a = Allocator());
            match_results(const match_results& m);
            match_results& operator=(const match_results& m);
            ~match_results();

            // 28.10.2, size:
            size_type size() const;
            size_type max_size() const;
}
bool empty() const;

// 28.10.3 element access:
difference_type length(size_type sub = 0) const;
difference_type position(size_type sub = 0) const;
string_type str(size_type sub = 0) const;
const_reference operator[](size_type n) const;

const_reference prefix() const;
const_reference suffix() const;
const_iterator begin() const;
const_iterator end() const;
const_iterator cbegin() const;
const_iterator cend() const;

// 28.10.4, format:
template <class OutputIter>
  OutputIter
  format(OutputIter out,
    const string_type& fmt,
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
    regex_constants::format_default) const;

// 28.10.5, allocator:
  allocator_type get_allocator() const;

// 28.10.6, swap:
  void swap(match_results& that);
};

28.10.1 match_results constructors

1. In all match_results constructors, a copy of the Allocator argument shall be used for any memory allocation performed by the constructor or member functions during the lifetime of the object.

match_results(const Allocator& a = Allocator());

Effects: Constructs an object of class match_results.

Postconditions: size() returns 0. str() returns basic_string<char_type>().

match_results(const match_results& m);

Effects: Constructs an object of class match_results, as a copy of m.

match_results& operator=(const match_results& m);

Effects: Assigns m to *this. The postconditions of this function are indicated in Table 131.

28.10.2 match_results size

§ 28.10.2
Table 131 — `match_results` assignment operator effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>size()</td>
<td><code>m.size()</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>str(n)</td>
<td><code>m.str(n)</code> for all integers ( n &lt; m.size() )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prefix()</td>
<td><code>m.prefix()</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suffix()</td>
<td><code>m.suffix()</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((*this)[n])</td>
<td><code>m[n]</code> for all integers ( n &lt; m.size() )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>length(n)</td>
<td><code>m.length(n)</code> for all integers ( n &lt; m.size() )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>position(n)</td>
<td><code>m.position(n)</code> for all integers ( n &lt; m.size() )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

size_type `size()` const;

1   Returns: One plus the number of marked sub-expressions in the regular expression that was matched if `*this` represents the result of a successful match. Otherwise returns 0. [Note: The state of a `match_results` object can be modified only by passing that object to `regex_match` or `regex_search`. Sections 28.11.2 and 28.11.3 specify the effects of those algorithms on their `match_results` arguments. — end note]

size_type `max_size()` const;

2   Returns: The maximum number of `sub_match` elements that can be stored in `*this`.

bool `empty()` const;

3   Returns: `size() == 0`.

### 28.10.3 `match_results` element access

[re.results.acc]

difference_type `length(size_type sub = 0)` const;

1   Returns: `(*this)[sub].length()`.

difference_type `position(size_type sub = 0)` const;

2   Returns: The distance from the start of the target sequence to `(*this)[sub].first`.

string_type `str(size_type sub = 0)` const;

3   Returns: `string_type((*this)[sub])`.

const_reference `operator[](size_type n)` const;

4   Returns: A reference to the `sub_match` object representing the character sequence that matched marked sub-expression \( n \). If \( n == 0 \) then returns a reference to a `sub_match` object representing the character sequence that matched the whole regular expression. If \( n >= size() \) then returns a `sub_match` object representing an unmatched sub-expression.

const_reference `prefix()` const;

5   Returns: A reference to the `sub_match` object representing the character sequence from the start of the string being matched/searched to the start of the match found.

const_reference `suffix()` const;

6   Returns: A reference to the `sub_match` object representing the character sequence from the end of the match found to the end of the string being matched/searched.
const_iterator begin() const;
const_iterator cbegin() const;
    Returns: A starting iterator that enumerates over all the sub-expressions stored in *this.

const_iterator end() const;
const_iterator cend() const;
    Returns: A terminating iterator that enumerates over all the sub-expressions stored in *this.

28.10.4 match_results formatting

template <class OutputIter>
OutputIter format(OutputIter out,
    const string_type& fmt,
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
    regex_constants::format_default) const;

    Requires: The type OutputIter shall satisfy the requirements for an Output Iterator (24.2.2).

    Effects: Copies the character sequence [fmt.begin(),fmt.end()) to OutputIter out. Replaces each format specifier or escape sequence in fmt with either the character(s) it represents or the sequence of characters within *this to which it refers. The bitmasks specified in flags determines what format specifiers and escape sequences are recognized.

    Returns: out.

string_type format(const string_type& fmt,
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
    regex_constants::format_default) const;

    Effects: Returns a copy of the string fmt. Replaces each format specifier or escape sequence in fmt with either the character(s) it represents or the sequence of characters within *this to which it refers. The bitmasks specified in flags determines what format specifiers and escape sequences are recognized.

28.10.5 match_results allocator

allocator_type get_allocator() const;

    Returns: a copy of the Allocator that was passed to the object’s constructor or, if that allocator has been replaced, a copy of the most recent replacement.

28.10.6 match_results swap

void swap(match_results& that);

    Effects: Swaps the contents of the two sequences.

    Postcondition: *this contains the sequence of matched sub-expressions that were in that, that contains the sequence of matched sub-expressions that were in *this.

    Complexity: constant time.

template <class BidirectionalIterator, class Allocator>
void swap(match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m1,
    match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m2);
4 Effects: m1.swap(m2).

28.10.7 match-results non-member functions

```
template <class BidirectionalIterator, class Allocator>
bool operator==(const match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m1,
                const match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m2);
```

1 Returns: true only if the two objects refer to the same match.

```
template <class BidirectionalIterator, class Allocator>
bool operator!=(const match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m1,
                const match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m2);
```

2 Returns: !(m1 == m2).

28.11 Regular expression algorithms

28.11.1 exceptions

1 The algorithms described in this subclause may throw an exception of type regex_error. If such an exception e is thrown, e.code() shall return either regex_constants::error_complexity or regex_constants::error_stack.

28.11.2 regex_match

```
template <class BidirectionalIterator, class Allocator, class charT, class traits>
bool regex_match(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last,
                 match_results<BidirectionalIterator, Allocator>& m,
                 const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
                 regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
                 regex_constants::match_default);
```

1 Requires: The type BidirectionalIterator shall satisfy the requirements of a Bidirectional Iterator (24.2.4).

2 Effects: Determines whether there is a match between the regular expression e, and all of the character sequence [first, last). The parameter flags is used to control how the expression is matched against the character sequence. Returns true if such a match exists, false otherwise.

3 Postconditions: If the function returns false, then the effect on parameter m is unspecified except that m.size() returns 0 and m.empty() returns true. Otherwise the effects on parameter m are given in table 132.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>m.size()</td>
<td>1 + e.mark_count()</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m.empty()</td>
<td>false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m.prefix().first</td>
<td>first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m.prefix().second</td>
<td>first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m.prefix().matched</td>
<td>false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m.suffix().first</td>
<td>last</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m.suffix().second</td>
<td>last</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 132 — Effects of regex_match algorithm
Table 132 — Effects of regex_match algorithm (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>m.suffix().matched</td>
<td>false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m[0].first</td>
<td>first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m[0].second</td>
<td>last</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m[0].matched</td>
<td>true if a full match was found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m[n].first</td>
<td>For all integers n &lt; m.size(), the start of the sequence that matched sub-expression n. Alternatively, if sub-expression n did not participate in the match, then last.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m[n].second</td>
<td>For all integers n &lt; m.size(), the end of the sequence that matched sub-expression n. Alternatively, if sub-expression n did not participate in the match, then last.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m[n].matched</td>
<td>For all integers n &lt; m.size(), true if sub-expression n participated in the match, false otherwise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```cpp
template <class BidirectionalIterator, class charT, class traits>
bool regex_match(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last,
const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
regex_constants::match_default);
```

4 Effects: Behaves “as if” by constructing an instance of `match_results<BidirectionalIterator>` what, and then returning the result of `regex_match(first, last, what, e, flags)`.

```cpp
template <class charT, class Allocator, class traits>
bool regex_match(const charT* str,
match_results<const charT*, Allocator>& m,
const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
regex_constants::match_default);
```

5 Returns: `regex_match(str, str + char_traits<charT>::length(str), m, e, flags)`.

```cpp
template <class ST, class SA, class Allocator, class charT, class traits>
bool regex_match(const basic_string<charT, ST, SA>& s,
match_results<typename basic_string<charT, ST, SA>::const_iterator,
Allocator>& m,
const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
regex_constants::match_default);
```

6 Returns: `regex_match(s.begin(), s.end(), m, e, flags)`.

```cpp
template <class charT, class traits>
bool regex_match(const charT* str,
const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
regex_constants::match_default);
```

7 Returns: `regex_match(str, str + char_traits<charT>::length(str), e, flags)`.
Returns: `regex_match(s.begin(), s.end(), e, flags)`.

28.11.3 regex_search

`template <class BidirectionalIterator, class Allocator, class charT, class traits>
bool regex_search(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last,
                 const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
                 regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
                 regex_constants::match_default);`

Requires: Type `BidirectionalIterator` shall satisfy the requirements of a Bidirectional Iterator (24.1.4).

Effects: Determines whether there is some sub-sequence within `[first,last)` that matches the regular expression `e`. The parameter `flags` is used to control how the expression is matched against the character sequence. Returns `true` if such a sequence exists, `false` otherwise.

Postconditions: If the function returns `false`, then the effect on parameter `m` is unspecified except that `m.size()` returns 0 and `m.empty()` returns `true`. Otherwise the effects on parameter `m` are given in table 133.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>m.size()</code></td>
<td><code>1 + e.mark_count()</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m.empty()</code></td>
<td><code>false</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m.prefix().first</code></td>
<td><code>first</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m.prefix().second</code></td>
<td><code>m[0].first</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m.prefix().matched</code></td>
<td><code>m.prefix().first != m.prefix().second</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m.suffix().first</code></td>
<td><code>m[0].second</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m.suffix().second</code></td>
<td><code>last</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m.suffix().matched</code></td>
<td><code>m.suffix().first != m.suffix().second</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m[0].first</code></td>
<td>The start of the sequence of characters that matched the regular expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m[0].second</code></td>
<td>The end of the sequence of characters that matched the regular expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m[0].matched</code></td>
<td><code>true</code> if a match was found, and <code>false</code> otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m[n].first</code></td>
<td>For all integers <code>n &lt; m.size()</code>, the start of the sequence that matched sub-expression <code>n</code>. Alternatively, if sub-expression <code>n</code> did not participate in the match, then <code>last</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m[n].second</code></td>
<td>For all integers <code>n &lt; m.size()</code>, the end of the sequence that matched sub-expression <code>n</code>. Alternatively, if sub-expression <code>n</code> did not participate in the match, then <code>last</code>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>m[n].matched</code></td>
<td>For all integers <code>n &lt; m.size()</code>, <code>true</code> if sub-expression <code>n</code> participated in the match, <code>false</code> otherwise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`template <class charT, class Allocator, class traits>

§ 28.11.3 1068`
bool regex_search(const charT* str, match_results<const charT*, Allocator>& m, 
    const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e, 
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags = 
    regex_constants::match_default);

Returns: The result of regex_search(str, str + char_traits<charT>::length(str), m, e, flags).

template <class ST, class SA, class Allocator, class charT, class traits> 
bool regex_search(const basic_string<charT, ST, SA>& s, 
    match_results<typename basic_string<charT, ST, SA>::const_iterator, 
    Allocator>& m, 
    const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e, 
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags = 
    regex_constants::match_default);

Returns: The result of regex_search(s.begin(), s.end(), m, e, flags).

template <class BidirectionalIterator, class charT, class traits> 
bool regex_search(BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last, 
    const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e, 
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags = 
    regex_constants::match_default);

Effects: Behaves “as if” by constructing an object what of type match_results<BidirectionalIterator> 
and then returning the result of regex_search(first, last, what, e, flags).

template <class charT, class traits> 
bool regex_search(const charT* str, 
    const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e, 
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags = 
    regex_constants::match_default);

Returns: regex_search(str, str + char_traits<charT>::length(str), e, flags)

template <class ST, class SA, class charT, class traits> 
bool regex_search(const basic_string<charT, ST, SA>& s, 
    const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e, 
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags = 
    regex_constants::match_default);

Returns: regex_search(s.begin(), s.end(), e, flags).

28.11.4 regex_replace

template <class OutputIterator, class BidirectionalIterator, 
    class traits, class charT> 
OutputIterator regex_replace(OutputIterator out, 
    BidirectionalIterator first, BidirectionalIterator last, 
    const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e, 
    const basic_string<charT>& fmt, 
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags = 
    regex_constants::match_default);

Effects: Constructs a regex_iterator object i as if by regex_iterator<BidirectionalIterator, 
charT, traits> i(first, last, e, flags), and uses i to enumerate through all of the matches
m of type `match_results<BidirectionalIterator>` that occur within the sequence `[first, last)`. If no such matches are found and !(flags & regex_constants::format_no_copy) then calls `std::copy(first, last, out)`. If any matches are found then, for each such match, if !(flags & regex_constants::format_no_copy) calls `std::copy(m.prefix().first, m.prefix().second, out)`, and then calls `m.format(out, fmt, flags)`. Finally, if such a match is found and !(flags & regex_constants::format_no_copy) calls `std::copy(last_m.suffix().first, last_m.suffix().second, out)` where `last_m` is a copy of the last match found. If flags & regex_constants::format_first_only is non-zero then only the first match found is replaced.

2 Returns: `out`.

```cpp
template <class traits, class charT>
basic_string<charT>
regex_replace(const basic_string<charT>& s,
const basic_regex<charT, traits>& e,
const basic_string<charT>& fmt,
regex_constants::match_flag_type flags =
regex_constants::match_default);
```

3 Effects: Constructs an empty string `result` of type `basic_string<charT>`, calls `regex_replace(back_inserter(result), s.begin(), s.end(), e, fmt, flags)`, and then returns `result`.

### 28.12 Regular expression Iterators

#### 28.12.1 Class template regex_iterator

The class template `regex_iterator` is an iterator adaptor. It represents a new view of an existing iterator sequence, by enumerating all the occurrences of a regular expression within that sequence. A `regex_iterator` uses `regex_search` to find successive regular expression matches within the sequence from which it was constructed. After the iterator is constructed, and every time `operator++` is used, the iterator finds and stores a value of `match_results<BidirectionalIterator>`. If the end of the sequence is reached (`regex_search` returns `false`), the iterator becomes equal to the end-of-sequence iterator value. The default constructor constructs an end-of-sequence iterator object, which is the only legitimate iterator to be used for the end condition. The result of `operator*` on an end-of-sequence iterator is not defined. For any other iterator value a const `match_results<BidirectionalIterator>`& is returned. The result of `operator->` on an end-of-sequence iterator is not defined. For any other iterator value a const `match_results<BidirectionalIterator>`* is returned. It is impossible to store things into `regex_iterators`. Two end-of-sequence iterators are always equal. An end-of-sequence iterator is not equal to a non-end-of-sequence iterator. Two non-end-of-sequence iterators are equal when they are constructed from the same arguments.

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class BidirectionalIterator,
        class charT = typename iterator_traits<BidirectionalIterator>::value_type,
        class traits = regex_traits<charT> >
    class regex_iterator {
        public:
            typedef basic_regex<charT, traits> regex_type;
            typedef match_results<BidirectionalIterator> value_type;
            typedef std::ptrdiff_t difference_type;
            typedef const value_type* pointer;
            typedef const value_type& reference;
            typedef std::forward_iterator_tag iterator_category;
```
regex_iterator();
regex_iterator(BidirectionalIterator a, BidirectionalIterator b,
    const regex_type& re,
    regex_constants::match_flag_type m =
    regex_constants::match_default);
regex_iterator(const regex_iterator&);
regex_iterator& operator=(const regex_iterator&);

bool operator==(const regex_iterator&) const;
bool operator!=(const regex_iterator&) const;
const value_type& operator*() const;
const value_type* operator->() const;
regex_iterator& operator++();
regex_iterator operator++(int);

private:

    // these members are shown for exposition only:
    BidirectionalIterator begin;
    BidirectionalIterator end;
    const regex_type* pregex;
    regex_constants::match_flag_type flags;
    match_results<BidirectionalIterator> match;
};

2
A regex_iterator object that is not an end-of-sequence iterator holds a zero-length match if match[0].matched == true and match[0].first == match[0].second. [Note: for example, this can occur when the part of the regular expression that matched consists only of an assertion (such as ‘^’, ‘$’, ‘\b’, ‘\B’). — end note]

28.12.1.1 regex_iterator constructors

regex_iterator();

Effects: Constructs an end-of-sequence iterator.

regex_iterator(BidirectionalIterator a, BidirectionalIterator b,
    const regex_type& re,
    regex_constants::match_flag_type m = regex_constants::match_default);

Effects: Initializes begin and end to a and b, respectively, sets pregex to &re, sets flags to m, then calls regex_search(begin, end, match, *pregex, flags). If this call returns false the constructor sets *this to the end-of-sequence iterator.

28.12.1.2 regex_iterator comparisons

bool operator==(const regex_iterator& right) const;

Returns: true if *this and right are both end-of-sequence iterators or if begin == right.begin, end == right.end, pregex == right.pregex, flags == right.flags, and match[0] == right.match[0], otherwise false.

bool operator!=(const regex_iterator& right) const;

Returns: !(this == right).
28.12.1.3  regex_iterator dereference

const value_type& operator*() const;

Returns: match.

cst value_type* operator->() const;

Returns: &match.

28.12.1.4  regex_iterator increment

regex_iterator& operator++();

Effects: Constructs a local variable start of type BidirectionalIterator and initializes it with the value of match[0].second.

If the iterator holds a zero-length match and start == end the operator sets *this to the end-of-sequence iterator and returns *this.

Otherwise, if the iterator holds a zero-length match the operator calls regex_search(start, end, match, *pregex, flags | regex_constants::match_not_null | regex_constants::match_continuous). If the call returns true the operator returns *this. Otherwise the operator increments start and continues as if the most recent match was not a zero-length match.

If the most recent match was not a zero-length match, the operator sets flags to flags | regex_constants::match_prev_avail and calls regex_search(start, end, match, *pregex, flags). If the call returns false the iterator sets *this to the end-of-sequence iterator. The iterator then returns *this.

In all cases in which the call to regex_search returns true, match.prefix().first shall be equal to the previous value of match[0].second, and for each index i in the half-open range [0, match.size()) for which match[i].matched is true, match[i].position() shall return distance(begin, match[i].first).

[Note: this means that match[i].position() gives the offset from the beginning of the target sequence, which is often not the same as the offset from the sequence passed in the call to regex_search. — end note]

It is unspecified how the implementation makes these adjustments.

[Note: this means that a compiler may call an implementation-specific search function, in which case a user-defined specialization of regex_search will not be called. — end note]

regex_iterator operator++(int);

Effects:

regex_iterator tmp = *this;
++(*this);
return tmp;

28.12.2  Class template regex_token_iterator

The class template regex_token_iterator is an iterator adaptor; that is to say it represents a new view of an existing iterator sequence, by enumerating all the occurrences of a regular expression within that sequence, and presenting one or more sub-expressions for each match found. Each position enumerated by
the iterator is a `sub_match` class template instance that represents what matched a particular sub-expression within the regular expression.

2 When class `regex_token_iterator` is used to enumerate a single sub-expression with index -1 the iterator performs field splitting: that is to say it enumerates one sub-expression for each section of the character container sequence that does not match the regular expression specified.

3 After it is constructed, the iterator finds and stores a value `regex_iterator<BidirectionalIterator>` position and sets the internal count `N` to zero. It also maintains a sequence `subs` which contains a list of the sub-expressions which will be enumerated. Every time `operator++` is used the count `N` is incremented; if `N` exceeds or equals `subs.size()`, then the iterator increments member `position` and sets count `N` to zero.

4 If the end of sequence is reached (position is equal to the end of sequence iterator), the iterator becomes equal to the end-of-sequence iterator value, unless the sub-expression being enumerated has index -1, in which case the iterator enumerates one last sub-expression that contains all the characters from the end of the last regular expression match to the end of the input sequence being enumerated, provided that this would not be an empty sub-expression.

5 The default constructor constructs an end-of-sequence iterator object, which is the only legitimate iterator to be used for the end condition. The result of `operator*` on an end-of-sequence iterator is not defined. For any other iterator value a `const sub_match<BidirectionalIterator>&` is returned. The result of `operator->` on an end-of-sequence iterator is not defined. For any other iterator value a `const sub_match<BidirectionalIterator>*` is returned.

6 It is impossible to store things into `regex_token_iterators`. Two end-of-sequence iterators are always equal. An end-of-sequence iterator is not equal to a non-end-of-sequence iterator. Two non-end-of-sequence iterators are equal when they are constructed from the same arguments.

```cpp
namespace std {
  template <class BidirectionalIterator,
           class charT = typename iterator_traits<BidirectionalIterator>::value_type,
           class traits = regex_traits<charT> >
  class regex_token_iterator {
    public:
      typedef basic_regex<charT, traits> regex_type;
      typedef sub_match<BidirectionalIterator> value_type;
      typedef std::ptrdiff_t difference_type;
      typedef const value_type* pointer;
      typedef const value_type& reference;
      typedef std::forward_iterator_tag iterator_category;

      regex_token_iterator();
      regex_token_iterator(BidirectionalIterator a, BidirectionalIterator b,
                           const regex_type& re,
                           int submatch = 0,
                           regex_constants::match_flag_type m =
                           regex_constants::match_default);

      regex_token_iterator(BidirectionalIterator a, BidirectionalIterator b,
                           const regex_type& re,
                           const std::vector<int>& submatches,
                           regex_constants::match_flag_type m =
                           regex_constants::match_default);

      regex_token_iterator(BidirectionalIterator a, BidirectionalIterator b,
                           const regex_type& re,
                           initializer_list<int> submatches,
                           regex_constants::match_flag_type m =
                           regex_constants::match_default);
  }
}```
A suffix iterator is a regex_token_iterator object that points to a final sequence of characters at the end of the target sequence. In a suffix iterator the member result holds a pointer to the data member suffix, the value of the member suffix.match is true, suffix.first points to the beginning of the final sequence, and suffix.second points to the end of the final sequence.

[Note: for a suffix iterator, data member suffix.first is the same as the end of the last match found, and suffix.second is the same as the end of the target sequence — end note]

The current match is (*position).prefix() if subs[N] == -1, or (*position)[subs[N]] for any other value of subs[N].

28.12.2.1 regex_token_iterator constructors

regex_token_iterator();

Effects: Constructs the end-of-sequence iterator.
const regex_type& re,
initializer_list<int> submatches,
regex_constants::match_flag_type m =
regex_constants::match_default);

template <std::size_t N>
regex_token_iterator(BidirectionalIterator a, BidirectionalIterator b,
const regex_type& re,
const int (&submatches)[N],
regex_constants::match_flag_type m =
regex_constants::match_default);

Requires: Each of the initialization values of submatches shall be \( \geq -1 \).

Effects: The first constructor initializes the member subs to hold the single value submatch. The second constructor initializes the member subs to hold a copy of the argument submatches. The third and fourth constructors initialize the member subs to hold a copy of the sequence of integer values pointed to by the iterator range [submatches.begin(), submatches.end()) and [&submatches, &submatches + N], respectively.

Each constructor then sets \( N \) to 0, and position to position_iterator(a, b, re, m). If position is not an end-of-sequence iterator the constructor sets result to the address of the current match. Otherwise if any of the values stored in subs is equal to -1 the constructor sets *this to a suffix iterator that points to the range [a, b), otherwise the constructor sets *this to an end-of-sequence iterator.

28.12.2.2 regex_token_iterator comparisons

bool operator==(const regex_token_iterator& right) const;

Returns: true if *this and right are both end-of-sequence iterators, or if *this and right are both suffix iterators and suffix == right.suffix; otherwise returns false if *this or right is an end-of-sequence iterator or a suffix iterator. Otherwise returns true if position == right.position, \( N == right.N \), and subs == right.subs. Otherwise returns false.

bool operator!=(const regex_token_iterator& right) const;

Returns: !(*this == right).

28.12.2.3 regex_token_iterator dereference

const value_type& operator*() const;

Returns: *result.

const value_type* operator->() const;

Returns: result.

28.12.2.4 regex_token_iterator increment

regex_token_iterator& operator++();

Effects: Constructs a local variable prev of type position_iterator, initialized with the value of position.
If *this is a suffix iterator, sets *this to an end-of-sequence iterator.
Otherwise, if $N + 1 < subs.size()$, increments $N$ and sets result to the address of the current match.
Otherwise, sets $N$ to 0 and increments position. If position is not an end-of-sequence iterator the
operator sets result to the address of the current match.
Otherwise, if any of the values stored in subs is equal to -1 and prev->suffix().length() is not
0 the operator sets *this to a suffix iterator that points to the range [prev->suffix().first, prev->suffix().second).
Otherwise, sets *this to an end-of-sequence iterator.

Returns: *this

regex_token_iterator& operator++(int);

Effects: Constructs a copy tmp of *this, then calls ++(*this).

Returns: tmp.

28.13 Modified ECMAScript regular expression grammar

The regular expression grammar recognized by basic_regex objects constructed with the ECMAScript flag
is that specified by ECMA-262, except as specified below.

Objects of type specialization of basic_regex store within themselves a default-constructed instance of
their traits template parameter, henceforth referred to as traits_inst. This traits_inst object is used
to support localization of the regular expression; basic_regex object member functions shall not call any
locale dependent C or C++ API, including the formatted string input functions. Instead they shall call the
appropriate traits member function to achieve the required effect.

The following productions within the ECMAScript grammar are modified as follows:

CharacterClass ::= 
   [ [lookahead / { ] ClassRanges ] ] 
   [ ^ ClassRanges ]

ClassAtom ::=
   -
   ClassAtomNoDash
   ClassAtomExClass
   ClassAtomCollatingElement
   ClassAtomEquivalence

The following new productions are then added:

ClassAtomExClass ::= 
   [: ClassName :]

ClassAtomCollatingElement ::= 
   [. ClassName .]

ClassAtomEquivalence ::= 
   [= ClassName =]

ClassName ::= 
   ClassNameCharacter
ClassNameCharacter

(classNameCharacter ::
  SourceCharacter but not one of "," "=" ":")

5 The productions ClassNameExClass, ClassNameCollatingElement and ClassNameEquivalence provide functionality equivalent to that of the same features in regular expressions in POSIX.

6 The regular expression grammar may be modified by any regex_constants::syntax_option_type flags specified when constructing an object of type specialization of basic_regex according to the rules in table 128.

7 A ClassName production, when used in ClassNameExClass, is not valid if traits_inst.lookup_classname returns zero for that name. The names recognized as valid ClassNames are determined by the type of the traits class, but at least the following names shall be recognized: alnum, alpha, blank, cntrl, digit, graph, lower, print, punct, space, upper, xdigit, d, s, w. In addition the following expressions shall be equivalent:

\d and [:digit:]
\D and [^[:digit:]]
\s and [:space:]
\S and [^[:space:]]
\w and _[:alnum:]
\W and [^_[:alnum:]]

8 A ClassName production when used in a ClassNameCollatingElement production is not valid if the value returned by traits_inst.lookup_collatename for that name is an empty string.

9 The results from multiple calls to traits_inst.lookup_classname can be bitwise OR’ed together and subsequently passed to traits_inst.isctype.

10 A ClassName production when used in a ClassNameEquivalence production is not valid if the value returned by traits_inst.lookup_collatename for that name is an empty string or if the value returned by traits_inst.transform_primary for the result of the call to traits_inst.lookup_collatename is an empty string.

11 When the sequence of characters being transformed to a finite state machine contains an invalid class name the translator shall throw an exception object of type regex_error.

12 If the CV of a UnicodeEscapeSequence is greater than the largest value that can be held in an object of type charT the translator shall throw an exception object of type regex_error. [Note: this means that values of the form "uxxxx" that do not fit in a character are invalid. — end note]

13 Where the regular expression grammar requires the conversion of a sequence of characters to an integral value, this is accomplished by calling traits_inst.value.

14 The behavior of the internal finite state machine representation when used to match a sequence of characters is as described in ECMA-262. The behavior is modified according to any match_flag_type flags specified when using the regular expression object in one of the regular expression algorithms. The behavior is also localized by interaction with the traits class template parameter as follows:

— During matching of a regular expression finite state machine against a sequence of characters, two characters c and d are compared using the following rules:

§ 28.13
1. if \((\text{flags()} \& \text{regex_constants::icase})\) the two characters are equal if \(\text{traits\_inst\_translate\_nocase}(c) == \text{traits\_inst\_translate\_nocase}(d)\);

2. otherwise, if \(\text{flags()} \& \text{regex_constants::collate}\) the two characters are equal if \(\text{traits\_inst\_translate}(c) == \text{traits\_inst\_translate}(d)\);

3. otherwise, the two characters are equal if \(c == d\).

— During matching of a regular expression finite state machine against a sequence of characters, comparison of a collating element range \(c1\text{-}c2\) against a character \(c\) is conducted as follows: if \(\text{flags()} \& \text{regex\_constants::collate}\) is false then the character \(c\) is matched if \(c1 <= c && c <= c2\), otherwise \(c\) is matched in accordance with the following algorithm:

\[
\text{string\_type str1 = string\_type(1, flags() \& icase ? \text{traits\_inst\_translate\_nocase}(c1) : \text{traits\_inst\_translate}(c1);}\
\text{string\_type str2 = string\_type(1, flags() \& icase ? \text{traits\_inst\_translate\_nocase}(c2) : \text{traits\_inst\_translate}(c2);}\
\text{string\_type str = string\_type(1, flags() \& icase ? \text{traits\_inst\_translate\_nocase}(c) : \text{traits\_inst\_translate}(c);}\
\text{return \text{traits\_inst\_transform}(\text{str1.begin()}, \text{str1.end()}) <= \text{traits\_inst\_transform}(\text{str.begin()}, \text{str.end()}) && \text{traits\_inst\_transform}(\text{str.begin()}, \text{str.end()}) <= \text{traits\_inst\_transform}(\text{str2.begin()}, \text{str2.end()});}
\]

— During matching of a regular expression finite state machine against a sequence of characters, testing whether a collating element is a member of a primary equivalence class is conducted by first converting the collating element and the equivalence class to sort keys using \text{traits::transform\_primary}, and then comparing the sort keys for equality.

— During matching of a regular expression finite state machine against a sequence of characters, a character \(c\) is a member of a character class designated by an iterator range \([\text{first}, \text{last})\) if \(\text{traits\_inst\_isctype}(c, \text{traits\_inst\_lookup\_classname}(\text{first}, \text{last}, \text{flags()} \& \text{icase}))\) is true.
29 Atomic operations library

29.1 General

This Clause describes components for fine-grained atomic access. This access is provided via operations on atomic objects.\footnote{Atomic objects are neither active nor radioactive.}

The following subclauses describe atomics requirements and components for types and operations, as summarized below.

Table 134 — Atomics library summary

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29.2 Header <atomic> synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    // 29.3, order and consistency
    enum memory_order;
    template <typename T>
        T kill_dependency(T y);

    // 29.4, lock-free property
    #define ATOMIC_INTEGRAL_LOCK_FREE unspecified
    #define ATOMIC_ADDRESS_LOCK_FREE unspecified

    // 29.7, flag type and operations
    struct atomic_flag;
    bool atomic_flag_test_and_set(volatile atomic_flag*);
    bool atomic_flag_test_and_set_explicit(volatile atomic_flag*, memory_order);
    void atomic_flag_clear(volatile atomic_flag*);
    void atomic_flag_clear_explicit(volatile atomic_flag*, memory_order);

    #define ATOMIC_FLAG_INIT unspecified

    // 29.5.1, integral types
    struct atomic_bool;
    bool atomic_is_lock_free(const volatile atomic_bool*);
}
```
bool atomic_is_lock_free(const atomic_bool*);
void atomic_store(volatile atomic_bool*, bool);
void atomic_store(atomic_bool*, bool, memory_order);
void atomic_store_explicit(volatile atomic_bool*, bool, memory_order);
bool atomic_load(const volatile atomic_bool*);
bool atomic_load(const atomic_bool*);
bool atomic_load_explicit(const volatile atomic_bool*, memory_order);
bool atomic_load_explicit(const atomic_bool*, memory_order);
bool atomic_exchange(volatile atomic_bool*, bool);
bool atomic_exchange(atomic_bool*, bool);
bool atomic_exchange_explicit(volatile atomic_bool*, bool, memory_order);
bool atomic_exchange_explicit(atomic_bool*, bool, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak(volatile atomic_bool*, bool*, bool);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong(volatile atomic_bool*, bool*, bool);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak_explicit(volatile atomic_bool*, bool*, bool, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(volatile atomic_bool*, bool*, bool, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong(volatile atomic_bool*, bool*, bool);

// For each of the integral types:
struct atomic_itype;
bool atomic_is_lock_free(const volatile atomic_itype*);
bool atomic_is_lock_free(const atomic_itype*);
void atomic_store(volatile atomic_itype*, integral);
void atomic_store(atomic_itype*, integral, memory_order);
void atomic_store_explicit(volatile atomic_itype*, integral, memory_order);
void atomic_store_explicit(atomic_itype*, integral, memory_order);
integral atomic_load(const volatile atomic_itype*);
integral atomic_load(const atomic_itype*);
integral atomic_load_explicit(const volatile atomic_itype*, memory_order);
integral atomic_load_explicit(const atomic_itype*, memory_order);
integral atomic_exchange(volatile atomic_itype*, integral);
integral atomic_exchange(atomic_itype*, integral);
integral atomic_exchange_explicit(volatile atomic_itype*, integral, memory_order);
integral atomic_exchange_explicit(atomic_itype*, integral, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak(volatile atomic_itype*, integral*, integral);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong(volatile atomic_itype*, integral*, integral);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak_explicit(volatile atomic_itype*, integral*, integral*, integral,
                                       integral, memory_order, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(volatile atomic_itype*, integral*, integral*,
                                    integral, memory_order, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(volatile atomic_itype*, integral*, integral*,
                               integral, memory_order, memory_order);

§ 29.2
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(atomic_type*, integral*,
        integral, memory_order, memory_order);
integral atomic_fetch_add(atomic_type*, integral);
integral atomic_fetch_add_explicit(volatile atomic_type*, integral,
        memory_order);
integral atomic_fetch_add_explicit(atomic_type*, integral,
        memory_order);
integral atomic_fetch_sub(atomic_type*, integral);
integral atomic_fetch_sub_explicit(volatile atomic_type*, integral,
        memory_order);
integral atomic_fetch_sub_explicit(atomic_type*, integral,
        memory_order);
integral atomic_fetch_xor_explicit(atomic_type*, integral,
        memory_order);
integral atomic_fetch_xor_explicit(atomic_type*, integral,
        memory_order);
integral atomic_fetch_and_explicit(atomic_type*, integral,
        memory_order);
integral atomic_fetch_and_explicit(atomic_type*, integral,
        memory_order);
integral atomic_fetch_or_explicit(atomic_type*, integral,
        memory_order);
integral atomic_fetch_or_explicit(atomic_type*, integral,
        memory_order);
integral atomic_fetch_xor(atomic_type*, integral);
integral atomic_fetch_xor(atomic_type*, integral);
integral atomic_fetch_xor_explicit(volatile atomic_type*, integral,
        memory_order);
integral atomic_fetch_xor_explicit(atomic_type*, integral,
        memory_order);

// 29.5.2, address types
struct atomic_address;
bool atomic_is_lock_free(const volatile atomic_address*);
void atomic_store(volatile atomic_address*, void*);
void atomic_store(atomic_address*, void*);
void atomic_store_explicit(volatile atomic_address*, void*, memory_order);
void atomic_store_explicit(atomic_address*, void*, memory_order);
void* atomic_load(const volatile atomic_address*);
void* atomic_load(const atomic_address*);
void* atomic_load_explicit(const volatile atomic_address*, memory_order);
void* atomic_load_explicit(const atomic_address*, memory_order);
void* atomic_exchange(volatile atomic_address*, void*);
void* atomic_exchange(atomic_address*, void*);
void* atomic_exchange_explicit(volatile atomic_address*, void*, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak(explicit(atomic_address*, void*, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak(atomic_address*, void*, void*);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong(volatile atomic_address*, void*, void*);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong(atomic_address*, void*, void*);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak_explicit(volatile atomic_address*, void*, void*,
        memory_order, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak_explicit(atomic_address*, void*, void*,
        memory_order, memory_order);
memory_order, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(volatile atomic_address*, void**, void*,
memory_order, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(atomic_address*, void**, void*,
memory_order, memory_order);
void* atomic_fetch_add(volatile atomic_address*, ptrdiff_t);
void* atomic_fetch_add(atomic_address*, ptrdiff_t);
void* atomic_fetch_add_explicit(volatile atomic_address*, ptrdiff_t,
memory_order);
void* atomic_fetch_add_explicit(atomic_address*, ptrdiff_t,
memory_order);
void* atomic_fetch_sub(volatile atomic_address*, ptrdiff_t);
void* atomic_fetch_sub(atomic_address*, ptrdiff_t);
void* atomic_fetch_sub_explicit(volatile atomic_address*, ptrdiff_t,
memory_order);
void* atomic_fetch_sub_explicit(atomic_address*, ptrdiff_t,
memory_order);

// 29.5.3, generic types
template<class T> struct atomic;
template<class T> struct atomic<T*>;
template<> struct atomic<integral>;

// 29.8, fences
void atomic_thread_fence(memory_order);
void atomic_signal_fence(memory_order);

29.3 Order and Consistency [atomics.order]

namespace std {
  typedef enum memory_order {
    memory_order_relaxed, memory_order_consume, memory_order_acquire,
    memory_order_release, memory_order_acq_rel, memory_order_seq_cst
  } memory_order;
}

1 The enumeration memory_order specifies the detailed regular (non-atomic) memory synchronization order
as defined in 1.10 and may provide for operation ordering. Its enumerated values and their meanings are as
follows:

— memory_order_relaxed: no operation orders memory.
— memory_order_release, memory_order_acq_rel, and memory_order_seq_cst: a store operation per-
  forms a release operation on the affected memory location.
— memory_order_consume: a load operation performs a consume operation on the affected memory
  location.
— memory_order_acquire, memory_order_acq_rel, and memory_order_seq_cst: a load operation per-
  forms an acquire operation on the affected memory location.

2 There shall be a single total order S on all memory_order_seq_cst operations, consistent with the “happens
before” order and modification orders for all affected locations, such that each memory_order_seq_cst
operation that loads a value observes either the last preceding modification according to this order S, or the
result of an operation that is not memory_order_seq_cst. [Note: Although it is not explicitly required that
S include locks, it can always be extended to an order that does include lock and unlock operations, since the ordering between those is already included in the “happens before” ordering. — end note]

3 For an atomic operation $B$ that reads the value of an atomic object $M$, if there is a memory_order_seq_cst fence $X$ sequenced before $B$, then $B$ observes either the last memory_order_seq_cst modification of $M$ preceding $X$ in the total order $S$ or a later modification of $M$ in its modification order.

4 For atomic operations $A$ and $B$ on an atomic object $M$, where $A$ modifies $M$ and $B$ takes its value, if there is a memory_order_seq_cst fence $X$ such that $A$ is sequenced before $X$ in $S$ and $B$ follows $X$ in $S$, then $B$ observes either the effects of $A$ or a later modification of $M$ in its modification order.

5 For atomic operations $A$ and $B$ on an atomic object $M$, where $A$ modifies $M$ and $B$ takes its value, if there are memory_order_seq_cst fences $X$ and $Y$ such that $A$ is sequenced before $X$ in $S$, $Y$ is sequenced before $B$ in $S$, and $X$ precedes $Y$ in $S$, then $B$ observes either the effects of $A$ or a later modification of $M$ in its modification order.

[Note: memory_order_seq_cst ensures sequential consistency only for a program that is free of data races and uses exclusively memory_order_seq_cst operations. Any use of weaker ordering will invalidate this guarantee unless extreme care is used. In particular, memory_order_seq_cst fences ensure a total order only for the fences themselves. Fences cannot, in general, be used to restore sequential consistency for atomic operations with weaker ordering specifications. — end note]

6 An atomic store shall only store a value that has been computed from constants and program input values by a finite sequence of program evaluations, such that each evaluation observes the values of variables as computed by the last prior assignment in the sequence.\footnote{Among other implications, atomic variables shall not decay.} The ordering of evaluations in this sequence shall be such that:

— if an evaluation $B$ observes a value computed by $A$ in a different thread, then $B$ does not happen before $A$, and

— if an evaluation $A$ is included in the sequence, then every evaluation that assigns to the same variable and happens before $A$ is included.

[Note: The second requirement disallows “out-of-thin-air” or “speculative” stores of atomics when relaxed atomics are used. Since unordered operations are involved, evaluations may appear in this sequence out of thread order. For example, with $x$ and $y$ initially zero,

```c
// Thread 1:
r1 = y.load(memory_order_relaxed);
x.store(r1, memory_order_relaxed);
```

```c
// Thread 2:
r2 = x.load(memory_order_relaxed);
y.store(42, memory_order_relaxed);
```

is allowed to produce $r1 = r2 = 42$. The sequence of evaluations justifying this consists of:

```c
y.store(42, memory_order_relaxed);
r1 = y.load(memory_order_relaxed);
x.store(r1, memory_order_relaxed);
r2 = x.load(memory_order_relaxed);
```
On the other hand,

```c
// Thread 1:
r1 = y.load(memory_order_relaxed);
x.store(r1, memory_order_relaxed);

// Thread 2:
r2 = x.load(memory_order_relaxed);
y.store(r2, memory_order_relaxed);
```

may not produce \( r1 = r2 = 42 \), since there is no sequence of evaluations that results in the computation of 42. In the absence of “relaxed” operations and read-modify-write operations with weaker than `memory_order_acq_rel` ordering, the second requirement has no impact. — end note]

[Note: The requirements do allow \( r1 == r2 == 42 \) in the following example, with \( x \) and \( y \) initially zero:

```c
// Thread 1:
r1 = x.load(memory_order_relaxed);
if (r1 == 42) y.store(r1, memory_order_relaxed);

// Thread 2:
r2 = y.load(memory_order_relaxed);
if (r2 == 42) x.store(42, memory_order_relaxed);
```

However, implementations should not allow such behavior. — end note]

Implementations should make atomic stores visible to atomic loads within a reasonable amount of time. Implementations shall not move an atomic operation out of an unbounded loop.

```c
template <class T>
T kill_dependency(T y);
```

Effects: The argument does not carry a dependency to the return value (1.10).

Returns: \( y \).

### 29.4 Lock-free Property

[atomics.lockfree]

The `ATOMIC ... LOCK_FREE` macros `ATOMIC_INTEGRAL_LOCK_FREE` and `ATOMIC_ADDRESS_LOCK_FREE` indicate the general lock-free property of integral and address types the corresponding atomic types, with the signed and unsigned variants grouped together. The properties also apply to the corresponding specializations of the atomic template. A value of 0 indicates that the types are never lock-free. A value of 1 indicates that the types are sometimes lock-free. A value of 2 indicates that the types are always lock-free.
The function `atomic_is_lock_free` (29.6) indicates whether the object is lock-free. The result of a lock-free query on one object cannot be inferred from the result of a lock-free query on another object. In any given program execution, the result of the lock-free query shall be consistent for all pointers of the same type.

[Note: Operations that are lock-free should also be address-free. That is, atomic operations on the same memory location via two different addresses will communicate atomically. The implementation should not depend on any per-process state. This restriction enables communication via memory that is mapped into a process more than once and by memory that is shared between two processes. — end note]

29.5 Atomic Types

29.5.1 Integral Types

```cpp
namespace std {
    typedef struct atomic_bool {
        bool is_lock_free() const volatile;
        bool is_lock_free() const;
        void store(bool, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
        void store(bool, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
        bool load(memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) const volatile;
        bool load(memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) const;
        operator bool() const volatile;
        operator bool() const;
        bool exchange(bool, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
        bool exchange(bool, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
        bool compare_exchange_weak(bool&, bool, memory_order, memory_order) volatile;
        bool compare_exchange_weak(bool&, bool, memory_order, memory_order);
        bool compare_exchange_strong(bool&, bool, memory_order, memory_order) volatile;
        bool compare_exchange_strong(bool&, bool, memory_order, memory_order);
        bool compare_exchange_weak(bool&, bool, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
        bool compare_exchange_weak(bool&, bool, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
        bool compare_exchange_strong(bool&, bool, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
        bool compare_exchange_strong(bool&, bool, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
        atomic_bool() = default;
        constexpr atomic_bool(bool);
        atomic_bool(const atomic_bool&) = delete;
        atomic_bool& operator=(const atomic_bool&) = delete;
        atomic_bool& operator=(const atomic_bool&) volatile = delete;
        bool operator=(bool) volatile;
    } atomic_bool;

    bool atomic_is_lock_free(const volatile atomic_bool*);
    bool atomic_is_lock_free(const atomic_bool*);
    void atomic_store(volatile atomic_bool*, bool);
    void atomic_store(atomic_bool*, bool);
    void atomic_store_explicit(volatile atomic_bool*, bool, memory_order);
    void atomic_store_explicit(atomic_bool*, bool, memory_order);
    bool atomic_load(const volatile atomic_bool*);
    bool atomic_load(const atomic_bool*);
    bool atomic_load_explicit(const volatile atomic_bool*, memory_order);
    bool atomic_load_explicit(const atomic_bool*, memory_order);
    bool atomic_exchange(volatile atomic_bool*, bool);
    bool atomic_exchange(atomic_bool*, bool);
    bool atomic_exchange_explicit(volatile atomic_bool*, bool, memory_order);
    bool atomic_exchange_explicit(atomic_bool*, bool, memory_order);
}
```
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak(volatile atomic_bool*, bool*, bool);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak(atomic_bool*, bool*, bool);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong(volatile atomic_bool*, bool*, bool);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong(atomic_bool*, bool*, bool);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak_explicit(volatile atomic_bool*, bool*, bool,
    memory_order, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak_explicit(atomic_bool*, bool*, bool,
    memory_order, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(volatile atomic_bool*, bool*, bool,
    memory_order, memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(atomic_bool*, bool*, bool,
    memory_order, memory_order);

// For each of the integral types listed below:
typedef struct atomic_type {
    bool is_lock_free() const volatile;
    bool is_lock_free() const;
    void store(integral, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
    void store(integral, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
    integral load(memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) const volatile;
    integral load(memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) const;
    operator integral() const volatile;
    operator integral() const;
    integral exchange(integral,
        memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
    integral exchange(integral,
        memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
    bool compare_exchange_weak(integral&, integral,
        memory_order, memory_order) volatile;
    bool compare_exchange_weak(integral&, integral,
        memory_order, memory_order);
    bool compare_exchange_strong(integral&, integral,
        memory_order, memory_order) volatile;
    bool compare_exchange_strong(integral&, integral,
        memory_order, memory_order);
    bool compare_exchange_weak(integral&, integral,
        memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
    bool compare_exchange_weak(integral&, integral,
        memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
    bool compare_exchange_strong(integral&, integral,
        memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
    bool compare_exchange_strong(integral&, integral,
        memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
    integral fetch_add(integral,
        memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
    integral fetch_add(integral,
        memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
    integral fetch_sub(integral,
        memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
    integral fetch_sub(integral,
        memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
    integral fetch_and(integral,
        memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
    integral fetch_and(integral,
        memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
integral fetch_or(integral,
    memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
integral fetch_or(integral,
    memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
integral fetch_xor(integral,
    memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
integral fetch_xor(integral,
    memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
atomic_itype() = default;
constexpr atomic_itype(integral);
atomic_itype(const atomic_itype&) = delete;
atomic_itype& operator=(const atomic_itype&) volatile = delete;
integral operator=(integral) volatile;
integral operator=(integral);
integral operator++(int) volatile;
integral operator++(int);
integral operator--(int) volatile;
integral operator--(int);
integral operator++() volatile;
integral operator++();
integral operator--() volatile;
integral operator--();
integral operator+= (integral) volatile;
integral operator+= (integral);
integral operator-= (integral) volatile;
integral operator-= (integral);
integral operator&= (integral) volatile;
integral operator&= (integral);
integral operator|= (integral) volatile;
integral operator|= (integral);
integral operator^= (integral) volatile;
integral operator^= (integral);
} atomic_itype;

bool atomic_is_lock_free(const volatile atomic_itype*);
bool atomic_is_lock_free(const atomic_itype*);
void atomic_store(volatile atomic_itype*, integral);
void atomic_store(atomic_itype*, integral);
void atomic_store_explicit(volatile atomic_itype*, integral,
    memory_order);
void atomic_store_explicit(atomic_itype*, integral,
    memory_order);
integral atomic_load(const volatile atomic_itype*);
integral atomic_load(const atomic_itype*);
integral atomic_load_explicit(const volatile atomic_itype*, memory_order);
integral atomic_load_explicit(const atomic_itype*, memory_order);
integral atomic_exchange(volatile atomic_itype*, integral);
integral atomic_exchange(atomic_itype*, integral);
integral atomic_exchange_explicit(volatile atomic_itype*, integral,
    memory_order);
integral atomic_exchange_explicit(atomic_itype*, integral,
    memory_order);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak(volatile atomic_itype*, integral*, integral);
The semantics of the operations on these types are defined in \(\text{29.6}\). The atomic integral types shall have standard layout. They shall each have a trivial default constructor, a constexpr value constructor, a deleted copy constructor, a deleted copy assignment operator, and a trivial destructor. They shall each support aggregate initialization syntax.

The atomic \_itype\ type provides an atomic boolean.

1 The name \_itype\ and the functions operating on it in the preceding synopsis are placeholders for a set of classes and functions. Throughout the preceding synopsis, \_itype\ should be replaced by each of the class names in table \ref{tab:atomic-type-classes} and \_integral\ should be replaced by the integral type corresponding to the class name. Table \ref{tab:atomic-type-classes} shows typedefs to atomic integral classes and the corresponding \texttt{<cstdint>} typedefs.

2 The atomic integral types shall have standard layout. They shall each have a trivial default constructor, a constexpr value constructor, a deleted copy constructor, a deleted copy assignment operator, and a trivial destructor. They shall each support aggregate initialization syntax.

3 The semantics of the operations on these types are defined in \(\text{29.6}\).
Table 135 — Atomics for built-in types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class name</th>
<th>Integral type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>atomic_char</td>
<td>char</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_schar</td>
<td>signed char</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_uchar</td>
<td>unsigned char</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_short</td>
<td>short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_ushort</td>
<td>unsigned short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_int</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_uint</td>
<td>unsigned int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_long</td>
<td>long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_ulong</td>
<td>unsigned long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_llong</td>
<td>long long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_ullong</td>
<td>unsigned long long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_char16_t</td>
<td>char16_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_char32_t</td>
<td>char32_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_wchar_t</td>
<td>wchar_t</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Note: The representation of atomic integral types need not have the same size as their corresponding regular types. They should have the same size whenever possible, as it eases effort required to port existing code. — end note]
Table 136 — Atomics for standard typedef types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class name</th>
<th>Atomic typedef name</th>
<th>Integral type</th>
<th>&lt;cstdint&gt; typedef name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>atomic_int_least8_t</td>
<td>int_least8_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_uint_least8_t</td>
<td>uint_least8_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_int_least16_t</td>
<td>int_least16_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_uint_least16_t</td>
<td>uint_least16_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_int_least32_t</td>
<td>int_least32_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_uint_least32_t</td>
<td>uint_least32_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_int_least64_t</td>
<td>int_least64_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_uint_least64_t</td>
<td>uint_least64_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_int_fast8_t</td>
<td>int_fast8_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_uint_fast8_t</td>
<td>uint_fast8_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_int_fast16_t</td>
<td>int_fast16_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_uint_fast16_t</td>
<td>uint_fast16_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_int_fast32_t</td>
<td>int_fast32_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_uint_fast32_t</td>
<td>uint_fast32_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_int_fast64_t</td>
<td>int_fast64_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic_uint_fast64_t</td>
<td>uint_fast64_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic intptr_t</td>
<td>intptr_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic uintptr_t</td>
<td>uintptr_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic size_t</td>
<td>size_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic ptrdiff_t</td>
<td>ptrdiff_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic intmax_t</td>
<td>intmax_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomic uintmax_t</td>
<td>uintmax_t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```c

memory_order, memory_order) volatile;
bool compare_exchange_weak(const void*&, const void*,
    memory_order, memory_order);
bool compare_exchange_strong(const void*&, const void*,
    memory_order, memory_order) volatile;
bool compare_exchange_strong(const void*&, const void*,
    memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
bool compare_exchange_weak(const void*&, const void*,
    memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
bool compare_exchange_strong(const void*&, const void*,
    memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
bool compare_exchange_strong(const void*&, const void*,
    memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;

void* fetch_add(ptrdiff_t, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
void* fetch_add(ptrdiff_t, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
void* fetch_sub(ptrdiff_t, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
void* fetch_sub(ptrdiff_t, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);

atomic_address() = default;
constexpr atomic_address(void*);
atomic_address(const atomic_address&) = delete;
atomic_address& operator=(const atomic_address&) = delete;
atomic_address& operator=(const atomic_address&) volatile = delete;
void* operator=(const void*) volatile;
```
The type `atomic_address` shall have standard layout. It shall have a trivial default constructor, a constexpr value constructor, a deleted copy constructor, a deleted copy assignment operator, and a trivial destructor. It shall support aggregate initialization syntax.

The semantics of the operations on this type are defined in Clause 29.6.

The `atomic_address` type provides atomic `void*` operations. The unit of addition/subtraction shall be one byte.
[Note: The representation of the atomic address type need not have the same size as its corresponding regular type. It should have the same size whenever possible, as it eases effort required to port existing code. — end note]

### 29.5.3 Generic Types

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class T> struct atomic {
        bool is_lock_free() const volatile;
        bool is_lock_free() const;
        void store(T, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
        void store(T, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);  // Note: The representation of the atomic address type need not have the same size as its corresponding regular type. It should have the same size whenever possible, as it eases effort required to port existing code.
        T load(memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) const volatile;
        T load(memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) const;
        operator T() const volatile;
        operator T() const;
        T exchange(T, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
        T exchange(T, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
        bool compare_exchange_weak(T&, T, memory_order, memory_order) volatile;
        bool compare_exchange_weak(T&, T, memory_order, memory_order);
        bool compare_exchange_strong(T&, T, memory_order, memory_order) volatile;
        bool compare_exchange_strong(T&, T, memory_order, memory_order);
        bool compare_exchange_weak(T&, T, memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
        bool compare_exchange_weak(T&, T, memory_order_seq_cst);
        bool compare_exchange_strong(T&, T, memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
        bool compare_exchange_strong(T&, T, memory_order_seq_cst);
        atomic() = default;
        constexpr atomic(T);
        atomic(const atomic&) = delete;
        atomic& operator=(const atomic&) volatile = delete;
        T operator=(T) volatile;
        T operator=(T);
    };

    template <> struct atomic<integral> : atomic<itype>
    {
        atomic() = default;
        constexpr atomic(integral);
        atomic(const atomic&) = delete;
        atomic& operator=(const atomic&) = delete;
        integral& operator=(integral) volatile = delete;
        integral operator=(integral) volatile;
        integral operator=(integral);
        operator integral() const volatile;
        operator integral() const;
    };

    template <class T> struct atomic<T*> : atomic_address {
        void store(T*, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
        void store(T*, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
        T* load(memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) const volatile;
        T* load(memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) const;
        operator T*() const volatile;
        operator T*() const;
    }
}
```
There is a generic class template `atomic<T>`. The type of the template argument `T` shall be trivially copy-assignable and bitwise equality comparable trivially copyable (3.9). [Note: Type arguments that are not also statically initializable and trivially destruc-... difficult to use. — end note]

Specializations of the `atomic` template shall have a deleted copy constructor, a deleted copy assignment operator, and a constexpr value constructor.

There are full specializations over the integral types on the `atomic` class template. For each integral type `integral` in the second column of table 135 or table 136, the specialization `atomic<integral>` shall be publicly derived from the corresponding atomic integral type in the first column of the table. In addition, the specialization `atomic<bool>` shall be publicly derived from `atomic<bool>`. These specializations shall have trivial default constructors and trivial destructors.

There are pointer partial specializations on the `atomic` class template. These specializations shall be publicly derived from `atomic_address`. The unit of addition/subtraction for these specializations shall be the size

---

T* exchange(T*, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
T* exchange(T*, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
bool compare_exchange_weak(T*& T*, memory_order, memory_order) volatile;
bool compare_exchange_weak(T*& T*, memory_order, memory_order);
bool compare_exchange_strong(T*& T*, memory_order, memory_order) volatile;
bool compare_exchange_strong(T*& T*, memory_order, memory_order);
bool compare_exchange_weak(T*& T*, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
bool compare_exchange_weak(T*& T*, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
bool compare_exchange_strong(T*& T*, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
bool compare_exchange_strong(T*& T*, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
T* fetch_add(ptrdiff_t, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
T* fetch_add(ptrdiff_t, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
T* fetch_sub(ptrdiff_t, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
T* fetch_sub(ptrdiff_t, memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);

atomic() = default;
constexpr atomic(T*);
atomic(const atomic&) = delete;
atomic& operator=(const atomic&) volatile = delete;
atomic& operator=(const atomic&) = delete;
T* operator=(T*) volatile;
T* operator=(T*);
T* operator++(int) volatile;
T* operator++(int);
T* operator--(int) volatile;
T* operator--(int);
T* operator++() volatile;
T* operator++();
T* operator--() volatile;
T* operator--();
T* operator+=(ptrdiff_t) volatile;
T* operator+=(ptrdiff_t);
T* operator-=(ptrdiff_t) volatile;
T* operator-=(ptrdiff_t);
};
of the referenced type. These specializations shall have trivial default constructors and trivial destructors.

### 29.6 Operations on Atomic Types  
[atomics.types.operations]

There are only a few kinds of operations on atomic types, though there are many instances on those kinds. This section specifies each general kind. The specific instances are defined in 29.5.1, 29.5.2, and 29.5.3.

In the following operation definitions:

- an \( A \) refers to one of the atomic types
- a \( C \) refers to its corresponding non-atomic type. The `atomic_address` atomic type corresponds to the `void`* non-atomic type
- an \( M \) refers to type of the other argument for arithmetic operations. For integral atomic types, \( M \) is \( C \). For atomic address types, \( M \) is `std::ptrdiff_t`
- the free functions not ending in `_explicit` have the semantics of their corresponding `_explicit` with `memory_order` arguments of `memory_order_seq_cst`.

[Note: Many operations are volatile-qualified. The “volatile as device register” semantics have not changed in the standard. This qualification means that volatility is preserved when applying these operations to volatile objects. It does not mean that operations on non-volatile objects become volatile. Thus, volatile qualified operations on non-volatile objects may be merged under some conditions. — end note]

```cpp
constexpr A::A(C desired);
```

**Effects:** Initializes the object with the value \( \text{desired} \).  [Note: Construction is not atomic. — end note]

```cpp
bool atomic_is_lock_free(const volatile A *object);
bool atomic_is_lock_free(const A *object);
A::is_lock_free() const volatile;
A::is_lock_free() const;
```

**Returns:** True if the object’s operations are lock-free, false otherwise.

```cpp
void atomic_store(volatile A* object, C desired);
void atomic_store(A* object, C desired);
void atomic_store_explicit(volatile A* object, C desired, memory_order order);
void atomic_store_explicit(A* object, C desired, memory_order order);
void A::store(C desired, memory_order order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
void A::store(C desired, memory_order order = memory_order_seq_cst);
```

**Requires:** The `order` argument shall not be `memory_order_consume`, `memory_order_acquire`, nor `memory_order_acq_rel`.

**Effects:** Atomically replaces the value pointed to by \( \text{object} \) or by \( \text{this} \) with the value of \( \text{desired} \). Memory is affected according to the value of `order`.

```cpp
C A::operator=(C desired) volatile;
C A::operator=(C desired);
```

**Effects:** \( \text{store(desired)} \)

**Returns:** \( \text{desired} \)

```cpp
C atomic_load(const volatile A* object);
C atomic_load(const A* object);
C atomic_load_explicit(const volatile A* object, memory_order);
```
\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{C atomic_load_explicit(const A* object, memory_order);
C A::load(memory_order order = memory_order_seq_cst) const volatile;
C A::load(memory_order order = memory_order_seq_cst) const;
\end{verbatim}

	extit{Requires:} The \texttt{order} argument shall not be \texttt{memory_order_release} nor \texttt{memory_order_acq_rel}.

\textit{Effects:} Memory is affected according to the value of \texttt{order}.

\textit{Returns:} Atomically returns the value pointed to by \texttt{object} or by \texttt{this}.

\begin{verbatim}
A::operator C() const volatile;
A::operator C() const;
\end{verbatim}

\textit{Effects:} \texttt{load()}

\textit{Returns:} the result of \texttt{load()}. 

\begin{verbatim}
C atomic_exchange(volatile A* object, C desired);
C atomic_exchange(A* object, C desired);
C atomic_exchange_explicit(volatile A* object, C desired, memory_order);
C atomic_exchange_explicit(A* object, C desired, memory_order);
C A::exchange(C desired, memory_order order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
C A::exchange(C desired, memory_order order = memory_order_seq_cst);
\end{verbatim}

\textit{Effects:} Atomically replaces the value pointed to by \texttt{object} or by \texttt{this} with \texttt{desired}. Memory is affected according to the value of \texttt{order}. These operations are atomic read-modify-write operations (1.10).

\textit{Returns:} Atomically returns the value pointed to by \texttt{object} or by \texttt{this} immediately before the effects.

\begin{verbatim}
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak(volatile A* object, C* expected, C desired);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak(A* object, C* expected, C desired);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong(volatile A* object, C* expected, C desired);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong(A* object, C* expected, C desired);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak_explicit(volatile A* object, C* expected, C desired,
  memory_order success, memory_order failure);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_weak_explicit(A* object, C* expected, C desired,
  memory_order success, memory_order failure);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(volatile A* object, C* expected, C desired,
  memory_order success, memory_order failure);
bool atomic_compare_exchange_strong_explicit(A* object, C* expected, C desired,
  memory_order success, memory_order failure);
bool A::compare_exchange_weak(C& expected, C desired,
  memory_order success, memory_order failure) volatile;
bool A::compare_exchange_weak(C& expected, C desired,
  memory_order success, memory_order failure) volatile;
bool A::compare_exchange_strong(C& expected, C desired,
  memory_order success, memory_order failure) volatile;
bool A::compare_exchange_strong(C& expected, C desired,
  memory_order success, memory_order failure) volatile;
bool A::compare_exchange_weak(C& expected, C desired,
  memory_order order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
bool A::compare_exchange_weak(C& expected, C desired,
  memory_order order = memory_order_seq_cst);
bool A::compare_exchange_strong(C& expected, C desired,
  memory_order order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
bool A::compare_exchange_strong(C& expected, C desired,
  memory_order order = memory_order_seq_cst);
\end{verbatim}
Requires: The \texttt{failure} argument shall not be \texttt{memory\_order\_release} nor \texttt{memory\_order\_acq\_rel}. The \texttt{failure} argument shall be no stronger than the \texttt{success} argument.

Effects: Atomically, compares the value contents of the memory pointed to by \texttt{object} or by \texttt{this} for equality with that in \texttt{expected}, and if true, replaces the value contents of the memory pointed to by \texttt{object} or by \texttt{this} with that in \texttt{desired}, and if false, updates the value contents of the memory in \texttt{expected} with the value contents of the memory pointed to by \texttt{object} or by \texttt{this}. Further, if the comparison is true, memory is affected according to the value of \texttt{success}, and if the comparison is false, memory is affected according to the value of \texttt{failure}. When only one \texttt{memory\_order} argument is supplied, the value of \texttt{success} is \texttt{order}, and the value of \texttt{failure} is \texttt{order} except that a value of \texttt{memory\_order\_acq\_rel} shall be replaced by the value \texttt{memory\_order\_acquire} and a value of \texttt{memory\_order\_release} shall be replaced by the value \texttt{memory\_order\_relaxed}. If the operation returns \texttt{true}, these operations are atomic read-modify-write operations (1.10). Otherwise, these operations are atomic load operations.

Returns: The result of the comparison.

\[\text{Note: The effect of the compare-and-exchange operations is}\]
\[
\begin{verbatim}
if (*object == *expected)
    *object = desired;
else
    *expected = *object;
if (memcmp(object, expected, sizeof(*object)) == 0)
    memcpy(object, &desired, sizeof(*object));
else
    memcpy(expected, object, sizeof(*object));
\end{verbatim}
\[\text{— end note}\]
\[\text{Example: the expected use of the compare-and-exchange operations is as follows. The compare-and-exchange operations will update expected when another iteration of the loop is needed.}\]
\[
\begin{verbatim}
expected = current.load();
do {
    desired = function(expected);
} while (!current.compare_exchange_weak(expected, desired));
\end{verbatim}
\[\text{— end example}\]

Remark: The weak compare-and-exchange operations may fail spuriously, that is, return false while leaving the value contents of memory pointed to by \texttt{expected} unchanged before the operation is the same that same as that of the \texttt{object} and the same as that of \texttt{expected} after the operation [Editor’s note: Apparently something got garbled in drafting.]. [Note: This spurious failure enables implementation of compare-and-exchange on a broader class of machines, e.g., load-locked store-conditional machines. — end note] [Example: A consequence of spurious failure is that nearly all uses of weak compare-and-exchange will be in a loop.]
\[
\begin{verbatim}
expected = current.load();
dof{
    desired = function(expected);
}while (!current.compare_exchange(expected, desired));
\end{verbatim}
\[\text{Example: When a compare-and-exchange is in a loop, the weak version will yield better performance on some platforms. When a weak compare-and-exchange would require a loop and a strong one would not, the strong one is preferable. — end example}\]

\[\text{Note: The memcpy and memcmp semantics of the compare-and-exchange operations may result in failed comparisons for values that compare equal with operator== if the underlying type has padding bits,}\]
The following operations perform arithmetic computations. The key, operator, and computation correspondence is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Op</th>
<th>Computation</th>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Op</th>
<th>Computation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>add</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>addition</td>
<td>sub</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>subtraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or</td>
<td></td>
<td>bitwise inclusive or</td>
<td>xor</td>
<td>^</td>
<td>bitwise exclusive or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and</td>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>bitwise and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The effects of these operations are defined in Table 137 — Atomic arithmetic computations.

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The effects of these operations are atomic read-modify-write operations (1.10).

 Returns: Atomically, the value pointed to by object or by this immediately before the effects.

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Remark: For signed integral types, arithmetic is defined to use two’s complement representation. There are no undefined results. For address types, the result may be an undefined address, but the operations otherwise have no undefined behavior.
29.7 Flag Type and Operations

namespace std {
    typedef struct atomic_flag {
        bool test_and_set(memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
        bool test_and_set(memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);
        void clear(memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
        void clear(memory_order = memory_order_seq_cst);

        atomic_flag() = default;
        atomic_flag(const atomic_flag&) = delete;
        atomic_flag& operator=(const atomic_flag&) = delete;
        atomic_flag& operator=(const atomic_flag&) volatile = delete;
    } atomic_flag;

    bool atomic_flag_test_and_set(volatile atomic_flag*);
    bool atomic_flag_test_and_set(atomic_flag*);
    bool atomic_flag_test_and_set_explicit(volatile atomic_flag*, memory_order);
    bool atomic_flag_test_and_set_explicit(atomic_flag*, memory_order);
    void atomic_flag_clear(volatile atomic_flag*);
    void atomic_flag_clear(atomic_flag*);
    void atomic_flag_clear_explicit(volatile atomic_flag*, memory_order);
    void atomic_flag_clear_explicit(atomic_flag*, memory_order);

    #define ATOMIC_FLAG_INIT unspecified
}

The atomic_flag type provides the classic test-and-set functionality. It has two states, set and clear.

Operations on an object of type atomic_flag shall be lock-free. [Note: Hence the operations should also be address-free. No other type requires lock-free operations, so the atomic_flag type is the minimum hardware-implemented type needed to conform to this International standard. The remaining types can be emulated with atomic_flag, though with less than ideal properties. — end note]

The atomic_flag type shall have standard layout. It shall have a trivial default constructor, a deleted copy constructor, a deleted copy assignment operator, and a trivial destructor.

The macro ATOMIC_FLAG_INIT shall be defined in such a way that it can be used to initialize an object of type atomic_flag to the clear state. For a static-duration object, that initialization shall be static. A program that uses an object of type atomic_flag without initializing it with the macro ATOMIC_FLAG_INIT is ill-formed. It is unspecified whether an uninitialized atomic_flag object has an initial state of set or clear.

Example:

atomic_flag guard = ATOMIC_FLAG_INIT;

— end example]
Effects: Atomically sets the value pointed to by object or by this to true. Memory is affected according to the value of order. These operations are atomic read-modify-write operations (1.10).

Returns: Atomically, the value of the object immediately before the effects.

```c
void atomic_flag_clear(volatile atomic_flag *object);
void atomic_flag_clear(atomic_flag *object);
void atomic_flag_clear_explicit(volatile atomic_flag *object, memory_order order);
void atomic_flag_clear_explicit(atomic_flag *object, memory_order order);
void atomic_flag::clear(memory_order order = memory_order_seq_cst) volatile;
void atomic_flag::clear(memory_order order = memory_order_seq_cst);
```

Requires: The order argument shall not be memory_order_acquire nor memory_order_acq_rel.

Effects: Atomically sets the value pointed to by object or by this to false. Memory is affected according to the value of order.

### 29.8 Fences

This section introduces synchronization primitives called fences. Fences can have acquire semantics, release semantics, or both. A fence with acquire semantics is called an acquire fence. A fence with release semantics is called a release fence.

1 A release fence A synchronizes with an acquire fence B if there exist atomic operations X and Y, both operating on some atomic object M, such that A is sequenced before X, X modifies M, Y is sequenced before B, and Y reads the value written by X or a value written by any side effect in the hypothetical release sequence X would head if it were a release operation.

2 A release fence A synchronizes with an atomic operation B that performs an acquire operation on an atomic object M if there exists an atomic operation X on M such that X is sequenced before B and reads the value written by X or a value written by any side effect in the hypothetical release sequence X would head if it were a release operation.

3 An atomic operation A that is a release operation on an atomic object M synchronizes with an acquire fence B if there exists some atomic operation X on M such that X is sequenced before B and reads the value written by A or a value written by any side effect in the release sequence headed by A.

```c
void atomic_thread_fence(memory_order order);
```

Effects: depending on the value of order, this operation:

- has no effects, if order == memory_order_relaxed;
- is an acquire fence, if order == memory_order_acquire || order == memory_order_consume;
- is a release fence, if order == memory_order_release;
- is both an acquire fence and a release fence, if order == memory_order_acq_rel;
- is a sequentially consistent acquire and release fence, if order == memory_order_seq_cst.

```c
void atomic_signal_fence(memory_order order);
```

Effects: equivalent to atomic_thread_fence(order), except that synchronizes with relationships are established only between a thread and a signal handler executed in the same thread.

Note: atomic_signal_fence can be used to specify the order in which actions performed by the thread become visible to the signal handler.

§ 29.8
Note: compiler optimizations and reorderings of loads and stores are inhibited in the same way as with `atomic_thread_fence`, but the hardware fence instructions that `atomic_thread_fence` would have inserted are not emitted.
30 Thread support library [thread]

30.1 General [thread.general]

1 The following subclauses describe components to create and manage threads (1.10), perform mutual exclusion, and communicate conditions between threads, as summarized in Table 138.

Table 138 — Thread support library summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subclause</th>
<th>Header(s)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.4 Mutual exclusion</td>
<td>&lt;mutex&gt;</td>
</tr>
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<td>30.5 Condition variables</td>
<td>&lt;condition_variable&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.6 Futures</td>
<td>&lt;future&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

30.2 Requirements [thread.req]

30.2.1 Template parameter names [thread.req.paramname]

1 Throughout this Clause, the names of template parameters are used to express type requirements.

2 If a parameter is Predicate, operator() applied to the actual template argument shall return a value that is convertible to bool.

30.2.2 Exceptions [thread.req.exception]

1 Some functions described in this Clause are specified to throw exceptions of type system_error (19.5.5). Such exceptions shall be thrown if a call to an operating system or other underlying API results in an error that prevents the library function from satisfying its postconditions or from returning a meaningful value.

2 The error_category (19.5.1.1) of the error_code reported by such an exception’s code() member function is as specified in the error condition Clause.

30.2.3 Native handles [thread.req.native]

1 Several classes described in this Clause have members native_handle_type and native_handle. The presence of these members and their semantics is implementation-defined. [Note: These members allow implementations to provide access to implementation details. Their names are specified to facilitate portable compile-time detection. Actual use of these members is inherently non-portable. — end note]

30.2.4 Timing specifications [thread.req.timing]

1 Several functions described in this Clause take an argument to specify a timeout. These timeouts are specified as either a duration or a time_point type as specified in (20.9).

2 The member functions whose names end in _for take an argument that specifies a relative time. Implementations should use a monotonic clock to measure time for these functions.
The resolution of timing provided by an implementation depends on both operating system and hardware. The finest resolution provided by an implementation is called the *native resolution*.

### 30.3 Threads

30.3 describes components that can be used to create and manage threads. [Note: These threads are intended to map one-to-one with operating system threads. — end note]

**Header <thread> synopsis**

```cpp
namespace std {
  class thread {
    void swap(thread& x, thread& y);

    namespace this_thread {
      thread::id get_id();

      void yield();
      template <class Clock, class Duration>
        void sleep_until(const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);
      template <class Rep, class Period>
        void sleep_for(const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time);
    }
  }
}
```

#### 30.3.1 Class thread

1 The class `thread` provides a mechanism to create a new thread of execution, to join with a thread (i.e., wait for a thread to complete), and to perform other operations that manage and query the state of a thread. A `thread` object uniquely represents a particular thread of execution. That representation may be transferred to other `thread` objects in such a way that no two `thread` objects simultaneously represent the same thread of execution. A thread of execution is *detached* when no `thread` object represents that thread. Objects of class `thread` can be in a state that does not represent a thread of execution. [Note: A `thread` object does not represent a thread of execution after default construction, after being moved from, or after a successful call to `detach` or `join`. — end note]

```cpp
namespace std {
  class thread {
    public:
      // types:
      class id;
      typedef implementation-defined native_handle_type; // See 30.2.3

      // construct/copy/destroy:
      thread();
      template <class F> explicit thread(F f);
      template <class F, class ...Args> thread(F&& f, Args&&... args);
      ~thread();
      thread(const thread&) = delete;
      thread(thread&&) = delete;
      thread& operator=(const thread&) = delete;
      thread& operator=(thread&&);

      // members:
      void swap(thread&);
  }
}
```
bool joinable() const;
void join();
void detach();
id get_id() const;
native_handle_type native_handle(); // See 30.2.3

// static members:
static unsigned hardware_concurrency();
};
}

30.3.1.1  Class thread::id

namespace std {
  class thread::id {
public:
    id();
  };

  bool operator==(thread::id x, thread::id y);
  bool operator!=(thread::id x, thread::id y);
  bool operator<(thread::id x, thread::id y);
  bool operator<=(thread::id x, thread::id y);
  bool operator>(thread::id x, thread::id y);
  bool operator>=(thread::id x, thread::id y);

  template<class charT, class traits>
  basic_ostream<charT, traits>&
    operator<< (basic_ostream<charT, traits>& out, thread::id id);
};

1 An object of type thread::id provides a unique identifier for each thread of execution and a single distinct value for all thread objects that do not represent a thread of execution (30.3.1). Each thread of execution has an associated thread::id object that is not equal to the thread::id object of any other thread of execution and that is not equal to the thread::id object of any std::thread object that does not represent threads of execution. The library may reuse the value of a thread::id of a terminated thread that can no longer be joined.

2 [ Note: Relational operators allow thread::id objects to be used as keys in associative containers. — end note]

id();

3 Effects: Constructs an object of type id.

4 Throws: Nothing.

5 Postconditions: The constructed object does not represent a thread of execution.

6 bool operator==(thread::id x, thread::id y).

7 Returns: true only if x and y represent the same thread of execution or neither x nor y represents a thread of execution.

8 Throws: Nothing.
Returns: !(x == y)

Throws: Nothing.

bool operator<(thread::id x, thread::id y);

Returns: A value such that operator< is a total ordering as described in 25.4.

Throws: Nothing.

bool operator<=(thread::id x, thread::id y);

Returns: !(y < x)

Throws: Nothing.

bool operator>(thread::id x, thread::id y);

Returns: y < x

Throws: Nothing.

bool operator>=(thread::id x, thread::id y);

Returns: !(x < y)

Throws: Nothing.

template<class charT, class traits>
basic_ostream<charT, traits>&
operator<<(basic_ostream<charT, traits>&& out, thread::id id);

Effects: Inserts an unspecified text representation of id into out. For two objects of type thread::id x and y, if x == y the thread::id objects shall have the same text representation and if x !!= y the thread::id objects shall have distinct text representations.

Returns: out

30.3.1.2 thread constructors

[thread.thread.constr]

thread();

Effects: Constructs a thread object that does not represent a thread of execution.

Postcondition: get_id() == id()

Throws: Nothing.

template <class F> explicit thread(F f);
template <class F, class ...Args> thread(F&& f, Args&&... args);

Requires: F and each type Ti in Args shall be CopyConstructible if an lvalue and otherwise MoveConstructible. INVOKE(f, w1, w2, ..., wN) (20.7.2) shall be a valid expression for some values w1, w2, ..., wN, where N == sizeof...(Args).

Effects: Constructs an object of type thread and executes INVOKE(f, t1, t2, ..., tN) in a new thread of execution, where t1, t2, ..., tN are the values in args.... Any return value from f is ignored. If f terminates with an uncaught exception, std::terminate() shall be called.

Synchronization: The invocation of the constructor happens before the invocation of f.

Postconditions: get_id() != id(). *this represents the newly started thread.
Throws: std::system_error if unable to start the new thread.

Error conditions:

— resource_unavailable_try_again — the system lacked the necessary resources to create another thread, or the system-imposed limit on the number of threads in a process would be exceeded.

thread(thread&& x);

Effects: Constructs an object of type thread from x, and sets x to a default constructed state.

Postconditions: x.get_id() == id() and get_id() returns the value of x.get_id() prior to the start of construction.

Throws: Nothing.

30.3.1.3 thread destructor

~thread();

[ Note: Either implicitly detaching or joining a joinable() thread in its destructor could result in difficult to debug correctness (for detach) or performance (for join) bugs encountered only when an exception is raised. Thus the programmer must ensure that the destructor is never executed while the thread is still joinable. — end note]

Throws: Nothing.

30.3.1.4 thread assignment

thread& operator=(thread&& x);

Effects: If joinable(), calls terminate(). Otherwise, assigns the state of x to *this and sets x to a default constructed state.

Postconditions: x.get_id() == id() and get_id() returns the value of x.get_id() prior to the assignment.

Throws: Nothing.

30.3.1.5 thread members

void swap(thread& x);

Effects: Swaps the state of *this and x.

Throws: Nothing.

bool joinable() const;

Returns: get_id() != id()

Throws: Nothing.

void join();

Precondition: joinable() is true.
Synchronization: The completion of the thread represented by this happens before (1.10) join() returns. [Note: Operations on this are not synchronized. — end note]

Postconditions: If join() throws an exception, the value returned by get_id() is unchanged. Otherwise, get_id() == id().

Throws: std::system_error when the postconditions cannot be achieved.

Error conditions:
— resource_deadlock_would_occur — if deadlock is detected or this->get_id() == std::this_thread::get_id().
— no_such_process — if the thread is not valid.
— invalid_argument — if the thread is not joinable.

void detach();

Precondition: joinable() is true.

Effects: The thread represented by this continues execution without the calling thread blocking. When detach() returns, this no longer represents the possibly continuing thread of execution. When the thread previously represented by this ends execution, the implementation shall release any owned resources.

Postcondition: get_id() == id().

Throws: std::system_error when the effects or postconditions cannot be achieved.

Error conditions:
— no_such_process — not a valid thread.
— invalid_argument — not a detachable thread.

id get_id() const;

Returns: A default constructed id object if this does not represent a thread, otherwise this_thread::get_id() for the thread of execution represented by this.

Throws: Nothing.

30.3.1.6 thread static members [thread.thread.static]

unsigned hardware_concurrency();

Returns: The number of hardware thread contexts. [Note: This value should only be considered to be a hint. — end note] If this value is not computable or well defined an implementation should return 0.

30.3.1.7 thread specialized algorithms [thread.thread.algorithm]

void swap(thread& x, thread& y);

Effects: x.swap(y)
30.3.2 Namespace this_thread

namespace std {
    namespace this_thread {
        thread::id get_id();

        void yield();
        template <class Clock, class Duration>
            void sleep_until(const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);
        template <class Rep, class Period>
            void sleep_for(const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time);
    }
}

thread::id this_thread::get_id();

Returns: An object of type thread::id that uniquely identifies the current thread of execution. No other thread of execution shall have this id and this thread of execution shall always have this id. The object returned shall not compare equal to a default constructed thread::id.

Throws: Nothing.

void this_thread::yield();

Effects: Offers the implementation the opportunity to reschedule.

Synchronization: None.

Throws: Nothing.

template <class Clock, class Duration>
    void sleep_until(const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);

Effects: Blocks the calling thread at least until the time specified by abs_time.

Synchronization: None.

Throws: Nothing.

template <class Rep, class Period>
    void sleep_for(const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time);

Effects: Blocks the calling thread for at least the time specified by rel_time.

Synchronization: None.

Throws: Nothing.

30.4 Mutual exclusion

This section provides mechanisms for mutual exclusion: mutexes, locks, and call once. These mechanisms ease the production of race-free programs (1.10).

Header <mutex> synopsis

namespace std {
    class mutex;
    class recursive_mutex;
    class timed_mutex;
    class recursive_timed_mutex;
}
struct defer_lock_t {};
struct try_to_lock_t {};
struct adopt_lock_t {};

cconstexpr defer_lock_t defer_lock {{}};
cconstexpr try_to_lock_t try_to_lock {{}};
cconstexpr adopt_lock_t adopt_lock {{}};

template <class Mutex> class lock_guard;
template <class Mutex> class unique_lock;

template <class Mutex>
    void swap(unique_lock<Mutex>& x, unique_lock<Mutex>& y);

template <class L1, class L2, class... L3>
    int try_lock(L1&, L2&, L3&...);

template <class L1, class L2, class... L3>
    void lock(L1&, L2&, L3&...);

struct once_flag {
    constexpr once_flag();
    once_flag(const once_flag&) = delete;
    once_flag& operator=(const once_flag&) = delete;
};

template<class Callable, class ...Args>
    void call_once(once_flag& flag, Callable func, Args&&... args);

30.4.1 Mutex requirements

1 A mutex object facilitates protection against data races and allows thread-safe synchronization of data between threads. A thread owns a mutex from the time it successfully calls one of the lock functions until it calls unlock. Mutexes may be either recursive or non-recursive, and may grant simultaneous ownership to one or many threads. The mutex types supplied by the standard library provide exclusive ownership semantics: only one thread may own the mutex at a time. Both recursive and non-recursive mutexes are supplied.

2 This section describes requirements on template argument types used to instantiate templates defined in the C++ standard library. The template definitions in the C++ standard library refer to the named Mutex requirements whose details are set out below. In this description, m is an object of a Mutex type.

3 A Mutex type shall be DefaultConstructible and Destructible. If initialization of an object of a Mutex type fails, an exception of type std::system_error shall be thrown. A Mutex type shall not be copyable nor movable.

4 Error conditions:
   — not_enough_memory — if there is not enough memory to construct the mutex object.
   — resource_unavailable_try_again — if any native handle type manipulated is not available.
   — operation_not_permitted — if the thread does not have the necessary permission to change the state of the mutex object.
   — device_or_resource_busy — if any native handle type manipulated is already locked.
The implementation shall provide lock and unlock operations, as described below. The implementation shall serialize those operations. [Note: Construction and destruction of an object of a Mutex type need not be thread-safe; other synchronization should be used to ensure that Mutex objects are initialized and visible to other threads. — end note]

The expression `m.lock()` shall be well-formed and have the following semantics:

- **Effects:** Blocks the calling thread until ownership of the mutex can be obtained for the calling thread.
- **Postcondition:** The calling thread owns the mutex.
- **Return type:** void
- **Synchronization:** Prior `unlock()` operations on the same object shall synchronize with (1.10) this operation.
- **Throws:** `std::system_error` when the effects or postcondition cannot be achieved.

**Error conditions:**

- **operation_not_permitted** — if the thread does not have the necessary permission to change the state of the mutex.
- **resource_deadlock_would_occur** — if the current thread already owns the mutex and is able to detect it.
- **device_or_resource_busy** — if the mutex is already locked and blocking is not possible.

The expression `m.try_lock()` shall be well-formed and have the following semantics:

- **Effects:** Attempts to obtain ownership of the mutex for the calling thread without blocking. If ownership is not obtained, there is no effect and `try_lock()` immediately returns. An implementation may fail to obtain the lock even if it is not held by any other thread. [Note: This spurious failure is normally uncommon, but allows interesting implementations based on a simple `compare_exchange` (29). — end note]
- **Return type:** bool
- **Returns:** `true` if ownership of the mutex was obtained for the calling thread, otherwise `false`.
- **Synchronization:** If `try_lock()` returns `true`, prior `unlock()` operations on the same object synchronize with (1.10) this operation. [Note: Since `lock()` does not synchronize with a failed subsequent `try_lock()`, the visibility rules are weak enough that little would be known about the state after a failure, even in the absence of spurious failures. — end note]
- **Throws:** Nothing.

The expression `m.unlock()` shall be well-formed and have the following semantics:

- **Precondition:** The calling thread shall own the mutex.
- **Effects:** Releases the calling thread’s ownership of the mutex.
- **Return type:** void
- **Synchronization:** This operation synchronizes with (1.10) subsequent lock operations that obtain ownership on the same object.
- **Throws:** Nothing.
30.4.1.1 Class mutex

namespace std {
    class mutex {
        public:
            constexpr mutex();
            ~mutex();

            mutex(const mutex&) = delete;
            mutex& operator=(const mutex&) = delete;

            void lock();
            bool try_lock();
            void unlock();

            typedef implementation-defined native_handle_type; // See 30.2.3
            native_handle_type native_handle(); // See 30.2.3
    };
}

1 The class mutex provides a non-recursive mutex with exclusive ownership semantics. If one thread owns a mutex object, attempts by another thread to acquire ownership of that object will fail (for try_lock()) or block (for lock()) until the owning thread has released ownership with a call to unlock().

2 The class mutex shall satisfy all the Mutex requirements (30.4.1). It shall be a standard-layout class (9).

3 The behavior of a program is undefined if:
   — it destroys a mutex object owned by any thread,
   — a thread that owns a mutex object calls lock() or try_lock() on that object, or
   — a thread terminates while owning a mutex object.

30.4.1.2 Class recursive_mutex

namespace std {
    class recursive_mutex {
        public:
            recursive_mutex();
            ~recursive_mutex();

            recursive_mutex(const recursive_mutex&) = delete;
            recursive_mutex& operator=(const recursive_mutex&) = delete;

            void lock();
            bool try_lock();
            void unlock();

            typedef implementation-defined native_handle_type; // See 30.2.3
            native_handle_type native_handle(); // See 30.2.3
    };
}

1 The class recursive_mutex provides a recursive mutex with exclusive ownership semantics. If one thread owns a recursive_mutex object, attempts by another thread to acquire ownership of that object will fail (for try_lock()) or block (for lock()) until the first thread has completely released ownership.
The class `recursive_mutex` shall satisfy all the Mutex requirements (30.4.1). It shall be a standard-layout class (9).

A thread that owns a `recursive_mutex` object may acquire additional levels of ownership by calling `lock()` or `try_lock()` on that object. It is unspecified how many levels of ownership may be acquired by a single thread. If a thread has already acquired the maximum level of ownership for a `recursive_mutex` object, additional calls to `try_lock()` shall fail, and additional calls to `lock()` shall throw an exception of type `std::system_error`. A thread shall call `unlock()` once for each level of ownership acquired by calls to `lock()` and `try_lock()`. Only when all levels of ownership have been released may ownership be acquired by another thread.

The behavior of a program is undefined if:

- it destroys a `recursive_mutex` object owned by any thread or
- a thread terminates while owning a `recursive_mutex` object.

30.4.2 TimedMutex requirements

A `TimedMutex` type shall meet the requirements for a `Mutex` type. In addition, it shall meet the requirements set out in this Clause 30.4.2, where `rel_time` denotes an instantiation of `duration` (20.9.3) and `abs_time` denotes an instantiation of `time_point` (20.9.4).

The expression `m.try_lock_for(rel_time)` shall be well-formed and have the following semantics:

1. **Precondition:** If the tick period of `rel_time` is not exactly convertible to the native tick period, the duration shall be rounded up to the nearest native tick period.
2. **Effects:** The function attempts to obtain ownership of the mutex within the time specified by `rel_time`. If the time specified by `rel_time` is less than or equal to 0, the function attempts to obtain ownership without blocking (as if by calling `try_lock()`). The function shall return within the time specified by `rel_time` only if it has obtained ownership of the mutex object. [Note: As with `try_lock()`, there is no guarantee that ownership will be obtained if the lock is available, but implementations are expected to make a strong effort to do so. — end note]

3. **Return type:** `bool`
4. **Returns:** `true` if ownership was obtained, otherwise `false`.
5. **Synchronization:** If `try_lock_for()` returns `true`, prior `unlock()` operations on the same object synchronize with (1.10) this operation.
6. **Throws:** Nothing.

The expression `m.try_lock_until(abs_time)` shall be well-formed and have the following semantics:

1. **Effects:** The function attempts to obtain ownership of the mutex by the time specified by `abs_time`. If `abs_time` has already passed, the function attempts to obtain ownership without blocking (as if by calling `try_lock()`). The function shall return before the time specified by `abs_time` only if it has obtained ownership of the mutex object. [Note: As with `try_lock()`, there is no guarantee that ownership will be obtained if the lock is available, but implementations are expected to make a strong effort to do so. — end note]

2. **Return type:** `bool`
3. **Returns:** `true` if ownership was obtained, otherwise `false`. 
Synchronization: If \texttt{try\_lock\_until()} returns \texttt{true}, prior \texttt{unlock()} operations on the same object synchronize with 1.10 this operation.

\textit{Throws:} Nothing.

\subsection*{30.4.2.1 Class \texttt{timed\_mutex} \hspace{1cm} [thread.timedmutex.class]}

\begin{verbatim}
namespace std {
    class timed_mutex {
    public:
        timed_mutex();
        ~timed_mutex();

        timed_mutex(const timed_mutex&) = delete;
        timed_mutex& operator=(const timed_mutex&) = delete;

        void lock();
        bool try_lock();
        template <class Rep, class Period>
        bool try_lock_for(const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time);
        template <class Clock, class Duration>
        bool try_lock_until(const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);
        void unlock();

        typedef implementation-defined native_handle_type; // See 30.2.3
        native_handle_type native_handle(); // See 30.2.3
    };
}
\end{verbatim}

1 The class \texttt{timed\_mutex} provides a non-recursive mutex with exclusive ownership semantics. If one thread owns a \texttt{timed\_mutex} object, attempts by another thread to acquire ownership of that object will fail (for \texttt{try\_lock()} or block (for \texttt{lock()}, \texttt{try\_lock\_for()}, and \texttt{try\_lock\_until()}) until the owning thread has released ownership with a call to \texttt{unlock()} or the call to \texttt{try\_lock\_for()} or \texttt{try\_lock\_until()} times out (having failed to obtain ownership).

2 The class \texttt{timed\_mutex} shall satisfy all of the \texttt{TimedMutex} requirements (30.4.2). It shall be a standard-layout class (9).

3 The behavior of a program is undefined if:
   - it destroys a \texttt{timed\_mutex} object owned by any thread,
   - a thread that owns a \texttt{timed\_mutex} object calls \texttt{lock()}, \texttt{try\_lock()}, \texttt{try\_lock\_for()}, or \texttt{try\_lock\_until()} on that object, or
   - a thread terminates while owning a \texttt{timed\_mutex} object.

\subsection*{30.4.2.2 Class \texttt{recursive\_timed\_mutex} \hspace{1cm} [thread.timedmutex.recursive]}

\begin{verbatim}
namespace std {
    class recursive_timed_mutex {
    public:
        recursive_timed_mutex();
        ~recursive_timed_mutex();

        recursive_timed_mutex(const recursive_timed_mutex&) = delete;

    };
}
\end{verbatim}

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recursive_timed_mutex& operator=(const recursive_timed_mutex&) = delete;

void lock();
bool try_lock();
template <class Rep, class Period>
  bool try_lock_for(const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time);
template <class Clock, class Duration>
  bool try_lock_until(const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);
void unlock();

typedef implementation-defined native_handle_type; // See 30.2.3
native_handle_type native_handle(); // See 30.2.3
};

1 The class recursive_timed_mutex provides a recursive mutex with exclusive ownership semantics. If one thread owns a recursive_timed_mutex object, attempts by another thread to acquire ownership of that object will fail (for try_lock()) or block (for lock(), try_lock_for(), and try_lock_until()) until the owning thread has completely released ownership or the call to try_lock_for() or try_lock_until() times out (having failed to obtain ownership).

2 The class recursive_timed_mutex shall satisfy all of the TimedMutex requirements (30.4.2). It shall be a standard-layout class (9).

3 A thread that owns a recursive_timed_mutex object may acquire additional levels of ownership by calling lock(), try_lock(), try_lock_for(), or try_lock_until() on that object. It is unspecified how many levels of ownership may be acquired by a single thread. If a thread has already acquired the maximum level of ownership for a recursive_timed_mutex object, additional calls to try_lock(), try_lock_for(), or try_lock_until() shall fail, and additional calls to lock() shall throw an exception of type std::system_error. A thread shall call unlock() once for each level of ownership acquired by calls to lock(), try_lock(), try_lock_for(), and try_lock_until(). Only when all levels of ownership have been released may ownership of the object be acquired by another thread.

4 The behavior of a program is undefined if:
   — it destroys a recursive_timed_mutex object owned by any thread, or
   — a thread terminates while owning a recursive_timed_mutex object.

30.4.3 Locks [thread.lock]

1 A lock is an object that holds a reference to a mutex and may unlock the mutex during the lock’s destruction (such as when leaving block scope). A thread of execution may use a lock to aid in managing mutex ownership in an exception safe manner. A lock is said to own a mutex if it is currently managing the ownership of that mutex for a thread of execution. A lock does not manage the lifetime of the mutex it references. [ Note: Locks are intended to ease the burden of unlocking the mutex under both normal and exceptional circumstances. — end note ]

2 Some lock constructors take tag types which describe what should be done with the mutex object during the lock’s construction.

   namespace std {
     struct defer_lock_t { }; // do not acquire ownership of the mutex
     struct try_to_lock_t { }; // try to acquire ownership of the mutex
                               // without blocking
     struct adopt_lock_t { }; // assume the calling thread has already
   }
extern const defer_lock_t defer_lock{};
extern const try_to_lock_t try_to_lock{};
extern const adopt_lock_t adopt_lock{};
}

30.4.3.1 Class template lock_guard

namespace std {
    template <class Mutex>
    class lock_guard {
    public:
        typedef Mutex mutex_type;
        explicit lock_guard(mutex_type& m);
        lock_guard(mutex_type& m, adopt_lock_t);
        ~lock_guard();
        lock_guard(lock_guard const&) = delete;
        lock_guard& operator=(lock_guard const&) = delete;
    private:
        mutex_type& pm; // exposition only
    }
}

An object of type lock_guard controls the ownership of a mutex object within a scope. A lock_guard object maintains ownership of a mutex object throughout the lock_guard object’s lifetime. The behavior of a program is undefined if the mutex referenced by pm does not exist for the entire lifetime (3.8) of the lock_guard object.

explicit lock_guard(mutex_type& m);

Precondition: If mutex_type is not a recursive mutex, the calling thread does not own the mutex m.

Effects: m.lock()

Postcondition: &pm == &m

lock_guard(mutex_type& m, adopt_lock_t);

Precondition: The calling thread owns the mutex m.

Postcondition: &pm == &m

Throws: Nothing.

~lock_guard();

Effects: pm.unlock()

Throws: Nothing.

30.4.3.2 Class template unique_lock

namespace std {
    template <class Mutex>

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class unique_lock {
public:
    typedef Mutex mutex_type;

    // 30.4.3.2.1 construct/copy/destroy
    unique_lock();
    explicit unique_lock(mutex_type& m);
    unique_lock(mutex_type& m, defer_lock_t);
    unique_lock(mutex_type& m, try_to_lock_t);
    unique_lock(mutex_type& m, adopt_lock_t);
    template <class Clock, class Duration>
        unique_lock(mutex_type& m, const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);
    template <class Rep, class Period>
        unique_lock(mutex_type& m, const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time);
    ~unique_lock();

    unique_lock(unique_lock const&) = delete;
    unique_lock& operator=(unique_lock const&) = delete;

    unique_lock(unique_lock&& u);
    unique_lock& operator=(unique_lock&& u);

    // 30.4.3.2.2 locking
    void lock();
    bool try_lock();

    template <class Rep, class Period>
        bool try_lock_for(const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time);
    template <class Clock, class Duration>
        bool try_lock_until(const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);
    void unlock();

    // 30.4.3.2.3 modifiers
    void swap(unique_lock& u);
    mutex_type* release();

    // 30.4.3.2.4 observers
    bool owns_lock() const;
    explicit operator bool () const;
    mutex_type* mutex() const;

    private:
        mutex_type* pm; // exposition only
        bool owns; // exposition only
    }

    template <class Mutex>
        void swap(unique_lock<Mutex>& x, unique_lock<Mutex>& y);
}

An object of type unique_lock controls the ownership of a mutex within a scope. Mutex ownership may be acquired at construction or after construction, and may be transferred, after acquisition, to another unique_lock object. Objects of type unique_lock are not copyable but are movable. The behavior of a program is undefined if the contained pointer pm is not null and the mutex pointed to by pm does not exist.

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for the entire remaining lifetime (3.8) of the unique_lock object.

30.4.3.2.1 unique_lock constructors, destructor, and assignment  [thread.lock.unique.cons]

unique_lock();
  Effects: Constructs an object of type unique_lock.
  Postconditions: pm == 0 and owns == false.
  Throws: Nothing.

explicit unique_lock(mutex_type& m);
  Precondition: If mutex_type is not a recursive mutex the calling thread does not own the mutex.
  Effects: Constructs an object of type unique_lock and calls m.lock().
  Postconditions: pm == &m and owns == true.

unique_lock(mutex_type& m, defer_lock_t);
  Effects: Constructs an object of type unique_lock.
  Postconditions: pm == &m and owns == false.
  Throws: Nothing.

unique_lock(mutex_type& m, try_to_lock_t);
  Precondition: If mutex_type is not a recursive mutex the calling thread does not own the mutex.
  Effects: Constructs an object of type unique_lock and calls m.try_lock().
  Postconditions: pm == &m and owns == res, where res is the value returned by the call to m.try_lock().
  Throws: Nothing.

unique_lock(mutex_type& m, adopt_lock_t);
  Precondition: The calling thread own the mutex.
  Effects: Constructs an object of type unique_lock.
  Postconditions: pm == &m and owns == true.
  Throws: Nothing.

template <class Clock, class Duration>
unique_lock(mutex_type& m, const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);
  Precondition: If mutex_type is not a recursive mutex the calling thread does not own the mutex.
  Effects: Constructs an object of type unique_lock and calls m.try_lock_until(abs_time).
  Postconditions: pm == &m and owns == res, where res is the value returned by the call to m.try_lock_until(abs_time).
  Throws: Nothing.

template <class Rep, class Period>
unique_lock(mutex_type& m, const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time);
Precondition: If mutex_type is not a recursive mutex the calling thread does not own the mutex.

Effects: Constructs an object of type unique_lock and calls m.try_lock_for(rel_time).

Postconditions: pm == &m and owns == res, where res is the value returned by the call to m.try_lock_for(rel_time).

Throws: Nothing.

unique_lock(unique_lock&& u);

Postconditions: pm == u_p.pm and owns == u_p.owns (where u_p is the state of u just prior to this construction), u.pm == 0 and u.owns == false.

Throws: Nothing.

unique_lock& operator=(unique_lock&& u);

Effects: If owns calls pm->unlock().

Postconditions: pm == u_p.pm and owns == u_p.owns (where u_p is the state of u just prior to this construction), u.pm == 0 and u.owns == false.

Throws: Nothing.

[Note: With a recursive mutex it is possible for both *this and u to own the same mutex before the assignment. In this case, *this will own the mutex after the assignment and u will not. — end note]

unique_lock();

Effects: If owns calls pm->unlock().

Throws: Nothing.

30.4.3.2.2 unique_lock locking [thread.lock.unique.locking]

void lock();

Effects: pm->lock()

Postcondition: owns == true

Throws: std::system_error when the postcondition cannot be achieved.

Error conditions:

— operation_not_permitted — if pm is null.

— resource_deadlock_would_occur — if the current thread already owns the mutex (i.e., on entry, owns is true).

bool try_lock();

Effects: pm->try_lock()

Returns: The value returned by the call to try_lock().

Postcondition: owns == res, where res is the value returned by the call to try_lock().

Throws: std::system_error when the postcondition cannot be achieved.

Error conditions:
— operation_not_permitted — if pm is null.
— resource_deadlock_would_occur — if the current thread already owns the mutex (i.e., on entry, owns is true).

template <class Clock, class Duration>
bool try_lock_until(const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);

Effects: pm->try_lock_until(abs_time)
Returns: The value returned by the call to try_lock_until(abs_time).
Postcondition: owns == res, where res is the value returned by the call to try_lock_until(abs_time).
Throws: std::system_error when the postcondition cannot be achieved.
Error conditions:
— operation_not_permitted — if pm is null.
— resource_deadlock_would_occur — if the current thread already owns the mutex (i.e., on entry, owns is true).

template <class Rep, class Period>
bool try_lock_for(const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time);

Effects: pm->try_lock_for(rel_time).
Returns: The value returned by the call to try_lock_until(rel_time).
Postcondition: owns == res, where res is the value returned by the call to try_lock_for(rel_time).
Throws: std::system_error when the postcondition cannot be achieved.
Error conditions:
— operation_not_permitted — if pm is null.
— resource_deadlock_would_occur — if the current thread already owns the mutex (i.e., on entry, owns is true).

void unlock();

Effects: pm->unlock()
Postcondition: owns == false
Throws: std::system_error when the postcondition cannot be achieved.
Error conditions:
— operation_not_permitted — if on entry owns is false.

30.4.3.3 unique_lock modifiers

void swap(unique_lock& u);

Effects: Swaps the data members of *this and u.
Throws: Nothing.

mutex_type *release();
template <class Mutex>
    void swap(unique_lock<Mutex>& x, unique_lock<Mutex>& y);

Effects: x.swap(y)
Throws: Nothing.

30.4.3.2.4 unique_lock observers

bool owns_lock() const;

Returns: owns
Throws: Nothing.

explicit operator bool() const;

Returns: owns
Throws: Nothing.

mutex_type *mutex() const;

Returns: pm
Throws: Nothing.

30.4.4 Generic locking algorithms

template <class L1, class L2, class... L3> int try_lock(L1&, L2&, L3&...);

Requires: Each template parameter type shall meet the Mutex requirements, except that a call to try_lock() may throw an exception. [Note: The unique_lock class template meets these requirements when suitably instantiated. —end note]
Effects: Calls try_lock() for each argument in order beginning with the first until all arguments have been processed or a call to try_lock() fails, either by returning false or by throwing an exception. If a call to try_lock() fails, unlock() shall be called for all prior arguments and there shall be no further calls to try_lock().
Returns: -1 if all calls to try_lock() returned true, otherwise a 0-based index value that indicates the argument for which try_lock() returned false.

template <class L1, class L2, class... L3> void lock(L1&, L2&, L3&...);

Requires: Each template parameter type shall meet the Mutex requirements, except that a call to try_lock() may throw an exception. [Note: The unique_lock class template meets these requirements when suitably instantiated. —end note]
Effects: All arguments are locked via a sequence of calls to lock(), try_lock(), or unlock() on each argument. The sequence of calls shall not result in deadlock, but is otherwise unspecified. [Note: A deadlock avoidance algorithm such as try-and-back-off must be used, but the specific algorithm is not specified to avoid over-constraining implementations. —end note] If a call to lock() or try_lock()...
throws an exception, unlock() shall be called for any argument that had been locked by a call to lock() or try_lock().

30.4.5 Call once

The class once_flag is an opaque data structure that call_once uses to initialize data without causing a data race or deadlock.

30.4.5.1 Struct once_flag

constexpr once_flag();

1 Effects: Constructs an object of type once_flag.

2 Synchronization: The construction of a once_flag object is not synchronized.

3 Postcondition: The object’s internal state is set to indicate to an invocation of call_once with the object as its initial argument that no function has been called.

4 Throws: nothing.

30.4.5.2 Function call_once

template<class Callable, class ...Args>
void call_once(once_flag& flag, Callable func, Args&&... args);

1 Requires: The template parameters Callable and each Ti in Args shall be CopyConstructible if an lvalue and otherwise MoveConstructible. INVOKE(func, w1, w2, ..., wN) (20.7.2) shall be a valid expression for some values w1, w2, ..., wN, where N == sizeof...(Args).

2 Effects: Calls to call_once on the same once_flag object are serialized. If there has been a prior effective call to call_once on the same once_flag object, the call to call_once returns without invoking func. If there has been no prior effective call to call_once on the same once_flag object, the argument func (or a copy thereof) is called as if by invoking func(args). The call to call_once is effective if and only if func(args) returns without throwing an exception. If an exception is thrown it is propagated to the caller.

3 Synchronization: The completion of an effective call to call_once on a once_flag object synchronizes with (1.10) all subsequent calls to call_once on the same once_flag object.

4 Throws: std::system_error when the effects cannot be achieved, or any exception thrown by func.

5 Error conditions:

— invalid_argument — if the once_flag object is no longer valid.

[Example:

// global flag, regular function
void init();
std::once_flag flag;

void f()
{
    std::call_once(flag, init);
}

// function static flag, function object
struct initializer {

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30.5 Condition variables

1 Condition variables provide synchronization primitives used to block a thread until notified by some other thread that some condition is met or until a system time is reached. Class `condition_variable` provides a condition variable that can only wait on an object of type `unique_lock`, allowing maximum efficiency on some platforms. Class `condition_variable_any` provides a general condition variable that can wait on objects of user-supplied lock types.

2 Condition variables permit concurrent invocation of the `wait`, `wait_for`, `wait_until`, `notify_one` and `notify_all` member functions.

3 The execution of `notify_one` and `notify_all` shall be atomic. The execution of `wait`, `wait_for`, and `wait_until` shall be performed in three atomic parts:
   1. the release of the mutex, and entry into the waiting state;
   2. the unblocking of the wait; and
   3. the reacquisition of the lock.

4 The implementation shall behave as if `notify_one`, `notify_all`, and each part of the `wait`, `wait_for`, and `wait_until` executions are executed in some unspecified total order.

5 Condition variable construction and destruction need not be synchronized.

Header `condition_variable` synopsis

```cpp
namespace std {
    class condition_variable;
    class condition_variable_any;

    enum class cv_status { no_timeout, timeout };
}
```

30.5.1 Class condition_variable

```cpp
namespace std {
    class condition_variable {
```
public:

    condition_variable();
    ~condition_variable();

    condition_variable(const condition_variable&) = delete;
    condition_variable& operator=(const condition_variable&) = delete;

    void notify_one();
    void notify_all();
    void wait(unique_lock<mutex>& lock);
    template <class Predicate>
    void wait(unique_lock<mutex>& lock, Predicate pred);
    template <class Clock, class Duration>
    bool cv_status wait_until(unique_lock<mutex>& lock,
      const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);
    template <class Clock, class Duration, class Predicate>
    bool wait_until(unique_lock<mutex>& lock,
      const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time,
      Predicate pred);

    template <class Rep, class Period>
    bool cv_status wait_for(unique_lock<mutex>& lock,
      const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time);
    template <class Rep, class Period, class Predicate>
    bool wait_for(unique_lock<mutex>& lock,
      const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time,
      Predicate pred);

    typedef implementation-defined native_handle_type; // See 30.2.3
    native_handle_type native_handle(); // See 30.2.3
};

1. The class condition_variable shall be a standard-layout class (9).

    condition_variable();

    Effects: Constructs an object of type condition_variable.

    Error conditions:

    — not_enough_memory — if a memory limitation prevents initialization.

    — resource_unavailable_try_again — if some non-memory resource limitation prevents initialization.

    ~condition_variable();

    Precondition: There shall be no thread blocked on *this. [ Note: That is, all threads shall have been notified; they may subsequently block on the lock specified in the wait. Beware that destroying a condition_variable object while the corresponding predicate is false is likely to lead to undefined behavior. — end note ]

    Effects: Destroys the object.

    Throws: Nothing.
void notify_one();

Effects: If any threads are blocked waiting for *this, unblocks one of those threads.

void notify_all();

Effects: Unblocks all threads that are blocked waiting for *this.

void wait(unique_lock<mutex>& lock);

Precondition: lock is locked by the calling thread, and either

— no other thread is waiting on this condition_variable object or

— lock.mutex() returns the same value for each of the lock arguments supplied by all concurrently
waiting (via wait or timed_wait) threads.

Effects:

— Atomically calls lock.unlock() and blocks on *this.

— When unblocked, calls lock.lock() (possibly blocking on the lock), then and returns.

— The function will unblock when signaled by a call to notify_one() or a call to notify_all(),
or spuriously.

— If the function exits via an exception, lock.unlock() shall be called prior to exiting the function
scope.

Postcondition: lock is locked by the calling thread.

Throws: std::system_error when the effects or postcondition cannot be achieved.

Error conditions:

— equivalent error condition from lock.lock() or lock.unlock().

template <class Predicate>
void wait(unique_lock<mutex>& lock, Predicate pred);

Effects:

while (!pred())
wait(lock);

template <class Clock, class Duration>
bool cv_status wait_until(unique_lock<mutex>& lock,
const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);

Precondition: lock is locked by the calling thread, and either

— no other thread is waiting on this condition_variable object or

— lock.mutex() returns the same value for each of the lock arguments supplied by all concurrently
waiting (via wait, wait_for, or wait_until) threads.

Effects:

— Atomically calls lock.unlock() and blocks on *this.

— When unblocked, calls lock.lock() (possibly blocking on the lock), then and returns.

— The function will unblock when signaled by a call to notify_one(), or a call to notify_all(),
by the current time exceeding abs_time, if abs_time <= Clock::now(), or spuriously.
If the function exits via an exception, \texttt{lock.unlock()} shall be called prior to exiting the function scope.

**Postcondition:** \texttt{lock} is locked by the calling thread.

**Returns:** \texttt{Clock::now()} < \texttt{abs\_time cv\_status::timeout} if the function unblocked because \texttt{abs\_time} was reached, otherwise \texttt{cv\_status::no\_timeout}.

**Throws:** \texttt{std::system\_error} when the effects or postcondition cannot be achieved.

**Error conditions:**
- \texttt{operation\_not\_permitted} — if the thread does not own the lock.
- equivalent error condition from \texttt{lock.lock()} or \texttt{lock.unlock()}.

```cpp
template <class Rep, class Period>
bool cv\_status wait\_for(unique\_lock<mutex>& lock,
                         const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel\_time);
```

**Precondition:** \texttt{lock} is locked by the calling thread, and either

- no other thread is waiting on this condition\_variable object or
- \texttt{lock\_mutex()} returns the same value for each of the \texttt{lock} arguments supplied by all concurrently waiting (via \texttt{wait}, \texttt{wait\_for}, or \texttt{wait\_until}) threads.

**Effects:**

- Atomically calls \texttt{lock.unlock()} and blocks on *this.
- When unblocked, calls \texttt{lock.lock()} (possibly blocking on the lock), then returns.
- The function will unblock when signaled by a call to \texttt{notify\_one()} or a call to \texttt{notify\_all()}, by the elapsed time \texttt{rel\_time} passing (30.2.4), or spuriously.
- If the function exits via an exception, \texttt{lock.unlock()} shall be called prior to exiting the function scope.

**Returns:** \texttt{false} if the call is returning because the time duration specified by \texttt{rel\_time} has elapsed, otherwise \texttt{true}.

**Returns:** \texttt{cv\_status::timeout} if the function unblocked because \texttt{rel\_time} elapsed, otherwise \texttt{cv\_status::no\_timeout}.

**Postcondition:** \texttt{lock} is locked by the calling thread.

**Throws:** \texttt{system\_error} when the effects or postcondition cannot be achieved.

**Error conditions:**
- \texttt{operation\_not\_permitted} — if the thread does not own the lock.
- equivalent error condition from \texttt{lock.lock()} or \texttt{lock.unlock()}.

```cpp
template <class Clock, class Duration, class Predicate>
bool wait\_until(unique\_lock<mutex>& lock,
                 const chrono::time\_point<Clock, Duration>& abs\_time,
                 Predicate pred);
```

**Effects:**
while (!pred())
    if (cv::wait_until(lock, abs_time) == cv::status::timeout)
        return pred();
    return true;

Returns: pred()

[Note: The returned value indicates whether the predicate evaluates to true regardless of whether the timeout was triggered. — end note]

template <class Rep, class Period, class Predicate>
bool wait_for(unique_lock<mutex>& lock, const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time, Predicate pred);

Precondition: lock is locked by the calling thread, and either
— no other thread is waiting on this condition_variable object or
— lock.mutex() returns the same value for each of the lock arguments supplied by all concurrently waiting (via wait, wait_for, or wait_until) threads.

Effects:

wait_until(lock, chrono::monotonic_clock::now() + rel_time, std::move(pred))

— Executes a loop: Within the loop the function first evaluates pred() and exits the loop if the result is true.
— Atomically calls lock.unlock() and blocks on *this.
— When unblocked, calls lock.lock() (possibly blocking on the lock).
— The function will unblock when signaled by a call to notify_one() or a call to notify_all(), by the elapsed time rel_time passing (30.2.4), or spuriously.
— If the function exits via an exception, lock.unlock() shall be called prior to exiting the function scope.
— The loop terminates when pred() returns true or when the time duration specified by rel_time has elapsed.

[Note: There is no blocking if pred() is initially true, even if the timeout has already expired. — end note]

Postcondition: lock is locked by the calling thread.

Returns: pred()

[Note: The returned value indicates whether the predicate evaluates to true regardless of whether the timeout was triggered. — end note]

Throws: system_error when the effects or postcondition cannot be achieved.

Error conditions:
— operation_not_permitted — if the thread does not own the lock.
— equivalent error condition from lock.lock() or lock.unlock().
30.5.2 Class condition_variable_any

A Lock type shall meet the requirements for a Mutex type, except that try_lock is not required. [Note: All of the standard mutex types meet this requirement. —end note]

namespace std {
    class condition_variable_any {
        public:
            condition_variable_any();
            ~condition_variable_any();

            condition_variable_any(const condition_variable_any&) = delete;
            condition_variable_any& operator=(const condition_variable_any&) = delete;

            void notify_one();
            void notify_all();
            template <class Lock>
                void wait(Lock& lock);
            template <class Lock, class Predicate>
                void wait(Lock& lock, Predicate pred);
            template <class Lock, class Clock, class Duration>
                bool cv_status wait_until(Lock& lock, const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);
            template <class Lock, class Clock, class Duration, class Predicate>
                bool wait_until(Lock& lock, const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time, Predicate pred);
            template <class Lock, class Rep, class Period>
                bool cv_status wait_for(Lock& lock, const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time);
            template <class Lock, class Rep, class Period, class Predicate>
                bool wait_for(Lock& lock, const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time, Predicate pred);

            typedef implementation-defined native_handle_type; // See 30.2.3
            native_handle_type native_handle(); // See 30.2.3
        }
    }

    condition_variable_any();

    Effects: Constructs an object of type condition_variable_any.
    ~condition_variable_any();

    Precondition: There shall be no thread blocked on *this. [Note: That is, all threads shall have been notified; they may subsequently block on the lock specified in the wait. Beware that destroying a condition_variable_any object while the corresponding predicate is false is likely to lead to undefined behavior. —end note]

    Effects: Destroys the object.
    Throws: Nothing.

    void notify_one();

    Effects: If any threads are blocked waiting for *this, unblocks one of those threads.
    void notify_all();

    Effects: Unblocks all threads that are blocked waiting for *this.
template <class Lock>
void wait(Lock& lock);

Effects:
— Atomically calls lock.unlock() and blocks on *this.
— When unblocked, calls lock.lock() (possibly blocking on the lock) and returns.
— The function will unblock when signaled by a call to notify_one(), a call to notify_all(), or spuriously.
— If the function exits via an exception, lock.unlock() shall be called prior to exiting the function scope.

Postcondition: lock is locked by the calling thread.

Throws: std::system_error when the effects or postcondition cannot be achieved.

Error conditions:
— equivalent error condition from lock.lock() or lock.unlock().

template <class Lock, class Predicate>
void wait(Lock& lock, Predicate pred);

Effects:
while (!pred())
    wait(lock);

template <class Lock, class Clock, class Duration>
bool cv_status wait_until(Lock& lock, const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time);

Effects:
— Atomically calls lock.unlock() and blocks on *this.
— When unblocked, calls lock.lock() (possibly blocking on the lock) and returns.
— The function will unblock when signaled by a call to notify_one(), or a call to notify_all(), by the current time exceeding abs_time if abs_time <= Clock::now(), or spuriously.
— If the function exits via an exception, lock.unlock() shall be called prior to exiting the function scope.

Postcondition: lock is locked by the calling thread.

Returns: Clock::now() < abs_time cv_status::timeout if the function unblocked because abs_time was reached, otherwise cv_status::no_timeout.

Throws: std::system_error when the returned value, effects, or postcondition cannot be achieved.

Error conditions:
— equivalent error condition from lock.lock() or lock.unlock().

template <class Lock, class Rep, class Period>
bool cv_status wait_for(Lock& lock, const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time);

Precondition: lock is locked by the calling thread, and either
— no other thread is waiting on this condition_variable object or
lock::mutex() returns the same value for each of the lock arguments supplied by all concurrently waiting (via wait, wait_for, or wait_until) threads.

Effects:

wait_until(lock, chrono::monotonic_clock::now() + rel_time)

— Atomically calls lock.unlock() and blocks on *this.
— When unblocked, calls lock.lock() (possibly blocking on the lock), then returns.
— The function will unblock when signaled by a call to notify_one() or a call to notify_all(), by
  the elapsed time rel_time passing (30.2.4), or spuriously.
— If the function exits via an exception, lock.unlock() shall be called prior to exiting the function
  scope.

Returns: false if the call is returning because the time duration specified by rel_time has elapsed,
  otherwise true.

Returns: cv_status::timeout if the function unblocked because rel_time elapsed, otherwise cv_status::no_timeout.

Postcondition: lock is locked by the calling thread.

Throws: system_error when the returned value, effects, or postcondition cannot be achieved.

Error conditions:
— equivalent error condition from lock.lock() or lock.unlock().

```cpp
template <class Lock, class Duration, class Predicate>
bool wait_until(Lock& lock, const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& rel_time abs_time, Predicate pred);
```

Effects:

while (!pred())
  if (!wait_until(lock, abs_time) == cv_status::timeout)
    return pred();
  return true;

Returns: pred()

[ Note: The returned value indicates whether the predicate evaluates to true regardless of whether the
timeout was triggered. — end note ]

```cpp
template <class Lock, class Rep, class Period, class Predicate>
bool wait_for(Lock& lock, const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time, Predicate pred);
```

Precondition: lock is locked by the calling thread, and either
— no other thread is waiting on this condition_variable object or
— lock::mutex() returns the same value for each of the lock arguments supplied by all concurrently
  waiting (via wait, wait_for, or wait_until) threads.

Effects:

wait_until(lock, chrono::monotonic_clock::now() + rel_time, std::move(pred))

— Executes a loop: Within the loop the function first evaluates pred() and exits the loop if the
  result is true.
Atomically calls `lock.unlock()` and blocks on `*this`.

When unblocked, calls `lock.lock()` (possibly blocking on the lock).

The function will unblock when signaled by a call to `notify_one()` or a call to `notify_all()`, by the elapsed time `rel_time` passing (30.2.4), or spuriously.

If the function exits via an exception, `lock.unlock()` shall be called prior to exiting the function scope.

The loop terminates when `pred()` returns `true` or when the time duration specified by `rel_time` has elapsed.

[Note: There is no blocking if `pred()` is initially `true`, even if the timeout has already expired. — end note]

**Postcondition:** lock is locked by the calling thread.

**Returns:** `pred()`

[Note: The returned value indicates whether the predicate evaluates to `true` regardless of whether the timeout was triggered. — end note]

**Throws:** `system_error` when the effects or postcondition cannot be achieved.

**Error conditions:**

- `operation_not_permitted` — if the thread does not own the lock.
- Equivalent error condition from `lock.lock()` or `lock.unlock()`.

### 30.6 Futures

#### 30.6.1 Overview

30.6 describes components that a C++ program can use to retrieve in one thread the result (value or exception) from a function that has run in another thread. [Note: these components are not restricted to multi-threaded programs but can be useful in single-threaded programs as well. — end note]

**Header `<future>` synopsis**

```cpp
namespace std {
    enum class future_errc {
        broken_promise,
        future_already_retrieved,
        promise_already_satisfied,
        no_state
    };

    enum class launch {
        any,
        async,
        sync
    };

    concept_map_ERROR_CODE_ENUM<future_errc> __;

    template <> struct is_error_code_enum<future_errc> : public true_type {};
    constexpr error_code make_error_code(future_errc e);
}
```

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constexpr error_condition make_error_condition(future_errc e);

extern const error_category* const future_category;

class future_error;

template <class R> class promise;
template <class R> class promise<R&>;
template <> class promise<void>;

template <class R>
    void swap(promise<R>& x, promise<R>& y);

template <class R, class Alloc>
    concept map UsesAllocator<promise<R>, Alloc> { 
        typedef Alloc allocator_type;
    };

template <class R, class Alloc>
    struct uses_allocator<promise<R>, Alloc>;

template <class R> class unique_future;
template <class R> class unique_future<R&>;
template <> class unique_future<void>;

template <class R> class shared_future;
template <class R> class shared_future<R&>;
template <> class shared_future<void>;

template <class R> class atomic_future;
template <class R> class atomic_future<R&>;
template <> class atomic_future<void>;

template <class> class packaged_task;  // undefined

template <class R, class... ArgTypes>
    class packaged_task<R(ArgTypes...)>;

template <class R, class Alloc>
    struct uses_allocator<packaged_task<R>, Alloc>;

template <class F, class... Args>
    future<
        typename F::result_type
        async(F&& f, Args&&... args);

template <class F, class... Args>
    future<
        typename F::result_type
        async(launch policy, F&& f, Args&&... args);
}

30.6.2 Error handling

extern const error_category* const future_category;

future_category shall point to a statically initialized object of a type derived from class error_category.

The object’s default_error_condition and equivalent virtual functions shall behave as specified for

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the class `error_category`. The object’s `name` virtual function shall return a pointer to the string "future".

```cpp
cconstexpr error_code make_error_code(future_errc e);
```

3 Returns: `error_code(static_cast<int>(e), *future_category)`.

```cpp
cconstexpr error_code make_error_condition(future_errc e);
```

4 Returns: `error_condition(static_cast<int>(e), *future_category)`.

### 30.6.3 Class future_error

```cpp
namespace std {
    class future_error : public logic_error {
        future_error(error_code ec); // exposition only
        const error_code& code() const throw();
        const char* what() const throw();
    }
}
```

```cpp
cconst error_code& code() const throw();
```

1 Returns: the value of `ec` that was passed to the object’s constructor.

```cpp
cconst char* what() const throw();
```

2 Returns: an NTBS incorporating `code().message()`.

### 30.6.4 Associated state

1 If fully initialized, objects of type `future (30.6.6), shared_future (30.6.7), atomic_future (30.6.8), promise (30.6.5),` and `packaged_task (30.6.10)` reference some state that is potentially shared between several such objects.

2 This associated state consists of some state information and some (possibly not yet evaluated) result, which can be a (possibly void) value or an exception.

3 The result of an associated state can be set by calling:
   ```cpp
   — promise::set_value,
   — promise::set_exception, or
   — packaged_task::operator().
   ```

4 When the last reference to an associated state is given up, any resources held by that associated state are released.

5 An associated state is `ready` only if it holds a value or an exception ready for retrieval.

6 The functions that successfully set the stored result of an associated state synchronize with (1.10) calls to member functions of other objects referring to the same associated state and such calls are serialized. The storage of the result (whether normal or exceptional) into the associated state happens-before (1.10) that state is set to ready.

7 Accesses to the same associated state through member functions of `future, shared_future, atomic_future, promise, or packaged_task objects conflict (1.10).
30.6.5 Class template promise

namespace std {
    template <class R>
    class promise {
        public:
            promise();
            template <class Allocator>
                promise(allocator_arg_t, const Allocator& a);
            promise(promise&& rhs);
            template <class Allocator>
                promise(allocator_arg_t, const Allocator& a,
                        promise&& rhs);
            promise(const promise& rhs) = delete;
            ~promise();

            // assignment
            promise & operator=(promise&& rhs);
            promise & operator=(const promise& rhs) = delete;
            void swap(promise& other);

            // retrieving the result
            unique_future<R> get_future();

            // setting the result
            void set_value(const R& r);
            void set_value(see below);
            void set_exception(exception_ptr p);
        }
    template <class R>
    void swap(promise<R>& x, promise<R>& y);
    template <class R, class Alloc>
    struct uses_allocator<promise<R>, Alloc> {
        true_type _T;
    }
}


1 The implementation shall provide the template promise and two specializations, promise<R&> and promise<void>. These differ only in the argument type of the member function set_value, as set out in its description, below.

2 Requires: Alloc shall be an Allocator (20.2.2).

promise();
    template <class Allocator>
        promise(allocator_arg_t, const Allocator& a);

3 Effects: constructs a promise object and an associated state. The second constructor uses the allocator a to allocate memory for the associated state.

promise(promise&& rhs);
    template <class Allocator>
        promise(allocator_arg_t, const Allocator& a, promise&& rhs);

4 Effects: move constructs a promise object whose associated state is the same as the state of rhs before, constructs a new promise object and transfers ownership of the associated state of rhs (if any) to the

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newly-constructed object.

Postcondition: \textit{rhs} has no associated state.

Throws: nothing.

\texttt{\_promise();}

\textit{Effects:} destroys \texttt{*this} and its associated state if no other object refers to it. If another object refers to the associated state of \texttt{*this} and that state is not ready, sets that state to ready and stores a \texttt{future\_error} exception with error code \texttt{broken\_promise} as result.

Postcondition: \texttt{*this} has no associated state. \texttt{*this} has the associated state of \texttt{rhs} prior to the assignment.

Returns: \texttt{*this}.

Throws: nothing.

\texttt{\_promise\& operator=(promise\&\& rhs);}

\textit{Effects:} move assigns its associated state to \texttt{rhs}.

\texttt{void swap(promise\& other);}
Error conditions:

— promise_already_satisfied if its associated state is already ready.
— no_state if *this has no associated state.

Synchronization: calls to set_value and set_exception on a single promise object are serialized. [Note: and they synchronize and serialize with other functions through the referred associated state. — end note]

void set_exception(exception_ptr p);

Effects: atomically stores p in the associated state and sets that state to ready. Any blocking waits on the associated state are woken up. Any threads blocked in a call of a blocking function of any future that refers to the same associated state as *this are unblocked.

Throws: future_error if its associated state is already ready.

Error conditions:

— promise_already_satisfied if its associated state is already ready.
— no_state if *this has no associated state.

Synchronization: calls to set_value and set_exception on a single promise object are serialized. [Note: and they synchronize and serialize with other functions through the referred associated state. — end note]

template <class R>
void swap(promise<R>& x, promise<R>& y);

Effects: x.swap(y).

30.6.6 Class template future

The class template future defines a type for synchronous return objects which do not share their associated state. A default-constructed future object has no associated state. A future object with associated state can only be created by use of a promise (30.6.5) or packaged_task (30.6.10) object, and shares its associated state with that promise or packaged_task object. Its value or exception can be set by use of a promise or packaged_task object that shares the same associated state.

[Note: member functions of future do not synchronize with themselves or with member function of shared_future. — end note]

The effect of calling any member function other than the destructor or the move-assignment operator on a future object for which valid() == false is undefined.

namespace std {

    template <class R>
    class unique_future {
        public:
            future();
            unique_future(unique_future&&);
            unique_future(const unique_future& rhs) = delete;
            ~unique_future();
            unique_future& operator=(const unique_future& rhs) = delete;
            unique_future& operator=(unique_future&&);
            future& operator=(future&&);

            // retrieving the value

            § 30.6.6
see below get();

// functions to check state and wait for ready
bool is_ready() const;
bool has_exception() const;
bool has_value() const;
bool valid() const;

void wait() const;
template <class Rep, class Period>
bool wait_for(const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time) const;
template <class Clock, class Duration>
bool wait_until(const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time) const;

The implementation shall provide the template unique_future and two specializations, unique_future<R&> and unique_future<void>. These differ only in the return type and return value of the member function get, as set out in its description, below.

future();

Effects: constructs an empty future object that does refer to an associated state.

Postcondition: valid() == false.

unique_future(unique_future&& rhs);

Effects: move constructs a unique_future object whose associated state is the same as the state of rhs before. The associated state is the state and the (possibly not yet evaluated) result (value or exception) associated with the promise object that provided the original future.

Effects: move constructs a future object that refers to the associated state that was originally referred to by rhs (if any).

Postcondition: rhs can be safely destroyed.

Postconditions:
— valid() returns the same value as rhs.valid() prior to the constructor invocation.
— rhs.valid() == false.

Throws: nothing.

unique_future();

Effects: destroys *this and its associated state if no other object refers to that.

Effects:
— gives up the reference to its associated state.
— destroys *this.

Synchronization: if the object’s associated state is associated with a thread object created by a call to async (30.6.9) and no other future object refers to that associated state, calls the member function join on the thread object.

future& operator=(future&& rhs);
**Effects:**
- if *this referred to an associated state prior to the assignment it gives up this reference.
- assigns the contents of rhs to *this.

**Postcondition:**
- valid() returns the same value as rhs.valid() prior to the assignment.
- rhs.valid() == false.

```cpp
R&& unique_future::get();
R& unique_future<R>::get();
void unique_future<void>::get();
```

**Note:** as described above, the template and its two required specializations differ only in the return type and return value of the member function get.

**Synchronization:** if *this is associated with a promise object, the completion of set_value() or set_exception() to that promise happens before (1.10) get() returns.

**Precondition:** valid() == true.

**Effects:** wait()s until the associated state is ready, then retrieves the value stored in the associated state.

**Returns:**
- unique_future::get() returns an rvalue reference to the value stored in the asynchronous result.
- future::get() returns the value stored in the object’s associated state. If the type of the value is MoveAssignable, the returned value is moved, otherwise it is copied.
- unique_future<R>::get() returns the stored reference stored as value in the object’s associated state.
- unique_future<void>::get() returns nothing.

**Throws:** the stored exception, if an exception was stored and not retrieved before in the associated state.

**Postcondition:** valid() == false.

**Remark:** the effect of calling get() a second time on the same unique_future object is unspecified.

```cpp
bool is_ready() const;
```

**Returns:** true only if the associated state holds a value or an exception ready for retrieval.

**Remark:** the return value is unspecified after a call to get().

**Precondition:** valid() == true. [Editor’s note: this paragraph was not in the previous working draft. It was added by N2997 and removed by N2996]

**Returns:** true only if the associated state is ready. [Editor’s note: this paragraph was not in the previous working draft. It was added by N2997 and removed by N2996]

```cpp
bool has_exception() const;
```

**Returns:** true only if is_ready() == true and the associated state contains an exception.
**Precondition:** `valid() == true`. [Editor’s note: this paragraph was not in the previous working draft. It was added by N2997 and removed by N2996]

**Returns:** true only if the associated state is ready and contains an exception. [Editor’s note: this paragraph was not in the previous working draft. It was added by N2997 and removed by N2996]

```cpp
bool has_value() const;
```

**Returns:** true only if `is_ready() == true` and the associated state contains a value.

**Precondition:** `valid() == true`. [Editor’s note: this paragraph was not in the previous working draft. It was added by N2997 and removed by N2996]

**Returns:** true only if the associated state is ready and contains a value. [Editor’s note: this paragraph was not in the previous working draft. It was added by N2997 and removed by N2996]

```cpp
bool valid() const;
```

**Returns:** true only if `*this` refers to an associated state.

```cpp
void wait() const;
```

**Precondition:** `valid() == true`.

**Effects:** if the associated state contains a deferred function, executes the deferred function. Otherwise, [Editor’s note: associated states do not contain functions, deferred or otherwise. And “deferred function” is never defined.] blocks until `*this` the associated state is ready.

**Synchronization:** if `*this` is associated with a promise object, the completion of `set_value()` or `set_exception()` to that promise happens before (1.10) `wait()` returns. [Editor’s note: N2996 adds a sentence to this paragraph. Since N9997 deletes it, I haven’t made the change.]

**Postcondition:** `is_ready() == true`

```cpp
template<class Rep, class Period>
bool wait_for(const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time) const;
```

**Precondition:** `valid() == true`.

**Effects:** if the associated state contains a deferred function, the behavior is unspecified. Otherwise, [Editor’s note: associated states do not contain functions, deferred or otherwise. And “deferred function” is never defined.] blocks until `*this` the associated state is ready or until `rel_time` has elapsed.

**Returns:** true only if the associated state is ready. `function_returns` because `*this` is ready.

**Postcondition:** `is_ready()` equals the return value.

```cpp
template<class Clock, class Duration>
bool wait_until(const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time) const;
```

**Precondition:** `valid() == true`.

**Effects:** blocks until the associated state is ready or until the current time exceeds `abs_time`.

**Returns:** true only if the associated state is ready.

Same as `wait_for`, except that it blocks until `abs_time` is reached if the associated state is not ready.
30.6.7 Class template `shared_future` [future.shared_future]

The class template `shared_future` defines a type for asynchronous return objects which may share their associated state. A default-constructed `shared_future` object has no associated state. A `shared_future` object with associated state can only be created from another `shared_future` object with associated state or a `future` object with associated state. Its value or exception can be set by use of a `shared_future`, `promise` (30.6.5), or `packaged_task` (30.6.10) object that shares the same associated state.

```cpp
namespace std {
    template <class R>
    class shared_future {
    public:
        shared_future();
        shared_future(const shared_future& rhs);
        shared_future(unique_future<R>&&);
        shared_future(shared_future&& rhs);
        "shared_future();
        "shared_future& operator=(const shared_future& rhs) = delete;
        "shared_future& operator=(shared_future&& rhs);

        // retrieving the value
        see below get() const;

        // functions to check state and wait for ready
        bool is_ready() const;
        bool has_exception() const;
        bool has_value() const;
        bool valid() const;

        void wait() const;
        template <class Rep, class Period>
        bool wait_for(const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time) const;
        template <class Clock, class Duration>
        bool wait_until(const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time) const;
    }
}
```

The implementation shall provide the template `shared_future` and two specializations, `shared_future<R&>` and `shared_future<void>`. These differ only in the return type and return value of the member function `get`, as set out in its description, below.

- `shared_future()`:
  - **Effects:** constructs an empty `shared_future` object that does not refer to an associated state.

- `shared_future(const shared_future& rhs)`:
  - **Effects:** copy constructs a `shared_future` object whose associated state is the same as the state of `rhs` before. The associated state is the state and the (possibly not yet evaluated) result (value or exception) associated with the promise object that provided the original future.

- `shared_future(shared_future&& rhs)`:
  - **Effects:** constructs a `shared_future` object that refers to the same associated state as `rhs` (if any).

**Postcondition:** `valid()` returns the same value as `rhs.valid()`.
shared_future(unique_future<R>&& rhs);
shared_future(shared_future&& rhs);

**Effects:** move constructs a shared_future object whose associated state is the same as the state of rhs before.

**Postconditions:** rhs can be safely destroyed.

**Effects:** move constructs a shared_future object that refers to the associated state that was originally referred to by rhs (if any).

**Postconditions:**
- valid() returns the same value as rhs.valid() returned prior to the constructor invocation.
- rhs.valid() == false.

**Throws:** nothing.

```
~shared_future();
```

**Effects:** destroys *this and its associated state if no other object refers to that.

**Effects:**
- gives up the reference to its associated state.
- destroys *this.

**Synchronization:** if the object’s associated state is associated with a thread object created by a call to async (30.6.9) and no other future object refers to that associated state, calls the member function join on the thread object.

shared_future& operator=(shared_future&& rhs);

**Effects:**
- if *this refers to an associated state it gives up this reference.
- assigns the contents of rhs to *this.

**Postconditions:**
- valid() returns the same value as rhs.valid() returned prior to the assignment.
- rhs.valid() == false.

shared_future& operator=(const shared_future& rhs);

**Effects:**
- if *this refers to an associated state it gives up this reference.
- assigns the contents of rhs to *this. [Note: as a result, *this refers to the same associated state as rhs (if any). — end note.]

**Postconditions:** valid() == rhs.valid().

const R& shared_future::get() const;
R& shared_future<R>::get() const;
void shared_future<void>::get() const;

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Note: as described above, the template and its two required specializations differ only in the return type and return value of the member function `get`.

Synchronization: if *this is associated with a promise object, the completion of `set_value()` or `set_exception()` to that promise happens before (1.10) `get()` returns.

Precondition: valid() == true.

Effects: wait() is until the associated state is ready, then retrieves the value stored in the associated state.

Returns:

— `shared_future::get()` returns a const reference to the value stored in the object’s associated state.
— `shared_future<R&>::get()` returns the stored reference stored as value in the object’s associated state.
— `shared_future<void>::get()` returns nothing.

Throws: the stored exception, if an exception was stored in the associated state and not retrieved before.

```cpp
bool is_ready() const;

Precondition: valid() == true. [Editor’s note: this paragraph was not in the previous working draft. It was added by N2997 and removed by N2996]

Returns: true only if the associated state holds a value or an exception ready for retrieval.

bool has_exception() const;

Returns: true only if `is_ready()` == true and the associated state contains an exception.

bool has_value() const;

Returns: true only if `is_ready()` == true and the associated state contains a value.

bool valid() const;

Returns: true only if *this refers to an associated state.
```

void wait() const;

Effects: if the associated state contains a deferred function, executes the deferred function. Otherwise, blocks until *this the associated state is ready.

Synchronization: if *this is associated with a promise object, the completion of `set_value()` or `set_exception()` to that promise happens before (1.10) `wait()` returns. [Editor’s note: N2996 adds a sentence to this paragraph. Since N9997 deletes it, I haven’t made the change.]

Postcondition: `is_ready()` == true

```cpp
template <class Rep, class Period>
bool wait_for(const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time) const;

Effects: if the associated state contains a deferred function, the behavior is unspecified. Otherwise, blocks until *this the associated state is ready or until rel_time has elapsed.
```
template <class Clock, class Duration>
bool wait_until(const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time) const;

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Effects: blocks until the associated state is ready or until the current time exceeds abs_time.

Returns: true only if the associated state is ready.

§ 30.6.8  Class template atomic_future

[Editor's note: N2997 added atomic_future. N2996 made various changes to future and shared_future, but ignored atomic_future. I have not made analogous changes to atomic_future.]

The class template atomic_future defines a type for asynchronous return objects. An atomic_future object can only be created by use of a promise (30.6.5) or packaged_task (30.6.10) object. Its value or exception can be set by use of a promise object that shares the same associated state.

Unlike future and shared_future, member functions of atomic_future other than constructors and destructors are synchronization operations (1.10). Accessor member functions perform acquire operations on the object. All member function calls shall be included in the order of memory_order_seq_cst operations (29.3).

namespace std {
  template <class R>
  class atomic_future {
    public:
      atomic_future();
      atomic_future(const atomic_future& rhs);
      atomic_future(future<R>&&);  
      ~atomic_future();
      atomic_future& operator=(const atomic_future& rhs);

      // retrieving the value
      see below get() const;

      // functions to check state and wait for ready
      bool is_ready() const;
      bool has_exception() const;
      bool has_value() const;
      bool valid() const;

      void wait() const;
      template <class Rep, class Period>
        bool wait_for(const chrono::duration<Rep, Period>& rel_time) const;
      template <class Clock, class Duration>
        bool wait_until(const chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>& abs_time) const;
    };

  atomic_future();

  Effects: constructs an empty atomic_future object that does not refer to an associated state.

  Postcondition: valid() == false.
atomic_future(const atomic_future& rhs);

Effects: constructs an atomic_future object that refers to the same associated state as rhs (if any).

Postcondition: valid() == rhs.valid().

atomic_future(atomic_future&& rhs);

Effects: constructs an atomic_future object that refers to the associated state that was originally referred to by rhs (if any).

Postcondition:
— valid() returns the same value as rhs.valid() returned prior to the constructor invocation.
— rhs.valid() == false.

~atomic_future();

Effects:
— gives up the reference to its associated state.
— destroys *this.

atomic_future& operator=(const atomic_future& rhs);

Precondition: valid() == false.

Effects: assigns the contents of rhs to *this. [Note: as a result, *this refers to the same associated state as rhs (if any) after the assignment. — end note]

Synchronization: the assignment performs an acquire operation on rhs and a release operation on the left-hand side. [Editor’s note: does "the left-hand side" mean *this?]

Postcondition: valid() == rhs.valid().

Throws: future_error with an error condition of no_state if the precondition is not met.

const R& atomic_future::get() const;
R& atomic_future<R&>::get() const;
void atomic_future<void>::get() const;

Note: as described above, the template and its two required specializations differ only in the return type and return value of the member function get.

Precondition: valid() == true.

Effects: wait()s until the associated state is ready, then retrieves the value stored in the associated state.

Returns:
— atomic_future::get() returns a const reference to the value stored in the object’s associated state.
— atomic_future<R&>::get() returns the reference stored as value in the object’s associated state.
— atomic_future<void>::get() returns nothing.

Throws: the exception in the object’s associated state if an exception was stored there or a future_error exception object with an error condition of no_state if the precondition is not met. [Note: unlike future, calling get more than once on the same atomic_future object is well defined and produces the result again.

§ 30.6.8
bool is_ready() const;
17
    \textit{Precondition:} valid() == true.
18
    \textit{Returns:} true only if the associated state is ready.

bool has_exception() const;
19
    \textit{Returns:} true only if the associated state is ready and contains an exception.

bool has_value() const;
20
    \textit{Returns:} true only if the associated state is ready and contains a value.

bool valid() const;
21
    \textit{Returns:} true only if \texttt{*this} refers to an associated state.

void wait() const;
22
    \textit{Effects:} blocks until the associated state is ready.

template <\texttt{class Rep, class period}> 
bool wait_for(const \texttt{chrono::duration<Rep, Period>&} \texttt{rel\_time}) const;
23
    \textit{Effects:} blocks until the associated state is ready or until \texttt{rel\_time} has elapsed.
24
    \textit{Returns:} true only if the associated state is ready.

template <\texttt{class Clock, class Duration}> 
bool wait_until(const \texttt{chrono::time_point<Clock, Duration>&} \texttt{abs\_time}) const;
25
    \textit{Effects:} blocks until the associated state is ready or until the current time exceeds \texttt{abs\_time}.
26
    \textit{Returns:} true only if the associated state is ready.

30.6.9 Function template \texttt{async} \hfill [\texttt{futures.async}]

\texttt{template <\texttt{class F, class... Args}>}
future<typename \texttt{F::result\_type}> 
\texttt{async(F&& f, Args&&... args);} 
\texttt{template <\texttt{class F, class... Args}>}
future<typename \texttt{F::result\_type}> 
\texttt{launch\_policy, async(F&& f, Args&&... args);} 
\texttt{Requires:} \texttt{F} and each \texttt{Ti} in \texttt{Args} shall be \texttt{CopyConstructible} if an \texttt{lvalue} and otherwise \texttt{MoveConstructible}. 
[Editor's note: Is this correct? \texttt{F} and \texttt{Ti} are types; can a type be an \texttt{lvalue}?] \texttt{INVOKE(f, w1, w2, \ldots, wN)} \hfill (20.7.2) shall be a valid expression for some values \texttt{w1, w2, \ldots, wN}, where \texttt{N == sizeof...(Args)}.
1
\texttt{Returns:} an object of type \texttt{future<typename F::result\_type>}. The first function behaves the same as a call to the second function with a \texttt{policy} argument of \texttt{launch::any} and the same arguments for \texttt{F} and \texttt{Args}. The behavior of the second function depends on the \texttt{policy} argument as follows:

- \texttt{launch::async} — executes \texttt{INVOKE(f, w1, w2, \ldots, wN)} as if in a new thread of execution represented by a \texttt{thread} object. Any return value is captured by the \texttt{future} object. Any exception propagated from \texttt{f} is captured by the \texttt{future} object. The \texttt{thread} object is associated with the \texttt{future} object and affects the behavior of the \texttt{future} object.
— `launch::sync` — `INVOKE(f, w1, w2, ..., wN)` is associated with the `future` object. [Editor's note: What does it mean for `INVOKE` to be associated with a `future` object?] The invocation is said to be deferred.

— `launch::any` — the implementation may choose either either policy above at any call to `async`. [Note: implementations should defer invocations when no more concurrency can be effectively exploited. — end note]

**Synchronization:** the invocation of the `async` [Editor's note: what is “the async”?] happens before (1.10) the invocation of `f`. [Note: this statement applies even when the corresponding `future` object is moved to another thread. — end note]

**Throws:** `system_error` if policy is `launch::async` and the implementation is unable to start a new thread.

**Error conditions:**

— `resource_unavailable_try_again` — if policy is `launch::async` and either the system lacked the necessary resources to create another thread or the system-imposed limit on the number of threads in a process would be exceeded. [Editor's note: Is this intended to say something different from the Throws requirement? If not, don’t say it two different ways.]

**Example:**
```
int work1(int value);
int work2(int value);
int work(int value) {
    auto handle = std::async([=]{ return work2(value); });
    int tmp = work1(value);
    return tmp + handle.get();  // #1
}
```

[Note: line #1 might not result in concurrency because `get()` can be evaluated before `work1(value)`, forcing `work2(value)` to be evaluated before `work1(value)`. — end note] — end example

### 30.6.10 Class template packaged_task

[ futures.task ]

1  The class template `packaged_task` defines a type for wrapping a function or callable object so that the return value of the function or callable object is stored in a future when it is invoked. The associated state of a `packaged_task` object includes storage for a copy of this associated task.

2  When the `packaged_task` object is invoked, its associated task is invoked and the result (whether normal or exceptional) stored in the associated state. Any futures that share the associated state will then be able to access the stored result.

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<class> class packaged_task; // undefined

    template<class R, class... ArgTypes>
    class packaged_task<R(ArgTypes...)>{
        public:
            typedef R result_type;

            // construction and destruction
            packaged_task();
            template <class F>
                explicit packaged_task(F f);
`
template <class F, class Allocator>
    explicit packaged_task(allocation_arg_t, const Allocator& a, F f);
explicit packaged_task(R(*f)(ArgTypes...));
template <class F>
    explicit packaged_task(F&& f);
template <class F, class Allocator>
    explicit packaged_task(allocation_arg_t, const Allocator& a, F&& f);

    ~packaged_task();

    // no copy
    packaged_task& operator=(packaged_task&) = delete;
    packaged_task& operator=(packaged_task&&) = delete;

    // move support
    packaged_task(packaged_task&& other);
    packaged_task& operator=(packaged_task&& other);
    void swap(packaged_task& other);

    explicit operator bool() const;

    // result retrieval
    unique_future<R> get_future();

    // execution
    void operator()(ArgTypes...);
    void reset();

    template <class R, class Alloc>
    struct uses_allocator<packaged_task<R>, Alloc>;

    template <class R, class Alloc>
    struct uses_allocator<packaged_task<R>, Alloc>;

    Requires: Alloc shall be an Allocator (20.2.2).

    packaged_task();

    Effects: constructs a packaged_task object with no associated state or task.

    Throws: nothing.

    template <class F>
    packaged_task(F f);

    template <class F, class Allocator>
    explicit packaged_task(allocation_arg_t, const Allocator& a, F f);
    packaged_task(R(*f)(ArgTypes...));

    template <class F>
    packaged_task(F&& f);

    template <class F, class Allocator>
    explicit packaged_task(allocation_arg_t, const Allocator& a, F&& f);

    Preconditions: f() shall be a valid expression with a return type convertible to R. Invoking a copy of f shall behave the same as invoking f.
INVOKE(f, t1, t2, ..., tN, R), where t1, t2, ..., tN are values of the corresponding types in ArgTypes..., shall be a valid expression. Invoking a copy of f shall behave the same as invoking f.

Effects: constructs a new packaged_task object with a copy of f stored as in the object’s associated state as the object’s associated task. The constructors that take an Allocator argument use it to allocate memory needed to store the internal data structures.

Throws: any exceptions thrown by the copy or move constructor of f, or std::bad_alloc if memory for the internal data structures could not be allocated.

packaged_task(packaged_task&& other);

Effects: constructs a new packaged_task object and transfers ownership of other’s associated task state to *this, leaving other with no associated task state.

Postcondition: other has no associated state.

Throws: nothing.

packaged_task& operator=(packaged_task&& other);

Effects: transfers ownership of other’s associated task to *this, leaving other with no associated task. If *this had an associated task on entry to this function and that task had not been invoked, sets any futures associated with that task to ready with a future_error exception and an error code of broken.promise as the result.

Effects: packaged_task<R, ArgTypes...>(other).swap(*this).

Throws: nothing.

~packaged_task();

Effects: destroys *this. If *this had an associated task and that task had not been invoked, sets any futures associated with that task to ready with a future_error exception and an error code of broken.promise as the result.

Effects: if the state associated with *this is not ready, stores an exception object of type future_error with an error code of broken.promise. Any threads blocked in a member function of future, shared_future, or atomic_future waiting for the state associated with *this to become ready are unblocked. Destroys *this and releases its reference to its associated state (if any). If this is the last reference to that associated state, destroys that state.

Throws: nothing.

void swap(packaged_task& other);

Effects: exchanges the associated states of *this and other.

Postcondition: *this has the same associated state (if any) as other prior to the call to swap. other has the same associated state (if any) as *this prior to the call to swap.

Throws: nothing.

explicit operator bool() const;

Returns: true only if *this has an associated task state.

Throws: nothing.

unique_future<R> get_future();
Returns: a `unique_future` object that shares the same associated state as `*this`, associated with the result of the associated task of `*this`.

Throws: `std::bad_function_call` if the future associated with the task has already been retrieved.

Throws: a `future_error` object if an error occurs.

Error conditions:

- `future_already_retrieved` if `get_future` has already been called on a `packaged_task` object with the same associated state as `*this`.
- `no_state` if `*this` has no associated state.

```cpp
void operator()(ArgTypes... args);
```

Effects: `INVOKE(f, t1, t2, ..., tN, R)`, where `f` is the task in the associated task state of `*this` and `t1, t2, ..., tN` are the values in `args`... If the task returns normally, the return value is stored as the asynchronous result in the state associated with `*this`, otherwise the exception thrown by the task is stored. The state associated with `*this` is made ready, and any threads blocked in a member function of `future, shared_future, or atomic_future` waiting for the state associated with `*this` to become ready are unblocked. Any threads blocked waiting for the asynchronous result associated with the task are unblocked.

Postcondition: all futures waiting on the asynchronous result are ready.

Throws: `std::bad_function_call` if the task has already been invoked.

Throws: a `future_error` exception object if there is no associated state or the task has already been invoked.

Error conditions:

- `no_state` if `*this` has no associated state.
- `promise_already_satisfied` if the associated state is already ready.

Synchronization: a successful call to `operator()` synchronizes with (1.10) a call to any member function of a `future, shared_future, or atomic_future` object that shares the same associated state as `*this`. The completion of the invocation of the associated task and the storage of the result (whether normal or exceptional) into the associated state happens-before (1.10) the state is set to ready. [Note: `operator()` synchronizes and serializes with other function through the associated state. — end note]

```cpp
void reset();
```

Effects: returns the object to a state as if a newly-constructed instance had just been assigned to `*this` by `*this = packaged_task(std::move(f))`, where `f` is the task stored in the associated task state of `*this`. [Note: this constructs a new associated state for `*this`. The old state is discarded, as described in the destructor for `packaged_task`. `get_future` may now be called again for `*this`. — end note] If `*this` already had an associated task and that task had not been invoked, sets any futures associated with that task to ready with a `future_error` exception and an error code of `broken_promise` as the result. `get_future()` may now be called again for `*this`.

Postcondition: `*this` has no associated futures. If `*this` had an associated task, then the new associated task is a copy of the old associated task.

Throws: `std::bad_alloc` if memory for the internal data structures of the new asynchronous result could not be allocated.
Throws:

— bad_alloc if memory for the new associated state could not be allocated.
— any exception thrown by the copy constructor of the task stored in the associated state.
— future_error with an error condition of no_state if *this has no associated state.
Annex A  (informative)
Grammar summary

This summary of C++ syntax is intended to be an aid to comprehension. It is not an exact statement of the language. In particular, the grammar described here accepts a superset of valid C++ constructs. Disambiguation rules (6.8, 7.1, 10.2) must be applied to distinguish expressions from declarations. Further, access control, ambiguity, and type rules must be used to weed out syntactically valid but meaningless constructs.

A.1 Keywords

New context-dependent keywords are introduced into a program by typedef (7.1.3), namespace (7.3.1), class (clause 9), enumeration (7.2), and template (clause 14) declarations.

typedef-name:
    identifier
namespace-name:
    original-namespace-name
    namespace-alias
original-namespace-name:
    identifier
namespace-alias:
    identifier
class-name:
    identifier
template-id
type
enum-name:
    identifier
template-name:
    identifier

Note that a typedef-name naming a class is also a class-name (9.1).

A.2 Lexical conventions

hex-quad:
    hexadecimal-digit hexadecimal-digit hexadecimal-digit hexadecimal-digit
universal-character-name:
    \u hex-quad
    \U hex-quad hex-quad
preprocessing-token:
  header-name
  identifier
  pp-number
  character-literal
  user-defined-character-literal
  string-literal
  user-defined-string-literal
  preprocessing-op-or-punc
  each non-white-space character that cannot be one of the above

token:
  identifier
  keyword
  literal
  operator
  punctuator

header-name:
  < h-char-sequence >
  " q-char-sequence "

h-char-sequence:
  h-char
  h-char-sequence h-char

h-char:
  any member of the source character set except new-line and >

q-char-sequence:
  q-char
  q-char-sequence q-char

q-char:
  any member of the source character set except new-line and "

pp-number:
  digit
  . digit
  pp-number digit
  pp-number identifier-nondigit
  pp-number e sign
  pp-number E sign
  pp-number .

identifier:
  identifier-nondigit
  identifier identifier-nondigit
  identifier digit

identifier-nondigit:
  nondigit
  universal-character-name
  other implementation-defined characters

nondigit: one of
  a b c d e f g h i j k l m
  n o p q r s t u v w x y z
  A B C D E F G H I J K L M
  N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z

digit: one of
  0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
preprocessing-op-or-punc:  one of
{ } [ ] # ## ( )
<: :> <\% >\% : \%: ; ;: : ... 
new delete ? :: . .*
+ - * / \% - & | ~
! = < > += -= *= /= \%=
-= &\& |\| << >>= \|\|=
and and_eq bitand bitor compl not not_eq
or or_eq xor xor_eq

literal:
  integer-literal
  character-literal
  floating-literal
  string-literal
  boolean-literal
  pointer-literal
  user-defined-literal

integer-literal:
  decimal-literal integer-suffix\textsubscript{opt}
  octal-literal integer-suffix\textsubscript{opt}
  hexadecimal-literal integer-suffix\textsubscript{opt}

decimal-literal:
  nonzero-digit
  decimal-literal digit

octal-literal:
  0
  octal-literal octal-digit

hexadecimal-literal:
  0x hexadecimal-digit
  0X hexadecimal-digit
  hexadecimal-literal hexadecimal-digit

nonzero-digit: one of
  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
octal-digit: one of
  0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
hexadecimal-digit: one of
  0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
  a b c d e f
  A B C D E F

integer-suffix:
  unsigned-suffix long-suffix\textsubscript{opt}
  unsigned-suffix long-long-suffix\textsubscript{opt}
  long-suffix unsigned-suffix\textsubscript{opt}
  long-long-suffix unsigned-suffix\textsubscript{opt}

unsigned-suffix: one of
  u U
long-suffix: one of
  L
long-long-suffix: one of
  LL
character-literal:
  ' c-char-sequence '
  u' c-char-sequence '  
  U' c-char-sequence '  
  L' c-char-sequence '

c-char-sequence:
  c-char
  c-char-sequence c-char

c-char:
  any member of the source character set except
    the single-quote ' , backslash \, or new-line character
escape-sequence
universal-character-name

escape-sequence:
  simple-escape-sequence
  octal-escape-sequence
  hexadecimal-escape-sequence

simple-escape-sequence: one of
  \  \n  \t  \r  \v  \a  \b  \f  \n  \r  \t  \v

octal-escape-sequence:
  \ octal-digit
  \ octal-digit octal-digit
  \ octal-digit octal-digit octal-digit

hexadecimal-escape-sequence:
  \x hexadecimal-digit
  hexadecimal-escape-sequence hexadecimal-digit

floating-literal:
  fractional-constant exponent-part opt floating-suffix opt
digit-sequence exponent-part opt floating-suffix opt

fractional-constant:
  digit-sequence opt . digit-sequence
digit-sequence .

exponent-part:
  e sign opt digit-sequence
  E sign opt digit-sequence

sign: one of
  + -

digit-sequence:
  digit
  digit-sequence digit

floating-suffix: one of
  f l F L
string-literal:
  " s-char-sequence opt "
  \u8 " s-char-sequence opt "
  \u " s-char-sequence opt "
  \U " s-char-sequence opt "
  \L " s-char-sequence opt "
  R raw-string
  \u8R raw-string
  \uR raw-string
  \UR raw-string
  encoding-prefix opt " s-char-sequence opt "
  encoding-prefix opt R raw-string

encoding-prefix:
  \u8
  \u
  \U
  \L

s-char-sequence:
  s-char
  s-char-sequence s-char

s-char:
  any member of the source character set except
    the double-quote \", backslash \, or new-line character
  escape-sequence
  universal-character-name

raw-string:
  " d-char-sequence opt [ r-char-sequence opt ] d-char-sequence opt "

r-char-sequence:
  r-char
  r-char-sequence r-char

r-char:
  any member of the source character set, except
    (1), a backslash \ followed by a \u or \U, or
    (2), a right square bracket ] followed by the initial d-char-sequence
    (which may be empty) followed by a double quote \".
  universal-character-name

d-char-sequence:
  d-char
  d-char-sequence d-char

d-char:
  any member of the basic source character set except:
    space, the left square bracket [, the right square bracket ],
    and the control characters representing horizontal tab,
    vertical tab, form feed, and newline.

boolean-literal:
  false
  true

pointer-literal:
  nullptr
user-defined-literal:
  user-defined-integer-literal
  user-defined-floating-literal
  user-defined-string-literal
  user-defined-character-literal

user-defined-integer-literal:
  decimal-literal ud-suffix
  octal-literal ud-suffix
  hexadecimal-literal ud-suffix

user-defined-floating-literal:
  fractional-constant exponent-part opt ud-suffix
  digit-sequence exponent-part ud-suffix

user-defined-string-literal:
  string-literal ud-suffix

user-defined-character-literal:
  character-literal ud-suffix

ud-suffix:
  identifier

A.3 Basic concepts

translation-unit:
  declaration-seq opt

A.4 Expressions

primary-expression:
  literal
  this
  ( expression )
  id-expression
  lambda-expression

id-expression:
  unqualified-id
  qualified-id

unqualified-id:
  identifier
  operator-function-id
  conversion-function-id
  literal-operator-id
  ~ class-name
  template-id

qualified-id:
  :: opt nested-name-specifier template opt unqualified-id
  :: identifier
  :: operator-function-id
  :: literal-operator-id
  :: template-id
nested-name-specifier:
  type-name ::
  namespace-name ::
  nested-name-specifier identifier ::
  nested-name-specifier template_opt simple-template-id ::

lambda-expression:
  lambda-introducer lambda-parameter-declaration, lambda-declarator_opt compound-statement

lambda-introducer:
  [ lambda-capture_opt ]

lambda-capture:
  capture-default
  capture-list
  capture-default, capture-list

capture-default:
  &
  =
capture-list:
  capture
  capture-list, capture

capture:
  identifier
  & identifier
  this

lambda-declarator:
  ( parameter-declaration-clause ) attribute-specifier_opt mutable_opt
  exception-specification_opt trailing-return-type_opt

postfix-expression:
  primary-expression
  postfix-expression [ expression ]
  postfix-expression [ braced-init-list ]
  postfix-expression ( expression-list_opt )
  simple-type-specifier ( expression-list_opt )
  typename-specifier ( expression-list_opt )
  simple-type-specifier braced-init-list
  typename-specifier braced-init-list
  postfix-expression . template_opt id-expression
  postfix-expression -> template_opt id-expression
  postfix-expression . pseudo-destructor-name
  postfix-expression -> pseudo-destructor-name
  postfix-expression ++
  postfix-expression --
  dynamic_cast < type-id > ( expression )
  static_cast < type-id > ( expression )
  reinterpret_cast < type-id > ( expression )
  const_cast < type-id > ( expression )
  typeid ( expression )
  typeid ( type-id )

expression-list:
  initializer-list

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pseudo-destructor-name:
   :: opt nested-name-specifier opt type-name :: ~ type-name
   :: opt nested-name-specifier template simple-template-id :: ~ type-name
   :: opt nested-name-specifier opt ~ type-name

unary-expression:
   postfix-expression
   ++ cast-expression
   -- cast-expression
   unary-operator cast-expression
   sizeof unary-expression
   sizeof ( type-id )
   sizeof ... ( identifier )
   alignof ( type-id )
   new-expression
   delete-expression

unary-operator: one of
   * & + - ! ~

new-expression:
   :: opt new new-placement opt new-type-id new-initializer opt
   :: opt new new-placement opt ( type-id ) new-initializer opt

ew-placements:
   ( expression-list )

new-type-id:
   type-specifier-seq new-declarator opt

new-declarator:
   ptr-operator new-declarator opt
   noptr-new-declarator

noptr-new-declarator:
   [ expression ]
   noptr-new-declarator [ constant-expression ]

new-initializer:
   ( expression-list opt )
   braced-init-list

delete-expression:
   :: opt delete cast-expression
   :: opt delete [ ] cast-expression

cast-expression:
   unary-expression
   ( type-id ) cast-expression

pm-expression:
   cast-expression
   pm-expression . * cast-expression
   pm-expression . ->* cast-expression

multiplicative-expression:
   pm-expression
   multiplicative-expression * pm-expression
   multiplicative-expression / pm-expression
   multiplicative-expression % pm-expression

§ A.4 1156
additive-expression:
  multiplicative-expression
additive-expression + multiplicative-expression
additive-expression - multiplicative-expression

shift-expression:
  additive-expression
  shift-expression << additive-expression
  shift-expression >> additive-expression

relational-expression:
  shift-expression
  relational-expression < shift-expression
  relational-expression > shift-expression
  relational-expression <= shift-expression
  relational-expression >= shift-expression

equality-expression:
  relational-expression
  equality-expression == relational-expression
  equality-expression != relational-expression

and-expression:
  equality-expression
  and-expression & equality-expression

exclusive-or-expression:
  and-expression
  exclusive-or-expression ^ and-expression

inclusive-or-expression:
  exclusive-or-expression
  inclusive-or-expression | exclusive-or-expression

logical-and-expression:
  inclusive-or-expression
  logical-and-expression && inclusive-or-expression

logical-or-expression:
  logical-and-expression
  logical-or-expression || logical-and-expression

conditional-expression:
  logical-or-expression
  logical-or-expression ? expression : assignment-expression

assignment-expression:
  conditional-expression
  logical-or-expression assignment-operator initializer-clause

assignment-operator: one of
  = += -= *= /= %= += -= >>>= <<= &= ^= |=

expression:
  assignment-expression
  expression , assignment-expression

constant-expression:
  conditional-expression

§ A.4
A.5 Statements

statement:
  labeled-statement
  attribute-specifier<opt> expression-statement
  attribute-specifier<opt> compound-statement
  attribute-specifier<opt> selection-statement
  attribute-specifier<opt> iteration-statement
  attribute-specifier<opt> jump-statement
  declaration-statement
  attribute-specifier<opt> try-block

labeled-statement:
  attribute-specifier<opt> identifier : statement
  attribute-specifier<opt> case constant-expression : statement
  attribute-specifier<opt> default : statement

expression-statement:
  expression<opt> ;

compound-statement:
  { statement-seq<opt> }

statement-seq:
  statement
  statement-seq statement

selection-statement:
  if ( condition ) statement
  if ( condition ) statement else statement
  switch ( condition ) statement

condition:
  expression
  type-specifier-seq attribute-specifier<opt> declarator = initializer-clause
  type-specifier-seq attribute-specifier<opt> declarator braced-init-list

iteration-statement:
  while ( condition ) statement
  do statement while ( expression ) ;
  for ( for-init-statement condition<opt> ; expression<opt> ) statement
  for ( for-range-declaration : expression ) statement

for-init-statement:
  expression-statement
  simple-declaration

for-range-declaration:
  type-specifier-seq attribute-specifier<opt> declarator

jump-statement:
  break ;
  continue ;
  return expression<opt> ;
  return braced-init-list ;
  goto identifier ;

declaration-statement:
  block-declaration
A.6 Declarations

declaration-seq:
  declaration
  declaration-seq declaration

declaration:
  block-declaration
  function-definition
  template-declaration
  explicit-instantiation
  explicit-specialization
  linkage-specification
  namespace-definition
  empty-declaration
  attribute-declaration

block-declaration:
  simple-declaration
  asm-definition
  namespace-alias-definition
  using-declaration
  using-directive
  static_assert-declaration
  alias-declaration
  opaque-enum-declaration

alias-declaration:
  using identifier = type-id ;

simple-declaration:
  attribute-specifier_opt decl-specifier-seq_opt attribute-specifier_opt init-declarator-list_opt ;

static_assert-declaration:
  static_assert ( constant-expression , string-literal ) ;

empty-declaration:
  ;

attribute-declaration:
  attribute-specifier ;

decl-specifier:
  storage-class-specifier
  type-specifier
  function-specifier
  friend
  typedef
  constexpr

decl-specifier-seq:
  decl-specifier-seq_opt decl-specifier

storage-class-specifier:
  register
  static
  thread_local
  extern
  mutable
function-specifier:
    inline
    virtual
    explicit
typedef-name:
    identifier
type-specifier:
    trailing-type-specifier
class-specifier
enum-specifier
    trailing-type-specifier:
    simple-type-specifier
    elaborated-type-specifier
typename-specifier
cv-qualifier
type-specifier-seq:
    type-specifier type-specifier-seq opt
    trailing-type-specifier-seq:
    trailing-type-specifier trailing-type-specifier-seq opt
simple-type-specifier:
    :: opt nested-name-specifier opt type-name
    :: opt nested-name-specifier template simple-template-id
class
char
char16_t
char32_t
wchar_t
bool
short
int
long
signed
unsigned
float
double
void
auto
decltype ( expression )
type-name:
    class-name
    enum-name
typedef-name
elaborated-type-specifier:
    class-key :: opt nested-name-specifier opt identifier
class-key :: opt nested-name-specifier opt template opt simple-template-id
elem :: opt nested-name-specifier opt identifier
enum-name:
    identifier
elem-specifier:
    enum-head { enumerator-list opt }
    enum-head { enumerator-list , }  

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enum-head:
  enum-key identifier opt attribute-specifier opt enum-base opt attribute-specifier opt
  enum-key nested-name-specifier identifier
  attribute-specifier opt enum-base opt attribute-specifier opt

opaque-enum-declaration:
  enum-key identifier attribute-specifier opt enum-base opt attribute-specifier opt ;

enum-key:
  enum
  enum class
  enum struct
enum-base:
  : type-specifier-seq
enumerator-list:
  enumerator-definition
  enumerator-list , enumerator-definition
enumerator-definition:
  enumerator
  enumerator = constant-expression
enumerator:
  identifier
namespace-name:
  original-namespace-name
  namespace-alias
original-namespace-name:
  identifier
namespace-definition:
  named-namespace-definition
  unnamed-namespace-definition
named-namespace-definition:
  original-namespace-definition
  extension-namespace-definition
original-namespace-definition:
  inline opt namespace identifier { namespace-body }
extension-namespace-definition:
  inline opt namespace original-namespace-name { namespace-body }
unnamed-namespace-definition:
  inline opt namespace { namespace-body }
namespace-body:
  declaration-seq opt
namespace-alias:
  identifier
namespace-alias-definition:
  namespace identifier = qualified-name-specifier ;
qualified-name-specifier:
  :: opt nested-name-specifier opt namespace-name
using-declaration:
  using typename opt :: opt nested-name-specifier unqualified-id ;
  using :: unqualified-id ;
using-directive:
  attribute-specifier\textsubscript{opt} using namespace ::\textsubscript{opt} nested-name-specifier\textsubscript{opt} namespace-name ;

asm-definition:
  asm ( string-literal ) ;

linkage-specification:
  extern string-literal { declaration-seq\textsubscript{opt} }
  extern string-literal declaration

attribute-specifier:
  [[ attribute-list ]]

attribute-list:
  attribute\textsubscript{opt}
  attribute-list , attribute\textsubscript{opt}
  attribute . .
  attribute-list , attribute . .

attribute:
  attribute-token attribute-argument-clause\textsubscript{opt}

attribute-token:
  identifier
  attribute-scoped-token

attribute-scoped-token:
  attribute-namespace :: identifier

attribute-namespace:
  identifier

attribute-argument-clause:
  ( balanced-token-seq )

balanced-token-seq:
  balanced-token
  balanced-token-seq balanced-token

balanced-token:
  ( balanced-token-seq )
  [ balanced-token-seq ]
  \{ balanced-token-seq \}

any token other than a parenthesis, a bracket, or a brace

\section{Declarators} \label{gram.decl}

init-declarator-list:
  init-declarator
  init-declarator-list , init-declarator

init-declarator:
  declarator initializer\textsubscript{opt}

declarator:
  ptr-declarator
  noptr-declarator parameters-and-qualifiers trailing-return-type

ptr-declarator:
  noptr-declarator
  ptr-operator ptr-declarator
noptr-declarator:
  declarator-id attribute-specifier_opt
  noptr-declarator parameters-and-qualifiers
  noptr-declarator [ constant-expression_opt ] attribute-specifier_opt
  ( ptr-declarator )

parameters-and-qualifiers:
  ( parameter-declaration-clause ) attribute-specifier_opt cv-qualifier-seq_opt
  ref-qualifier_opt exception-specification_opt

trailing-return-type:
  -> attribute-specifier_opt trailing-type-specifier-seq
  -> attribute-specifier_opt abstract-declarator_opt

ptr-operator:
  * attribute-specifier_opt cv-qualifier-seq_opt
  &
  &&
    :: opt nested-name-specifier * attribute-specifier_opt cv-qualifier-seq_opt

cv-qualifier-seq:
  cv-qualifier cv-qualifier-seq_opt

cv-qualifier:
  const
  volatile

ref-qualifier:
  &
  &&

declarator-id:
  ... opt id-expression
  :: opt nested-name-specifier_opt class-name

type-id:
  type-specifier-seq attribute-specifier_opt abstract-declarator_opt

abstract-declarator:
  ptr-abstract-declarator
  noptr-abstract-declarator_opt parameters-and-qualifiers trailing-return-type...

ptr-abstract-declarator:
  noptr-abstract-declarator
  ptr-operator ptr-abstract-declarator_opt

noptr-abstract-declarator:
  noptr-abstract-declarator_opt parameters-and-qualifiers
  noptr-abstract-declarator_opt [ constant-expression ] attribute-specifier_opt
  ( ptr-abstract-declarator )

parameter-declaration-clause:
  parameter-declaration-list_opt ... opt
  parameter-declaration-list , ...

parameter-declaration-list:
  parameter-declaration
  parameter-declaration-list , parameter-declaration

parameter-declaration:
  decl-specifier-seq attribute-specifier_opt declarator
  decl-specifier-seq attribute-specifier_opt declarator = assignment-expression
  decl-specifier-seq attribute-specifier_opt abstract-declarator_opt
  decl-specifier-seq attribute-specifier_opt abstract-declarator_opt = assignment-expression

§ A.7 1163
function-definition:
    decl-specifier-seq_opt attribute-specifier_opt declarator function-body
    decl-specifier-seq_opt attribute-specifier_opt declarator = default ;
    decl-specifier-seq_opt attribute-specifier_opt declarator = delete ;

function-body:
    ctor-initializer_opt compound-statement
    function-try-block

initializer:
    brace-or-equal-initializer
    ( expression-list )

brace-or-equal-initializer:
    = initializer-clause
    braced-init-list

initializer-clause:
    assignment-expression
    braced-init-list

initializer-list:
    initializer-clause ...
    initializer-list , initializer-clause ...

braced-init-list:
    { initializer-list ,opt }
    { }

A.8 Classes

[gram.class]

class-name:
    identifier
    simple-template-id

class-specifier:
    class-head { member-specification_opt }

class-head:
    class-key identifier_opt attribute-specifier_opt base-clause_opt
    class-key nested-name-specifier identifier attribute-specifier_opt base-clause_opt
    class-key nested-name-specifier_opt simple-template-id attribute-specifier_opt base-clause_opt

class-key:
    class
    struct
    union

member-specification:
    member-declaration member-specification_opt
    access-specifier : member-specification_opt

member-declaration:
    decl-specifier-seq_opt
    attribute-specifier_opt member-declarator-list_opt ;
    function-definition ;opt
    ::opt nested-name-specifier template_opt unqualified-id ;
    using-declaration
    static_assert-declaration
    template-declaration

member-declarator-list:
    member-declarator
    member-declarator-list , member-declarator

§ A.8
A.9 Derived classes

base-clause:
  : base-specifier-list

base-specifier-list:
  base-specifier ... opt
  base-specifier-list , base-specifier ... opt

base-specifier:
  :: opt nested-name-specifier opt class-name attribute-specifier opt
  virtual access-specifier opt :: opt nested-name-specifier opt class-name attribute-specifier opt
  access-specifier virtual opt :: opt nested-name-specifier opt class-name attribute-specifier opt

access-specifier:
  private
  protected
  public

A.10 Special member functions

conversion-function-id:
  operator conversion-type-id

conversion-type-id:
  type-specifier-seq attribute-specifier opt conversion-declarator opt

conversion-declarator:
  ptr-operator conversion-declarator opt

cTOR-initializer:
  : mem-initializer-list

mem-initializer-list:
  mem-initializer ... opt
  mem-initializer , mem-initializer-list ... opt

mem-initializer:
  mem-initializer-id ( expression-list opt )
  mem-initializer-id braced-init-list

mem-initializer-id:
  :: opt nested-name-specifier opt class-name
  identifier

A.11 Overloading

operator-function-id:
  operator operator
operator: one of
new delete new[] delete[]
+ - * / % -= *= & | = < > += -= *= /= %=
ˆ = &= |= <<= >>= <<= == !=
≤ > = >= && || ++ -- , ->* ->
() []
literal-operator-id:
operator "" identifier

A.12 Templates

[gram.temp]
template-declaration:
export_opt template < template-parameter-list > declaration
template-parameter-list:
template-parameter
template-parameter-list , template-parameter
template-parameter:
type-parameter
parameter-declaration
type-parameter:
class ... opt identifier_opt
class identifier_opt = type-id
typename ... opt identifier_opt
typename identifier_opt = type-id
template < template-parameter-list > class ... opt identifier_opt
template < template-parameter-list > class identifier_opt = id-expression

simple-template-id:
template-name < template-argument-list_opt >
template-id:
simple-template-id
operator-function-id < template-argument-list_opt >
literal-operator-id < template-argument-list_opt >
template-name:
identifier
template-argument-list:
template-argument ... opt
template-argument-list , template-argument ... opt
template-argument:
constant-expression
type-id
id-expression
typename-specifier:
typename :: opt nested-name-specifier identifier
typename :: opt nested-name-specifier template_opt simple-template-id
explicit-instantiation:
extern_opt template declaration
explicit-specialization:
template < > declaration
A.13 Exception handling

```
try-block:
  try compound-statement handler-seq
function-try-block:
  try ctor-initializer_opt compound-statement handler-seq
handler-seq:
  handler handler-seq_opt
handler:
  catch ( exception-declaration ) compound-statement
exception-declaration:
  type-specifier-seq declarator
  type-specifier-seq abstract-declarator
  type-specifier-seq
...
throw-expression:
  throw assignment-expression_opt
exception-specification
  throw ( type-id-list_opt )
type-id-list:
  type-id ... opt
  type-id-list , type-id ... opt
```

A.14 Preprocessing directives

```
preprocessing-file:
  group_opt
group:
  group-part
  group group-part
group-part:
  if-section
  control-line
  text-line
  # non-directive
if-section:
  if-group elif-groups_opt else-group_opt endif-line
if-group:
  # if constant-expression new-line group_opt
  # ifdef identifier new-line group_opt
  # ifndef identifier new-line group_opt
elif-groups:
  elif-group
  elif-groups elif-group
elif-group:
  # elif constant-expression new-line group_opt
else-group:
  # else new-line group_opt
```
`endif-line:
  # endif new-line`

`control-line:
# include pp-tokens new-line
# define identifier replacement-list new-line
# define identifier lparen identifier-list_opt ) replacement-list new-line
# define identifier lparen ... ) replacement-list new-line
# define identifier lparen identifier-list, ... ) replacement-list new-line
# undef identifier new-line
# line pp-tokens new-line
# error pp-tokens_opt new-line
# pragma pp-tokens_opt new-line
# new-line`

`text-line:
  pp-tokens_opt new-line`

`non-directive:
  pp-tokens new-line`

`lparen:
  a ( character not immediately preceded by white-space`

`identifier-list:
  identifier identifier-list , identifier`

`replacement-list:
  pp-tokens_opt`

`pp-tokens:
  preprocessing-token pp-tokens preprocessing-token`

`new-line:
  the new-line character`
Annex B  (informative)
Implementation quantities  [implimits]

Because computers are finite, C++ implementations are inevitably limited in the size of the programs they can successfully process. Every implementation shall document those limitations where known. This documentation may cite fixed limits where they exist, say how to compute variable limits as a function of available resources, or say that fixed limits do not exist or are unknown.

The limits may constrain quantities that include those described below or others. The bracketed number following each quantity is recommended as the minimum for that quantity. However, these quantities are only guidelines and do not determine compliance.

- Nesting levels of compound statements, iteration control structures, and selection control structures [256].
- Nesting levels of conditional inclusion [256].
- Pointer, array, and function declarators (in any combination) modifying a class, arithmetic, or incomplete type in a declaration [256].
- Nesting levels of parenthesized expressions within a full-expression [256].
- Number of characters in an internal identifier or macro name [1024].
- Number of characters in an external identifier [1024].
- External identifiers in one translation unit [65536].
- Identifiers with block scope declared in one block [1024].
- Macro identifiers simultaneously defined in one translation unit [65536].
- Parameters in one function definition [256].
- Arguments in one function call [256].
- Parameters in one macro definition [256].
- Arguments in one macro invocation [256].
- Characters in one logical source line [65536].
- Characters in a character string literal or wide string literal (after concatenation) [65536].
- Size of an object [262144].
- Nesting levels for #include files [256].
- Case labels for a switch statement (excluding those for any nested switch statements) [16384].
- Data members in a single class [16384].
- Enumeration constants in a single enumeration [4096].
- Levels of nested class definitions in a single member-specification [256].
- Functions registered by atexit() [32].
— Direct and indirect base classes [16384].
— Direct base classes for a single class [1024].
— Members declared in a single class [4096].
— Final overriding virtual functions in a class, accessible or not [16384].
— Direct and indirect virtual bases of a class [1024].
— Static members of a class [1024].
— Friend declarations in a class [4096].
— Access control declarations in a class [4096].
— Member initializers in a constructor definition [6144].
— Scope qualifications of one identifier [256].
— Nested external specifications [1024].
— **Recursive constexpr function invocations** [512].
— Template arguments in a template declaration [1024].
— Recursively nested template instantiations [1024].
— Handlers per **try** block [256].
— Throw specifications on a single function declaration [256].
— Number of placeholders (20.7.11.1.4) [10].
Annex C  (informative)

Compatibility

C.1  C++ and ISO C

The subclauses of this subclause list the differences between C++ and ISO C, by the chapters of this document.

C.1.1  Clause 2: lexical conventions

2.4  Change: C++ style comments (\(/\)) are added
A pair of slashes now introduce a one-line comment.
Rationale: This style of comments is a useful addition to the language.
Effect on original feature: Change to semantics of well-defined feature. A valid ISO C expression containing a division operator followed immediately by a C-style comment will now be treated as a C++ style comment. For example:

```c
int a = 4;
int b = 8  // divide by a*/ a;
+a;
```

Difficulty of converting: Syntactic transformation. Just add white space after the division operator.
How widely used: The token sequence /** probably occurs very seldom.

2.12  Change: New Keywords
New keywords are added to C++; see 2.12.
Rationale: These keywords were added in order to implement the new semantics of C++.
Effect on original feature: Change to semantics of well-defined feature. Any ISO C programs that used any of these keywords as identifiers are not valid C++ programs.
Difficulty of converting: Syntactic transformation. Converting one specific program is easy. Converting a large collection of related programs takes more work.
How widely used: Common.

2.14.3  Change: Type of character literal is changed from int to char
Rationale: This is needed for improved overloaded function argument type matching. For example:

```c
int function( int i );
int function( char c );

function( 'x' );
```

It is preferable that this call match the second version of function rather than the first.
Effect on original feature: Change to semantics of well-defined feature. ISO C programs which depend on

§ C.1.1
sizeof('x') == sizeof(int)

will not work the same as C++ programs.

**Difficulty of converting:** Simple.

**How widely used:** Programs which depend upon sizeof('x') are probably rare.

Subclause 2.14.5:

**Change:** String literals made const

The type of a string literal is changed from “array of char” to “array of const char.” The type of a char16_t string literal is changed from “array of some-integer-type” to “array of const char16_t.” The type of a char32_t string literal is changed from “array of some-integer-type” to “array of const char32_t.” The type of a wide string literal is changed from “array of wchar_t” to “array of const wchar_t.”

**Rationale:** This avoids calling an inappropriate overloaded function, which might expect to be able to modify its argument.

**Effect on original feature:** Change to semantics of well-defined feature.

**Difficulty of converting:** Simple syntactic transformation, because string literals can be converted to char* (4.2). The most common cases are handled by a new but deprecated standard conversion: Syntactic transformation. The fix is to add a cast:

```c
char* p = "abc";
char* q = expr ? "abc" : "de";  // valid in C, deprecated invalid in C++

void f(char*) {  
    char* p = (char*)"abc";  // OK: cast added
    f(p);
    f((char*)"def");  // OK: cast added

    char* q = expr ? (char*)"abc" : (char*)"de";  // valid in C, invalid in C++
}
```

**How widely used:** Programs that have a legitimate reason to treat string literals as pointers to potentially modifiable memory are probably rare.

**C.1.2 Clause 3: basic concepts**

**3.1 Change:** C++ does not have “tentative definitions” as in C. E.g., at file scope,

```c
int i;
```

is valid in C, invalid in C++. This makes it impossible to define mutually referential file-local static objects, if initializers are restricted to the syntactic forms of C. For example,

```c
struct X { int i; struct X *next; };

static struct X a;
static struct X b = { 0, &a };
static struct X a = { 1, &b };
```

**Rationale:** This avoids having different initialization rules for built-in types and user-defined types.

**Effect on original feature:** Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.

**Difficulty of converting:** Semantic transformation.

**Rationale:** In C++, the initializer for one of a set of mutually-referential file-local static objects must invoke
a function call to achieve the initialization.

**How widely used:** Seldom.

### 3.3 Change:

A `struct` is a scope in C++, not in C

**Rationale:** Class scope is crucial to C++, and a struct is a class.

**Effect on original feature:** Change to semantics of well-defined feature.

**Difficulty of converting:** Semantic transformation.

**How widely used:** C programs use `struct` extremely frequently, but the change is only noticeable when `struct`, enumeration, or enumerator names are referred to outside the `struct`. The latter is probably rare.

### 3.5 [also 7.1.6]

**Change:** A name of file scope that is explicitly declared `const`, and not explicitly declared `extern`, has internal linkage, while in C it would have external linkage

**Rationale:** Because `const` objects can be used as compile-time values in C++, this feature urges programmers to provide explicit initializer values for each `const` This feature allows the user to put `const` objects in header files that are included in many compilation units.

**Effect on original feature:** Change to semantics of well-defined feature.

**Difficulty of converting:** Semantic transformation

**How widely used:** Seldom

### 3.6 Change:

Main cannot be called recursively and cannot have its address taken

**Rationale:** The main function may require special actions.

**Effect on original feature:** Deletion of semantically well-defined feature

**Difficulty of converting:** Trivial: create an intermediary function such as `mymain(argc, argv`.

**How widely used:** Seldom

### 3.9 Change:

C allows “compatible types” in several places, C++ does not For example, otherwise-identical `struct` types with different tag names are “compatible” in C but are distinctly different types in C++.

**Rationale:** Stricter type checking is essential for C++.

**Effect on original feature:** Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.

**Difficulty of converting:** Semantic transformation. The “typesafe linkage” mechanism will find many, but not all, of such problems. Those problems not found by typesafe linkage will continue to function properly, according to the “layout compatibility rules” of this International Standard.

**How widely used:** Common.

### 4.10 Change:

Converting `void*` to a pointer-to-object type requires casting

```c
char a[10];
void *b=a;
void foo() {
    char *c=b;
}
```

ISO C will accept this usage of pointer to void being assigned to a pointer to object type. C++ will not.

**Rationale:** C++ tries harder than C to enforce compile-time type safety.

**Effect on original feature:** Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.

**Difficulty of converting:** Could be automated. Violations will be diagnosed by the C++ translator. The fix is to add a cast For example:

```c
char *c = (char *) b;
```
How widely used: This is fairly widely used but it is good programming practice to add the cast when assigning pointer-to-void to pointer-to-object. Some ISO C translators will give a warning if the cast is not used.

4.10
Change: Only pointers to non-const and non-volatile objects may be implicitly converted to void*  
Rationale: This improves type safety.
Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.
Difficulty of converting: Could be automated. A C program containing such an implicit conversion from, e.g., pointer-to-const-object to void* will receive a diagnostic message. The correction is to add an explicit cast.
How widely used: Seldom.

C.1.3 Clause 5: expressions

5.2.2
Change: Implicit declaration of functions is not allowed 
Rationale: The type-safe nature of C++.
Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature. Note: the original feature was labeled as “obsolete” in ISO C.
Difficulty of converting: Syntactic transformation. Facilities for producing explicit function declarations are fairly widespread commercially.
How widely used: Common.

5.3.3, 5.4
Change: Types must be declared in declarations, not in expressions In C, a sizeof expression or cast expression may create a new type. For example,

```c
p = (void*)(struct x {int i; }) *0;
```

declares a new type, struct x.
Rationale: This prohibition helps to clarify the location of declarations in the source code.
Effect on original feature: Deletion of a semantically well-defined feature.
Difficulty of converting: Syntactic transformation.
How widely used: Seldom.

5.16, 5.17, 5.18

Change: The result of a conditional expression, an assignment expression, or a comma expression may be an lvalue 
Rationale: C++ is an object-oriented language, placing relatively more emphasis on lvalues. For example, functions may return lvalues.
Effect on original feature: Change to semantics of well-defined feature. Some C expressions that implicitly rely on lvalue-to-rvalue conversions will yield different results. For example,

```c
char arr[100];
sizeof(0, arr)
```
yields 100 in C++ and sizeof(char*) in C.
Difficulty of converting: Programs must add explicit casts to the appropriate rvalue.
How widely used: Rare.

C.1.4 Clause 6: statements

6.4.2, 6.6.4 (switch and goto statements)
Change: It is now invalid to jump past a declaration with explicit or implicit initializer (except across entire block not entered)
Rationale: Constructors used in initializers may allocate resources which need to be de-allocated upon leaving the block. Allowing jump past initializers would require complicated run-time determination of allocation. Furthermore, any use of the uninitialized object could be a disaster. With this simple compile-time rule, C++ assures that if an initialized variable is in scope, then it has assuredly been initialized.
Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.
Difficulty of converting: Semantic transformation.
How widely used: Seldom.

C.1.5 Clause 7: declarations

7.1.1
Change: In C++, the static or extern specifiers can only be applied to names of objects or functions. Using these specifiers with type declarations is illegal in C++. In C, these specifiers are ignored when used on type declarations.
Example:

```
static struct S {
    int i;
};
```

Rationale: Storage class specifiers don’t have any meaning when associated with a type. In C++, class members can be declared with the static storage class specifier. Allowing storage class specifiers on type declarations could render the code confusing for users.
Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.
Difficulty of converting: Syntactic transformation.
How widely used: Seldom.

7.1.3
Change: A C++ typedef name must be different from any class type name declared in the same scope (except if the typedef is a synonym of the class name with the same name). In C, a typedef name and
a struct tag name declared in the same scope can have the same name (because they have different name spaces)

Example:

```c
typedef struct name1 { /*...*/ } name1;  // valid C and C++
struct name { /*...*/ };               // valid C, invalid C++
typedef int name;                      // valid C, invalid C++
```

Rationale: For ease of use, C++ doesn’t require that a type name be prefixed with the keywords `class`, `struct` or `union` when used in object declarations or type casts.

Example:

```c
class name { /*...*/ };               // i has type class name
name i;                               // valid C, invalid C++
```

Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.
Difficulty of converting: Semantic transformation. One of the 2 types has to be renamed.
How widely used: Seldom.

7.1.6 [see also 3.5]
Change: const objects must be initialized in C++ but can be left uninitialized in C
Rationale: A const object cannot be assigned to so it must be initialized to hold a useful value.
Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.
Difficulty of converting: Semantic transformation.
How widely used: Seldom.

7.1.6 (type specifiers)
Change: Banning implicit int

In C++ a `decl-specifier-seq` must contain a `type-specifier`. In the following example, the left-hand column presents valid C; the right-hand column presents equivalent C++:

```c
void f(const parm);        void f(const int parm);
const n = 3;               const int n = 3;
main() int main()          int main()
    /* ... */              /* ... */
```

Rationale: In C++, implicit int creates several opportunities for ambiguity between expressions involving function-like casts and declarations. Explicit declaration is increasingly considered to be proper style. Liaison with WG14 (C) indicated support for (at least) deprecating implicit int in the next revision of C.
Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.
Difficulty of converting: Syntactic transformation. Could be automated.
How widely used: Common.

7.1.6.4
Change: The keyword `auto` cannot be used as a storage class specifier.

```c
void f() {
    auto int x;  // valid C, invalid C++
}
```
Rationale: Allowing the use of auto to deduce the type of a variable from its initializer results in undesired interpretations of auto as a storage class specifier in certain contexts.

Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.

Difficulty of converting: Syntactic transformation.

How widely used: Rare.

7.2

Change: C++ objects of enumeration type can only be assigned values of the same enumeration type. In C, objects of enumeration type can be assigned values of any integral type

Example:

```cpp
enum color { red, blue, green };  
enum color c = 1;  // valid C, invalid C++
```

Rationale: The type-safe nature of C++.

Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.

Difficulty of converting: Syntactic transformation. (The type error produced by the assignment can be automatically corrected by applying an explicit cast.)

How widely used: Common.

7.2

Change: In C++, the type of an enumerator is its enumeration. In C, the type of an enumerator is int.

Example:

```cpp
enum e { A };  
sizeof(A) == sizeof(int)  // in C  
sizeof(A) == sizeof(e)  // in C++  
/* and sizeof(int) is not necessarily equal to sizeof(e) */
```

Rationale: In C++, an enumeration is a distinct type.

Effect on original feature: Change to semantics of well-defined feature.

Difficulty of converting: Semantic transformation.

How widely used: Seldom. The only time this affects existing C code is when the size of an enumerator is taken. Taking the size of an enumerator is not a common C coding practice.

C.1.6 Clause 8: declarators

8.3.5

Change: In C++, a function declared with an empty parameter list takes no arguments. In C, an empty parameter list means that the number and type of the function arguments are unknown.

Example:

```cpp
int f();  // means int f(void) in C++  
// int f( unknown ) in C
```

Rationale: This is to avoid erroneous function calls (i.e., function calls with the wrong number or type of arguments).

Effect on original feature: Change to semantics of well-defined feature. This feature was marked as “obsolescent” in C.

§ C.1.6
Difficulty of converting: Syntactic transformation. The function declarations using C incomplete declaration style must be completed to become full prototype declarations. A program may need to be updated further if different calls to the same (non-prototype) function have different numbers of arguments or if the type of corresponding arguments differed.

How widely used: Common.

8.3.5 [see 5.3.3]
Change: In C++, types may not be defined in return or parameter types. In C, these type definitions are allowed.

Example:
```c
void f( struct S { int a; } arg ) {} // valid C, invalid C++
enum E { A, B, C } f() {} // valid C, invalid C++
```

Rationale: When comparing types in different compilation units, C++ relies on name equivalence when C relies on structural equivalence. Regarding parameter types: since the type defined in an parameter list would be in the scope of the function, the only legal calls in C++ would be from within the function itself.

Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.

Difficulty of converting: Semantic transformation. The type definitions must be moved to file scope, or in header files.

How widely used: Seldom. This style of type definitions is seen as poor coding style.

8.4
Change: In C++, the syntax for function definition excludes the “old-style” C function. In C, “old-style” syntax is allowed, but deprecated as “obsolescent.”

Rationale: Prototypes are essential to type safety.

Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.

Difficulty of converting: Syntactic transformation.

How widely used: Common in old programs, but already known to be obsolescent.

8.5.2
Change: In C++, when initializing an array of character with a string, the number of characters in the string (including the terminating ‘\0’) must not exceed the number of elements in the array. In C, an array can be initialized with a string even if the array is not large enough to contain the string-terminating ‘\0’

Example:
```c
char array[4] = "abcd"; // valid C, invalid C++
```

Rationale: When these non-terminated arrays are manipulated by standard string routines, there is potential for major catastrophe.

Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.

Difficulty of converting: Semantic transformation. The arrays must be declared one element bigger to contain the string terminating ‘\0’.

How widely used: Seldom. This style of array initialization is seen as poor coding style.

9.1 [see also 7.1.3]
Change: In C++, a class declaration introduces the class name into the scope where it is declared and hides any object, function or other declaration of that name in an enclosing scope. In C, an inner scope declaration of a struct tag name never hides the name of an object or function in an outer scope.
Example:

```c
int x[99];
void f() {
    struct x { int a; }
    sizeof(x); /* size of the array in C */
    /* size of the struct in C++ */
}
```

**Rationale:** This is one of the few incompatibilities between C and C++ that can be attributed to the new C++ name space definition where a name can be declared as a type and as a non-type in a single scope causing the non-type name to hide the type name and requiring that the keywords `class`, `struct`, `union` or `enum` be used to refer to the type name. This new name space definition provides important notational conveniences to C++ programmers and helps making the use of the user-defined types as similar as possible to the use of built-in types. The advantages of the new name space definition were judged to outweigh by far the incompatibility with C described above.

**Effect on original feature:** Change to semantics of well-defined feature.

**Difficulty of converting:** Semantic transformation. If the hidden name that needs to be accessed is at global scope, the `::` C++ operator can be used. If the hidden name is at block scope, either the type or the struct tag has to be renamed.

**How widely used:** Seldom.

### 9.7

**Change:** In C++, the name of a nested class is local to its enclosing class. In C the name of the nested class belongs to the same scope as the name of the outermost enclosing class.

Example:

```c
struct X {
    struct Y { /* ... */ } y;
};
struct Y yy;  // valid C, invalid C++
```

**Rationale:** C++ classes have member functions which require that classes establish scopes. The C rule would leave classes as an incomplete scope mechanism which would prevent C++ programmers from maintaining locality within a class. A coherent set of scope rules for C++ based on the C rule would be very complicated and C++ programmers would be unable to predict reliably the meanings of nontrivial examples involving nested or local functions.

**Effect on original feature:** Change of semantics of well-defined feature.

**Difficulty of converting:** Semantic transformation. To make the struct type name visible in the scope of the enclosing struct, the struct tag could be declared in the scope of the enclosing struct, before the enclosing struct is defined. Example:

```c
struct Y;  // struct Y and struct X are at the same scope
struct X {
    struct Y { /* ... */ } y;
};
```

1 All the definitions of C struct types enclosed in other struct definitions and accessed outside the scope of the enclosing struct could be exported to the scope of the enclosing struct. Note: this is a consequence of the difference in scope rules, which is documented in 3.3.

**How widely used:** Seldom.
9.9

Change: In C++, a typedef name may not be redeclared in a class definition after being used in that definition

Example:

```c
typedef int I;
struct S {
    I i;
    int I;  // valid C, invalid C++
};
```

Rationale: When classes become complicated, allowing such a redefinition after the type has been used can create confusion for C++ programmers as to what the meaning of 'I' really is.

Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.

Difficulty of converting: Semantic transformation. Either the type or the struct member has to be renamed.

How widely used: Seldom.

C.1.8 Clause 12: special member functions [diff.special]

12.8 (copying class objects)

Change: Copying volatile objects

1 The implicitly-declared copy constructor and implicitly-declared copy assignment operator cannot make a copy of a volatile value. For example, the following is valid in ISO C:

```c
struct X { int i; };
volatile struct X x1 = {0};
struct X x2(x1);  // invalid C++
struct X x3;
x3 = x1;          // also invalid C++
```

Rationale: Several alternatives were debated at length. Changing the parameter to `volatile const X&` would greatly complicate the generation of efficient code for class objects. Discussion of providing two alternative signatures for these implicitly-defined operations raised unanswered concerns about creating ambiguities and complicating the rules that specify the formation of these operators according to the bases and members.

Effect on original feature: Deletion of semantically well-defined feature.

Difficulty of converting: Semantic transformation. If volatile semantics are required for the copy, a user-declared constructor or assignment must be provided. [Note: this user-declared constructor may be explicitly defaulted. — end note] If non-volatile semantics are required, an explicit `const_cast` can be used.

How widely used: Seldom.

C.1.9 Clause 16: preprocessing directives [diff.cpp]

16.8 (predefined names)

Change: Whether `__STDC__` is defined and if so, what its value is, are implementation-defined

Rationale: C++ is not identical to ISO C. Mandating that `__STDC__` be defined would require that translators make an incorrect claim. Each implementation must choose the behavior that will be most useful to its marketplace.

Effect on original feature: Change to semantics of well-defined feature.

§ C.1.9
Difficulty of converting: Semantic transformation.
How widely used: Programs and headers that reference \_\_STDC\_\_ are quite common.

C.2 Standard C library

1 This subclause summarizes the contents of the C++ standard library included from the Standard C library. It also summarizes the explicit changes in definitions, declarations, or behavior from the Standard C library noted in other subclauses (17.6.1.2, 18.2, 21.6).

2 The C++ standard library provides 56 standard macros from the C library, as shown in Table 139.

3 The header names (enclosed in < and >) indicate that the macro may be defined in more than one header. All such definitions are equivalent (3.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>assert</th>
<th>HUGE_VAL</th>
<th>NULL &lt;cstdlib&gt;</th>
<th>SIG_ERR</th>
<th>TMP_MAX</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BUFSIZ</td>
<td>L_tmpnam</td>
<td>NULL &lt;cstring&gt;</td>
<td>SIG_IGN</td>
<td>va_arg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLOCKS_PER_SEC</td>
<td>LC_ALL</td>
<td>NULL &lt;ctime&gt;</td>
<td>SIGABRT</td>
<td>va_end</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDGEM</td>
<td>LC_COLLATE</td>
<td>NULL &lt;cwchar&gt;</td>
<td>SIGFPE</td>
<td>va_start</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EILSEQ</td>
<td>LC_TYPE</td>
<td>offsetof</td>
<td>SIGILL</td>
<td>WCHAR_MAX</td>
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<td>LC_NUMERIC</td>
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<td>SIGSEGV</td>
<td>WEOF &lt;cwchar&gt;</td>
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<td>SEEK_END</td>
<td>SIGTERM</td>
<td>WEOF &lt;cwctype&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>stderr</td>
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<tr>
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<td>setjmp</td>
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<td>_IOLBF</td>
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<tr>
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<td>NULL &lt;cstddef&gt;</td>
<td>SIG_DFL</td>
<td>stdout</td>
<td>_IONBF</td>
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<tr>
<td>FOPEN_MAX</td>
<td>NULL &lt;cstdio&gt;</td>
<td>SIG_DFL</td>
<td>stdin</td>
<td>_IONBF</td>
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4 The C++ standard library provides 57 standard values from the C library, as shown in Table 140.

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<tr>
<th>CHAR_BIT</th>
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<th>INT_MIN</th>
<th>MB_LEN_MAX</th>
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<td>LDBL_DIG</td>
<td>SCHAR_MAX</td>
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<tr>
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<td>LDBL_EPSILON</td>
<td>SCHAR_MIN</td>
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<td>DBL_DIG</td>
<td>FLT_MAX</td>
<td>LDBL_MANT_DIG</td>
<td>SHRT_MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBL_EPSILON</td>
<td>FLT_MAX_10_EXP</td>
<td>LDBL_MAX</td>
<td>SHRT_MIN</td>
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<td>LDBL_MAX_10_EXP</td>
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<td>FLT_RADIX</td>
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<td>INT_MAX</td>
<td>LONG_MIN</td>
<td>Null</td>
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</table>

5 The C++ standard library provides 20 standard types from the C library, as shown in Table 141.

6 The C++ standard library provides 2 standard structs from the C library, as shown in Table 142.

7 The C++ standard library provides 209 standard functions from the C library, as shown in Table 143.
### Table 141 — Standard types

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<td>size_t</td>
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<td>va_list</td>
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<td>div_t</td>
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<td>size_t</td>
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<td>wctrans_t</td>
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<tr>
<td>FILE</td>
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<td>ptdiff_t</td>
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<td>size_t</td>
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<td>wctype_t</td>
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<td>fpos_t</td>
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<td>sig_atomic_t</td>
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<td>wint_t</td>
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<td>jmp_buf</td>
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<td>size_t</td>
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<td>time_t</td>
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<td>wint_t</td>
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### Table 142 — Standard structs

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<td>lconv</td>
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<td>tm</td>
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### Table 143 — Standard functions

<table>
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<td>mktime</td>
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<tr>
<td>strftime</td>
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<tr>
<td>wcrtomb</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>abs</td>
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<tr>
<td>fopen</td>
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<tr>
<td>isalnum</td>
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<tr>
<td>modf</td>
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<td>strlen</td>
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<td>perror</td>
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<td>iswcntrl</td>
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<td>pow</td>
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<td>strcmp</td>
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<td>wcsncmp</td>
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<td>atan</td>
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<td>fputs</td>
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<td>putc</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

§ C.2 1182
C.2.1 Modifications to headers

For compatibility with the Standard C library, the C++ standard library provides the 18 C headers (D.6), but their use is deprecated in C++.

C.2.2 Modifications to definitions

C.2.2.1 Types char16_t and char32_t

The types char16_t and char32_t are distinct types rather than typedefs to existing integral types.

C.2.2.2 Type wchar_t

wchar_t is a keyword in this International Standard (2.12). It does not appear as a type name defined in any of <cstdlib>, <cstring>, or <cwchar> (21.6).

C.2.2.3 Header <iso646.h>

The tokens and, and_eq, bitand, bitor, compl, not_eq, not, or, or_eq, xor, and xor_eq are keywords in this International Standard (2.12). They do not appear as macro names defined in <ciso646>.

C.2.2.4 Macro NULL

The macro NULL, defined in any of <cstdlib>, <cstring>, <ctime>, or <cwchar>, is an implementation-defined C++ null pointer constant in this International Standard (18.2).

C.2.3 Modifications to declarations

Header <cstring>: The following functions have different declarations:

— strchr
— strpbrk
— strrchr
— strstr
— memchr

21.6 describes the changes.

C.2.4 Modifications to behavior

Header <cstdlib>: The following functions have different behavior:

— atexit
— exit
— abort

18.5 describes the changes.

Header <csetjmp>: The following functions have different behavior:

— longjmp

18.10 describes the changes.
C.2.4.1 Macro \texttt{offsetof(type,member-designator)} \[\text{diff.offsetof}\]

1 The macro \texttt{offsetof}, defined in \texttt{<cstddef>}, accepts a restricted set of \texttt{type} arguments in this International Standard. 18.2 describes the change.

C.2.4.2 Memory allocation functions \[\text{diff.malloc}\]

1 The functions \texttt{calloc}, \texttt{malloc}, and \texttt{realloc} are restricted in this International Standard. 20.8.17 describes the changes.
Annex D  (normative)
Compatibility features  [depr]

1 This Clause describes features of the C++ Standard that are specified for compatibility with existing implementations.
2 These are deprecated features, where deprecated is defined as: Normative for the current edition of the Standard, but not guaranteed to be part of the Standard in future revisions.

D.1 Increment operator with bool operand  [depr.incr.bool]

1 The use of an operand of type bool with the ++ operator is deprecated (see 5.3.2 and 5.2.6).

D.2 static keyword  [depr.static]

1 The use of the static keyword is deprecated when declaring objects in namespace scope (see 3.3.6).

D.3 Access declarations  [depr.access.dcl]

1 Access declarations are deprecated (see 11.3).

D.4 Implicit conversion from const strings  [depr.string]

The implicit conversion from const to non-const qualification for string literals (4.2) is deprecated.

D.5 register keyword  [depr.register]

1 The use of the register keyword as a storage-class-specifier (7.1.1) is deprecated.

D.6 C standard library headers  [depr.c.headers]

1 For compatibility with the C standard library and the C Unicode TR, the C++ standard library provides the 25 C headers, as shown in Table 144.

Table 144 — C headers

| <assert.h> | <float.h> | <math.h> | <stddef.h> | <tgmath.h> |
| <complex.h> | <inttypes.h> | <setjmp.h> | <stdio.h> | <time.h> |
| <ctype.h> | <iso646.h> | <signal.h> | <stdint.h> | <uchar.h> |
| <errno.h> | <limits.h> | <stdarg.h> | <stdlib.h> | <wchar.h> |
| <fenv.h> | <locale.h> | <stdbool.h> | <string.h> | <wctype.h> |

2 Every C header, each of which has a name of the form name.h, behaves as if each name placed in the standard library namespace by the corresponding cname header is placed within the global namespace scope. It is unspecified whether these names are first declared or defined within namespace scope (3.3.6) of the namespace std and are then injected into the global namespace scope by explicit using-declarations (7.3.3).
3 [Example: The header <cstdlib> assuredly provides its declarations and definitions within the namespace std. It may also provide these names within the global namespace. The header <stdlib.h> assuredly

§ D.6
provides the same declarations and definitions within the global namespace, much as in the C Standard. It may also provide these names within the namespace std. — end example]

D.7 Old iostreams members

The following member names are in addition to names specified in Clause 27:

```cpp
namespace std {
    class ios_base {
    public:
        typedef T1 io_state;
        typedef T2 open_mode;
        typedef T3 seek_dir;
        typedef OFF_T streamoff;
        typedef POS_T streampos;
    // remainder unchanged
    }
}
```

1 The type `io_state` is a synonym for an integer type (indicated here as T1) that permits certain member functions to overload others on parameters of type `iostate` and provide the same behavior.

2 The type `open_mode` is a synonym for an integer type (indicated here as T2) that permits certain member functions to overload others on parameters of type `openmode` and provide the same behavior.

3 The type `seek_dir` is a synonym for an integer type (indicated here as T3) that permits certain member functions to overload others on parameters of type `seekdir` and provide the same behavior.

4 The type `streamoff` is an implementation-defined type that satisfies the requirements of type `OFF_T` (27.5.1).

5 The type `streampos` is an implementation-defined type that satisfies the requirements of type `POS_T` (27.3).

6 An implementation may provide the following additional member function, which has the effect of calling `sbumpc()` (27.6.2.2.3):

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT> >
    class basic_streambuf {
    public:
        void stossc();
    // remainder unchanged
    }
}
```

7 An implementation may provide the following member functions that overload signatures specified in Clause 27:

```cpp
namespace std {
    template<class charT, class traits> class basic_ios {
    public:
        void clear(io_state state);
        void setstate(io_state state);
        void exceptions(io_state);
    // remainder unchanged
    }
}
```

§ D.7
The effects of these functions is to call the corresponding member function specified in Clause 27.

D.8 char* streams

The header `<strstream>` defines three types that associate stream buffers with character array objects and assist reading and writing such objects.

D.8.1 Class strstreambuf

```cpp
namespace std {

class strstreambuf : public basic_streambuf<char> {

public:
    explicit strstreambuf(streamsize alsize_arg = 0);
    strstreambuf(void* (*palloc_arg)(size_t), void (*pfree_arg)(void*));
    strstreambuf(char* gnext_arg, streamsize n, char* pbeg_arg = 0);
    strstreambuf(const char* gnext_arg, streamsize n);
    strstreambuf(signed char* gnext_arg, streamsize n,
                 signed char* pbeg_arg = 0);

    // remainder unchanged

};
```

§ D.8.1 1187
The class `strstreambuf` associates the input sequence, and possibly the output sequence, with an object of some `character` array type, whose elements store arbitrary values. The array object has several attributes.

[Note: For the sake of exposition, these are represented as elements of a bitmask type (indicated here as `T1`) called `strstate`. The elements are:

- `allocated`, set when a dynamic array object has been allocated, and hence should be freed by the destructor for the `strstreambuf` object;
- `constant`, set when the array object has `const` elements, so the output sequence cannot be written;
- `dynamic`, set when the array object is allocated (or reallocated) as necessary to hold a character sequence that can change in length;
- `frozen`, set when the program has requested that the array object not be altered, reallocated, or freed.

end note]

[Note: For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as:

- `strstate strmode`, the attributes of the array object associated with the `strstreambuf` object;
- `int alsize`, the suggested minimum size for a dynamic array object;]
— void* palloc)(size_t), points to the function to call to allocate a dynamic array object;
— void (*pfree)(void*), points to the function to call to free a dynamic array object.
— end note]

4 Each object of class strstreambuf has a seekable area, delimited by the pointers seeklow and seekhigh. If gnext is a null pointer, the seekable area is undefined. Otherwise, seeklow equals gbeg and seekhigh is either pend, if pend is not a null pointer, or gend.

D.8.1.1 strstreambuf constructors [depr.strstreambuf.cons]

explicit strstreambuf(streamsize alsize_arg = 0);

1 Effects: Constructs an object of class strstreambuf, initializing the base class with streambuf(). The postconditions of this function are indicated in Table 145.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strmode</td>
<td>dynamic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alsize</td>
<td>alsize_arg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>palloc</td>
<td>a null pointer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pfree</td>
<td>a null pointer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

strstreambuf(void* (*palloc_arg)(size_t), void (*pfree_arg)(void*));

2 Effects: Constructs an object of class strstreambuf, initializing the base class with streambuf(). The postconditions of this function are indicated in Table 146.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strmode</td>
<td>dynamic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alsize</td>
<td>an unspecified value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>palloc</td>
<td>palloc_arg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pfree</td>
<td>pfree_arg</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

strstreambuf(char* gnext_arg, streamsize n, char *pbeg_arg = 0);
strstreambuf(signed char* gnext_arg, streamsize n,
signed char *pbeg_arg = 0);
strstreambuf(unsigned char* gnext_arg, streamsize n,
unsigned char *pbeg_arg = 0);

3 Effects: Constructs an object of class strstreambuf, initializing the base class with streambuf(). The postconditions of this function are indicated in Table 147.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strmode</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alsize</td>
<td>an unspecified value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>palloc</td>
<td>a null pointer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pfree</td>
<td>a null pointer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
gnext_arg shall point to the first element of an array object whose number of elements $N$ is determined as follows:

- If $n > 0$, $N$ is $n$.
- If $n == 0$, $N$ is `std::strlen(gnext_arg)`.
- If $n < 0$, $N$ is `INT_MAX`.\(^{336}\)

If pbeg_arg is a null pointer, the function executes:

```c
setg(gnext_arg, gnext_arg, gnext_arg + N);
```

Otherwise, the function executes:

```c
setg(gnext_arg, gnext_arg, pbeg_arg);
setp(pbeg_arg, pbeg_arg + N);
```

```c
strstreambuf(const char* gnext_arg, streamsize n);
strstreambuf(const signed char* gnext_arg, streamsize n);
strstreambuf(const unsigned char* gnext_arg, streamsize n);
```

**Effects:** Behaves the same as `strstreambuf((char*)gnext_arg,n)`, except that the constructor also sets constant in strmode.

```c
virtual ~strstreambuf();
```

**Effects:** Destroys an object of class `strstreambuf`. The function frees the dynamically allocated array object only if `strmode & allocated != 0` and `strmode & frozen == 0`. (D.8.1.3 describes how a dynamically allocated array object is freed.)

### D.8.1.2 Member functions

[depr.strstreambuf.members]

```c
void freeze(bool freezefl = true);
```

**Effects:** If `strmode & dynamic` is non-zero, alters the freeze status of the dynamic array object as follows:

- If `freezefl` is `true`, the function sets `frozen` in `strmode`.
- Otherwise, it clears `frozen` in `strmode`.

```c
char* str();
```

**Effects:** Calls `freeze()`, then returns the beginning pointer for the input sequence, `gbeg`.

**Remarks:** The return value can be a null pointer.

```c
int pcount() const;
```

**Effects:** If the next pointer for the output sequence, `pnext`, is a null pointer, returns zero. Otherwise, returns the current effective length of the array object as the next pointer minus the beginning pointer for the output sequence, `pnext - pbeg`.

---

\(^{336}\) The function signature `strlen(const char*)` is declared in `<cstring>`. (21.6). The macro `INT_MAX` is defined in `<climits>` (18.3).
D.8.1.3 `strstreambuf` overridden virtual functions

```cpp
int_type overflow(int_type c = EOF);
```

1. **Effects:** Appends the character designated by `c` to the output sequence, if possible, in one of two ways:
   - If `c != EOF` and if either the output sequence has a write position available or the function makes a write position available (as described below), assigns `c` to `*pnext++`.
   2. Returns `(unsigned char)c`.
   - If `c == EOF`, there is no character to append.
   3. Returns a value other than `EOF`.
   4. Returns `EOF` to indicate failure.

5. **Remarks:** The function can alter the number of write positions available as a result of any call.

To make a write position available, the function reallocates (or initially allocates) an array object with a sufficient number of elements `n` to hold the current array object (if any), plus at least one additional write position. How many additional write positions are made available is otherwise unspecified.\(^{337}\)

If `palloc` is not a null pointer, the function calls `(*palloc)(n)` to allocate the new dynamic array object. Otherwise, it evaluates the expression `new charT[n]`. In either case, if the allocation fails, the function returns `EOF`. Otherwise, it sets `allocated` in `strmode`.

6. To free a previously existing dynamic array object whose first element address is `p`: If `pfree` is not a null pointer, the function calls `(*pfree)(p)`. Otherwise, it evaluates the expression `delete[] p`.

7. If `strmode & dynamic == 0`, or if `strmode & frozen != 0`, the function cannot extend the array (reallocating it with greater length) to make a write position available.

```cpp
int_type pbackfail(int_type c = EOF);
```

8. **Puts back the character designated by `c` to the input sequence, if possible, in one of three ways:**
   - If `c != EOF`, if the input sequence has a putback position available, and if `(char)c == gnext[-1]`, assigns `gnext - 1` to `gnext`.
   9. Returns `c`.
   - If `c != EOF`, if the input sequence has a putback position available, and if `strmode & constant` is zero, assigns `c` to `*--gnext`.
   10. Returns `c`.
   - If `c == EOF` and if the input sequence has a putback position available, assigns `gnext - 1` to `gnext`.
   11. Returns a value other than `EOF`.
   12. Returns `EOF` to indicate failure.

9. **Remarks:** If the function can succeed in more than one of these ways, it is unspecified which way is chosen. The function can alter the number of putback positions available as a result of any call.

```cpp
int_type underflow();
```

10. **Effects:** Reads a character from the input sequence, if possible, without moving the stream position past it, as follows:

\[^{337}\] An implementation should consider `alsize` in making this decision.

§ D.8.1.3 1191
— If the input sequence has a read position available, the function signals success by returning \((\text{unsigned char}*)gnext\).

— Otherwise, if the current write next pointer \(pnext\) is not a null pointer and is greater than the current read end pointer \(gend\), makes a read position available by assigning to \(gend\) a value greater than \(gnext\) and no greater than \(pnext\).

Returns \((\text{unsigned char}*)gnext\).

Returns EOF to indicate failure.

Remarks: The function can alter the number of read positions available as a result of any call.

pos_type seekoff(off_type off, seekdir way, openmode which = in | out);

Effects: Alters the stream position within one of the controlled sequences, if possible, as indicated in Table 148.

\[\]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>((\text{which} &amp; \text{ios}::\text{in}) \neq 0)</td>
<td>positions the input sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((\text{which} &amp; \text{ios}::\text{out}) \neq 0)</td>
<td>positions the output sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((\text{which} &amp; \text{ios}::\text{in}</td>
<td>\text{ios}::\text{out})) == ((\text{ios}::\text{in}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otherwise</td>
<td>the positioning operation fails.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For a sequence to be positioned, if its next pointer is a null pointer, the positioning operation fails. Otherwise, the function determines \(\text{newoff}\) as indicated in Table 149.

\[\]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>newoff Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>way == \text{ios}::beg</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>way == \text{ios}::cur</td>
<td>the next pointer minus the beginning pointer ((xnext - xbeg)).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>way == \text{ios}::end</td>
<td>seekhigh minus the beginning pointer ((\text{seekhigh} - xbeg)).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If ((\text{newoff} + \text{off}) &lt; \text{seeklow} - xbeg), or ((\text{seekhigh} - xbeg) &lt; \text{newoff} + \text{off}))</td>
<td>the positioning operation fails</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Otherwise, the function assigns \(xbeg + \text{newoff} + \text{off}\) to the next pointer \(xnext\).

Returns: \(\text{pos_type}(\text{newoff})\), constructed from the resultant offset \(\text{newoff}\) (of type \text{off_type}), that stores the resultant stream position, if possible. If the positioning operation fails, or if the constructed object cannot represent the resultant stream position, the return value is \(\text{pos_type}(\text{off_type}(-1))\).

\[\]
§ D.8.1.3
**Effects:** Alters the stream position within one of the controlled sequences, if possible, to correspond to the stream position stored in `sp` (as described below).

- If `(which & ios::in) != 0`, positions the input sequence.
- If `(which & ios::out) != 0`, positions the output sequence.
- If the function positions neither sequence, the positioning operation fails.

For a sequence to be positioned, if its next pointer is a null pointer, the positioning operation fails. Otherwise, the function determines `newoff` from `sp.offset()`:

- If `newoff` is an invalid stream position, has a negative value, or has a value greater than `(seekhigh - seeklow)`, the positioning operation fails.
- Otherwise, the function adds `newoff` to the beginning pointer `xbeg` and stores the result in the next pointer `xnext`.

**Returns:** `pos_type(newoff)`, constructed from the resultant offset `newoff` (of type `off_type`), that stores the resultant stream position, if possible. If the positioning operation fails, or if the constructed object cannot represent the resultant stream position, the return value is `pos_type(off_type(-1))`.

```cpp
streambuf<char>* setbuf(char* s, streamsize n);
```

**Effects:** Implementation defined, except that `setbuf(0, 0)` has no effect.

### D.8.2 Class istrstream

```cpp
namespace std {
    class istrstream : public basic_istream<char> {
    public:
        explicit istrstream(const char* s);
        explicit istrstream(char* s);
        istrstream(const char* s, streamsize n);
        istrstream(char* s, streamsize n);
        virtual ~istrstream();
        strstreambuf* rdbuf() const;
        char *str();
    private:
        strstreambuf sb; // exposition only
    }
}
```

The class `istrstream` supports the reading of objects of class `strstreambuf`. It supplies a `strstreambuf` object to control the associated array object. For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as:

- `sb`, the `strstreambuf` object.

#### D.8.2.1 istrstream constructors

```cpp
explicit istrstream(const char* s);
explicit istrstream(char* s);
```

**Effects:** Constructs an object of class `istrstream`, initializing the base class with `istream(&sb)` and initializing `sb` with `strstreambuf(s,0)`. `s` shall designate the first element of an `NTBS`.  

§ D.8.2.1
istream(const char* s, streamsize n);

Effects: Constructs an object of class istream, initializing the base class with istream(&sb) and initializing sb with strstreambuf(s,n)). s shall designate the first element of an array whose length is n elements, and n shall be greater than zero.

D.8.2.2 Member functions

strstreambuf* rdbuf() const;

Returns: const_cast<strstreambuf*>(&sb).

char* str();

Returns: rdbuf()->str();

D.8.3 Class ostrstream

namespace std {
    class ostrstream : public basic_ostream<char> {
    public:
        ostrstream();
        ostrstream(char* s, int n, ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::out);
        virtual ~ostrstream();

        strstreambuf* rdbuf() const;
        void freeze(bool freezefl = true);
        char* str();
        int pcount() const;

    private:
        strstreambuf sb; // exposition only
    }
};

The class ostrstream supports the writing of objects of class strstreambuf. It supplies a strstreambuf object to control the associated array object. For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as:

— sb, the strstreambuf object.

D.8.3.1 ostrstream constructors

ostrstream();

Effects: Constructs an object of class ostrstream, initializing the base class with ostream(&sb) and initializing sb with strstreambuf()).

ostrstream(char* s, int n, ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::out);

Effects: Constructs an object of class ostrstream, initializing the base class with ostream(&sb), and initializing sb with one of two constructors:

— If (mode & app) == 0, then s shall designate the first element of an array of n elements.

The constructor is strstreambuf(s, n, s).
— If \((\text{mode} \& \text{app}) \neq 0\), then \(s\) shall designate the first element of an array of \(n\) elements that contains an NTBS whose first element is designated by \(s\). The constructor is \texttt{strstreambuf}(s, n, s + \text{std::strlen}(s)).\(^{338}\)

D.8.3.2 Member functions

\begin{verbatim}
strstreambuf* rdbuf() const;
1   // Returns: \((\text{strstreambuf}*)\&_sb .

void freeze(bool freeze1 = true);
2   // Effects: Calls rdbuf()\(->\)freeze(freeze1).

char* str();
3   // Returns: rdbuf()\(->\)str().

int pcount() const;
4   // Returns: rdbuf()\(->\)pcount().
\end{verbatim}

D.8.4 Class \texttt{strstream}

\begin{verbatim}
namespace std {
  class strstream
      : public \texttt{basic_iostream}\langle\texttt{char}\rangle {
    public:
      // Types
      typedef \texttt{char} char_type;
      typedef typename char_traits<\texttt{char}>::int_type int_type;
      typedef typename char_traits<\texttt{char}>::pos_type pos_type;
      typedef typename char_traits<\texttt{char}>::off_type off_type;

      // constructors/destructor
      strstream();
      strstream(char* s, int n,
              ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in|ios_base::out);
      virtual ~strstream();

      // Members:
      strstreambuf* rdbuf() const;
      void freeze(bool freeze1 = true);
      int pcount() const;
      char* str();

      private:
      strstreambuf \_sb; // exposition only
  };
}\end{verbatim}

1 The class \texttt{strstream} supports reading and writing from objects of class \texttt{strstreambuf}. It supplies a \texttt{strstreambuf} object to control the associated array object. For the sake of exposition, the maintained data is presented here as

\(^{338}\) The function signature \texttt{strlen(const char*)} is declared in \texttt{<cstring> (21.6)}.
— sb, the `strstreambuf` object.

**D.8.4.1 strstream constructors**

```cpp
strstream();
```

1. **Effects:** Constructs an object of class `strstream`, initializing the base class with `iostream(&sb)`.

```cpp
strstream(char* s, int n,
    ios_base::openmode mode = ios_base::in|ios_base::out);
```

2. **Effects:** Constructs an object of class `strstream`, initializing the base class with `iostream(&sb)` and initializing `sb` with one of the two constructors:
   - If `(mode & app) == 0`, then `s` shall designate the first element of an array of `n` elements. The constructor is `strstreambuf(s,n,s)`.
   - If `(mode & app) != 0`, then `s` shall designate the first element of an array of `n` elements that contains an NTBS whose first element is designated by `s`. The constructor is `strstreambuf(s,n,s + std::strlen(s))`.

**D.8.4.2 strstream destructor**

```cpp
virtual ~strstream()
```

1. **Effects:** Destroys an object of class `strstream`.

```cpp
strstreambuf* rdbuf() const;
```

2. **Returns:** `&sb`.

**D.8.4.3 strstream operations**

```cpp
void freeze(bool freezefl = true);
```

1. **Effects:** Calls `rdbuf()->freeze(freezefl)`.

```cpp
char* str();
```

2. **Returns:** `rdbuf()->str()`.

```cpp
int pcount() const;
```

3. **Returns:** `rdbuf()->pcount()`.

**D.9 Binders**

The binders `binder1st`, `bind1st`, `binder2nd`, and `bind2nd` are deprecated. [Note: The function template `bind` (20.7.11) provides a better solution. — end note]

**D.9.1 Class template binder1st**

```cpp
template <class Fn>
class binder1st
    : public unary_function<typename Fn::second_argument_type,
        typename Fn::result_type> {
    protected:
```
Fn
op;
typename Fn::first_argument_type value;
public:
binder1st(const Fn& x,
    const typename Fn::first_argument_type& y);
typename Fn::result_type
    operator()(const typename Fn::second_argument_type& x) const;
typename Fn::result_type
    operator()(typename Fn::second_argument_type& x) const;
};

1 The constructor initializes op with x and value with y.
2 operator() returns op(value, x).

D.9.2 bind1st
[depr.lib.bind.1st]

    template <class Fn, class T>
    binder1st<Fn> bind1st(const Fn& fn, const T& x);

1     Returns: binder1st<Fn>(fn, typename Fn::first_argument_type(x)).

D.9.3 Class template binder2nd
[depr.lib.binder.2nd]

template <class Fn>
    class binder2nd
        : public unary_function<typename Fn::first_argument_type,
            typename Fn::result_type> {
    protected:
        Fn
            op;
        typename Fn::second_argument_type value;
    public:
        binder2nd(const Fn& x,
            const typename Fn::second_argument_type& y);
        typename Fn::result_type
            operator()(const typename Fn::first_argument_type& x) const;
        typename Fn::result_type
            operator()(typename Fn::first_argument_type& x) const;
    };  

1 The constructor initializes op with x and value with y.
2 operator() returns op(x, value).

D.9.4 bind2nd
[depr.lib.binder.2nd]

    template <class Fn, class T>
    binder2nd<Fn> bind2nd(const Fn& op, const T& x);

1     Returns: binder2nd<Fn>(op, typename Fn::second_argument_type(x)).

2 [Example:

find_if(v.begin(), v.end(), bind2nd(greater<int>(), 5));

finds the first integer in vector v greater than 5;
find_if(v.begin(), v.end(), bind1st(greater<int>(), 5));

finds the first integer in v less than 5. — end example]

D.10 auto_ptr

The class template auto_ptr is deprecated. [Note: The class template unique_ptr (20.8.14) provides a better solution. — end note]

D.10.1 Class template auto_ptr

1 Template auto_ptr stores a pointer to an object obtained via new and deletes that object when it itself is destroyed (such as when leaving block scope 6.7).

2 Template auto_ptr_ref holds a reference to an auto_ptr. It is used by the auto_ptr conversions to allow auto_ptr objects to be passed to and returned from functions.

    namespace std {
    template <class Y> struct auto_ptr_ref { };  

    template <class X> class auto_ptr {  
    public:
        typedef X element_type;

        // D.10.1.1 construct/copy/destroy:
        explicit auto_ptr(X* p =0) throw();
        auto_ptr(auto_ptr&) throw();
        template<class Y> auto_ptr(auto_ptr<Y>&) throw();
        auto_ptr& operator=(auto_ptr&) throw();
        template<class Y> auto_ptr& operator=(auto_ptr<Y>&) throw();
        auto_ptr& operator=(auto_ptr_ref<X> r) throw();
        ~auto_ptr() throw();

        // D.10.1.2 members:
        X& operator*() const throw();
        X* operator->() const throw();
        X* get() const throw();
        X* release() throw();
        void reset(X* p =0) throw();

        // D.10.1.3 conversions:
        auto_ptr(auto_ptr_ref<X>) throw();
        template<class Y> operator auto_ptr_ref<Y>() throw();
        template<class Y> operator auto_ptr<Y>() throw();
    }

    template <> class auto_ptr<void>  
    {
    public:
        typedef void element_type;
    }
    }

3 The class template auto_ptr provides a semantics of strict ownership. An auto_ptr owns the object it holds a pointer to. Copying an auto_ptr copies the pointer and transfers ownership to the destination. If more than
one `auto_ptr` owns the same object at the same time the behavior of the program is undefined. [Note: The uses of `auto_ptr` include providing temporary exception-safety for dynamically allocated memory, passing ownership of dynamically allocated memory to a function, and returning dynamically allocated memory from a function. Instances of `auto_ptr` meet the requirements of `MoveConstructible` and `MoveAssignable`, but do not meet the requirements of `CopyConstructible` and `CopyAssignable.` — end note]

D.10.1.1 `auto_ptr` constructors

```cpp
explicit auto_ptr(X* p = 0) throw(); // Postconditions: *this holds the pointer p.
auto_ptr(auto_ptr& a) throw(); // Effects: Calls a.release().
// Postconditions: *this holds the pointer returned from a.release().
template<class Y> auto_ptr(auto_ptr<Y>& a) throw(); // Requires: Y* can be implicitly converted to X*.
// Effects: Calls a.release().
// Postconditions: *this holds the pointer returned from a.release().
auto_ptr& operator=(auto_ptr& a) throw(); // Requires: The expression delete get() is well formed.
// Effects: reset(a.release()).
// Returns: *this.
template<class Y> auto_ptr& operator=(auto_ptr<Y>& a) throw(); // Requires: Y* can be implicitly converted to X*. The expression delete get() is well formed.
// Effects: reset(a.release()).
// Returns: *this.
`auto_ptr() throw();` // Requires: The expression delete get() is well formed.
// Effects: delete get().
```

D.10.1.2 `auto_ptr` members

```cpp
X& operator*() const throw(); // Requires: get() != 0
// Returns: *get()
X* operator->() const throw();
// Returns: get()
X* get() const throw();
// Returns: The pointer *this holds.
```

§ D.10.1.2
X* release() throw();
5  
6    Returns: get()
    Postcondition: *this holds the null pointer.
void reset(X* p=0) throw();
7  
8    Effects: If get() != p then delete get().
    Postconditions: *this holds the pointer p.

D.10.1.3 auto_ptr conversions [auto.ptr.conv]

auto_ptr(auto_ptr_ref<X> r) throw();
1  
2    Effects: Calls p.release() for the auto_ptr p that r holds.
3  
4    Postconditions: *this holds the pointer returned from release().

template<class Y> operator auto_ptr_ref<Y>() throw();
3  
4    Returns: An auto_ptr_ref<Y> that holds *this.

template<class Y> operator auto_ptr<Y>() throw();
4  
5    Effects: Calls release().
6  
7    Returns: An auto_ptr<Y> that holds the pointer returned from release().

auto_ptr& operator=(auto_ptr_ref<X> r) throw()
6  
7    Effects: Calls reset(p.release()) for the auto_ptr p that r holds a reference to.
8  
9    Returns: *this
Annex E  (informative)
Cross references

To refer to sections in the text, use section labels, which appear at the beginning of every section on the right-hand side of the page. While section numbers appear more natural, they change from time to time as material is added and removed from the draft.

This appendix lists each section label and the corresponding section number, in alphabetical order by label. It will be revised with each new draft, so can be used to find where a section is located in the current draft.

All of the section labels are the same as in the 2003 standard, except:

— Labels that begin with `lib.` in the 2003 standard have had the `lib.` removed so that they do not all appear in the same part of this list. For example, in the 2003 standard, the non-modifying sequence algorithms were found in a section with the label `[lib.alg.nonmodifying]`. The label for that section is now `[alg.nonmodifying]`.

— The label for Appendix B has been changed from `[limits]` to `[implimits]`. The label `[limits]` refers to section 18.3.1.

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