

Templates in Depth

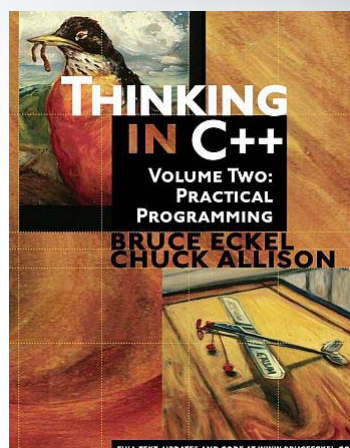
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From the Book...



Agenda

(We won't have time to finish☹)



- Template Parameters
- Member Templates
- Function Template Issues
- Template Specialization
- Templates and Friends
- Template Idioms
- Template Metaprogramming
- Template Compilation Models

Template Parameters



- 3 Kinds...
- Type parameters
 - the most common (`vector<int>`)
- Non-type
 - compile-time integral values (`bitset<10>`, for example)
- Templates
 - “template template parameters”

Type Parameters



- The original motivation for templates
 - “Generic Programming”
- Container logic is independent of its containee’s type
- Containers of “T”:
 - `vector<int> v;` // **int** is a type argument
 - `template<class T>` // **T** is a type parameter
 `class vector {`
 `T* data;`
 `...`
 `};`

Template Instantiation



- When the compiler sees the declaration:
`vector<int> v;`
it automatically generates an “int” version of vector
 - int is substituted for T everywhere
 - just as if you had typed it that way
 - The “name” of the class is **`vector<int>`**
- **`vector<int>`**, a class, is an *instantiation* of the template “vector”
- Templates are therefore a *code generation facility*

Non-type Template Parameters



- Must be compile-time constant values
 - usually integral expressions
 - can also be addresses of static objects or functions
- Often used to place array data members on the stack
 - like with `bitset`
- See next slide

bitset

(from STLPort)



```
template<size_t _Nw>
struct _Base_bitset {
    typedef unsigned long _WordT;

    _WordT _M_w[_Nw];
    . . .
};

template<size_t _Nb>
class bitset : public
_Base_bitset<__BITSET_WORDS(_Nb) >
{ . . . };
```

Default Template Arguments



- Like default function arguments
 - If missing, the defaults are supplied
- ```
template<class T = int, size_t N = 100>
class FixedStack {
 T data[N];
 ...
};
FixedStack<> s1; // same as Stack<int, 100>
FixedStack<float> s2; // same as Stack<float, 100>
```

## The vector Container Declaration



- ```
template<class T,
          class Allocator = allocator<T> >
class vector;
```
- Note how the second parameter uses the first
- Note the space between the '>'s

Template Template Parameters



- If you plan on using a template parameter itself as a template, the compiler needs to know
 - otherwise it won't let you do template things with it
- Examples follow

A Simple Expandable Sequence



```
// A simple, expandable sequence
template<class T>
class Array {
    enum { INIT = 10 };
    T* data;
    size_t capacity;
    size_t count;
public:
    Array() {
        count = 0;
        data = new T[capacity = INIT];
    }
    ~Array() { delete [] data; }
    void push_back(const T& t) {...}
    void pop_back() {...}
    T* begin() { return data; }
    T* end() { return data + count; }
};
```

Passing Array as a template argument




```
template<class T, template<class> class Seq>
class Container {
    Seq<T> seq;
public:
    void append(const T& t) { seq.push_back(t); }
    T* begin() { return seq.begin(); }
    T* end() { return seq.end(); }
};

int main() {
    Container<int, Array> container; // Pass template
    container.append(1);
    container.append(2);
    int* p = container.begin();
    while(p != container.end())
        cout << *p++ << endl;
}
```

Template Template Parameters and Default Arguments



- Must repeat the default argument when passing the template as an argument to another template
- Example on next slide



```
template<class T, size_t N = 10>
class Array {...};


template<class T,
         template<class, size_t = 10> class Seq>
class Container {
    Seq<T> seq; // Default used
public:
    void append(const T& t) { seq.push_back(t); }
    T* begin() { return seq.begin(); }
    T* end() { return seq.end(); }
};

int main() {
    Container<int, Array> container;
    container.append(1);
    container.append(2);
    int* p = container.begin();
    while(p != container.end())
        cout << *p++ << endl;
}
```

Passing Standard Sequence Templates as Template Arguments




- Must be aware of their default arguments
 - In particular, `allocator<T>`
- Example on next slide
 - Modifies **Container** to repeat `allocator<T>`



```
template<class T,
        template<class U, class = allocator<U> >
        class Seq>
class Container {
    Seq<T> seq; // Default of allocator<T> applied
public:
    void push_back(const T& t) { seq.push_back(t); }
    typename Seq<T>::iterator begin() {return seq.begin();}
    typename Seq<T>::iterator end() {return seq.end();}
};

int main() {
    // Use a vector
    Container<int, vector> vContainer;
    vContainer.push_back(1);
    vContainer.push_back(2);
    for(vector<int>::iterator p = vContainer.begin();
        p != vContainer.end(); ++p) {
        cout << *p << endl;
    }
}
```



```
// Use a list
Container<int, list> lContainer;
lContainer.push_back(3);
lContainer.push_back(4);
for(list<int>::iterator p2 = lContainer.begin();
    p2 != lContainer.end(); ++p2) {
    cout << *p2 << endl;
}
}
```

The typename keyword



- In certain contexts, you need to help the compiler know that an identifier represents a type
- In particular, when you want to use a *member type* from a *template parameter*
 - it assumes a name qualified by a template parameter refers to a *static member* (it has to assume *something*, since T is unknown)
 - The problem occurs when the name before the :: is a template
 - a “dependent” name
- Can also use **typename** instead of **class** in a template declaration

```
// A Print function for standard sequences
template<typename T,
        template<typename U,
                typename = allocator<U> >
        class Seq>
void printSeq(Seq<T>& seq) {
    for(typename Seq<T>::iterator b = seq.begin();
        b != seq.end(); )
        cout << *b++ << endl;
}

int main() {
    // Process a vector
    vector<int> v;
    v.push_back(1);
    v.push_back(2);
    printSeq(v);
    // Process a list
    list<int> lst;
    lst.push_back(3);
    lst.push_back(4);
    printSeq(lst);
}
```



Applying a Function to a Sequence



- Many languages have an “apply” function
 - you pass it a function and a sequence (array, etc.)
 - the apply function applies the function to each element in the sequence
- C++ has **for_each()**
- Pretend we don’t know about for_each()
 - Let’s write an apply for objects
 - See next slide

An “apply” for member functions



```
template<class Cont, class PtrMemFun>
void apply(Cont& c, PtrMemFun f) {
    typename Cont::iterator it = c.begin();
    while(it != c.end()) {
        ((*it).*f)(); // Can't use it->*f
        ++it;
    }
}

class Z {
    int i;
public:
    Z(int ii) : i(ii) {}
    void g() { ++i; }
    friend ostream& operator<<(ostream& os, const Z& z) {
        return os << z.i;
    }
};
```



```
int main() {
    ostream_iterator<Z> out(cout, " ");
    vector<Z> vz;
    for(int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
        vz.push_back(Z(i));
    copy(vz.begin(), vz.end(), out);
    cout << endl;
    apply(vz, &Z::g); // Call apply()
    copy(vz.begin(), vz.end(), out);
}
```

Avoiding Parse Errors



- You've already seen the need to put a space between angle brackets:
template<class T, class Allocator = allocator<T> >
class vector;
- There are other contexts in which a '<' will be interpreted as a less-than operation, instead of the beginning of a template argument list
- The **template** keyword tells the compiler to assume that a template is being used instead of a less-than
- Example on next slide:
 - Converting a **bitset** to a **string** (needs to know the char type)
 - **bitset::to_string()** needs a template context:
string s =
 bs.to_string<char, char_traits<char>, allocator<char> >();

The template keyword as a disambiguator



```
template<class charT, size_t N>
basic_string<charT> bitsetToString(const bitset<N>& bs)
{
    return bs.template to_string<charT,
                                char_traits<charT>,
                                allocator<charT> >();
}

int main() {
    bitset<10> bs;
    bs.set(1);
    bs.set(5);
    cout << bs << endl; // 0000100010
    string s = bitsetToString<char>(bs);
    cout << s << endl;  // 0000100010
}
```

Question



- What kind of things can you define as members of a class?

Answer



- **Variables**
 - Data members; either static or non-static
- **Functions**
 - Member functions, either static and non-static
- **Types**
 - Either nested classes or **typedefs**
- **Templates**
 - “Member Templates”

Member Types

Nested Classes



```
class bitset {  
    class reference {  
        ...  
    };  
    reference operator[] (size_t pos) {...}  
};
```

If public, could say:

```
bitset::reference...
```

Member Types

Nested typedefs

```
template<class T,...>
class vector {
    typedef MyIteratorType iterator;
    ...
};
```

Can say:

```
vector<int>::iterator p = v.begin();
```



Member Templates

- Can also nest *template definitions* inside a class
- Inside of a class template, too
- Very handy for conversion constructors:
 - `template<typename T> class complex {`
 `public:`
 `template<class X> complex(const complex<X>&);`
 - Inside of STL sequences:
 `template <class InputIterator>`
 `deque(InputIterator first, InputIterator last,`
 `const Allocator& = Allocator());`
- Example on next slide



A Member Class Template



```
template<class T> class Outer {
public:
    template<class R> class Inner {
    public:
        void f();
    };
};

template<class T> template<class R>
void Outer<T>::Inner<R>::f() {
    cout << "Outer == " << typeid(T).name() << endl;
    cout << "Inner == " << typeid(R).name() << endl;
    cout << "Full Inner == " << typeid(*this).name()
        << endl;
}

int main() {
    Outer<int>::Inner<bool> inner;
    inner.f();
}
```

Output from Previous Example



```
Outer == int
Inner == bool
Full Inner == Outer<int>::Inner<bool>
```


Latent Typing



- Templates use “latent typing”
 - They assume their arguments support the needed operations
 - If they don’t the compiler complains
- Called latent typing because the enforcement of operations isn’t through strong static typing
 - e.g., whether a template argument implements a particular interface
 - This allows non-class types such as ints to be used

Constraining Template Arguments



- If a template argument used with STL doesn’t support a required operation, the error usually turns up deep inside STL’s nether parts
 - Nigh impossible to decipher
- It is possible to place constraints on template arguments to better localize the error
- Example from Bjarne Stroustrup
 - Next slide

```

#include <string>
using namespace std;

// A constraint class (inspects T for operations)
template<typename T>
struct Comparable {
    static void constraint(T a, T b) {
        // Exercise required operations
        // (errors will point here)
        (void) (a < b);
        (void) (a <= b);
    }
    Comparable() {
        // Force instantiation of static function above
        void (*p)(T,T) = constraint;
    }
};

template<typename T>
class Subject : private Comparable<T>
{};

```

```

// A class that is not Comparable
struct Foo{};

int main() {
    Subject<int> s1;
    Subject<string> s2;
    Subject<Foo> s3; // Causes errors below
}

```

```

Error E2093 f:\3370\constraints.cpp 9: 'operator<' not
implemented in type 'Foo' for arguments of the same type
in function Comparable<Foo>::constraint(Foo,Foo)
Error E2093 f:\3370\constraints.cpp 10: 'operator<=' not
implemented in type 'Foo' for arguments of the same type
in function Comparable<Foo>::constraint(Foo,Foo)

```

Type Deduction in Function Templates



- Under most circumstances, the compiler deduces the argument types in a call to a function template
 - the proper version is generated automatically
- You can use a fully-qualified call syntax if you want to:
int x = min<int>(a, b); // vs. min(a, b);
- Sometimes you *have* to:
 - when the arguments are different types
 - when the template argument is a return type, and therefore cannot be deduced by the arguments
 - Example on next slide


String Conversion Function Templates



```
// StringConv.h
#include <string>
#include <sstream>

template<typename T> T fromString(const std::string& s)
{
    std::istringstream is(s);
    T t;
    is >> t;
    return t;
}

template<typename T> std::string toString(const T& t) {
    std::ostringstream s;
    s << t;
    return s.str();
}
```



```
#include <complex>
#include <iostream>
#include "StringConv.h"
using namespace std;


int main() {
    // Implicit Type Deduction
    int i = 1234;
    cout << "i == \" << toString(i) << \"\" << endl;
    float x = 567.89;
    cout << "x == \" << toString(x) << \"\" << endl;
    complex<float> c(1.0, 2.0);
    cout << "c == \" << toString(c) << \"\" << endl;
    cout << endl;

    // Explicit Function Template Specialization
    i = fromString<int>(string("1234"));
    cout << "i == \" << i << endl;
    x = fromString<float>(string("567.89"));
    cout << "x == \" << x << endl;
    c = fromString<complex<float> >(string("(1.0,2.0)"));
    cout << "c == \" << c << endl;
}
```

Function Template Overloading



- You can define functions with the same name as a function template
- The “best match” will be used
 - A regular function is preferred over a template
 - Can force using the template with “<>”
- You can also overload a function template by having a different number of arguments




```

template<typename T>
const T& min(const T& a, const T& b) {
    return (a < b) ? a : b;
}
const char* min(const char* a, const char* b) {
    return (strcmp(a, b) < 0) ? a : b;
}
double min(double x, double y) {
    return (x < y) ? x : y;
}

int main() {
    const char *s2 = "say \"Ni-!\\\"", *s1 = "knights who";
    cout << min(1, 2) << endl;           // 1: 1 (template)
    cout << min(1.0, 2.0) << endl;       // 2: 1 (double)
    cout << min(1, 2.0) << endl;       // 3: 1 (double)
    cout << min(s1, s2) << endl;       // 4: knights who
                                         // (const char*)
    cout << min<>(s1, s2) << endl;     // 5: say "Ni-!"
                                         // (template)
}

```

Taking the Address of a Function Template Instantiation

- 
- We like to pass functions as arguments
 - Why not pass a generated template function?
 - `g(&f<int>);` // Okay if not overloaded
 - Fine, unless it is overloaded
 - Which overload do you want? Ambiguity
 - Examples on subsequent slides

This Won't Work -- Why?



```
#include <algorithm>
#include <cctype>
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
using namespace std;

int main() {
    string s("LOWER");
    transform(s.begin(), s.end(), s.begin(), tolower);
    cout << s << endl;
}
```

Answer



- <cctype> defines the single-argument version of tolower()
- <locale> defines:
template<class charT>
charT tolower(charT, const locale&);
- The compiler doesn't know which one to use
- Is there a work-around?

Work-around #1




- Tell the compiler which version you want with a cast:
**`transform(s.begin(), s.end(), s.begin(),
static_cast<int (*) (int)>(tolower)`**
- This fails, however, if `tolower()` has C linkage
 - Some implementations do!
 - Dinkumware, for example
 - It's a real feature
 - Transform has C++ linkage, of course

Work-around #2



- Wrap the call to `transform()` in a function that is in its own translation unit
 - Where `<locale>` is not included
 - Not portable
- See next slide



```
// StrToLower.cpp
#include <algorithm>
#include <cctype>
#include <string>
using namespace std;
string strToLower(string s) {
    // Calls the single-arg tolower from <cctype>:
    transform(s.begin(), s.end(), s.begin(), tolower);
    return s;
}

// Client code
string strToLower(string);

int main() {
    string s("LOWER");
    cout << strToLower(s) << endl;
}
```

Work-around #3



- Remove the ambiguity with a wrapper template that calls the single-arg version explicitly:

```
#include <algorithm>
#include <cctype>
using namespace std;

template<class charT>
charT strToLower(charT c) {
    return tolower(c);
}

...
transform(s.begin(),s.end(),s.begin(),&strToLower<char>);
```


Partial Ordering of Function Templates



- With overloaded templates, there needs to be a way to choose the “best fit”
- Plain functions are always considered better than templates
 - why generate another function when an existing one will suffice?
- Some templates are better than others also
 - more “specialized” if matches more combinations of arguments types than another
 - Example follows

```
template<class T> void f(T) {
    cout << "T" << endl;
}

template<class T> void f(T*) {
    cout << "T*" << endl;
}

template<class T> void f(const T*) {
    cout << "const T*" << endl;
}

int main() {
    f(0);           // T
    int i = 0;
    f(&i);          // T*
    const int j = 0;
    f(&j);          // const T*
}
```



Template Specialization



- A template by nature is a *generalization*
- It becomes specialized for a particular use when we specify the actual template arguments of interest
- A particular instantiation is therefore a *specialization*

Explicit Specialization



- The template facility specializes a template for your use when you instantiate it
 - but it uses the “primary” template to do it
- What if you want special “one-off” behavior for certain combinations of template parameters?
- You can provide custom code for specializations
 - both *full* or *partial* specializations for class templates
 - the compiler will use your versions instead of what it would have generated
- Full specialization uses the **template<>** syntax

Explicit Specialization of Function Templates



- It is done, but you can always just provide a plain function to do the job
- Nonetheless, see the next slide
 - And note correct use of **const**!

A Full Function Template Specialization



```
// The primary template
template<class T> const T& min(const T& a, const T& b) {
    return (a < b) ? a : b;
}

// An explicit specialization of the min template
template<>
const char*
const& min<const char*>(const char* const& a,
                        const char* const& b) {
    return (strcmp(a, b) < 0) ? a : b;
}

int main() {
    const char *s2 = "say \"Ni-!\"", *s1 = "knights who";
    cout << min(s1, s2) << endl;
    cout << min<>(s1, s2) << endl;
}
```

Explicit Specialization of Class Templates



- Example: `vector<bool>`
 - packs bits, like `bitset` does (but is dynamically sized)
- `vector` is defined as:


```
template<class T, class Allocator = allocator<T> >
class vector {...};
```
- `vector<bool>` *could* be defined as:

```
template<> class vector<bool, allocator<bool> >
{...};
```

Partial Specialization of Class Templates



- Can specialize on a *subset* of template arguments
 - leaving the rest unspecified
 - can also specialize on:
 - “pointer-ness”
 - “const-ness”
 - equality
- `vector<bool>` is actually a partial specialization
 - It specializes the data type, but leaves the allocator type “open:
template<class Allocator>
class vector<bool, Allocator> { };
- The “most specialized” match is preferred
- See next slide



```

template<class T, class U> class C {
public:
    void f() { cout << "Primary Template\n"; }
};


template<class U> class C<int, U> {
public:
    void f() { cout << "T == int\n"; }
};

template<class T> class C<T, double> {
public:
    void f() { cout << "U == double\n"; }
};

template<class T, class U> class C<T*, U> {
public:
    void f() { cout << "T* used\n"; }
};

template<class T, class U> class C<T, U*> {
public:
    void f() { cout << "U* used\n"; }
};

```



```

template<class T, class U> class C<T*, U*> {
public:
    void f() { cout << "T* and U* used\n"; }
};

template<class T> class C<T, T> {
public:
    void f() { cout << "T == U\n"; }
};

int main() {
    C<float, int>().f();           // 1: Primary template
    C<int, float>().f();           // 2: T == int
    C<float, double>().f();        // 3: U == double
    C<float, float>().f();         // 4: T == U
    C<float*, float>().f();        // 5: T* used [T is float]
    C<float, float*>().f();        // 6: U* used [U is float]
    C<float*, int*>().f();         // 7: T* and U* used [float, int]
    // The following are ambiguous:
    // 8: C<int, int>().f();
    // 9: C<double, double>().f();
    // 10: C<float*, float*>().f();
    // 11: C<int, int*>().f();
    // 12: C<int*, int*>().f();
}

```

iterator_traits



- A technique for endowing naked pointers with:
 - difference_type
 - value_type
 - pointer
 - reference
 - iterator_category
- Uses partial specialization

Implementing iterator_traits



```
// Primary template
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;
};

// Partial specialization for pointer types
template<class T> struct iterator_traits<T*> {
    typedef ptrdiff_t difference_type;
    typedef T value_type;
    typedef T* pointer;
    typedef T& reference;
    typedef random_access_iterator_tag iterator_category;
};
```

Using iterator_traits



```
// Print any standard sequence or an array
template<class Iter>
void print(Iter b, Iter e) {
    typedef typename iterator_traits<Iter>::value_type T;
    copy(b, e, ostream_iterator<T>(cout, "\n"));
}
```

Preventing Template Code Bloat



- Templates generate distinct classes/functions for each unique combination of template arguments
 - A Good Thing
- Code overhead can be lessened for containers:
 - All pointer specializations can share code
 - Fully specialize on void*
 - Partially specialize on T*, using void*'s code
 - Each partial specialization is a thin veneer
 - See next slide

Sharing void*'s Code




```
template<class T> class Stack {  
    // Defines the complete primary template  
};  
  
template<> class Stack<void *> {  
    // Fully specializes Stack for pointers  
    // (Can optimize copy semantics with memcpy)  
};  
  
// Partial specialization for pointers (small footprint)  
template<class T>  
class Stack<T*> : protected Stack<void *> {  
    // Forwards all functions to Stack<void*>  
};
```

Type Tricks with Specialization



- Discover whether types are the same
 - Example: IsSame.cpp
- Discover whether a type is a template
 - Example: IsTemplate.cpp
- (These examples are from Steve Dewhurst)
- More such neat stuff in Metaprogramming section




```
// IsTemplate.cpp {-bor}
#include <iostream>
#include <typeinfo>
#include <vector>
using namespace std;

template<typename T>
struct IsTemplate {
    enum { numargs = 0 };
};

template<template<typename> class X, typename T>
struct IsTemplate< X<T> > {
    enum { numargs = 1 };
    typedef T type;    // extract T!
};


template<template<typename, typename> class X, typename T1,
typename T2>
struct IsTemplate< X<T1, T2> > {
    enum { numargs = 2 };
    typedef T1 type1;
    typedef T2 type2;
};
```



```
// A test template
template<typename T>
struct Foo {
    T t;
};

int main() {
    typedef IsTemplate<int> Int;
    if (Int::numargs == 0)
        cout << "int is not a template\n";

    typedef IsTemplate< Foo<double> > Foo_t;
    if (Foo_t::numargs) {
        cout << "Foo is a template with "
            << Foo_t::numargs << " argument(s)\n";
        cout << "Its argument here is "
            << typeid(Foo_t::type).name() << endl;
    }
}
```



```
typedef IsTemplate< vector<int> > IntVec;
if (IntVec::numargs == 2) {
    cout << "vector is a template with " << IntVec::numargs
        << " argument(s)\n";
    cout << "Its first argument here is "
        << typeid(IntVec::type1).name() << endl;
    cout << "Its second argument here is "
        << typeid(IntVec::type2).name() << endl;
}
}

/* Output:
int is not a template
Foo is a template with 1 argument(s)
Its argument here is double
vector is a template with 2 argument(s)
Its first argument here is int
Its second argument here is std::allocator<>
*/
```

Name Taxonomy



- Names can be nicely dichotomized as:
 - Unqualified
 - x, f()
 - Qualified (provides context)
 - A::x, x.f(), p->f()
- Names inside templates are also either:
 - Dependent
 - They depend on a template parameter: e.g., **T::iterator**
 - We used **typename** earlier for dependent types
 - Non-dependent

Name Lookup Outside of Templates



- Normally found by searching enclosing scopes
 - Inside-out
 - Local, class, base class, namespace/global
- Special case:
std::string s(...);
std::cout << s << std::endl;
- How is **operator<<(ostream&, const string&)** found?
 - It wasn't explicitly requested

Argument-Dependent Lookup



- Also known as “Koenig” Lookup
- To find the scope of definition of a function, the namespace (or class) of each argument type is searched
- Motivated by operator overloading
- Since “s” was a std::string, and cout is a std::ostream, search for operator<<() in std
- Ambiguities can still result, of course
- Can disable ADL with parentheses: (f)();

ADL “Gotcha”



- We have a class named Thesaurus (Chapter 7)
- There is an associated stream inserter for a Thesaurus Entry (class TEntry):
 - `ostream& operator<<(ostream&, const TEntry&);`
- In `main()` we call:
`std::copy(thesaurus.begin(), thesaurus.end(), ostream_iterator<TEntry>(cout, “\n”));`
 - Which calls the `operator<<()` above
- All of these arguments are in `std...`
 - ADL kicks in and ignores the global namespace!

Work-around



```
namespace std {
    ostream& operator<<(ostream& os, const TEntry& t)
    {
        os << t.first << ": ";
        copy(t.second.begin(), t.second.end(),
            ostream_iterator<string>(os, " "));
        return os;
    }
}
```

- Technically illegal!
- Every compiler supports it!
 - What choice do they have?!

Template Name Lookup Issues



- Some things cannot be resolved when the compiler first encounters a template definition
 - Anything depending on a template parameter
- The compiler must wait until instantiation time to resolve those issues
 - When template arguments are supplied
- Hence, a 2-step template compilation process:
 - 1) Template Definition
 - 2) Template Instantiation

Two-phase Template Compilation



- Template definition time
 - The template code is parsed
 - Obvious syntax errors are caught
 - Non-dependent names are looked up in the context of the template definition
- Template instantiation time
 - Dependent names are resolved
 - Which specialization to use is determined
- Examples follow

What Output Should Display?



```
void f(double) { cout << "f(double)" << endl; }

template<class T> class X {
public:
    void g() { f(1); }
};

void f(int) { cout << "f(int)" << endl; }

int main() {
    X<int>().g();
}
```

Answer



- `f()` is a non-dependent name, so it is looked up when the template code is parsed
- `f(double)` is in scope at the time, so the call resolves to that function, not `f(int)`
- Most compilers do the wrong thing here
 - For historical reasons (the rules were decided on late in the game)

A Second Example



```
template<class T, class Compare>
class PQV : public vector<T> {
    Compare comp;
public:
    PQV(Compare cmp = Compare()) : comp(cmp) {
        make_heap(this->begin(), this->end(), comp);
    }
    const T& top() const { return this->front(); }
    void push(const T& x) {
        this->push_back(x);
        push_heap(this->begin(), this->end(), comp);
    }
    void pop() {
        pop_heap(this->begin(), this->end(), comp);
        this->pop_back();
    }
};
```

Discussion



- If the calls to the inherited member functions (**begin**, **end**, **front**, etc.) were *unqualified*, they would be looked up *early*
- Since the base class is dependent on a template parameter, the base class can't be searched at template definition time
 - Therefore, the inherited functions would not be found
- By qualifying the calls, the fact that the type of **this** (PQV) has a dependent base class causes lookup to be delayed until instantiation time.

Templates and Friends



- If a **friend** declaration inside of a class template is:
 - not dependent on any template parameter
 - then that function is a friend to all specializations of the host class template
 - a template using the same parameter as the class
 - then only the specialization that matches the class specialization is a friend
 - a member template (with parameter U, say)
 - then any flavor of the function can access any class version

```
// A Non-template
class Friendly {
    int i;
public:
    Friendly(int theInt) { i = theInt; }
    friend void f(const Friendly&); // Needs global def.
    void g() { f(*this); }
};

void h() {
    f(Friendly(1)); // Uses ADL
}

void f(const Friendly& fo) { // Definition of friend
    cout << fo.i << endl;
}

int main() {
    h(); // Prints 1
    Friendly(2).g(); // Prints 2
}
```



Now Make Friendly a Template



- We want a separate friend for each specialization of Friendly
- One solution:
 - Make `f()` a template
 - But it's not as easy as you might think
 - See next slide

A friend Function Template



```
// Necessary forward declarations:
template<class T> class Friendly;
template<class T> void f(const Friendly<T>&);

template<class T> class Friendly {
    T t;
public:
    Friendly(const T& theT) : t(theT) {}
    friend void f<>(const Friendly<T>&); // or <T>
    void g() { f(*this); }
};

void h() {
    f(Friendly<int>(1));
}

template<class T> void f(const Friendly<T>& fo) {
    cout << fo.t << endl;
}
```

Another Approach



- “Making New Friends”
 - Dan Saks’ term
- Define body of `f()` *in situ* (i.e., inside of `Friendly`)
 - “In Situ” is also Dan Saks’ term
- Such an `f()` is not a template!
 - No angle brackets are used
- A new ordinary function is created for each specialization of `Friendly`!
- See next slide

Making New Friends



```
template<class T> class Friendly {
    T t;
public:
    Friendly(const T& theT) : t(theT) {}
    friend void f(const Friendly<T>& fo) { // in situ
        cout << fo.t << endl;
    }
    void g() { f(*this); }
};

void h() {
    f(Friendly<int>(1));
}
```

Friend Templates



- We can arrange for all specializations of `f<>()` to befriend all specializations of `Friendly`

- Use a member template:

```
template<class T> class Friendly {  
    template<class U>  
        friend void f<>(const Friendly<U>&);  
    ...  
};
```

Template Programming Idioms



- Traits
- Policies
- The Curiously Recurring Template Pattern (CRTP)

Traits




- Traits usually hold *data* for chosen specializations of a template
 - **char_traits** contains member *functions*, but only to accommodate different overloads based on character type (strcmp() vs. wcsncmp()) – the functionality is basically the same for the two flavors of character
- Other examples follow

Character Traits




- Strings are templates
 - `template<class charT, class traits = char_traits<charT>, class allocator = allocator<charT> >`
 - `class basic_string;`
 - `typedef basic_string<char> string;`
- **char_traits** allow you to customize character-based operations
 - Can introduce case-insensitive searching once and for all
 - Can process Unicode characters
- Example: ICompare.cpp, IWCompare.cpp



```

struct ichar_traits : char_traits<char> {
    // We'll only change character-by-
    // character comparison functions
    static bool eq(char c1st, char c2nd) {
        return toupper(c1st) == toupper(c2nd);
    }
    static bool ne(char c1st, char c2nd) {
        return !eq(c1st, c2nd);
    }
    static bool lt(char c1st, char c2nd) {
        return toupper(c1st) < toupper(c2nd);
    }
    static int compare(const char* str1,
        const char* str2, size_t n) {
        for(size_t i = 0; i < n; i++) {
            if(str1[i] == 0)
                return -1;
            else if(str2[i] == 0)
                return 1;
            else if(tolower(str1[i]) < tolower(str2[i]))
                return -1;
            else if(tolower(str1[i]) > tolower(str2[i]))
                return 1;
            assert(tolower(str1[i]) == tolower(str2[i]));
            str1++; str2++; // Compare the other chars
        }
        return 0;
    }
}

```



```

static const char* find(const char* s1,
    size_t n, char c) {
    while(n-- > 0)
        if(toupper(*s1) == toupper(c))
            return s1;
        else
            ++s1;
    return 0;
}


};

typedef basic_string<char, ichar_traits> istring;

inline ostream& operator<<(ostream& os, const istring& s) {
    return os << string(s.c_str(), s.length());
}

#endif // ICHAR_TRAITS_H ///:~

```




```

//: C03:ICompare.cpp
#include <cassert>
#include <iostream>
#include "ichar_traits.h"
using namespace std;

int main() {
    // The same letters except for case:
    istring first = "tHis";
    istring second = "ThIS";
    cout << first << endl;
    cout << second << endl;
    assert(first.compare(second) == 0);
    assert(first.find('h') == 1);
    assert(first.find('I') == 2);
    assert(first.find('x') == string::npos);
} ///:~

```



```

struct iwchar_traits : char_traits<wchar_t> {
    // We'll only change character-by-
    // character comparison functions
    static bool eq(wchar_t c1st, wchar_t c2nd) {
        return towupper(c1st) == towupper(c2nd);
    }
    static bool ne(wchar_t c1st, wchar_t c2nd) {
        return towupper(c1st) != towupper(c2nd);
    }
    static bool lt(wchar_t c1st, wchar_t c2nd) {
        return towupper(c1st) < towupper(c2nd);
    }
    static int compare(const wchar_t* str1,
        const wchar_t* str2, size_t n) {
        for(size_t i = 0; i < n; i++) {
            if(str1[i] == 0)
                return -1;
            else if(str2[i] == 0)
                return 1;
            else if(towlower(*str1) < tolower(*str2))
                return -1;
            else if(towlower(*str1) > tolower(*str2))
                return 1;
            assert(towlower(*str1) == tolower(*str2));
            str1++; str2++; // Compare the other wchar_ts
        }
        return 0;
    }
}

```



```
typedef basic_string<wchar_t, iwchar_traits> wstring;

inline wostream& operator<<(wostream& os,
    const wstring& s) {
    return os << wstring(s.c_str(), s.length());
}
#endif // IWCHAR_TRAITS_H ///:~
```



```
//: C03:IWCompare.cpp
//{-g++}
#include <cassert>
#include <iostream>
#include "iwchar_traits.h"
using namespace std;

int main() {
    // The same letters except for case:
    wstring wfirst = L"tHis";
    wstring wsecond = L"ThIS";
    wcout << wfirst << endl;
    wcout << wsecond << endl;
    assert(wfirst.compare(wsecond) == 0);
    assert(wfirst.find('h') == 1);
    assert(wfirst.find('I') == 2);
    assert(wfirst.find('x') == wstring::npos);
} ///:~
```

std::numeric_limits



```
template<class T> class numeric_limits {
public:
    static const bool is_specialized = false;
    static T min() throw(); // for float, etc.
    static T max() throw();
    static const int digits = 0;
    static const int digits10 = 0;
    static const bool is_signed = false;
    static const bool is_integer = false;
    static const bool is_exact = false;
    static const int radix = 0;
    static T epsilon() throw();
    ...
};
```

Traits at Bear Corner



```
// Item classes (traits of guests):

// Beverage types:
class Milk {};
class CondensedMilk {};

// Snack types:
class Honey {};
class Cookies {};

// Guest classes:
class Bear {};
class Boy {};
```


Traits at Bear Corner



```
// Primary traits template (could hold common types)
template<class Guest> class GuestTraits;

// Traits specializations for Guest types
template<> class GuestTraits<Bear> {
public:
    typedef CondensedMilk beverage_type;
    typedef Honey snack_type;
};

template<> class GuestTraits<Boy> {
public:
    typedef Milk beverage_type;
    typedef Cookies snack_type;
};
```

Traits at Bear Corner



```
// A custom traits class
class MixedUpTraits {
public:
    typedef Milk beverage_type;
    typedef Honey snack_type;
};

// The Guest template (uses a traits class)
template<class Guest, class traits = GuestTraits<Guest> >
class BearCorner {
    Guest theGuest;
    typedef typename traits::beverage_type beverage_type;
    typedef typename traits::snack_type snack_type;
    beverage_type bev;
    snack_type snack;
public:
    BearCorner(const Guest& g) : theGuest(g) {}
    void entertain() {
        cout << "Entertaining " << theGuest
              << " serving " << bev
              << " and " << snack << endl;
    }
};
```

Traits at Bear Corner



```
int main() {  
    Boy cr;  
    BearCorner<Boy> pc1 (cr) ;  
    pc1.entertain() ;  
    Bear pb;  
    BearCorner<Bear> pc2 (pb) ;  
    pc2.entertain() ;  
    BearCorner<Bear, MixedUpTraits> pc3 (pb) ;  
    pc3.entertain() ;  
}
```

/* Output:

Entertaining Patrick serving Milk and Cookies

Entertaining Theodore serving Condensed Milk and Honey

Entertaining Theodore serving Milk and Honey

*/

Policies



- Similar to traits, but the emphasis is on associating *functionality* with a template parameter
 - not data
- Pioneered by Andrei Alexandrescu
 - *Modern C++ Design*

Policies at Bear Corner



```
// Policy classes (require a static doAction() function):
class Feed {
public:
    static const char* doAction() { return "Feeding"; }
};

class Stuff {
public:
    static const char* doAction() { return "Stuffing"; }
};
```

Policies at Bear Corner



```
// The Guest template (uses a policy and a traits class)
template<class Guest, class Action,
        class traits = GuestTraits<Guest> >
class BearCorner {
    Guest theGuest;
    typedef typename traits::beverage_type beverage_type;
    typedef typename traits::snack_type snack_type;
    beverage_type bev;
    snack_type snack;
public:
    BearCorner(const Guest& g) : theGuest(g) {}
    void entertain() {
        cout << Action::doAction() << " " << theGuest
              << " with " << bev
              << " and " << snack << endl;
    }
};
```

Policies at Bear Corner



```
int main() {  
    Boy cr;  
    BearCorner<Boy, Feed> pc1(cr);  
    pc1.entertain();  
    Bear pb;  
    BearCorner<Bear, Stuff> pc2(pb);  
    pc2.entertain();  
}
```

Counting Objects



- Can use a static data member that tracks the object count
- Constructors increment
- Destructors decrement

Counting Non-template objects



```
// This is C++ 101:
class CountedClass {
    static int count;
public:
    CountedClass() { ++count; }
    CountedClass(const CountedClass&) { ++count; }
    ~CountedClass() { --count; }
    static int getCount() { return count; }
};

int CountedClass::count = 0;
```

Observation



- The logic for counting objects is type-independent
- It would be a shame to replicate that code for each class to be counted
- The non-template solution for code sharing is *inheritance*
- See next slide

How *not* to share Counting Code



```
class Counted {
    static int count;
public:
    Counted() { ++count; }
    Counted(const Counted&) { ++count; }
    ~Counted() { --count; }
    static int getCount() { return count; }
};

int Counted::count = 0;

// All derived classes share the same count!
class CountedClass : public Counted {};
class CountedClass2 : public Counted {};
```

The Solution



- We need a separate count for each class to be counted
- We need to inherit from a *different class* for each client class
- Hence, we need to combine *both* inheritance and template (parametric) polymorphism
- See next slide

A Template Counter Solution



```
template<class T> class Counted {
    static int count;
public:
    Counted() { ++count; }
    Counted(const Counted<T>&) { ++count; }
    ~Counted() { --count; }
    static int getCount() { return count; }
};
template<class T> int Counted<T>::count = 0;

// Curious class definitions!!!
class CountedClass : public Counted<CountedClass>
{};
class CountedClass2 : public Counted<CountedClass2>
{};
```

The Curiously Recurring Template Pattern (CRTP)



- A class, **T**, inherits from a template that specializes on **T**!
- `class T : public X<T> {...};`
- Only valid if the size of `X<T>` can be determined independently of `T`.

Singleton via CRTP



- Inherit Singleton-ness
- Uses Meyers' static singleton object approach
 - Since nothing non-static is inherited, the size is known at template definition time
- Protected constructor, destructor
- Disables copy/assign
- See next slide

Singleton via CRTP



```
// Base class - encapsulates singleton-ness
template<class T> class Singleton {
    Singleton(const Singleton&);
    Singleton& operator=(const Singleton&);
protected:
    Singleton() {}
    virtual ~Singleton() {}
public:
    static T& instance() {
        static T theInstance; // Meyers' Singleton
        return theInstance;
    }
};
```


Making a Class a Singleton



```
// A sample class to be made into a Singleton
class MyClass : public Singleton<MyClass> {
    int x;
protected:
    friend class Singleton<MyClass>; // to create it
    MyClass() { x = 0; }
public:
    void setValue(int n) { x = n; }
    int getValue() const { return x; }
};

int main() {
    MyClass& m = MyClass::instance();
    cout << m.getValue() << endl;
    m.setValue(1);
    cout << m.getValue() << endl;
}
```

Template Metaprogramming



- Compile-time Computation!
 - whoa!
- Has been proven to be “Turing complete”
 - means that theoretically, you can do *anything* at compile time
 - reminiscent of functional programming
 - in practice, it’s used for custom code generation, compile-time assertions, and numerical libraries

The “Hello World” Examples for TMP



- Factorial.cpp
- Power.cpp
- Accumulate.cpp
- Loops are done by recursion
- Decisions done by the ternary operator ?: or by partial specialization
- Remember, only compile-time constants (ints, types) can be used

Compile-time Factorial



```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

template<int n> struct Factorial {
    enum { val = Factorial<n-1>::val * n };
};

template<> struct Factorial<0> {
    enum { val = 1 };
};

int main() {
    cout << Factorial<12>::val << endl;
    // Prints 479001600
}
```

Compile-time Exponentiation



```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

template<int N, int P> struct Power {
    enum { val = N * Power<N, P-1>::val };
};

template<int N> struct Power<N, 0> {
    enum { val = 1 };
};

int main() {
    cout << Power<2, 5>::val << endl;    // 32
}
```

Compile-time Accumulation

From Eisenecker and Czarnecki



```
// Accumulates the results of F(0)..F(n)
template<int n, template<int> class F> struct Accumulate
{
    enum { val = Accumulate<n-1, F>::val + F<n>::val };
};

// The stopping criterion (returns the value F(0))
template<template<int> class F> struct Accumulate<0, F>
{
    enum { val = F<0>::val };
};
```



```
// Various "functions":
template<int n> struct Identity {
    enum { val = n };
};

template<int n> struct Square {
    enum { val = n*n };
};

template<int n> struct Cube {
    enum { val = n*n*n };
};

int main() {
    cout << Accumulate<4, Identity>::val << endl; // 10
    cout << Accumulate<4, Square>::val << endl;    // 30
    cout << Accumulate<4, Cube>::val << endl;      // 100
}
```

Static Assertions



- Uses a combination of macro magic, local classes, and full specialization to obtain a “meaningful” message when a compile-time assertion fails
- More expressive than the widely used:

```
#define STATIC_ASSERT(x) \
    do { typedef int a[(x) ? 1 : -1]; } while(0)
```

Alexandrescu's Static Assertions



```
// A template and a specialization
template<bool> struct StaticCheck {
    StaticCheck(...); // Universal implicit conversion
};

template<> struct StaticCheck<false> {};

// The macro (generates a local class)
#define STATIC_CHECK(expr, msg) { \
    class Error_##msg {}; \
    sizeof((StaticCheck<expr>(Error_##msg()))); \
}
```

Applying STATIC_CHECK



```
// Detects narrowing conversions
template<class To, class From> To safe_cast(From from)
{
    STATIC_CHECK(sizeof(From) <= sizeof(To),
                  NarrowingConversion);
    return reinterpret_cast<To>(from);
}

int main() {
    void* p = 0;
    int i = safe_cast<int>(p);
    cout << "int cast okay" << endl;
    //! char c = safe_cast<char>(p);
}

/* Error message when last line is uncommented:
Cannot cast from 'Error_NarrowingConversion' to 'StaticCheck<0>' in
function char safe_cast<char,void*>(void *)
*/
```

Had Enough?



- We're skipping:
 - Expression Templates
 - a certain form of metaprogramming
 - heavily used in professional math libraries
 - Explicit Instantiation
 - a way of controlling what get instantiated when
 - Template Compilation models
 - Inclusion
 - everything in header files
 - Separation
 - a small degree of separation
 - It's all in the book