Modern C++ Programming

8. C++ Templates and Meta-programming I

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Function Template

Template Overview

Template

A **template** is a mechanism for generic programming to provide a "schema" (or placeholders) to represent the structure of an entity

In C++, templates are a compile-time functionality to represent:

- A family of functions
- A family of classes
- A family of variables C++14

Templates are a way to make code more reusable and faster

negative sides: hard to read, cryptic error messages, larger binary size, and higher compile time

The problem: We want to define a function to handle different types

```
int add(int a, int b) {
   return a + b;
}
float add(float a, float b) { // overloading
    return a + b;
      add(char a, char b) { ... } // overloading
char
ClassX add(ClassX a, ClassX b) { ... } // overloading
```

- Redundant code!!
- How many functions we have to write!?
- If the user introduces a new type we have to write another function!!

Function Templates

Function templates are special functions that can operate with *generic* types (independent of any particular type)

Allow to create a function template whose functionality can be adapted to more than one type or class without repeating the entire code for each type

Templates: Benefits and Drawbacks

Benefits

- Generic Programming: Less code and reusable. Reduce redundancy, better maintainability and flexibility
- Performance. Computation can be done at compile-time

Drawbacks

- Readability. With respect to C++, the syntax and idioms of templates are
 esoteric compared to conventional C++ programming, and templates can be very
 difficult to understand [wikipedia]
- Compile Time. Templates are implicitly instantiated for every different parameters

Template Parameters

```
template<typename T>
```

typename T is a template parameter

In common cases, a template parameter can be:

- generic type: typename
- non-type template parameters
 - integral type: int , char , etc. (but not floating point)
 - enumerator: enum, enumerator class: enum class

int parameter

```
template<int A, int B>
int add_int() {
   return A + B; // sum is computed at compile-time
} // e.g. add_int<3, 4>();
```

enum parameter

```
enum class Enum { Left, Right };

template<Enum Z>
int add_enum(int a, int b) {
   return (Z == Enum::Left) ? a + b : a;
}  // e.g. add_enum<Enum::Left>(3, 4);
```

Ceiling division

```
template<int DIV, typename T>
T ceil_div(T value) {
    return (value + DIV - 1) / DIV;
}
// e.g. ceil_div<5>(11); // returns 3
```

Rounded division

```
template<int DIV, typename T>
T round_div(T value) {
   return (value + DIV / 2) / DIV;
}
// e.g. round_div<5>(11); // returns 2 (2.2)
```

Since DIV is known at compile-time, the compiler can heavily optimize the division (almost for every numbers, not just for power of two)

Code Generation

The compiler generates a specific function implementation for $\underline{\text{every}}$ template parameter instance

```
template<typename T>
T add(T a, T b) {
   return a + b:
add(3, 4);  // generates: int add(int, int)
add(3.0f, 4.0f); // generates: float add(float, float)
add(2, 6): // already generated
// other instances are not generated
// e.g. char add(char, char)
```

C++11 Template parameters can have default values

(only at the end of the parameter list)

```
// template<int A = 3, int B> // compile error
template<int A = 3>
int print1() {
    cout << A;
}
print1<2>(); // print 2
print1<>(); // print 3 (default)
print1(); // print 3 (default)
```

Template parameters may have no name

```
void f() {}

template<typename = void>
void g() {}

int main() {
    g(); // generated
}
```

f() is <u>always</u> generated in the final code g() is generated in the final code <u>only</u> if it is called

C++11 Unlike function parameters, template parameters can be initialized by previous values

```
template<int A, int B = A + 3>
void f() {
   cout << B:
template<typename T, int S = sizeof(T)>
void g(T) {
   cout << S:
f<3>(); // B is 6
g(3); // S is 4
```

Specialization

Specialization refers to the concrete implementation for a specific combination of template parameters

The problem:

```
template<typename T>
T compare(T a, T b) {
   return a < b;
}</pre>
```

The direct comparison between two floating-point values is dangerous due to rounding errors

Solution: Template specialization

```
template<>
float compare<float>(float a, float b) {
    return ... // floating point relative error implementation
} // see "Basic I" lecture
```

<u>Full Specialization</u>: *Function* templates can be specialized only if <u>ALL</u> template arguments are specialized

Function Template - Overloading

Template Functions can be *overloaded*

```
template<typename T>
T add(T a, T b) {
    return a + b;
} // e.g add(3, 4);

template<typename T>
T add(T a, T b, T c) { // different number of parameters
    return a + b + c;
} // e.g add(3, 4, 5);
```

Also templates themselves can be overloaded

auto Deduction

C++17 introduces automatic deduction of *non-type* template parameters with the ${\tt auto}$ keyword

```
template<int X, int Y>
void f() {}
template<auto X, auto Y>
void g() {}
f<2u, 2u>(); // X: int, Y: int
g<2, 3>(); // X: int, Y: int
g<2u, 2u>(); // X: unsigned, Y: unsigned
g<2, 3u>(); // X: int, Y: unsigned
```

Compile-Time

Utilities

C++11 static_assert is used to test a software assertion at compile-time

If the static assertion fails, the program does not compile

```
static_assert(2 + 2 == 4, "test1"); // ok, it compiles
static_assert(2 + 2 == 5, "test2"); // compile error
static_assert(sizeof(void*) * 8 == 64, "test3");
// depends on the OS (32/64-bit)
```

```
template<typename T, typename R>
void f(T, R) {
    static_assert(sizeof(T) == sizeof(R), "test4");
}

f<int, unsigned>(); // ok, it compiles
// f<int, char>(); // compile error
```

C++11 decltype is a keyword used to get the type of an *entity* or an *expression*

decltype never executes, it only evaluates at compile-type

```
int x = 3;
int \& y = x;
const int z = 4;
int array[2];
decltype(x); // int
decltype(2 + 3.0); // double
decltype(y); // int&
decltype(z); // const int
decltype(array); // int[2]
```

```
bool f(int) { return true; }
struct A {
    int x;
};
int x = 3;
const A a;
decltype(x); // int
decltype((x)); // int&
decltype(f); // bool
decltype((f));  // bool (*)(int)
decltype(a.x); // int
decltype((a.x)); // const int
```

C++11

```
template<typename T, typename R>
decltype(T{} + R{}) add(T x, R y) {
    return x + y;
}
unsigned v1 = add(1, 2u);
double v2 = add(1.5, 2u);
```

C + +14

```
template<typename T, typename R>
auto add(T x, R y) {
    return x + y;
}
```

using keyword (C++11)

using keyword introduces alias templates (synonyms)

- using is an enhanced version of typedef
- using is useful to simplify complex template expression
- using allows defining partial and full specialization

```
template<typename T, typename R>
struct A {};

template<typename T>
using Alias = A<T, int>;  // partial specialization alias

using IntAlias = A<int, int>;  // full specialization alias

Alias<char> a;  // A<char, int>
IntAlias b;  // A<int, int>
```

```
template<typename T>
struct A {
    using type = int;
};
template<typename T>
using B = typename A<T>::type;
template<typename T>
void f() {
   typename A<T>::type x;
template<typename T>
void g() {
   B<T> x; // no need to repeat typename
```

```
typedef void (*function)(int, float);
using function = void (*)(int, float);
void function(int, float);
using function = decltype(function);
```

Type Traits

Introspection

Introspection is the ability to inspect a type and retrieve its various qualities

Reflection

Reflection is the ability of a computer program to examine, introspect, and <u>modify</u> its own structure and behavior at runtime

C++ provides $\underline{compile\text{-time}}$ reflection and introspection capabilities through \underline{type} \underline{traits}

Type traits (C++11)

Type traits defines a <u>compile-time</u> interface to query or modify the properties of types

The problem:

```
template<typename T>
T floor_div(T a, T b) {
    return a / b;
}

floor_div(7, 2);  // returns 3 (int)
floor_div(71, 21);  // returns 3 (long int)
floor_div(7.0, 3.0); // ??? it compiles, but the result is not what we expect
```

Two alternatives: (1) Specialize (2) Type Traits + static_assert

. . .

If we want to **prevent floating-point division at compile-time** a first solution consists in specialize for all "integral" types

```
template<typename T>
T floor div(T a, T b); // declaration (error for other types)
template<>
char floor_div<char>(char a, char b) { // specialization
   return a / b;
template<>
int floor_div<int>(int a, int b) {  // specialization
    return a / b;
...unsigned char
...short
```

The best solution is to use **type traits**

std::is_integral<T> is a struct with a boolean field value

It is $\underline{\text{true}}$ if T is a bool, char, short, int, long, long long, $\underline{\text{false}}$ otherwise

- is_integral checks for an integral type (bool, char, unsigned char, short, unsigned short, int, long, etc.)
- is_floating_point checks for a floating-point type (float, double)
- is_arithmetic checks for a integral or floating-point type
- is_signed checks for a signed type (float, int, etc.)
- is_unsigned checks for an unsigned type (unsigned T, bool, etc.)
- is_enum checks for an enumerator type (enum, enum class)
- is_void checks for (void)
- is notint an absolute for a notintary (Tth)
- is_pointer checks for a pointer (T*)

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- is_reference checks for a reference (T&)
- is_array checks for an array (T (&)[N])
- is_function checks for a function type
- is_const checks if a type is const
- is_class checks for a class type (struct, class, not enum class)
- is_empty checks for empty class types (struct A {})
- is_abstract checks for a class with at least one pure virtual function
- is_polymorphic checks for a class with at least one virtual function
- is_final checks for a class that cannot be extended

Example (const Deduction)

```
#include <type traits>
template<typename T>
void f(T x) { cout << std::is const<T>::value; }
template<typename T>
void g(T& x) { cout << std::is_const<T>::value; }
template<typename T>
void h(T& x) {
   cout << std::is_const<T>::value;
   x = nullptr; // ok, it compiles for T: (const int)*
const int a = 3:
f(a); // print false, "const" drop in pass by-value
g(a); // print true
const int* b = nullptr;
h(b); // print false!! T: (const int)*
```

Type traits allows also to manipulate types by using the type field (can be also used in the return type of a function)

Example: convert int to unsigned

```
#include <type_traits>
using T = int;
T x = -3; // int
using R = typename std::make_unsigned<int>::type;
R y = 5; // unsigned
```

In general, type traits (or other *structure templates*) depend on a *type* template (*dependent name*) (type in the previous example). In these cases, the compiler needs to known if ::type is a type or a static member in advance

The keyword typename placed before the *structure template* solves this ambiguous e.g. typename std::make_unsigned<T>::type is a type

The expression can be combined with using or typedef to improve the readability e.g. using R = typename std::make_unsigned<int>::type;

Signed and Unsigned types:

- make_signed makes a type signed
- make_unsigned makes a type unsigned

Pointers and References:

- remove_pointer remove pointer (T* → T)
- lacktriangledown remove reference (T& ightarrow T)
- add_pointer add pointer (T → T*)
- lacktriangledown add_lvalue_reference add reference (T ightarrow T&)

Const Specifiers:

- remove_const remove const (const T \rightarrow T)
- add_constadd const

Type Manipulation

```
#include <type traits>
template<typename T>
void f(T ptr) {
    using R = typename std::remove_pointer<T>::type;
   R x = ptr[0]; // char
template<typename T>
void g(T x) {
    using R = typename std::add_const<T>::type;
   R v = 3;
// y = 4; // compile error
char a[] = "abc";
int b = 3;
f(a); // T: char*
g(b); // T: int
```

Type Relation and Transformation

Type relation:

- is_same<T, R> check if T and R are the same type
- is_base_of<T, R> check if T is base of R
- is_convertible<T, R> check if T can be converted to R

Type Transformation:

- common_type<T, R> returns the common type between T and R
- conditional<pred, T, R> returns T if pred is true, R otherwise
- decay<T> returns the same type as function pass-by-value

Example

```
#include <type traits>
template<typename T, typename R>
T add(T a, R b) {
    static assert(std::is same<T, R>::value,
                  "T and R must be the same)
   return a + b;
struct A {}
struct B : A {}
add(1, 2); // ok
// add(1, 2.0); // compile error
std::is base<A. B>::value: // true
std::is_base<A, A>::value; // true
std::is_convertible<int, float>::value; // true
```

std::common_type Example

```
#include <type traits>
template<typename T, typename R>
typename std::common type<R, T>::type // <-- return type
add(T a, R b) {
   return a + b;
add(3, 4.0f); // .. but we don't know the type of the result
// we can use decltype to derive the result type of
// a generic expression
using result_t = decltype(add(3, 4.0f));
result t x = add(3, 4.0f);
```

std::conditional Example

```
#include <type traits>
template<typename T, typename R>
void f(T a, R b) {
    const bool pred = sizeof(T) > sizeof(R);
    using S = typename std::conditional<pred, T, R>::type;
    S result = a + b;
f(2, 'a'); // S: int
f(2, 2ull); // S: unsigned long long
```

Type Traits in C++14/17

C++14 and C++17 provide utilities to improve the readability of type traits

```
#include <type traits>
std::is_signed_v<int>; // std::is_signed<int>::value
std::is_same_v<int, float>; // std::same<int, float>::value
std::make unsigned t<int>;
// instead of: typename std::make unsigned<int>::type
std::conditional_t<true, int, float>;
// instead of: typename std::conditional<true, int, float>::type
```

Template

Parameters

Template Parameters

Template parameters can be:

- integral type (int, char, etc) (not floating point)
- enumerator, enumerator class
- generic type (can be anything)

But also:

- function
- reference to global static function or object
- pointer to global static function or object
- pointer to member type cannot be used directly, but the function can be specialized
- nullptr_t

C++20 allows floating-point types and classes

Generic Type Example

Pass multiple values and floating-point types

```
// template<float V> // compiler error
// void print() { // not valid
template<typename T> // generic typename
void print() {
    cout << T::x << ", " << T::y;
// cout << T::z; // compiler error</pre>
               // "z" is not a member of Multi
struct Multi {
    static const int x = 1:
    static constexpr float y = 2.0f;
};
print<Multi>(); // print 2.0, 3.0
```

Array and pointer

```
#include <instream>
template<int* ptr> // pointer
void g() {
   std::cout << ptr[0];
template<int (&array)[3]> // reference
void f() {
   std::cout << array[0];
int array[] = {2, 3, 4}; // global
int main() {
   f<array>(); // print 2
   g<array>(); // print 2
```

Class member

```
struct A {
   int x = 5;
   int y[3] = \{4, 2, 3\};
};
template<int A::*z> // pointer to
void h1() {}
              // member type
template<int (A::*z)[3]> // pointer to
void h2() {} // member tupe
int main() {
   h1<&A::x>(); // print 5
   h2<&A::v>(): // print 4
```

Function

```
template<int (*)(int, int)> // <-- signature of "f"</pre>
int apply1(int a, int b) {
   return g(a, b);
int f(int a, int b) {
   return a + b;
template<decltype(f)> // alternative syntax
void apply2(int a, int b) {
   return g(a, b):
int main() {
    apply1<f>(2, 3); // return 5
    apply2<f>(2, 3); // return 5
```