Modern C++ Programming

9. C++ Templates and Meta-programming II

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Class Template

Class Template

In a similar way to function templates, **class templates** are used to build a family of classes

```
template<typename T>
struct A { // templated class (typename template)
   T x = 0:
};
template<int N1>
struct B { // templated class (numeric template)
   const int N = N1:
};
int main() {
   A<int> a1; // a1.x is int = 0
   A<float> a2; // a2.x is float = 0.0f
   A<double> a4; // a3.x is double = 0.0
   B<1> b1; // b1.N is 1
   B<2> b2: // b2.N is 2
```

Template Class Constructor

C++17 introduces *automatic* deduction of class template arguments for object constructor

The *main difference* with template functions is that classes can be **partially** specialized

Note: Every class specialization (both partial and full) is a completely **new class** and it does not share anything with the generic class

```
template<typename T, typename R>
struct A {
                      // generic template class
   T x:
};
template<typename T>
struct A<T, int> { // partial specialization
   T y;
};
template<>
struct A<float, int> { // full specialization
   Tz;
};
```

Template Class Specialization

```
template<typename T, typename R>
struct A {
      // generic template class
   T x;
};
template<typename T>
struct A<T, int> { // partial specialization
   T y;
};
int main() {
  A<float, float> a1;
  a1.x; // ok
// a1.y; // compile error!!
  A<float, int> a2;
  a2.v; // ok
// a2.x; // compile error!!
```

```
#include <iostream>
template<typename T, typename R>
struct A {
                     // generic template class
    void f() { std::cout << "A<T, R>"; }
};
template<typename T>
struct A<T, int> { // partial specialization
   void f() { std::cout << "A<T, int>"; }
};
int main() {
   A<float, float> a1;
    a1.f(); // print "A<T, R>"
    A<float, int> a2;
    a2.f(); // print "A<T, int>"
```

Example 1: Class + Function Templates

```
template<typename T>
struct A {
    T x = 2;
};
template<typename T, int N>
struct B : A<T> {
    template<typename R>
    int f(T y, R z) {
        return x * N;
    }
};
int main() {
    B<int, 3> b;
    b.f(3, 3.3);
```

Example 2: Implement a Simple Type Trait

```
#include <iostream>
#include <type traits>
// std::true_type, std::false_type contain a field "value"
// set to true or false respectively
template<typename T>
struct is const pointer : std::false type {};
template<typename R> // const R* specialization
struct is_const_pointer<const R*> : std::true_type {};
int main() {
   using namespace std;
   cout << std::is_const<int*>::value;  // print false
   cout << std::is_const<const int*>::value; // print false
   cout << std::is_const<int* const>::value; // print true
   cout << is_const_pointer<int*>::value;  // print false
   cout << is const pointer<const int*>::value; // print true
   cout << is_const_pointer<int* const>::value; // print false
```

Example 3: Compare Class Templates

```
#include <iostream>
#include <type traits>
template<typename T> struct A {};
template<typename T> struct B {};
template<typename T, typename R>
struct Compare : std::false_type {};
template<typename T, typename R>
struct Compare<A<T>, A<R>> : std::true type {};
int main() {
    using namespace std;
    cout << Compare<int, float>::value; // false
    cout << Compare<int, int>::value; // false
    cout << Compare<B<int>, B<int>>::value; // false
    cout << Compare<A<int>, B<int>>::value; // false
    cout << Compare<A<int>, A<float>>::value; // true
}
```

Given a template class and a template member function

```
template<typename T, typename R>
struct A {
   template<typename X, typename Y>
   void f();
};
```

There are three ways to specialize the class/function:

- Generic class, generic function
- Full class specialization, generic function or full function specialization
- Partial class specialization + declaration, generic function or full function specialization

```
template<typename T, typename R>
template<typename X, typename Y>
void A<T, R>::f() {}
// ok, A<T, R> and f<X, Y> are not specialized
template<>
template<typename X, typename Y>
void A<int, int>::f() {}
// ok, A<int, int> is full specialized
// ok, f < X, Y > is not specialized
template<>
template<>
void A<int, int>::f<int, int>() {}
// ok, A<int, int> and f<int, int> are full specialize
```

Errors

```
template<typename T>
template<typename X, typename Y>
void A<T, int>::f() {}
//! error: A<T, int> is partially specialized
//! (A<T. int> class is not declared)
template<typename T, typename R>
template<typename X>
void A<T, R>::f<int, X>() {}
//! function members cannot be partially specialized
template<typename T, typename R>
template<>
void A<T, R>::f<int, int>() {}
//! function members of a unspecialized class cannot
//! be specialized
```

virtual Functions

Virtual functions cannot have template arguments

- Templates are a compile-time feature
- Virtual functions are a run-time feature

Full story:

The reason for the language disallowing the particular construct is that there are potentially <u>infinite</u> different types that could be instantiating your template member function, and that in turn means that the compiler would have to generate code to dynamically dispatch those many types, which is infeasible

stackoverflow.com/a/79682130

Class Template Hierarchy

Member of class templates can be used *internally* in derived class templates by specifying the particular type of the base class with the keyword using

```
template<typename T>
struct A {
   T x:
   void f() {}
};
template<typename T>
struct B : A<T> {
   using A<T>::x; // needed (may be also a specialization)
   using A<T>::f; // needed
   void g() {
       x;
       f();
```

friend keyword

```
template<typename T>
                             struct A {};
template<typename T, typename R> struct B {};
class C {
   friend class A<int>;
                                  // match only A<int>
   template<typename> friend class A; // match all A templates
// template<typename T> friend class B<int, T>;
       partial specialization cannot be declared as a friend
   friend void f<int>();
                                     // match only f<int>
   template<typename T> friend void f(); // match all templates
};
```

Template Dependent Names (template keyword)

The template keyword tells the compiler that what follows is a function template, and not a member data

This is important when there are two (or more) dependent names

```
template<typename T>
struct A {
   template<typename R>
   void g() {}
};
template<typename T> // (A<T> is a dependent name (from T)
void f(A < T > a) { // (q < int > is a dependent name (from int)
// a.g<int>();  // compile error!!
// interpreted as: "(a.g < int) > ()"
   a.template g<int>(); // ok
}
```

Template Template Arguments

Template template parameters match *templates* instead of concrete types

```
template<typename T> struct A {};
template<typename T> struct B {};
template<template <typename> class R>
struct B {
    R < int > x;
    R<float> v;
};
template <template <typename > class R, typename S>
void f(R \le x)  {} // works with every class and type
int main() {
    f( A<int>() );
    f( B<float>() );
    B < A > y;
```

Template Variable

C++14 allows the creation of variables that are templated

Template variable can be considered a special case of template class

```
template<typename T>
constexpr T pi = T{3.1415926535897932385}; // variable template
template<typename T>
T circular_area(T r) {
   return pi<T> * r * r; // pi<T> is a variable template
                          // instantiation
int main() {
   circular_area(3.3f); // float
   circular_area(3.3); // double
// circular_area(3); // error -> narrowing conversion on "pi"
```

Meta-Programming

Template

Template Meta-Programming

"Metaprogramming is the writing of computer programs with the ability to **treat programs as their data**. It means that a program could be designed to read, generate, analyse or transform other programs, and even modify itself while running"

"Template meta-programming refers to uses of the C++ template system to **perform computation at compile-time** within the code. Templates metaprogramming include compile-time constants, data structures, and complete functions"

Template Meta-Programming

- Template Meta-Programming is fast
 Template Metaprogramming is computed at compile-time (nothing is computed at run-time)
- Template Meta-Programming is Turing Complete
 Template Metaprogramming is capable of expressing all tasks that standard programming language can accomplish
- Template Meta-Programming requires longer compile time
 Template recursion heavily slows down the compile time, and
 requires much more memory than compiling standard code
- Template Meta-Programming is complex
 Everything is expressed recursively. Hard to read, hard to write,
 and also very hard to debug

Example 1: Factorial

```
template <int N>
struct Factorial { // specialization: recursive step
   static const int value = N * Factorial<N - 1>::value;
};
template <>
struct Factorial<0> { // specialization: base case
   static const int value = 1;
};
int main() {
   int x = Factorial<5>::value; // 120
// int y = Factorial<-1>::value; // Infinite recursion :)
```

Example 1: Factorial (Notes)

The previous example can be easily written as a constexpr in C++14

```
template <typename T>
constexpr int factorial(T value) {
   T tmp = 1;
   for (int i = 2; i <= value; i++)
        tmp *= i;
   return tmp;
};</pre>
```

Advantages:

- Easy to read and write (easy to debug)
- Faster compile time (no recursion)
- Works with different types (typename T)

Example 2: Log2

```
template <int N>
struct Log2 {
    static_assert(N > 0, "N must be greater than zero");
    static const int value = 1 + Log2<N / 2>::value;
};
template <>
struct Log2<1> { // partial specialization: base case
    static const int value = 0;
};
int main() {
    int x = Log2<20>::value; // 4
```

Example 3: Log

```
template <int A, int B>
struct Max {
   static const int value = A > B ? A : B;
};
template <int N, int BASE>
struct Log {      // specialization: recursive step
   static_assert(BASE > 0, "BASE must be greater than zero");
   static const int TMP = Max<1, N / BASE>::value;
   static const int value = 1 + Log<TMP, BASE>::value;
};
template <int BASE>
struct Log<1, BASE> { // partial specialization: base case
   static const int value = 0:
};
int main() {
   int x = Log<20, 2>::value; // 4
}
```

Example 4: Unroll (Compile-time/Run-time Mix)

```
template<int MAX VALUE, int STEP = 0>
struct Unroll {
                                     // recursive step
   template<typename Op>
    static void run(Op op) {
        op(STEP);
       Unroll<MAX VALUE, STEP + 1>::run(op);
    }
};
template<int MAX_VALUE>
struct Unroll<MAX VALUE, MAX VALUE> { // base case (specialization)
   template<typename Op>
    static void run(Op) {}
};
struct MyOp {
    void operator()(int step) { // Function call operator
        std::cout << step << ", ";
};
int main() {
    Unroll<5>::run( MyOp() ); // print 0, 1, 2, 3, 4
}
```

SFINAE: Substitution

Failure Is Not An Error

SFINAE

Substitution failure is not an error (SFINAE) applies during overload resolution of function templates. When substituting the deduced type for the template parameter <u>fails</u>, the specialization <u>is discarded</u> from the overload set *instead* of causing a compile error

The problem

```
template<typename T>
T ceil_div(T value, T div);
unsigned ceil_div<unsigned>(unsigned value, unsigned div) {
    return (value + div - 1) / div;
}
int ceil_div<int>(int value, int div) {
    return (value > 0) ^ (div > 0) ?
        (value / div) : (value + div - 1) / div;
}
// what about "char", "unsigned char", "short", etc.?
```

std::enable_if Type Trait

The most common way to adopt SFINAE is using the std::enable_if/std::enable_if_t type traits

std::enable_if allows a function template or a class template
specialization to include or exclude itself from a set of matching
functions/classes

```
template<bool B, class T = void>
struct enable_if {
    // "type" is not defined of "B = false"
};
template<class T>
struct enable_if<true, T> {
    using type = T;
};
```

helper alias: std::enable_if_t<T> instead of
typename std::enable_if<T>::type

```
#include <iostream>
#include <type_traits>
template<typename T>
std::enable_if_t<std::is_signed_v<T>>
f(T) {
    std::cout << "signed";
template<typename T>
std::enable_if_t<!std::is_signed_v<T>>
f(T) {
    std::cout << "unsigned";</pre>
int main() {
    f(1); // print "signed"
   f(1u); // print "unsigned"
```

```
#include <iostream>
#include <type traits>
template<typename T>
void g(std::enable_if_t<std::is_signed_v<T>, T>) {
    std::cout << "signed";</pre>
template<typename T>
void g(std::enable_if_t<!std::is_signed_v<T>, T>) {
    std::cout << "unsigned";</pre>
}
int main() {
    h<int>(1); // print "signed"
    h<unsigned>(1); // print "unsigned"
}
```

```
#include <iostream>
#include <type_traits>
template<typename T>
void h(T,
       std::enable_if_t<std::is_signed_v<T>, T> = 0) {
    std::cout << "signed";
}
template<typename T>
void h(T,
       std::enable_if_t<!std::is_signed_v<T>, T> = 0) {
    std::cout << "unsigned";</pre>
int main() {
    h(1); // print "signed"
    h(1u); // print "unsigned"
```

```
# include <type_traits>
#include <utility>
template<typename T, typename R>
decltype(std::declval<T>() + std::declval<R>())
add(T a, R b) {
   return a + b;
template<typename T>
std::enable if t<std::is class v<T>, T>
add(T a, T b) {
   return a;
struct A {};
int main() {
    add(1, 2); // return 3
    add(A(), A()); // add() not supported
```

```
#include <type traits>
#include <utility>
template<typename T,
         std::enable_if_t<std::is_signed_v<T>, int> = 0>
void f(T) {}
template<typename T,
         std::enable_if_t<!std::is_signed_v<T>, int> = 0>
void f(T) {}
int main() {
   f(4);
   f(4u);
```

Class SFINAE

```
#include <type traits>
template <typename T, typename Enable = void>
class A;
template <typename T>
struct A<T, std::enable_if_t<std::is_signed_v<T>>>
{};
template <typename T>
struct A<T, std::enable_if_t<!std::is_signed_v<T>>>
{};
int main() {
    A<int>;
    A<unsigned>;
```

SFINAE can be also used to check if a structure has a specific data member or type

Let consider the following structures:

```
struct A {
    static int x;
    int y;
    using type = int;
};
struct B {};
```

Check Struct Member - Variable

```
#include <type traits>
template<typename T, typename = void>
struct has x : std::false type {};
template<typename T>
struct has_x<T, decltype((void) T::x)> : std::true_type {};
template<typename T, typename = void>
struct has y : std::false type {};
template<typename T>
struct has_y<T,e
             decltype((void) std::declval<T>().y)> : std::true_type {};
int main() {
   has x< A >::value; // returns true
   has_x< B >::value; // returns false
   has_y< A >::value; // returns true
   has_y< B >::value; // returns false
```

```
template<typename...>
using void t = void; // included in C++17 <utility>
template<typename T, typename = void>
struct has_type : std::false_type {};
template<typename T>
struct has_type<T,
                std::void_t<typename T::R> > : std::true_type {};
int main() {
    has_type< A >::value; // returns true
   has_type< B >::value; // returns false
}
```

Support Trait for Stream Operator

```
template<typename T>
using EnableP = decltype( std::declval<std::ostream&>() <<</pre>
                          std::declval<T>() ):
template<typename T, typename = void>
struct is_stream_supported : std::false_type {};
template<typename T>
struct is_stream_supported<T, EnableP<T>> : std::true_type {};
struct A {};
int main() {
    is_stream_supported<int>::value; // returns true
    is_stream_supported<A>::value; // returns false
```

Variadic Templates

Variadic Templates

Variadic templates

Variadic templates (C++11), also called *template parameter* pack, are templates that take a <u>variable</u> number of arguments of any type

```
template<typename... TArgs> // variadic typename
void f(TArgs... args) {    // typename expansion
    args...;    // arguments expansion
}
```

Note: Variadic parameter must be the last one in the declaration

The number of variadic arguments can be retrieved with the sizeof...

```
sizeof...(args);
```

Variadic Templates

```
template<typename T, typename R>
auto add(T a, R b) {
                                      // base case
   return a + b;
// recursive case
template<typename T, typename... TArgs> // variadic typename
auto add(T a, TArgs... args) {
                            // typename expansion
   return a + add(args...);
                                     // parameters expansion
template<typename... TArgs>
void f(TArgs... args) {}
int main() {
   add(2, 3.0); // 5
   add(2, 3.0, 4); // 9
   add(2, 3.0, 4, 5); // 14
// add(2);  // compile error!!
   f(2); // ok, all parameters are variadic
   f();
                    // ok, all parameters are variadic
```

Variadic Template Parameters

```
template<typename... TArgs>
void f(TArgs... args) {} // generic
template<typename... TArgs>
void g(const TArgs&... args) {} // force "const references"
template<typename... TArgs>
void h(TArgs*... args) {} // force "pointer"
// list of "pointers" followed by a list of "const references"
template<typename... TArgs1, typename... TArgs2>
void f2(const TArgs1*... args, const TArgs2& ...va) {}
int main() {
   f(1, 2.0):
   g(1, 2.0);
   int* a. *b:
   h(a, b);
   f2(a, b, 3);
```

Variadic Template Parameters Recursion

```
template<typename T>
T square(T value) {
    return value * value;
template<typename T, typename... TArgs>
auto add(TArgs... args) {
    return (... + args);
template<typename... TArgs>
int add_square(TArgs... args) {
    return add(square(args)...); // square is applied to
                                 // variadic arguments
int main() {
    add_square(2, 2, 3); // returns 17
}
```

C++17 **Folding expressions** perform a *fold* of a template parameter pack over a *binary* operator

Unary folding

```
template<typename... Args>
auto add(Args... args) {
    return (... + args); // unfold: 1 + 2.0f + 3ull
}
int main() {
    add(1, 2.0f, 3ll); // returns 6.0f (float)
}
```

Binary folding

```
template<typename... Args>
auto add(Args... args) {
    return (1 + ... + args); // unfold: 1 + 1 + 2.0f + 3ull
}
int main() {
    add(1, 2.0f, 3ll); // returns 7.0f (float)
}
```

Variadic Template sizeof and sizeof...

int count(TArgs... args) { // count number of arguments

template<typename... TArgs>

```
return sizeof...(args);
template<typename T, typename R>
auto add(T a, R b) { return a + b; }
template<typename T, typename... TArgs>
auto add(T a, TArgs... args) {
   return a + add(args...);
template<typename... TArgs>
int f(TArgs... args) { // get the sum of argument sizes
   return add(sizeof(args)...);
}
int main() {
    count(2, 2.0, 'a'); // returns 3
   f(2, 2.0, 'a'); // returns 4 + 8 + 1 = 13 (int + double + char) 44/60
}
```

Class Variadic Template

Variadic Template can be used to build recursive data structures

```
template<typename... TArgs>
struct Tuple; // data structure declaration
template<typename T>
struct Tuple<T> { // base case
   T value; // specialization with one parameter
};
template<typename T, typename... TArgs>
struct Tuple<T, TArgs...> { // recursive case
                  value; // specialization with more
   Т
   Tuple<TArgs...> tail; // than one parameter
};
int main() {
   Tuple<int, float, char> t1 { 2, 2.0, 'a' };
   t1.value: // 2
   t1.tail.value; // 2.0
   t1.tail.tail.value; // 'a'
```

Variadic Template and Meta-Programming

```
template<int... NArgs>
struct Add; // data structure declaration
template<int N1, int N2>
struct Add<N1, N2> { // base case
   static const int value = N1 + N2;
};
template<int N1, int... NArgs>
struct Add<N1, NArgs...> { // recursive case
    static const int value = N1 + Add<NArgs...>::value;
};
int main() {
    Add<2, 3, 4>::value; // returns 9
// Add<2>::value; // compile error Add<> "empty"
```

Get function arity at compile-time:

```
template <typename T>
                                                void f(int, char, double) {}
struct GetArity;
                                                int main() {
// generic function pointer
template<typename R, typename... Args>
struct GetArity<R(*)(Args...)> {
    static const int value = sizeof...(Args);
                                                    auto& g = f;
};
// generic function reference
template<typename R, typename... Args>
struct GetArity<R(&)(Args...)> {
    static const int value = sizeof...(Args);
};
                                                    auto* h = f:
// generic function object
template<typename R, typename... Args>
struct GetArity<R(Args...)> {
    static const int value = sizeof...(Args);
                                               Full Story:
};
                                               stackoverflow.com/a/27867127
```

```
// function object
GetArity<decltype(f)>::value;
// function reference
GetArity<decltype(g)>::value;
// function reference
GetArity<decltype((f))>::value;
// function pointer
GetArity<decltype(h)>::value;
                           47/60
```

Get operator() (and lambda) arity at compile-time:

```
template <typename T>
struct GetArity;
template<typename R, typename C, typename... Args>
struct GetArity<R(C::*)(Args...)> { // class member
    static const int value = sizeof...(Args);
};
template<typename R, typename C, typename... Args>
struct GetArity<R(C::*)(Args...) const> { // "const" class member
    static const int value = sizeof...(Args);
};
struct A {
    void operator()(char, char) {}
    void operator()(char, char) const {}
};
int main() {
    GetArity<A>::value; // call GetArity<R(C::*)(Args...)>
    GetArity < const A > :: value; // call GetArity < R(C::*) (Args...) const > 48/60
```

Variadic Template and Macro Trick

Variadic macro can be used to simplify class definition

```
template<typename type1, typename type2, typename type3>
struct MyClass {
    A<int, type1> f();
    A<int, type2> g();
};
#define MYCLASS(...)
template<typename type1, typename type2, typename type3>
__VA_ARGS__ MyClass<type1, type2, type3>
template<typename type1, typename type2, typename type3>
A<int, type1> MyClass<type1, type2, type3>::f() {
    . . .
MYCLASS(A<int, type1>)::g() {
    . . .
}
```

STD Template Classes

```
#include <utility>
```

std::pair class couples together a pair of values, which
may be of different types

Construct a std::pair

- std::pair<T1, T2> pair(value1, value2)
- std::pair<T1, T2> pair = {value1, value2}
- auto pair = std::make_pair(value1, value2)

Data members:

- first access first field
- second access second field

Methods:

- comparison ==, <, >, \geq , \leq
- swap std::swap

```
#include <utility>
#include <iostream>
int main() {
    using namespace std;
    std::pair<int, std::string> pair1(3, "abc");
    std::pair<int, std::string> pair2 = { 4, "zzz" };
    auto pair3 = std::make_pair(3, "hgt");
    cout << pair1.first; // print 3</pre>
    cout << pair1.second; // print "abc"</pre>
    swap(pair1, pair2);
    cout << pair2.first; // print "zzz"</pre>
    cout << pair2.second; // print 4</pre>
    cout << (pair1 > pair2); // print 1
```

```
#include <tuple>
```

std::tuple is a fixed-size collection of heterogeneous
values. It is a generalization of std::pair. It allows any
number of values

Construct a std::tuple (of size 3)

- std::tuple<T1, T2, T3> tuple(value1, value2, value3)
- std::tuple<T1, T2, T3> tuple = {value1, value2, value3}
- auto tuple = std::make_tuple(value1, value2, value3)

Data members:

```
std:get<I>(tuple) returns the i-th value of the tuple
```

Methods:

- comparison ==, <, >, \geq , \leq
- swap std::swap

Utility methods:

- auto t3 = std::tuple_cat(t1, t2)
 concatenate two tuples
- const int size = std::tuple_size<TupleT>::value
 returns the number of elements in a tuple at compile-time
- using T = typename std::tuple_element<TupleT>::type
 obtains the type of the specified element
- std::tie(value1, value2, value3) = tuple
 creates a tuple of references to its arguments
- std::ignore
 an object of unspecified type such that any value can be assigned to it with no effect

```
#include <tuple>
#include <iostream>
std::tuple<int, float, char> f() { return {7, 0.1f, 'a'}; }
int main() {
   std::tuple<int, char, float> tuple1(3, 'c', 2.2f);
   std::tuple<int, char, float> tuple2 = {2, 'd', 1.5f};
   auto tuple3 = std::make_tuple(3, 'c', 2.2f);
   std::cout << std::get<0>(tuple1); // print 3
   std::cout << std::get<1>(tuple1); // print 'c'
   std::cout << std::get<2>(tuple1); // print 2.2f
   std::cout << (tuple1 > tuple2); // print 1
   auto concat = std::tuple_cat(tuple1, tuple2);
   std::cout << std::tuple size<decltype(concat)>::value; // print 6
   using T = std::tuple element<4, decltype(concat)>::type; // T is int
   int value1; float value2;
   std::tie(value1, value2, std::ignore) = f();
                                                                        54/60
```

C++17 std::variant represents a type-safe union as the corresponding objects know which type is currently being held

std::variant can be indexed by:

- std::get<index>(variant) an integer
- std::get<type>(variant) a type

```
#include <variant>
int main() {
    std::variant<int, float, bool> v(3.3f);

int x = std::get<0>(v); // return integer value
    bool y = std::get<bool>(v); // return bool value

// std::get<0>(v) = 2.0f; // run-time exception!!
}
```

Another useful method is index() which returns position of the type currently held by the variant

```
#include <variant>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    std::variant<int, float, bool> v(3.3f);
    cout << v.index(); // return 1</pre>
    std::get<bool>(v) = true
    cout << v.index(); // return 2</pre>
```

It is also possible to query the index at run-time depending on the type currently being held by providing a **visitor**

```
#include <iostream>
#include <variant>
struct Visitor {
    void operator()(int& value) { value *= 2; }
    void operator()(float& value) { value += 3.0f; } // <--</pre>
    void operator()(bool& value) { value = true; }
};
int main() {
    std::variant<int, float, bool> v(3.3f);
    std::visit(v, Visitor{});
    std::cout << std::get<float>(v); // 6.3f
```

C++17 provides std::optional facilities to represent potential "no value" states

As an example, it can be used for representing the state when an element is not found in a set

```
#include <iostream>
#include <optional>

std::optional<std::string> find(const char* set, char value) {
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
        if (set[i] == value)
            return i;
    }
    return {}; // std::nullopt;
}</pre>
```

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    char set[] = "sdfslgfsdg";
    auto x = find(set, 'a');
    if (!x)
        cout << "not found";</pre>
    if (x.has_value())
        cout << "not found";</pre>
    auto y = find(set, 'd');
    cout << *y << " " << y.value(); // print '1' '1'
    x.value_or(-1); // print '-1'
    x.value_or(-1); // print '1'
```

C++17 introduces std::any to hold arbitrary values and provides type-safety

```
#include <any>
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
    std::any var = 1; // int
    cout << var.type().name(); // print 'i'</pre>
    cout << std::any_cast<int>(var);
// cout << std::any cast<float>(var); // exception!!
    var = 3.14;  // double
    cout << std::any_cast<double>(var);
    var.reset():
    cout << var.has_value(); // print 'false'</pre>
```