



BSc (Hons) Computer Games Technology

Introspection in C++

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1 Introduction

1.1 Abstract

The C++ programming language, until very recently, almost completely lacks any way to introspect its data types and functions from within the language itself. The C++11 specification allows this to a limited extent, with the use of *type_traits* and the *decltype* and *auto* keywords. C++17 goes even further with the use of *structure* bindings, which can be used to get access to the members of a class, assuming some limitations about it. Despite this, however, they do not allow much more than toy examples and very basic introspection of data. While there are some 3rd party libraries which aid this, these often come with a lot of negatives and can be very complicated to work with, often requiring the programmer to rewrite their code how the library wants it. This piece discusses a tool which aims to provide introspection in C++ in a robust and easy-to-use way. This is so C++ programmers can write more robust code using introspection features common in other languages, without making performance trade-offs to get them. The main design goal of this tool is that it should be very easy to use. It should be able to work with most C++ projects with minimal work to set it up on the part of the user, and be fast enough so it's not a burden on build times. It should also be easy to work with from within the code, and not have a lot of complicated frameworks and implicit knowledge for the user to understand in order to use the tool.

1.2 The Topic

While many programming languages provide complex mechanisms in order to introspect the data and functions of the language itself, this is a feature missing from C++. Other popular languages, such as Java (Gosling, 1995) and C# (Microsoft, 2000), allow the programmer to view, and even manipulate the data, at runtime. Some newer languages, such as D or Go, offer introspection at compile-time, meaning that there is no runtime cost to the introspection. However, introspecting data at compile time means that the metaprogramming facilities offered are more limited, so there are benefits and drawbacks to each way.

1.3 The Problem

Because C++ lacks anything beyond the most basic type introspection, it can make a lot of programming just boilerplate, which takes up a lot of time. If the user wishes to print out a class to the console, for example, they will have to manually type in each member, and print out each one uniquely. This is very error prone, as simply adding a new member variable to the class means that the data being printed out is not a complete representation of the class. Using introspection, this problem can be trivially solved.

1.4 The Project

This project aims to allow C++ programmers to view their data in a similar ways to other performance-orientated languages, like D (Bright, 2001) or Rust (Hoare, 2010). It will parse a C++ file, and generate a *metafile* for it, which is a standard header file to be included. Inside this header file will be information which allows the user to introspect their data structures in rich and complex ways.

While there are a few ways this project could have been completed, an external tool is the best way to solve the problem. If the tool had been built by extending a current open-source compiler, like Clang or GCC, then the tool would not be able to be widely accepted. People using the tool would be forced to use a specific compiler, which is not even standard-conforming. Having the tool as a separate executable, which generates code, means that it can be used with a wide range of compilers across multiple platforms.

Another way to develop the tool would have been using the GNU Compiler Collection, henceforth referred to as *GCC*, or the Low-Level Virtual Machine, henceforth referred to as *LLVM*. These could have handled the parsing of the C++ language, as well as the standard-conforming code generation. The reason they were not picked was for speed-of-iteration. It would have taken a lot of time to set up LLVM to work on Windows and Linux, and it would have made the executable harder to distribute because it would require LLVM to work.

All of the generated code conforms strictly to the C++11 standard, and should work on Windows, OS X, or Linux operating systems. It has been tested and will compile correctly under Microsoft Visual Studio 2015 and Microsoft Visual Studio 2017; Clang 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 3.8, and 3.9; and GCC 6.3.

For the rest of this document, when referring to C++ code, the term *class* will be used to describe any data structure. Because C++ treats the keywords *class* and *struct* the same, except everything in a *class* is private by default, it helps to have a common name to refer to.

2 Management

2.1 Software used

The project was developed on a combination of Windows (Microsoft, 1993) and Linux (Torvalds, 1991) operating systems.

The project was mostly on the Windows operating system, although a lot of it was written on Linux, Ubuntu Distribution. The bulk of the project was written in the Sublime Text 3 (Skinner, 2016) text editor. This was because it is cross platform and runs the same on both Windows and Linux. Visual Studio 2015 was used to debug the project on Windows, and a combination of GDB and Visual Studio Code were used to debug it on Linux.

2.2 Version Control

The project used Git as its primary version control system, storing the code on the website GitHub. The code is available here: <https://github.com/CaptainSeagull/Preprocessor>.

The reason for choosing Git was because it is free, unlike Perforce (Perforce Software, 1995), and it very easy to set up using a custom repository on a website. Another reason for choosing Git was because it allows you to have a full version of the reposition stored locally on your computer, in the `.git` directory, which means the project could still be worked on when internet was temporarily unavailable, which is not as easy to do with Apache Subversion (CollabNet, 2000). At the time of writing, there have been over 400 commits, which show that the project has been developed in rapid, small chunks. This allows older commits to be viewed in isolation with a focus on the feature added, because the commits are generally small.

2.3 Gantt charts

Honours Project - Trimester 1

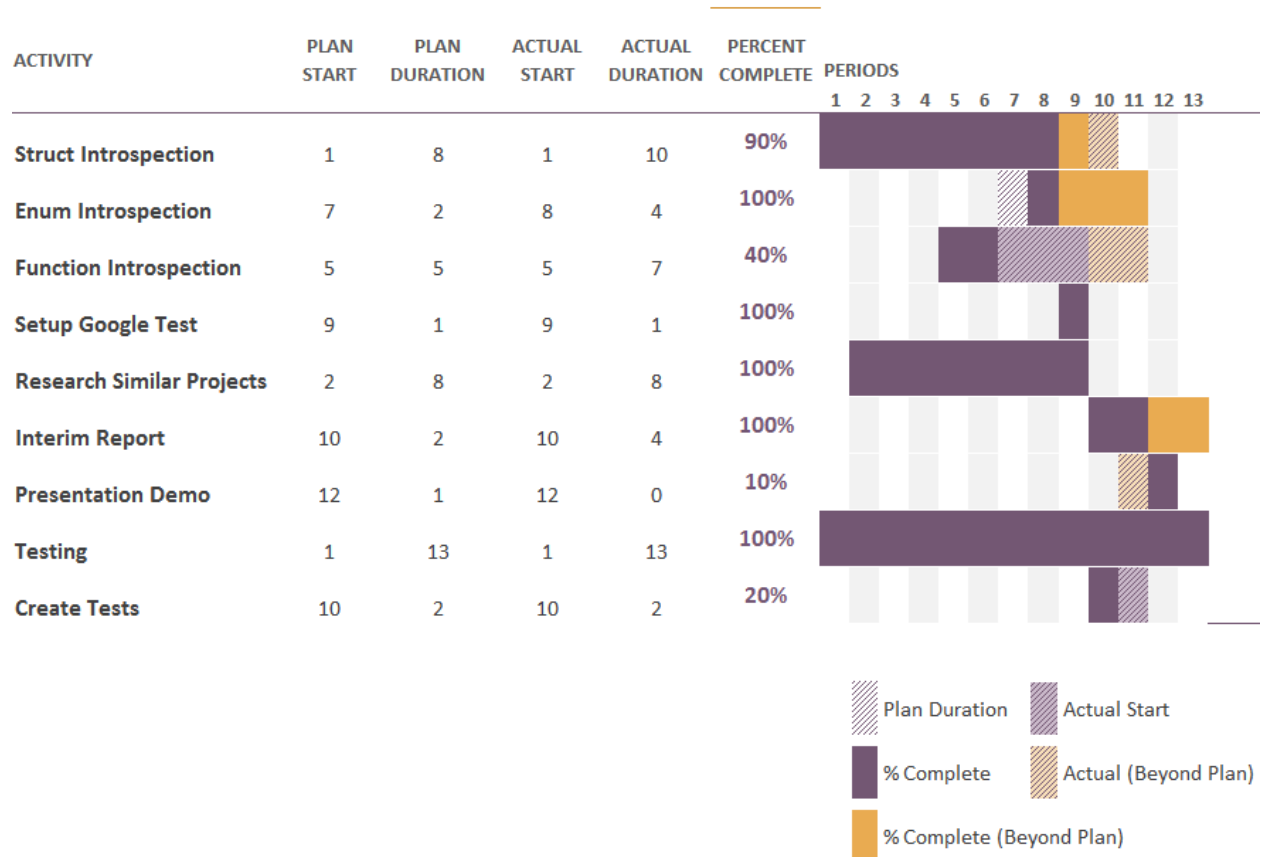


Figure 1 - Gantt Chart of progress for Trimester 1.

Honours Project - Trimester 2

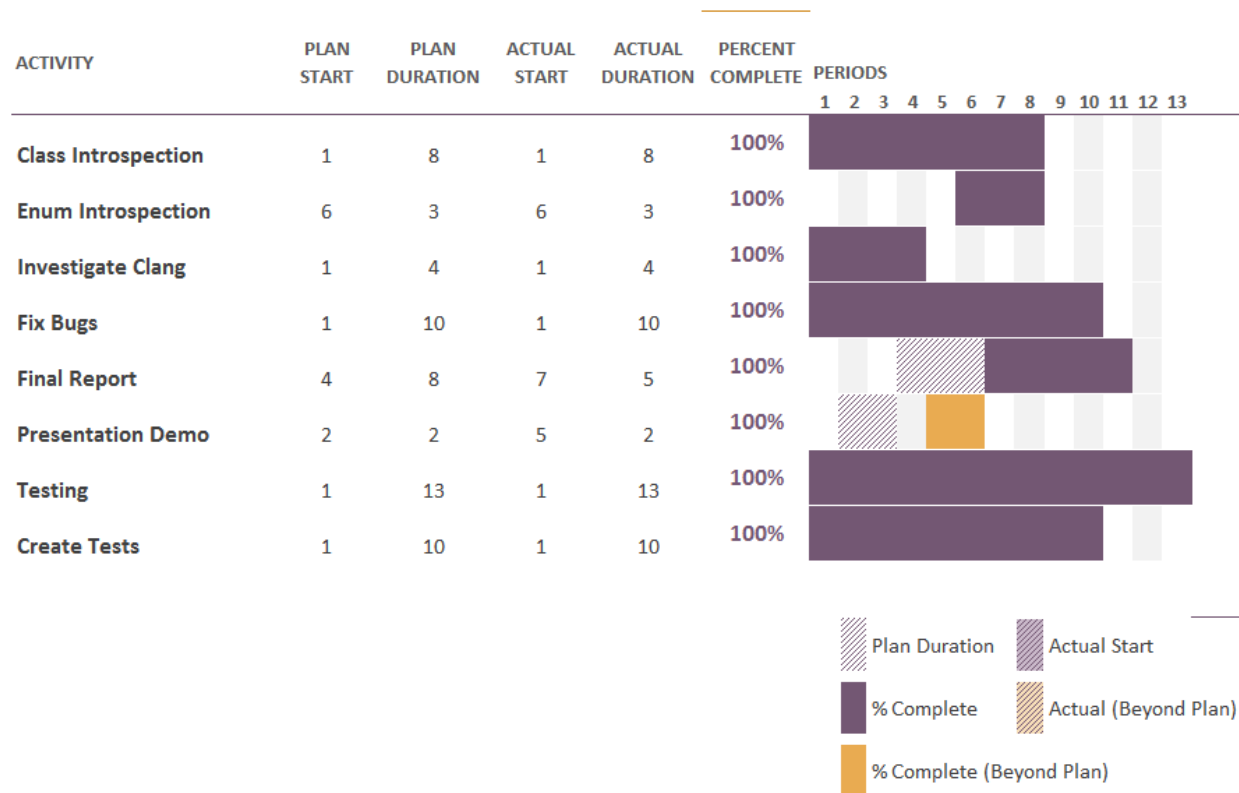


Figure 2 - Gantt Chart of progress for Trimester 2.

2.4 Iterative Development

The project is currently using a very iteration-based development cycle. Having small development cycles of two weeks has allowed a lot of work to be done on the project, and has managed to keep the scope of the project in check (Beck et al, 2001).

The project development has also been very flexible, and a lot of the planning has been added during development. This development style has meant that the focus of the project is constantly been checked, and priority has been given to the most important features.

3 Literature Review

This part of the report will analyse the work done on introspection in other programming languages, current C++ tools which provide introspection, and the current state of introspection in the C++ standard.

3.1 Runtime Reflection in Dynamic Languages

Dynamic languages, like JavaScript (Eich, 1995) Python (Rossum, 1991), and Lisp (McCarthy et al, 1958), have very powerful runtime introspection features. This is due to the fact that the language is not directly compiled into native assembly code, where everything has a solid memory address that can be accessed, and a size it takes in memory. Because of this, you can change a type that was an integer into a much larger type with a simple reassignment, and the interpreter just handles it.

Python has some powerful introspection features for outputting information about a type at runtime. Figure 3 shows an example of this.

```
class TestClass:
    i = 0
    j = 0

    def __init__(self):
        pass

test_class = TestClass()
print(dir(test_class))

"""
Prints:
['_class_', '__delattr__', '__dict__', '__dir__', '__doc__', '__eq__',
 '__format__', '__ge__', '__getattr__', '__gt__', '__hash__', '__init__',
 '__le__', '__lt__', '__module__', '__ne__', '__new__', '__reduce__',
 '__reduce_ex__', '__repr__', '__setattr__', '__sizeof__', '__str__',
 '__subclasshook__', '__weakref__', 'i', 'j']
"""
```

Figure 3 - A simple introspection example in Python

3.2 Runtime Reflection in strongly types languages

The language C# has some advanced reflection abilities, as well as simple, yet powerful, ones. In C#, every type in the .NET Framework has a *GetType* which simply returns the type it is as a *Type* variable (Lischke, 2016). This variable can be used to create new types, or used to compare types. An example of the C# *GetType* method is in Figure 4 which compares two integers, and then an integer and a floating pointer number.

```
Using System;

Namespace TestApplication {
    Class Program {
        Static void Main(string[] args) {
            int i=0, j=0;
            float f=0.0f;

            Type i_type = i.GetType();
            Type j_type = j.GetType();
            Type f_type = f.GetType();

            If(i_type.Equals(j_type) == true) {
                Console.WriteLine("I and j are the same type.");
            }

            If(i.type.Equals(f_type) == false) {
                Console.WriteLine("I and f are not the same type.");
            }

            /* Prints:
               "i and j are the same type."
               "i and f are not the same type."*/
        }
    }
}
```

Figure 4 - An example of C#'s GetType method and its output

C# also provides ways to retrieve the properties of a class at runtime. It does this by allowing each class which supports the *GetType* method, to also have a *GetProperties* method. The *GetProperties* method can be iterated through to access each element in a class. An example showing this is provided in Figure 5.

```
Using System;
namespace TestApplication {
    class TestClass {
        public int I { get; set; }
        public string str { get; set; }
    }

    class Program {
        static void Main() {
            TestClass test = new TestClass();
            test.i = 10;
            test.str = "Hello World";
            foreach(var prop in test.GetType().Getproperties()) {
                Console.WriteLine("{0} : {1}",
                                    prop.name,
                                    prop.GetValue(test, null));
            }
        }
    }
}
```

```

        /* Prints:
           "i : 10"
           "str : Hello World"*/
    }
}

```

Figure 5 - C#'s *GetProperties* method being used to get all the member variables in a class.

There is also an *IConvertible* class, which can be inherited from, which allows the user to change types at runtime. This is a very powerful introspection ability, which provides something similar to dynamic languages but with a statically compiled language's benefits, namely syntax checking for errors. It is also a good example of something which could not be done if the metaprogramming was done at compile time.

The programming language Java has built in introspection and reflection. Roy (2015) talks about the Java Beans API, which provides a lot of functionality to introspect objects. It allows you serialize objects and output their names and values. The Java beans API allows the user to analyse classes to discover properties, methods, and events. While this functionality is definitely a good thing, it has some drawbacks. Bean objects must have; a public no-argument constructor, a public get and set methods for each variable, and they must implement the *Serializable* or the *Externalizable* interfaces. These limitations may force the programmer to have to rewrite existing code in order to leverage the introspection features, which is something the tool tries to avoid.

3.3 Compile time introspection in other languages

Compile time introspection in languages has some significant benefits and drawbacks compared to runtime. While runtime introspection can be significantly more powerful than compile time, allowing the user to manipulate and change data at runtime, it also has a significant performance penalty compared to compile-time introspection.

The Go programming language has a lot of facilities for reflection built in. This includes the ability to update variables, apply operations to them, and call their functions, without knowing their value at compile time (Donovan, 2015). It allows this by having a *reflection* package. Inside this package, there are two main types; *Types* and *Values*. *Types* represent the actual type of the variable, and *Values* are the data the variable stores. Using this, it provides ways to convert types to strings, for outputting. This is very similar to how the tool discussed in this paper works, as it provides both ways to get the type and the value of a variable and convert them to a string, though it does it at compile-time rather than runtime. Figure 6 shows a simple example of introspection in Go, by iterating through all of the members of a data structure. Figure 6 was tested under Go version 6.1.2.

```

package main

import "reflect"
import "fmt"

type TestStruct struct {
    a, b, c int
}

```

```

}

func main() {
    var test_struct interface{} = TestStruct{1, 2, 3}

    // Iterate through and print all values in the struct.
    value := reflect.ValueOf(test_struct)
    for i := 0; i < value.NumField(); i++ {
        fmt.Println(value.Field(i))
    }
    /* Prints:
        1
        2
        3 */

    // Iterate through and print information about each member.
    struct_type := reflect.TypeOf(test_struct)
    for i := 0; i < struct_type.NumField(); i++ {
        fmt.Printf("%+v\n", struct_type.Field(i))
    }
    /* Prints:
    {Name:a PkgPath:main Type:int Tag: Offset:0 Index:[0] Anonymous:false}
    {Name:b PkgPath:main Type:int Tag: Offset:8 Index:[1] Anonymous:false}
    {Name:c PkgPath:main Type:int Tag: Offset:16 Index:[2] Anonymous:false} */
}

```

Figure 6 - Example of iterating through a data structure in Go.

The programming language D also provides a lot of tools for compile-time introspection. This allows it to have variable introspection, but avoid the runtime costs many other languages have for using such features. However, due to this, it can be slightly more limiting than other languages.

Adam D. Ruppe (2014) discusses a powerful introspection feature; the `__traits` function, which can retrieve all the compile-time introspection information about a data structure. Using this function, which is built into the language, you can get everything in a data structure, including traits, members, methods, and virtual methods.

Some of the examples in Figure 7 show uses of the `__traits` method to discover introspective information about a data structure.

```

import std.stdio;

struct A { int a; }

void main() {
    A a;

    writeln(__traits(hasMember, A, "a")); // true
    writeln(__traits(hasMember, A, "b")); // false

    // true (sizeof declared implicitly)
    writeln(__traits(hasMember, A, "sizeof"));
}

```

```

import std.stdio;

class Test {
private:
    int a;

public:
    void set_a(int i) { a = i; }
    int get_a() { return a; }
}

void main() {
    auto all_members = [__traits(allMembers, Test)];
    writeln(all_members);
    /* ["a", "set_a", "get_a", "toString", "toHash",
        "opCmp", "opEquals", "Monitor", "factory"] */
}

import std.stdio;

struct Test { int a; }
void main() {
    // Test whether some code will actually compile or not.
    // Useful for templates.
    writeln(__traits(compiles, Test));
    writeln(__traits(compiles, Test + 1));
}

```

Figure 7 - Some examples of compile-time introspection in D.

The language also has an operator called *typeof*, which you can use to test the type of something. The *typeof* operator can be used to create, but it can also be used to compare types, similar to *decltype* in C++. In D, type comparisons must be wrapped up in an *is* statement, which tests that the type is semantically and syntactically correct. Figure 8 shows an example where it is used compare whether something is a function or not.

```

import std.stdio;

void func() {}
void main() {
    int var;
    writeln(is(typeof(var) == function)); // false
    writeln(is(typeof(func) == function)); // true
}

```

Figure 8 - Using D's typeof operator to test whether something is a function or not.

3.4 External Introspection Tools

Because C++ lacks introspection features, some tools have cropped up which allow people to introspect their data.

The most popular library for C++, not including the Standard Template Library, is Boost, and it provides some aid for serialization. Ramey (2004) created Boost Serialization, and it allows uses to turn classes into a sequence of bytes, from which the entire state of the class can be re-created. However, a major limitation of Boost Serialization is it requires some intrusive code in order to set it up. This is in contrast to the program specified in this report, which requires no code to set up. It simply provides some helper functions to

the programmer, giving them the ability to implement generic features, like serialization, themselves.

One of the most commonly used C++ introspection tools is the Meta Object Compiler (Oliver, 2016), which will from now on be referred to as *Moc*. Moc's popularity stems from the fact it is coupled with the popular framework Qt (Trolltech, 1991). Moc has some interesting features. One of them is the ability to access member variables via a string, using the *setProperty* member function. It also creates a complex signals-and-slots framework, which can send a signal, which in turns calls all the functions associated with that action.

While Qt's Moc is a good tool, its design is very error prone and will mask bugs, with no compile error or runtime assert, and just silently fail. Figure 9 shows an example of where Moc works well, and where some of the errors in using it can lie.

```
#include <QObject>

// Must inherit from QObject
class Counter : public QObject {
    Q_OBJECT // Qt required macro

public:
    int value = 0;

public slots: // Qt keyword.
    void Counter::set_value(int value)
    {
        if (value != this->value) {
            this->value = value;
            emit value_changed(value);
        }
    }

signals: // Qt keyword.
    void value_changed(int new_value);
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Counter a, b;

    // Used to connect slots and signals. We connect a to b, so that when we
    // call a.set_value, it "emits" a value changed to b.
    QObject::connect(&a, SIGNAL(value_changed(int)),
                    &b, SLOT(set_value(int)));

    // When we change a using set_value, we emit a value_changed signal to b
    // so b's value will change as well.
    a.set_value(1); // a = 1, b = 1

    // We set up a to connect with b, not b to connect with a. So when we change
    // b nothing happens to a.
    b.set_value(2); // a = 1, b = 2

    // An example where Qt is very error prone. If the function does not exist,
    // Qt just silently fails here, with no compile error or runtime assert.
    QObject::connect(&a, SIGNAL(no_function(int)),
                    &b, SLOT(no_function (int)));
};
```

Figure 9 - A sample Qt program.

Moc also drags in a lot of code, including the entire Qt framework, and keywords, which the user must understand how they work, which make maintainability much harder. It also forces the user into a very specific style of programming. The tool discussed in this paper had its API designed very carefully so that it does not require the user to change their code significantly to use it.

There are various others downsides to Qt's Moc. It is very tightly coupled to the Qt framework, and would thus be unsuitable for a non-graphical application. Going further, however, it would be unsuitable for an application which wants to use introspection, in order to make more readable, robust or performant code; and if the user has a different 3D graphics package, whether it's another open source one or develop in-house, they would have to find a way to integrate their stuff with Qt.

Qt's Moc, and Qt itself, also have a lot of outstanding issues. Because Qt is trying to be a very large application, which does everything, it has become very buggy. The online bug list is hundreds of entries long, and some of them are years old. The tool discussed in this paper has an advantage over Qt in that regard, because the tool is very small and focused, so it is not spreading itself very thin and attempting to do too much, at a cost to the quality.

The Unreal Game Engine has a built-in system, which it calls *Properties*, which are used to provide limited introspection. This is built into the Unreal Engine, and you can *mark* variables as a property by using a keyword before the variable. This is a macro called *UCLASS* for classes, *UFUNCTION* for member functions, and *UPROPERTY* for member variables. Using this allows developers to introspect and generate their code in very specific and power ways. Similar to Qt's Moc, the Unreal Property System is mainly used in order to combine UI design and programming in C++. It allows you to create UI in the Unreal Editor, which then calls into a specific C++ function when an action is applied to it, for instance when a button is clicked.

There are many downsides to the Unreal Property System, however. The main issue is how tightly coupled it is to the Unreal Game Engine. There is no real way to separate the two, and thus if you wanted to use introspection in an application that was not a 3D package, it would not be suitable.

Another issue is it has introduced a lot of Unreal-specific keywords in the form of macros. Having a lot of these through code can make the code much more difficult to read, as anyone reading it now has to have an understanding of what the Unreal Property System is, how to use it, and what each of the keywords mean. This extra knowledge will make maintaining code, as well just reading others people's code, much more difficult.

3.5 Current State of Introspection in C++

As of C++11, C++ has some limited support for introspection. This is done via the Type Traits library, and the Decltype and Auto Specifiers. The Decltype Specifier provides a

way to get introspection information on a type at compile time. This is very similar to the *TypeOf* operator which GCC introduced as an extension into their C-language compiler. Figure 10 shows some examples of using the Decltype Specifier in order to create types based on another type.

```
#include <iostream>

int main(int argc, char **argv) {

    int a;
    decltype(a) b;    // b is of type int.
    decltype((a)) c; // c is type int &.

    int *ptr_a;
    decltype(ptr_a) ptr_b; // ptr_b is of type int *.
    decltype(*ptr_a) ptr_c; // ptr_c is of type int *&.

    return(0);
}
```

Figure 10 - Example showing decltype operator.

As you can see from the Figure 10, the Decltype Specifier is very powerful, but has some odd features. If we call *decltype* and put two brackets around the variable, instead of one, then the type of the variable is not a reference, and not a value. This odd behaviour can lead to some strange situations, as shown in Figure 11.

```
decltype(auto) func1() { int res = 0; return res; } // Returns int.
decltype(auto) func2() { int res = 0; return(res); } // Returns int &.

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    int one = func1();
    int two = func2();

    return(0);
}
```

Figure 11 - An example showing an easy mistake to make using the decltype operator.

In Figure 11, the only difference between *func1* and *func2* is whether *res* is wrapped in brackets or not. This can cause unintentional undefined behaviour, as the programmer would not have to know this part of the specification in order to avoid it.

In Figure 12, we also see another odd feature of the Decltype Specifier. If you dereference a pointer, then you get a reference to the type, not the type itself. Figure 12 shows an example where this could have been useful, had dereferencing within the Decltype Specifier returned the type, and not a reference to the type.

```
int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    // Common C idiom for allocating memory. Means that if the
    // type of a changes, the allocation is still correct. This
    // does not work in C++, however, because you have to cast
    // the void * return from malloc to the type.
    int *a = malloc(sizeof(*a));

    // This could have been a nice design idiom in C++, but the
    // decltype operator returns a reference to the type on
```



```

// dereference, not the type.
int *b = new decltype(*b);

return(0);
}

```

Figure 12 - Comparison of a common memory-allocation idiom in C, and what could have been a nice C++ idiom.

C++11 also has the Type Traits library, which can get some introspection information about types and some relationship information about them. Figure 13 shows some examples within the Type Traits library.

```

#include <iostream>
#include <type_traits>

class Base {};
class Test : public Base {};

class Complex { virtual void foo() = 0; };

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    // false
    std::cout << "Is Base the base class of Test? " <<
        << std::is_base_of<Test, Base>::value << std::endl;

    // true
    std::cout << "Is Base the base class of Test? " <<
        << std::is_base_of<Base, Test>::value << std::endl;

    // true
    std::cout << "Are Test and Test the same? " <<
        << std::is_same<Test, Test>::value << std::endl;

    // true
    std::cout << "Is Test a Plain Old Data type? " <<
        << std::is_pod<Test>::value << std::endl;

    // false
    std::cout << "Is Complex a Plain Old Data type? " <<
        << std::is_pod<Complex>::value << std::endl;

    // true
    std::cout << "Is signed? " << std::is_signed<int signed>::value << std::endl;

    // false
    std::cout << "Is signed? " << std::is_signed<int unsigned>::value << std::endl;

    // false
    std::cout << "Is signed? " << std::is_signed<Test>::value << std::endl;

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 13 - Example of type_traits library.

The Type Traits library was a good step towards introspection in C++, however it is still very lacking. There is no way to convert a type into a string for sterilization, print a class to the console, or get the base type of a class. Most of the features within the C++ Type Traits library are useful as part of an introspection system, but they cannot be used to make a generic one themselves.

C++17 provides some extra introspection information, which the C++11 standard lacked, in the form of structured bindings. Figure 14 shows an example of what structured bindings can do, and how they were done before C++17.

```
#include <iostream>

class TestOne {
public:
    int i;
    bool b;
    float f;
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test = {10, true, 3.14f};

    auto& [ i, b, f ] = test;

    // i, b, and f are now references to the members of test.

    return(0);
}
```

Figure 14 - Structure Bindings example

Structure bindings allow for some generic code examples to work. Figure 15 shows an example of using structure bindings to print a generic class to the console.

```
#include <iostream>

class TestOne {
public:
    int i;
    bool b;
};

class TestTwo {
public:
    short s;
    float f;
};

template<typename T>void print_class(T &t) {
    auto& [a, b] = t;

    std::cout << a << ' ' << b << std::endl;
}

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    TestOne test_one = { 1, true };
    TestTwo test_two = { 2, 3.14f };

    print_class(test_one); // Prints "1 1"
    print_class(test_two); // Prints "2 3.14"

    return(0);
}
```

Figure 15 - Generic Structure Bindings example.

Figure 15 has some obvious, and severe, limitations. The class must have only primitives in it, or the call to `std::cout` will fail. This could be overcome by having every class require an overload of the Left Shift Operator so `std::cout` would work on it, but doing so would make the generic `print_class` function redundant, because you would have to manually print out each variable anyway.

The class must also have exactly two members, because that is how many the line copying the data structures members is expecting. Because there is no native way to get the number of members in a C++ class, this code cannot become more generic without adding some boilerplate code, like making sure each class has a member that stores the number of members as a constant expression. This is very error prone, however, as the programmer could easily miss it when modifying the class.

3.6 Future of Introspection in C++.

Chochlik and Naumann (2016) discuss the rational and evolution of static reflection for C++ in their proposal to add it to the language. They discuss adding introspection to C++ so programmers could access features like; the name of a class, its base class, its data members, and any nested information within the class. They also discuss adding a new keyword to C++, *reflexpr*, which is used for the compile-time introspection.

In their paper, they propose introducing Meta-Objects, which are created via the *reflexpr*. Their proposal discusses creating constant classes for the program to use which the compiler fills out at compile time.

The operator they discuss, *reflexpr*, will return a *metatype* to the user conforming to the particular type passed in. This is because the details someone would want from a class are very different than what they would want from a function.

One of the issues discussed is how to introspect Unions. Unions would be very difficult to introspect, at least to the same extent as they propose introspecting classes, simply because of how limited they are in C++. It is also unclear whether Unions should generate their own meta-type or whether they should be paired together with class meta-types.

They also discuss the difficulties of adding a new keyword into C++, *reflexpr*, which could cause naming conflicts in codebases. However they believe this to be a small problem. They did a scan of 994 open-source repositories on GitHub and found no occurrences of “*reflexpr*”.

Figure 16 provides a small example, using Chochlík’s (2016) fork of Clang, where he implemented a version of the proposed reflection facilities, in order to get the number of members in a class.

```

#include <reflexpr>
#include <iostream>

class A {
public:
    int a;

private:
    int b;
}

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    typedef reflexpr(A) meta_A;

    std::cout << "The number of public data members is " <<
        std::meta::get_size_v<std::meta::get_data_members_t<meta_A>>;

    std::cout << '\n';

    std::cout << "The total number of data members is " <<
        std::meta::get_size_v<std::meta::get_all_data_members_t<meta_A>>;

    /* Output:
       The number of public data members is 1
       The total number of data members is 2 */
}

```

Figure 16 - Example, using Chochlik's Clang fork, to get the number of members in a class.

4 Current Work

4.1 Note on section 4

The C++ specification is sometimes a little loose on terms. An example would be, from Figure 17, what is an *int* to an *int **?

```
int integer;  
int *ptr;  
int &ref;  
int arr[32];
```

Figure 17 - Different "types" of an int in C++.

If we dereference *ptr*, then its type becomes an *int*. However, the C++ standard does not have a well-defined term for what an *int* is to an *int **, or an *int &*, or an *int* array. In the tool, I have defined an *int* as a *weak type* of an *int **, as it is the same type, but without any specifier.

4.2 The tool

The introspection tool being discussed in this document aims to add compile-time introspection into C++. It has a few design goals, which differ from some other introspection tools.

It is designed to be as non-intrusive as possible. The generated code is very lightweight, and the API assumes very little about the code it's working with. While some other introspection tools require the user to inherit from special base-classes and mark-up their class, this tool aims to be compatible with vanilla C++ code.

The code generated from the tool requires a C++11 compile to work. The code has been tested in C++11, C++14 and C++17-compliant compilers, and will work fine with them. The tool does not require C++14 or C++17 to run, however, because these versions are still new, and forcing people to have them to run the tool would have limited the number of people who could use the tool.

The introspection tool is all contained within one executable file. It does not link to any external dynamic or shared libraries, and statically links to the C Runtime Library on Windows. This was done because, on Linux shared libraries generally work well, on Windows they do not. On windows, most applications must ship with whatever version of the C-Runtime Library it is linked to, and if that gets updated it may break their code.

The tool has been tested with; GCC version 4.8.4; Clang versions 3.4, 3.5, and 3.8, and Visual Studio 2015 and Visual Studio 2017. It has been tested on Windows 8, Windows 10, and Ubuntu 14.04.5.

4.3 Usage

The pre-processor is just a small command-line tool which takes some arguments. It is a 572 KB large executable, with no dependencies on any dynamic linked or shared libraries, except system ones. Also, so that people would not be discouraged from using the tool,

special attention was given to make sure it could parse and output text at a very high speed.

A simple example of using the tool is provided in Figure 18.

```
preprocessor test_code.cpp  
g++ test_code.cpp
```

Figure 18 - Example using the tool with GCC,

The first line from Figure 18, *preprocessor test_code.cpp*, calls the tool on a sample program. This will generate a directory, *pp_generated*, and two files, *static_generated.h*, and, *test_code_generated.h*. The first file, *static_generated.h*, does not change between runs and is always written out the exact same. It has a lot of utility code shared between different generated files. The second file contains all the information required to introspect the C++ data structures.

The second line of Figure 18, *g++ test_code.cpp*, will compile the file, *test_code.cpp*. Inside the file *test_code.cpp* it is assumed to have included *test_code_generated.h*. Using the data written into *test_code_generated.h*, the user will be able to simulate advanced introspection of C++ data as if it were built into the language.

```
preprocessor test_code_one.cpp test_code_two.cpp  
g++ test_code_one.cpp test_code_two.cpp
```

Figure 19 - Example using the tool, and passing in two files.

Figure 19 shows an example of using the tool with two files, *test_code_one.cpp* and *test_code_two.cpp*. Figure 19 will still generate the directory *pp_generated* and *static_generated.h*, like Figure 18, but it will generate two meta files now, *test_code_one_generated.h*, and *test_code_two_generated.h*. These two generated files should be included in the relevant files.

Some of the features the user will be able to leverage include:

- Gain introspection data on classes at compile time, such as; their base class, the number of members the class has, and a way to convert the class type into a string.
- Ways to get the members of a class by an index, and ways to iterate through a class to access every member.
- Get the number of elements in an enumeration, at compile time.
- Convert a string into an enumeration index at runtime or compile time.
- Convert an enumeration index into a string at runtime or compile time.

4.4 Flags

When calling the program, there are a number of flags the user can pass in. A few of these are only available in debug-builds.

If the user passes the flag `-e` in, for *Errors*, then the tool will output errors to the console.

If the user passes the flag `-h` in, for *Help*, or doesn't pass anything in, then a help section will be displayed, as well as information how to use it.

In debug builds, there are a few extra flags. These were added to make debugging easier for the developer, and are compiled out for release builds. They are noted here for completeness.

The flag `-s` stands for *Silent*, and means that no code will be generated. This was useful for testing, because often it was useful to see if the tool could successfully parse a piece of code or not, but without caring about the output.

The flag `-t`, for *Tests*, then the program will run all the tests. The tests are run through the Google Test framework, which is only linked in debug builds. It will then run all the tests on the tool and check that it's okay. Most of the tests that run through Google Test make sure that the parser can handle difficult syntax. Passing `-t` in a debug build will only run the tests in a 64-bit build. This is, because of the 2 GB memory limitations of 32-bit builds on Windows, Google Test often ran out of memory during testing. Figure 20 shows how you could call the tool and pass some flags in.

```
preprocessor test_code.cpp -e -t
```

Figure 20 - Example calling the tool and passing flags in.

4.5 Google Test

The Google Test framework (Google, 2016) was used in order to test the parser, and find bugs quickly. Using it allowed large changes to be performance on the codebase, while ensuring existing functionality kept working.

Figure 21 shows a small example of a test in the code, which makes sure that the number of members in a class is correct.

```
TEST(StructText, number_of_members_test) {  
    char *str = "class A { int a, b, c; };"  
    ClassData gen = parse_class_test(str);  
    ASSERT_TRUE(gen.member_count == 3)  
        << "Error: Number of members in a class was not correct.";  
}
```

Figure 21 - Example of using Google Test.

First, the code creates a dummy string, which has a simple class with 3 members. Then, it passes this string into the `parse_class_test` function, which returns a `ClassData` data structure containing all the relevant information on the class parsed. Finally, it does a simple comparison to make sure the number of members parsed is actually three. If the

number of members was not three, then an assertion fail, and it would output the message and which test has failed.

The release build of the application does not link to Google Test, in order to keep the executable size down.

4.6 Custom Parser

The project uses a custom C++ parser, rather than a current open-source one, because of the limited choices available. None of the parsers - GCC_XML or ANTLR4, - support C++ templates. Because of these limitations, and because of the limited parts of C++ that the tool actually has to parse, it only needs to parse class definitions and function prototypes, it was more expedient to write a custom one rather than use a pre-existing one.

During development, an attempt was made to switch the custom parser to using Clang to parse the code. However, this was eventually decided against, because it would have taken a large amount of time to convert the parser to use Clang.

4.7 TypeInfo specialisation

The generated code has a special templated class called *pp::TypeInfo*. The default implementation is shown in Figure 22.

```
template<typename T> class pp::TypeInfo {
public:
    using type      = void;
    using weak_type = void;
    using base      = void;

    static constexpr char const * const name      = NULL;
    static constexpr char const * const weak_name = NULL;

    static constexpr size_t const member_count = 0;

    static constexpr bool const is_ptr = false;
    static constexpr bool const is_ref = false;

    static constexpr size_t const base_count = 0;

    static constexpr bool const is_primitive = false;
    static constexpr bool const is_class    = false;
    static constexpr bool const is_enum     = false;
};
```

Figure 22 - pp::TypeInfo's default implementation.

This implementation is the default that is used for whenever the user wants to get introspection information about a type. The generated code will scan all the classes within the file and will create template specializations of this class for each primitive, class, and enumeration in the file.

A subtle design decision, worth noting, is that the *type* field is set to *void* in the default specification, not *T*. While setting it to *T* may help make the code more robust, if, for

instance, the user wanted to introspect a class in a source file the system had missed, then this could work. However, most of the other fields would give misleading information. Because of this, a conscious design decision was made to set everything to obviously-wrong values, so that the user would notice the bug and could report it, rather than the system attempting to mask the bug, when it should be fixed.

Figure 23 shows an example of a typical class, and Figure 24 shows how the *pp::TypeInfo* specialization would be generated for it.

```
class BaseClass {
public:
    float x;
    float y;
    float z;
};

class SomeClass : public BaseClass {
public:
    int a;
    int b;
    int c;
};
```

Figure 23 - Simple class example.

```
template<> class pp::TypeInfo<SomeClass> {
public:
    using type          = SomeClass;
    using weak_type     = SomeClass;
    using base          = BaseClass;

    static constexpr char const * const name          = "SomeClass";
    static constexpr char const * const weak_name     = "SomeClass";

    static constexpr size_t const member_count = 3;

    static constexpr bool const is_ptr              = false;
    static constexpr bool const is_ref               = false;

    static constexpr size_t const base_count = 1;

    static constexpr bool const is_primitive = false;
    static constexpr bool const is_class     = true;
    static constexpr bool const is_enum      = false;
};
```

Figure 24 - Template specialization of pp::TypeInfo for SomeClass.

Having this template specialization, using static members, means that the user can quickly query information about a class and the information is generated at compile time.

In the actual tool, six specializations are generated for each class. The first line of each specialization is shown in Figure 25, but, for the sake of brevity, only the first line is shown. Each of the relevant fields, such as *is_ptr* and *is_ref*, and obviously changed depending on the version.

```
template<> class pp::TypeInfo<SomeClass>
template<> class pp::TypeInfo<SomeClass *>
```

```

template<> class pp::TypeInfo<SomeClass **>
template<> class pp::TypeInfo<SomeClass*>
template<> class pp::TypeInfo<SomeClass *>
template<> class pp::TypeInfo<SomeClass **&>

```

Figure 25 - Six generated specializations of `pp::TypeInfo` for `SomeClass`.

The first field of `pp::TypeInfo` is just an alias which is set to the type passed in. The second field, `weak_type`, is the type of the class without any qualifiers. If the user passed in a pointer, for example, then this will just be the vanilla type of the class without the pointer. While this may seem redundant, especially since there are two fields the same for the non-pointer version, the code is designed to be flexible. Complicated C++ libraries often make heavy use of templates, and being able to query not just what the type passed in is, but what its base is, is useful.

Figure 26 shows an example of using `pp::TypeInfo::weak_type`. The nice thing about this example is how robust it is. If the variable `i` is changed from a pointer to an integer to an integer, then the type of `k` will remain the same.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    int *i;

    pp::TypeInfo<decltype(i)>::type j;    // j is an int *.
    pp::TypeInfo<decltype(i)>::weak_type k; // k is an int.

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 26 - `pp::TypeInfo::weak_type` example

The next two fields declared in `pp::TypeInfo` are `name` and `weak_name`. Like `type` and `weak_type`, these correspond to the actual type and the base version of the type, except as strings. These are useful for outputting debug information about a type, or could also be used for writing a type to disk. A simple example using these is shown in Figure 27.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    int *i, j;

    std::cout << pp::TypeInfo<decltype(i)>::name << std::endl; // "int *"
    std::cout << pp::TypeInfo<decltype(j)>::name << std::endl; // "int"

    std::cout << pp::TypeInfo<decltype(i)>::weak_name << std::endl; // "int"
    std::cout << pp::TypeInfo<decltype(j)>::weak_name << std::endl; // "int"

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 27 - Outputting type and `weak_type`.

The field `is_ptr` on the `TypeInfo` class is just a boolean to tell if something is a pointer. Figure 28 shows a basic example of when this could be useful in a templated function.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

template<typename T>void do_something(T var) {
    if(pp::TypeInfo<T>::is_ptr) {
        std::cout << "This is a pointer" << std::endl;
    } else {
        std::cout << "This is not a pointer" << std::endl;
    }
}

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    int *i, j;

    do_something(i); // "This is a pointer"
    do_something(j); // "This is not a pointer"

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 28 - pp::TypeInfo::is_ptr example

Another example of when it would be useful to test if something is a pointer would be in a template function that can take a pointer or a value. Because, in C++, members of a class pointer must be dereferenced and then accessed, done with the arrow operator, while normal classes can only be accessed using the dot operator, this can prove problematic if the user wishes to accept either.

Figure 29 shows an example that helps solve this problem, using C++17 constant expression if statement. Because *is_ptr* is a compile-time constant, it can be used with the constant if statements. In fact, every member of the *pp::TypeInfo* class is a constant expression, so you could do a constant if on any of the members and it would compile.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

template<typename T>void do_something(T var) {
    if constexpr(pp::TypeInfo<T>::is_ptr) {
        // If var is a pointer, then it will enter this code path and the other
        // one will not even be compiled. If it's not a pointer, then it will enter
        // the other one and this one won't be compiled. This can be very useful.
        std::cout << "Var is a pointer. ";
        std::cout << "Text is " << var->text << std::endl;
    } else {
        std::cout << "Var is not a pointer. ";
        std::cout << "Text is " << var.text << std::endl;
    }
}

class String {
public:
    char *text;
    int length;
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    String str, *str_ptr;
}

```

```

    str.text = "hello";
    str.length = strlen(str.text);

    str_ptr = new String;
    str_ptr->text = "world";
    str_ptr->length = strlen(str_ptr->text);

    do_something(str);      // "Var is a pointer. Text is hello"
    do_something(str_ptr); // "Var is not a pointer. Text is world"

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 29 - C++17 example, using `pp::TypeInfo::is_ptr`.

The `base_count` fields of `pp::TypeInfo` is just an integer which tells the user how many classes the class templated on inherits from. Figure 30 shows a basic example of using it.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class BaseOne {};
class BaseTwo {};
class BaseThree {};

class Test : public BaseOne, public BaseTwo, public BaseThree {};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test;

    std::cout << pp::TypeInfo<Test>::name << " inherits from " <<
                pp::TypeInfo<Test>::base_count << " classes.";
    // "Test inherits from 3 classes."

    std::cout << pp::TypeInfo<BaseOne>::name << " inherits from " <<
                pp::TypeInfo<BaseOne>::base_count << " classes.";
    // "BaseOne inherits from 0 classes."

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 30 - `pp::TypeInfo::base_count` example.

The example in Figure 30 could be taken further, in order to develop a generic function which can print how many classes any class passed into it inherits from. Figure 31 shows this.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class BaseOne {};
class BaseTwo {};
class BaseThree {};

class Test : public BaseOne, public BaseTwo, public BaseThree {};

// Generic function to print how many classes any type inherits from.
template<typename T>void print_base_class_count(T var) {
    std::cout << pp::TypeInfo<T>::name << " inherits from " <<

```

```

        pp::TypeInfo<T>::base_count << " classes" <<
        std::endl;
    }

    int main(int argc, char **argv) {
        Test test;
        BaseOne test2;
        int test3;

        print_base_class_count(test); // "Test inherits from 3 classes."
        print_base_class_count(test2); // "BaseOne inherits from 0 classes."
        print_base_class_count(test3); // "int inherits from 0 classes."

        return(0);
    }

```

Figure 31 - Generic pp::TypeInfo::base_count example.

The final field of the `pp::TypeInfo` class is a typedef of the inherited class, called *base*. If the class does not inherit from anything, this is set to *void*. Otherwise, this is set to the name of the first class inherited from. While C++ supports multiple inheritance, it is not as commonly used as single inheritance, due to issues like the “diamond problem” (Milea, 2011). And due to some limitations in C++, it was decided that only the first class inherited from will be available. In the future, this may be expanded upon.

Figure 32 shows an example of using the *base* field in order to create an instance of the base class.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class Base {};

class Test : public Base {};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test;

    // Create an instance of test's base class.
    pp::TypeInfo<decltype(test)>::base test_base;

    // Prints "Base".
    std::cout << pp::TypeInfo<decltype(test_base)>::name << std::endl;

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 32 - pp::TypeInfo::base example.

The example in Figure 32 can be done without even creating an instance of the base class. This is shown below in Figure 33.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class Base {};
class Test : public Base {};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test;

    // "Test"
    std::cout << pp::TypeInfo<decltype(test)>::name
               << std::endl;

    // "Base"
    std::cout << pp::TypeInfo<pp::TypeInfo<decltype(test)>::base>::name
               << std::endl;

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 33 - pp::TypeInfo::base example.

Using the *base* field of *pp::TypeInfo* within itself, you can go up a hierarchy of inherited classes to get the one at the top. Figure 34 shows this.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class BaseTwo {};
class BaseOne : public BaseTwo {};

class Test : public BaseOne {};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    // The inheritance hierarchy is:
    // BaseTwo -> BaseOne -> Test

    char const *str = pp::TypeInfo<
        pp::TypeInfo<pp::TypeInfo<Test>::base>::base
    >::name;

    // Prints "BaseTwo"
    std::cout << str;

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 34 - Complicated pp::TypeInfo::base example.

Making the example in Figure 34 even more generic, we can write a function that will find the highest-level base class of any type and print it. Figure 35 demonstrates this. It will keep recursively generating instances of the function *hierarchy*, until the top-level version is found. We know we've reached the top level because the *base* type will be *void*.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class BaseTwo {};
class BaseOne : public BaseTwo {};

class Test : public BaseOne {};

```

```

// Generic function, which will go up any inheritance hierarchy and will print
// out the top-most member.
template<typename T>void hierarchy() {
    if(pp::type_compare(pp::TypeInfo<T>::base, void)) {
        std::cout << "The most base classes type is " <<
            pp::TypeInfo<T>::name << std::endl;
    } else {
        hierarchy<pp::TypeInfo<T>::base>();
    }
}

// Need to specialize for "void", so we know when we've reached the top of
// the inheritance hierarchy.
template<>void chain<void>() {}

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    hierarchy<Test>(); // Prints "BaseTwo".
    hierarchy<BaseOne>(); // Prints "BaseTwo".
    hierarchy<BaseTwo>(); // Prints "BaseTwo".

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 35 - Generic pp::TypeInfo::base example.

A lot of the code for `pp::TypeInfo` can also work hand-in-hand with the Type Traits library. Figure 36 shows an example of getting the base class using `pp::TypeInfo`, but statically asserting it using the Type Trait library's `std::is_base_of` function.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <type_traits>

class Base {};
class Test : public Base {};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    static_assert(std::is_base_of<pp::TypeInfo<Test>::base, Base>::value,
        "This assert will not get thrown, because Base is the "
        "base class of Test");

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 36 - Mixing type_traits and pp::TypeInfo::base.

4.8 Get Member Information

The system also allows the user to get information on members of a class based on its index. The function definition for this is shown in Figure 37.

```

MEMBER_TYPE * pp::get_member(CLASS_TYPE *variable, size_t index);

```

Figure 37 - Definition of pp::get_member.

Due to some limitations on how types can work in C++, the code to access members by index is a little verbose. In C++, it is illegal to overload a function on the return type alone. Because of this, it can make getting the return type of a function difficult. The code in

Figure 38, which will not compile, shows how this could be done in some languages where type information is provided at runtime.

```
#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"

class Test {
public:
    int a;
    float f;
    short s;
    bool b;
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test = {10, 3.14f, 4, true};

    // Iterate through each member.
    for(int i = 0; (i < pp::TypeInfo<decltype(test)>::member_count); ++i) {

        // Reference to the member at index i.
        auto member = pp::get_member(&test, i);

        // Print out the member's type and the value its holding.
        std::cout << pp::TypeInfo<member>::name << " " <<
                    member << std::endl;
    }

    return(0);
}
```

Figure 38 - C++ equivalent of how type information is used in other languages. Will not compile.

To solve the problem of not being able to truly iterate through members, templates can be used in order to generate the relevant serialization code. The rest of this section will continue to discuss and set this up.

Figure 39 starts off with some basic examples of `pp::get_member`. The function `pp::get_member` is specialised for each class in the project, and then again for each member of a class. Because of this, the return type will be different, depending on the index passed in.

```
#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class Test {
public:
    int i; float f; double d; bool b;
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test;
    test.i = 10;
    test.f = 3.14f;
    test.d = 3.1415;
    test.b = true;

    auto i = pp::get_member(&test, 0); // i is an int *.
    auto f = pp::get_member(&test, 1); // f is a float *.
```



```

auto d = pp::get_member(&test, 2); // d is an double *.
auto b = pp::get_member(&test, 3); // b is an bool *.

// All of these assets will be true.
assert(i == &test.i);
assert(f == &test.f);
assert(d == &test.d);
assert(b == &test.b);

return(0);
}

```

Figure 39 - Basic pp::get_member example.

The function `pp::get_member` will also work for pointers. In this case, the return type will be a pointer to that pointer. For instance, if a class had a member that was a pointer to an integer, then `pp::get_member` would return a pointer to that member. Figure 40 shows an example of this, as well an example of a class within a class, and getting member which is a `std::vector`.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class V2 {
public:
    int x, y;
};

class Test {
public:
    int *i;
    V2 v;
    std::vector<float> float_vec;
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test;

    // Example where the member is a pointer.
    test.i = new int;
    *test.i = 10;
    int **i = pp::get_member(&test, 0);
    std::cout << *test.i << ' ' << **i; prints "10 10".

    // Example where the member is another class.
    test.v = {2, 4};
    auto v = pp::get_member(&test, 1);

    auto x = pp::get_member(v, 0);
    auto y = pp::get_member(v, 1);

    std::cout << test.v.x << ' ' << *x; // Prints "2 2".
    std::cout << test.v.y << ' ' << *y; // Prints "4 4".

    // Example where the member is a vector.
    test.float_vec.push_back(0.25f);
    test.float_vec.push_back(0.50f);
    test.float_vec.push_back(0.75f);
    test.float_vec.push_back(1.00f);

    // Get a reference to the member.
    auto &vec = *get_member(&test, 2);
}

```

```

    for(size_t i = 0; (i < vec.size()); ++i) {
        std::cout << vec[i] << ' '; // Prints: "0.25 0.5 0.75 1".
    }

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 40 - Complex pp::get_member example.

While Figure 40 does show an example of iterating through a known class, it is much more valuable to be able to iterate through an unknown class. Figure 41 shows how this can be done using the tool, in a fairly generic way. In the example, we write the contents of two classes, *TestOne*, and *TestTwo*, to the console.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class TestOne {
public:
    int i; float f;
};

class TestTwo {
public:
    double d; bool b;
};

template<typename T, int index>void print_var(T *var) {
    print_var<T, index - 1>(var);
    auto member = pp::get_member(var, index);

    // This is weak name, because pp::get_member returns a pointer
    // to the member.
    char const *type_as_str = pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::weak_name;

    std::cout << type_as_str << ' ' << *member << std::endl;
}

// Empty specializations, so that print_var doesn't
// recursively generate infinite functions.
template<>void print_var<TestOne, -1>(TestOne *t) {}
template<>void print_var<TestTwo, -1>(TestTwo *t) {}

// Simple utility function to make calling print_var nicer.
template<typename T> void my_print(T *var) {
    print_var<T, pp::TypeInfo<T>::member_count - 1>(var);
}

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    //
    // TestOne.
    //
    TestOne test_one;
    test_one.i = 10;
    test_one.f = 3.14f;

    /* Prints "int 10
        float 3.14" */
    my_print(&test_one);

    //
    // TestTwo.

```

```

//
TestTwo test_two;
test_two.d = 3.1415;
test_two.b = true;

/* Prints "double 3.1415
    bool 1" */
my_print(&test_two);

return(0);
}

```

Figure 41 - Generic serialization example.

In the example, we first call *my_print*. Inside *my_print*, it calls the function *print_var*, and sets up all the type information *my_var* needs. Because some of this introspection code is boilerplate, and is easy to get wrong, it is nicer to wrap it up in a hard-to-mess-up interface.

The first line of *print_var* generates another template call to *print_var*, for one minus the member count. This recursively goes down until the index passed in is negative one, at which point the specialisation of *print_var* for negative one is called, which does nothing. This is necessary so *print_var* doesn't recursively call itself forever.

Inside *print_var*, we use *pp::get_member* to get a pointer to the member at an index. Because *pp::get_member* can have different return types, the variable *member* must be declared as *auto*. We then, using *std::cout*, print the type of the member at an index, and the value it holds.

If you are using a C++17 compatible compiler, then this can be taken further. Using constant if statements, then you can change this code to work for a class within a class. Figure 42, which will only compile under a C++17 compliant compiler, like Clang 3.9, shows this.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class V2 {
public:
    int x, y;
};

class Test {
public:
    int i; V2 v;
};

template<typename T, int index>void print_var(T *var) {
    // If we have C++ 17 compile, then we don't need the boilerplate print_var
    // specialization for when index < 0. Can just do a constexpr if to make sure
    // the member count is >= 0.
    if constexpr(index >= 0) {
        print_var<T, index - 1>(var);
        auto member = pp::get_member(var, index);

        if constexpr(pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::is_primitive) {

```

```

        /* This is weak name, because pp::get_member returns a pointer
           to the member. */
        char const *type_as_str = pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::weak_name;

        std::cout << type_as_str << ' ' << *member << std::endl;
    } else {
        print_var<typename pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::weak_type,
            pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::member_count - 1>(member);
    }
}

}

template<typename T> void my_print(T *var) {
    print_var<T, pp::TypeInfo<T>::member_count - 1>(var);
}

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test;
    test.i = 10;
    test.v = {2, 4};

    /* Prints "int 10
       int 2
       int 4" */
    //my_print(&test);
    print_var<Test, pp::TypeInfo<Test>::member_count - 1>(&test);

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 42 – C++17 only. Generic serialization example that supports classes within classes.

Figure 43 demonstrates how this can be used to work with pointers as well. Like Figure 42, however, this requires constant if statements, and is only compatible with a C++17 compiler.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class Test {
public:
    int i;
    int *ptr;
};

template<typename T, int index> void print_var(T *var) {
    if constexpr(index >= 0) {
        print_var<T, index - 1>(var);

        auto member = pp::get_member(var, index);
        char const *type_as_str = pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::weak_name;

        /* If member is a pointer-to-a-pointer, then it means
           that the member variable was a pointer. If member
           is just a pointer, then the member variable was a
           normal type.
        */
        if constexpr(pp::TypeInfo<decltype(*member)>::is_ptr) {
            std::cout << type_as_str << " *" << **member << std::endl;
        } else {
            std::cout << type_as_str << " " << *member << std::endl;
        }
    }
}

```

```

    }
}

template<typename T> void my_print(T *var) {
    print_var<T, pp::TypeInfo<T>::member_count - 1>(var);
}

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test;
    test.i = 10;
    test.ptr = new int;
    *test.ptr = 5;

    my_print(&test);

    /* Prints
       "10
       5" */

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 43 – C++17 only. Generic serialization example that includes pointers.

Finally, Figure 44 combines both Figure 42 and Figure 43 in order to write a generic printing function, which will handle classes within classes, and pointers.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class V2 {
public:
    int x, y;
};

class Test {
public:
    int i;
    int *i_ptr;

    V2 v;
    V2 *v_ptr;
};

template<typename T, int index> void print_var(T *var) {
    if constexpr(index >= 0) {
        print_var<T, index - 1>(var);

        auto member = pp::get_member(var, index);

        if constexpr(pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::is_primitive) {
            char const *type_as_str = pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::weak_name;

            // If member is a pointer-to-a-pointer, then it means
            // that the member variable was a pointer. If member
            // is just a pointer, then that member variable was a
            // normal type.
            if constexpr(pp::TypeInfo<decltype(*member)>::is_ptr) {
                std::cout << type_as_str << " *" << **member << std::endl;
            } else {
                std::cout << type_as_str << " " << *member << std::endl;
            }
        }
    }
}

```

```

    }
    } else {
        if constexpr(pp::TypeInfo<decltype(*member)>::is_ptr) {
            print_var<
                typename pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::weak_type,
                pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::member_count - 1
            >(*member);
        } else {
            print_var<typename pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::weak_type,
                pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::member_count - 1>(member);
            }
        }
    }
}

// Simple utility function to make calling print_var nicer.
template<typename T> void my_print(T *var) {
    // Has to be member_count - 1, because of zero indexing. If a class has 3
    // members, then it actually has members 0 - 2.
    print_var<T, pp::TypeInfo<T>::member_count - 1>(var);
}

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test;

    test.i = 10;

    test.i_ptr = new int;
    *test.i_ptr = 5;

    test.v = {2, 4};

    test.v_ptr = new V2;
    *test.v_ptr = {5, 10};

    my_print(&test);

    /* Prints
       int 10
       int *5
       int 2
       int 4
       int 5
       int 10"*/

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 44 - C++17 only. Fully generic serialization example, which supports classes within classes and pointers.

The nice thing about this example is all the seriation is in user code, not behind a black box, like `pp::print` function, which is discussed in section 4.10.

Building on the previous examples even more, Figure 45 writes a class to disk. It writes a class to disk in XML format (Bray et al, 1996), which could be read by other tools in order to draw some data about the class. Figure 46 shows the output from Figure 45.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>
#include <sstream>

```

```

class Test {
public:
    int i; float f;
};

template<typename T, int index>
void serialize_var(T *var, std::stringstream&buffer) {
    serialize_var<T, index - 1>(var, buffer);
    auto member = pp::get_member(var, index);

    // Type of the member.
    char const *type_as_str = pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::weak_name;

    // Name of the member.
    char const *member_name = pp::get_member_name<T>(index);

    // Output member in xml format.
    buffer << "    <name>" << member_name << "</name>" << std::endl;;
    buffer << "    <type>" << type_as_str << "</type>" << std::endl;;
    buffer << "    <value>" << *member << "</value>" << std::endl;;
}

template<>void serialize_var<Test, -1>(Test *t, std::stringstream &buffer) {}

template<typename T> void write_to_xml(T *var, std::string name) {
    // Write to string stream.
    std::stringstream buffer;
    buffer << "<" << pp::TypeInfo<T>::weak_name << ">" << std::endl;
    serialize_var<T, pp::TypeInfo<T>::member_count - 1>(var, buffer);
    buffer << "</" << pp::TypeInfo<T>::weak_name << ">" << std::endl;

    // Write to disk.
    name = name + ".xml";
    FILE *file = fopen(name.c_str(), "w");
    if(file) {
        fwrite(buffer.str().c_str(), 1, buffer.str().size(), file);
        fclose(file);
    }
}

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test;
    test.i = 10;
    test.f = 3.14f;

    write_to_xml(&test, "test");

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 45 - Serialize a class to an XML file.

```

<Test>
  <name>i</name>
  <type>int</type>
  <value>10</value>
  <name>f</name>
  <type>float</type>
  <value>3.14</value>
</Test>

```

Figure 46 – XML output from Figure 45.

A common design of C++ applications is to set member variables to private, and have functions which can access and set the variable, in order to access them. For some cases, you may only want to serialise only the public members of a class. The tool lets you query, at compile time, whether a function at an index is *public*, *private*, or *protected*, using the function `pp::get_access_at_index`. Figure 47 shows the return type of this function, which is an enumeration defined in `static_generated.h`, and Figure 48 shows the definition of this function.

```
enum pp::Access {
    Access_public,
    Access_private,
    Access_protected,
};
```

Figure 47 - Enumeration returned from `pp::get_access_at_index`.

```
template<typename T, int index> constexpr pp::Access pp::get_access_at_index();
```

Figure 48 - `pp::get_access_at_index` definition.

A design decision was made to have the index in `pp::get_access_at_index` be required at compile-time, rather than calculated at run time. While having it at runtime would be more flexible, as the user could query the access rights of a member at an index, where the index is calculated at runtime, it is also slower. Having it be required at compile-time, means that the specialized function can be a constant-expression function, making it much more efficient. The efficiency over flexibility was chosen because, when the user is querying about a variable at an index, they often have the index as a constant anyway, because accessing it through `pp::get_member` requires it to be an index.

Figure 49 shows a simple example, based on Figure 41, which iterates through all the members of a simple class, and outputs them to the console. Figure 49, however, only outputs members that have public access.

```
#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class Test {
private:
    short s; double d;

public:
    int i; float f;

    // Public "setter" methods for s and d.
    void set_s(short s) { this->s = s; }
    void set_d(double d) { this->d = d; }
};

template<typename T, int index> void print_var(T *var) {
    print_var<T, index - 1>(var);

    // Only print variables that have their access set to "public".
    if(pp::get_access_at_index<T, index>() == pp::Access_public) {
```



```

        auto member = pp::get_member(var, index);

        char const *type_as_str = pp::TypeInfo<decltype(member)>::weak_name;

        std::cout << type_as_str << ' ' << *member << std::endl;
    }
}

template<>void print_var<Test, -1>(Test *t) {}

// Simple utility function to make calling print_var nicer.
template<typename T> void my_print(T *var) {
    print_var<T, pp::TypeInfo<T>::member_count - 1>(var);
}

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test;
    test.i = 10;
    test.f = 3.14f;
    test.set_s(4);
    test.set_d(3.1415f);

    /* Prints "int 10
       float 3.14"
       It completely ignores s and d, which are set to "private". */
    my_print(&test);

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 49 - Output public members of a class.

4.9 Type comparison

Because C++ was not designed with introspection in mind, there are some design choices which can make it difficult to implement. An example of this that C++ forbids the comparison of types. Figure 50 shows a line that will not compile under any standard-compliant C++ compiler.

```
if(int == int)
```

Figure 50 - Invalid type comparison.

C++11 goes some way to fixing this, by providing a mechanism in the Type Traits library, `std::is_same`, which allows you to compare types. Figure 51 shows some examples using `std::is_same`.

```

#include <iostream>
#include <type_traits>

class Test {};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    std::cout << std::is_same<int, int>::value << std::endl; // true
    std::cout << std::is_same<int, int *>::value << std::endl; // false
    std::cout << std::is_same<int, float>::value << std::endl; // false
    std::cout << std::is_same<int, Test>::value << std::endl; // false
    std::cout << std::is_same<Test, Test>::value << std::endl; // true
}

```

```
    return(0);  
}
```

Figure 51 - std::is_same examples.

The metaprogramming tool provides an API which is the same as `std::is_same` for comparing types. Its definition is shown in Figure 52.

```
bool pp::type_compare(TYPE a, TYPE b);
```

Figure 52 - pp::type_compare definition.

The reason for this duplication, is because there is no part of the generated code that requires any of the C++ Standard Template Library, although it in no way discourages it. In order to keep the tool lightweight, the decision was made to duplicate this small part, for type comparisons, rather than force the user to include the entire Type Traits library. Including the library would increase compiles times for users that did not want to use it, due to heavy use of templates (Dawson, 2014). The rest of the examples in this document use `pp::type_compare` for type comparisons, but could just as easily have used `std::is_same`.

Figure 53 shows an example of using `pp::type_compare` with `pp::weak_type` to test whether an integer and a pointer to an integer are the same.

```
#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"  
#include <iostream>  
  
int main(int argc, char **argv) {  
    int i, *j;  
  
    if(pp::type_compare(pp::TypeInfo<decltype(i)>::weak_type,  
                        pp::TypeInfo<decltype(j)>::weak_type)) {  
        std::cout << "i and j have the same base type!" << std::endl;  
    }  
  
    return(0);  
}
```

Figure 53 - pp::type_compare example.

4.10 Printing Classes

One of the most powerful methods available inside the tool is used for printing a class to the console. The function definition is provided in Figure 54.

```
void pp::print(TYPE v, char *buffer = NULL, size_t buffer_size = 0);
```

Figure 54 - pp::print definition.

The function takes three parameters. The first is the variable that you wish to print. The second and third are optional parameters; which are the length and size of a buffer that

the user can pass in. If these are left to their default values, then the function will allocate and free the memory for printing the class itself.

Figure 55 shows a very simple example of serializing a class and printing it to the console.

```
#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class String {
public:
    char *text;
    int length;
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    String str;
    str.text = "Hello World";
    str.length = strlen(str.text);

    pp::print(str);

    /* Prints:
       "String str
        char *text = "Hello World"
        int length = 11"*/

    return(0);
}
```

Figure 55 - pp::print example.

The function *pp::print* goes through all the members of the class and prints them. In Figure 55, it first goes to the member *text* and prints that, then it prints the member *length*.

Figure 56 shows a more complex example, and how the *pp::print* function handles it.

```
#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

class Vector2 {
public:
    int x, y;
};

class Test {
public:
    int i;
    float f;
    Vector2 v2;

    int *i_ptr;
    float *f_ptr;
    Vector2 *v2_ptr;

    int i_arr[2];
    float f_arr[3];
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test;
```

```

test.i = 1;
test.f = 2.5f;
test.v2 = {3, 4};

test.i_ptr = NULL; // Intentionally set to null
test.f_ptr = new float; *test.f_ptr = 5.25f;
test.v2_ptr = new Vector2; *test.v2_ptr = {6, 7};

for(int i = 0; (i < 2); ++i) test.i_arr[i] = i;
for(int i = 0; (i < 3); ++i) test.f_arr[i] = i;

pp::print(test);

/* Prints:
  "Test test
    int i = 1
    float f = 2.500000
    Vector2 v2
      int x = 3
      int y = 4
    int *i_ptr = (null)
    float *f_ptr = 5.250000
    Vector2 *v2_ptr
      int x = 6
      int y = 7
    int i_arr[0] = 0
    int i_arr[1] = 1
    int f_arr[0] = 0.000000
    int f_arr[1] = 1.000000
    int f_arr[2] = 2.000000"*/

return(0);
}

```

Figure 56 - Complex `pp::print` example.

In Figure 56, you can see how the `pp::print` method handles different types. The first two types, which are primitives, are printed to the console normally. The third type, which is a class, has its type printed, then the `serialize` function recursively calls itself and prints out the members.

For the first pointer in Figure 56, `int *i_ptr`, the function outputs that `i` is `NULL`, because it was intentionally set to `NULL`. The second pointer, `f_ptr`, is set to the value it was allocated to, and the type outputted is shown to be `float *f_ptr`. The third pointer, `Vector2 v2_ptr`, is recursively called like `v2` in order to print its members.

The first array in Figure 56, `int i_arr[2]`, is initialised within a `for` loop. Inside the function, its index and the value stored at that index are printed. The same steps are taken for the second array, `float f_arr[3]`.

A similar function to `pp::print` is available, `pp::serialize`. Its definition is shown in Figure 57.

```

size_t pp::serialize(TYPE var, char *buffer, size_t buffer_size);

```

Figure 57 - pp::serialize definition.

The function *pp::serialize* will fill out the buffer passed in with the serialized data, rather than print it to the console like *pp::print*. This can be useful if you wanted to write a serialized class to disk. It requires the user pass in the size of the buffer, to make sure it does not write to invalid memory and cause a crash. It then return the number of bytes it actually did write, in case the user wants to do something with this information.

Figure 58, which will only compile under Microsoft Visual Studio on Windows, shows when it could be useful to write a serialized class to disk. The output is shown in Figure 59.

```
#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <windows.h>

class Test {
public:
    int *integer[32];
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    Test test = {};

    __try { // Windows SEH equivalent of "try".
        for(int i = 0; (i < 32); ++i) {
            // Skip 15 for this example, so it should be NULL.
            if(i == 15) continue;

            test.integer[i] = new int;
            *test.integer[i] = i;
        }

        // Write to every value in the array.
        for(int i = 0; (i < 32); ++i) {
            ++(*test.integer[i]);
        }

    } __except(1) { // Windows SEH equivalent of "catch".
        size_t buffer_size = 1024;
        char *buffer = new char[buffer_size];

        // Serialize the class "test" into the buffer variable.
        pp::serialize(test, buffer, buffer_size);

        // Create a new file called "test_output.txt" and write
        // the serialized struct to it.
        FILE *file = fopen("test_output.txt", "w");
        if(file) {
            fwrite(buffer, 1, buffer_size, file);
            fclose(file);
        }

    }

    return(0);
}
```

Figure 58 - Windows only. pp::serialize example using SEH to catch a NULL-pointer dereference.

```
Test test
  int *integer[0] = 1
  int *integer[1] = 2
  int *integer[2] = 3
  int *integer[3] = 4
  int *integer[4] = 5
  int *integer[5] = 6
  int *integer[6] = 7
  int *integer[7] = 8
  int *integer[8] = 9
  int *integer[9] = 10
  int *integer[10] = 11
  int *integer[11] = 12
  int *integer[12] = 13
  int *integer[13] = 14
  int *integer[14] = 15
  int *integer[15] = (null)
  int *integer[16] = 16
  int *integer[17] = 17
  int *integer[18] = 18
  int *integer[19] = 19
  int *integer[20] = 20
  int *integer[21] = 21
  int *integer[22] = 22
  int *integer[23] = 23
  int *integer[24] = 24
  int *integer[25] = 25
  int *integer[26] = 26
  int *integer[27] = 27
  int *integer[28] = 28
  int *integer[29] = 29
  int *integer[30] = 30
  int *integer[31] = 31
```

Figure 59 - Output from Figure 58.

Figure 58 shows a good example of writing class information to disk. In Figure 58, there is a class that has an array of pointers to integers. Intentionally, for the purpose of the demo, when the pointer's memory is allocated, the pointer at index fifteen in the array is left as NULL. Then each index in the array is incremented. When the second *for* loop reaches that element, it attempts to dereference a NULL pointer. Instead of crashing, however, the Structured Exception Handling kicks in and catches the dereference. The variable *test* is then serialized into a buffer, and that buffer is written to disk. Looking at the data written to disk, in Figure 59, it is obvious that the bug is because the sixteenth element is NULL.

While not every bug would be as obvious to see as the example in Figure 58, it should be obvious that having a lot of data serialized to disk during a crash would be useful. It could help find bugs, and could be used in combination with the dump files usually generated when something crashed.

While the function *pp::print* could have been left out, forcing users to always implement their own serialisation code, it was important to leave it in. This is because, when a programmer is using an external API, they will want easy results at the start of a project, and more control towards the end (Muratori, 2004). Having the functions *pp::print* and

`pp::serialize` allows programmers that only want a class serialized quickly to be able to use the tool comfortably. Programmers that want more control over how their data is outputted can use the `pp::get_members` function.

4.11 Enumerations

Enumerations, defined under some limitations, which are discussed later, can use `pp::TypeInfo` in order to get some information about themselves. Figure 60 shows an example of using a C++11 enumeration class with `pp::TypeInfo` and some of the data you can get from it.

```
#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

enum class Letters : short {
    a, b, c
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    char const *str = pp::TypeInfo<Letters>::name;
    std::cout << str << std::endl; // Prints "Letters".

    size_t n = pp::TypeInfo<Letters>::member_count;
    std::cout << n << std::endl; // Prints "3".

    // For enums, base is reused in order to print
    // the stored type.
    char const *underlying_type =
        pp::TypeInfo<pp::TypeInfo<Letters>::base>::name;

    // Prints "short".
    std::cout << underlying_type << std::endl;

    return(0);
}
```

Figure 60 - `pp::TypeInfo` with an enumeration.

There are also two functions defined in the API, which are unique to enumerations. Both of these function definitions are shown in Figure 61.

```
template<typename T> constexpr char const *pp::enum_to_string(T element);

template<typename T> constexpr T pp::string_to_enum(char const *str);
```

Figure 61 - `pp::enum_to_string` and `pp::string_to_enum` definitions.

Both of these functions will be calculated at compile time, where possible, because they are marked as constant expressions. The generated code will specialise each of these for each class in the project. Figure 62 shows some example of `pp::string_to_enum`, and Figure 63 shows some example `pp::enum_to_string`.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <string>

enum Numbers : int {
    zero,
    one,
    two,
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    // Using string literal.
    Numbers get_zero = pp::string_to_enum<Numbers>("zero");
    assert(get_zero == 0);

    // Using std::string.
    std::string one_as_string = "one";
    Numbers get_one = pp::string_to_enum<Numbers>(one_as_string.c_str());
    assert(get_one == 1);

    // Using string concatenation.
    std::string two_part_a = "t";
    std::string two_part_b = "wo";
    std::string full_two = two_part_a + two_part_b;
    Numbers get_two = pp::string_to_enum<Numbers>(full_two.c_str());
    assert(get_two == 2);

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 62 - pp::string_to_enum examples.

```

#include "pp_generated/test_code_generated.h"
#include <iostream>

enum class Numbers : int {
    zero,
    one,
    two,
    three
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    char const *zero_str = pp::enum_to_string<Numbers>(Numbers::zero);
    std::cout << zero_str << std::endl; // Prints "zero"

    Numbers one_cpy = Numbers::one;
    char const *one_str = pp::enum_to_string<Numbers>(one_cpy);
    std::cout << one_str << std::endl; // Prints "One"

    int as_integer = 1;
    ++as_integer;
    char const *two_str = pp::enum_to_string<Numbers>((Numbers)as_integer);
    std::cout << two_str << std::endl; // Prints "Two"

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 63 - pp::enum_to_string examples.

The enumeration introspection data will work with both normal enumerations and C++11 enumeration classes. However, there is one important limitation; it will not work with

enumerations that have not had their storage type explicitly defined. Figure 64 demonstrates the difference.

<pre>enum A : int {}; // Supported enum class B : int {}; // Supported enum C {}; // Not supported.</pre>

Figure 64 - Supported and un-supported enumerations.

The reason that C-style enumerations are not supported is that they cannot be forward declared. Until the draft *Forward declaration of enumerations* (Barbati, 2008), was accepted into the C++11 specification, there was no way to forward declare an enumeration in C++. C++11 allows forward declared enumeration if the underlying type is specified. Hence the tool, which requires forward-declarations to work, is not compatible with enumerations which do not have an underlying type.

4.12 Performance

Performance is a big concern for most C++ programmers. C++ is one of the few languages that usually compiles directly to assembly, with no intermediate byte code layer. It is also considered an unsafe language, because it can directory access, manipulate, and write over the bounds of memory pages allocated to it.

Because of these requirements, performance was a large concern when designing the introspection tool. Two examples are given, in Figure 65 and Figure 66, respectively, which demonstrate the high performance of the tool, which relies on compile-time constants whenever it can. On the left hand side of each figure is the C++ code, and on the right hand side is the x86 Assembly (Intel, AMD, 1978), generated by Microsoft Visual Studio 2015.

<pre>class SomeClass { public: int a; int b; int c; int d; }; int main(int argc, char **argv) { printf("The number of members in %s are %d", "SomeClass", 4); return(0); }</pre>	<pre>; main push ebp mov ebp,esp ; printf part push 4 ; member count push 1B1F94h ; class name push 1B1FA8h ; format string call 00123C3D ; call printf ; return 0 xor eax,eax</pre>
---	--

Figure 65 - Sample program and x86 Assembly generated.

<pre> class SomeClass { public: int a; int b; int c; int d; }; int main(int argc, char **argv) { printf("The number of members in" "%s are %d", pp::TypeInfo<SomeClass>::name, pp::TypeInfo<SomeClass>::member_count); return(0); } </pre>	<pre> ; main push ebp mov ebp,esp ; printf part push 4 ; member count push 171F94h ; class name push 171FA8h ; format string call 0E3C3Dh ; call printf ; return 0 xor eax,eax </pre>
--	--

Figure 66 - Sample program using introspection tool and x86 assembly generated.

As you can see, from Figure 65 and Figure 66, the assembly generated is identical in terms of functionality. A nice benefit of having all the members of *pp::TypeInfo* marked as constant expressions means that the code assembly generated for them is almost identical to the non-introspection version in terms of performance.

5 Future Work

5.1 Further C++ support

While the tool currently supports a large subsection of the C++ programming language, it is not complete. The parser will generally skip over unknown sections of code, it is possible for it to get tripped up and generate incorrect code. A lot of these limitations are due to the complexity of parsing C++ as a language. Some of them are related to complex features, however, like templates or macros.

5.2 Function Introspection

Right now, there is no function introspection data generated. The parser does currently handle functions, and stores some data on them, but they are not written out to disk for the user to have access to. The reason class and enumeration introspection was prioritised over function introspection is because it is much more useful to be able to iterate through the members of a class, rather than through the parameters of a function. Function introspection will be the next large feature tackled in the system.

5.3 Error Handling

Right now, a syntax error in normal code may generate a syntax error in the generated code. While the tool does combat some simple errors, like if it sees you've inherited from a class that doesn't exist, it does not do anything with this information. These errors could either be directly to the Standard Error Stream.

5.4 Standard Template Library Support

Currently, the tool only has limited support for C++ Standard Template Library types, especially when it comes to serializing them through *std::print*. It currently supports; *std::vector*, *std::list*, *std::forward_list*, and *std::deque*. In the future, it will be able to support any of the types in the standard library.

5.5 User defined containers

In C++, it is possible to create a custom container which can be iterated through using C++11 range-based for loops. All that is required of container is to define two member functions to get the beginning of the container and the end of it. This is demonstrated in Figure 67.

```
#include <iostream>

template<typename T>
class MyArray {
public:
    T *data;
    size_t size;

    MyArray(size_t size) {
        this->size = size;
        this->data = new T[size];
    }

    ~MyArray() { delete this->data; }
```

```

    // Required for C++11 range-based for loops
    T *begin() { return(data); }
    T *end()   { return(data + size); }
};

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    MyArray<int> arr(4);

    // Set every value in the array to 10.
    for(auto &iter : arr) iter = 10;

    // Prints "10 10 10 10".
    for(auto &iter : arr) std::cout << iter << ' ';

    return(0);
}

```

Figure 67 - Range-based for loop using custom container.

In order to support these custom containers, and print them correctly, the tool would just have to note which classes have defined the *begin* and *end* member functions. Then it could output the serialization code for them identical to how it outputs it for Standard Template Library types.

6 Conclusion

A lot of problems relating to introspection became very obvious during the development of this project. One of the biggest was the cost to readability when using a complicated introspection system, especially in strong-typed languages like C++, where the type of a variable cannot be mutated at runtime. Because of this limitation, some additional boilerplate must be created around the introspection system in order to make it fully generic. This presents something of a problem, because the idea behind the introspection is to remove boilerplate code. It can get worse still, because if the boilerplate to set up introspection is more complex than the boilerplate to just serialize each class separately, then the case for introspection as a real tool, rather than a novelty, is much weaker.

Another issue is getting this data. Because of the way the C++ language parses, which it largely inherited from C, even just adding introspection into the language can prove difficult. Other languages, like D, do not depend on the order of compilation, and have a module system for including files, which mean the introspection data is gathered before the program has even begun properly parsing. In C++, however, the language is parsed from the top down. Because of this, it can lead to some difficult problems when generating introspection data for a class. An example would be, if a class has another class as a member pointer, but the second is only forward declared, not properly defined, then the compiler wouldn't necessarily have the information on-hand generate introspection data. This would mean another compiler pass would be necessary to deal with these situations, which would increase compile times. One of the benefits of having the preprocessor as an external tool, which is *not* built-in to the compiler, means this data can be parsed and generated before the compiler has to do anything, meaning it doesn't add significant time to the code generation process.

Development of the project was very agile in its approach, usually based around 2-week iterations. By focusing on finishing features within the 2 week period, and trying to implement the features as close to completion as possible, it allowed a lot of work to get a lot of work done. More than that, it also meant that features that has been implemented rarely broke later in development.

7 References

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FORM A

COMPUTING HONOURS PROJECT (COMP10034) PROGRESS AND MANAGEMENT MEETING AGENDA (To be completed **before** the scheduled meeting)

Student: Jonathan Livingstone

Supervisor: Paul Keir

Meeting Number: 1

Date/Time: 04/10/2016 - 2:00pm

PROGRESS

Over the last month, the following tasks have been completed:

- Complete honours spec
- Very basic prototype
- Read up on related literature

AGENDA FOR FORMAL MEETING (Example)

- Discuss the progress so far.
- Discuss the Dissertation and Interim Report.
- Setting of tasks and planned targets before next formal meeting.
- Set a date for next formal meeting.

FORM B

COMPUTING HONOURS PROJECT (COMP10034)

MANAGEMENT MEETING MINUTES AND PLAN

*(To be completed **after** the scheduled meeting)*

Student: Jonathan Livingstone

Supervisor: Paul Keir

Meeting Number: 1

Date/Time: 04/10/2016 - 2:00pm

MINUTES

The following tasks and issues were discussed and specific actions agreed:

- Document the project more, and add a "readme" on the repo page.
- Change the structure of the generated code, so there's a file for "static" code, and each .cpp file in a project gets its own generated file.
- Continue to develop the application so it works with more C++ features.

PLAN

The following tasks and timelines have been agreed both for the next month and beyond:

For the next month:

- Have a readme showing how to use the project.
- Have some examples of how the project can be used.
- Have a "static" file, which holds the code that isn't changed.

Beyond the next month

- Work on the application so it can work with a wider range of C++ features.
- Make the file structure so every file parsed gets its own generated file.

FORM A

COMPUTING HONOURS PROJECT (COMP10034) PROGRESS AND MANAGEMENT MEETING AGENDA *(To be completed **before** the scheduled meeting)*

Student: Jonathan Livingstone

Supervisor: Paul Keir

Meeting Number: 2

Date/Time: 14/11/2016 - 2:00pm

PROGRESS

Over the last month, the following tasks have been completed:

- Complete a readme showing how to use the project.
- Have a basic prototype showing an example of how the preprocessor could be used.
- Pulled out non-changing code into a "static" file which isn't generated.

AGENDA FOR FORMAL MEETING (Example)

- Discuss the progress so far.
- Discuss next steps for implementation.
- Setting of tasks and planned targets before next formal meeting
- Set a date for next formal meeting.

FORM B

COMPUTING HONOURS PROJECT (COMP10034)

MANAGEMENT MEETING MINUTES AND PLAN

*(To be completed **after** the scheduled meeting)*

Student: Jonathan Livingstone

Supervisor: Paul Keir

Meeting Number: 2

Date/Time: 14/11/2016 - 2:00pm

MINUTES

The following tasks and issues were discussed and specific actions agreed:

- Discuss the technical progress so far, in comparison to last meeting.
- Discuss the interim report and how to tackle it.

PLAN

The following tasks and timelines have been agreed both for the next month and beyond:

For the next month:

- Have a more robust better testing framework.
- Start having some more *tricky* examples of how the framework can be used.
- Complete a draft interim report.
- Create a Gantt chart.
- Track tests and examples used by a competing reflection system.

Beyond the next month

- Continue to develop the application.
- Finish the interim report.

FORM A

COMPUTING HONOURS PROJECT (COMP10034) PROGRESS AND MANAGEMENT MEETING AGENDA *(To be completed **before** the scheduled meeting)*

Student: Jonathan Livingstone

Supervisor: Paul Keir

Meeting Number: 3

Date/Time: 01/12/2016 - 2:00pm

PROGRESS

Over the last month, the following tasks have been completed:

- Added Google Test to the project.
- Added introspection to enums.
- Now generate one .h per project file with static members, for scalability.
- Create a Gantt chart.

AGENDA FOR FORMAL MEETING (Example)

- Discussion of literature review.
- Discussion of interim report.
- Discuss further features.
- Set a date for next formal meeting.

FORM B

COMPUTING HONOURS PROJECT (COMP10034)

MANAGEMENT MEETING MINUTES AND PLAN

*(To be completed **after** the scheduled meeting)*

Student: Jonathan Livingstone

Supervisor: Paul Keir

Meeting Number: 3

Date/Time: 01/12/2016 - 2:00pm

MINUTES

The following tasks and issues were discussed and specific actions agreed:

- How to deal with the interim report.
- Tidy up some of the features a little.

PLAN

The following tasks and timelines have been agreed both for the next month and beyond:

For the next month:

- Finish the first draft of the interim report.
- Handle any bugs that come up.

Beyond the next month

- Support for C++ features for introspection.
- Finish the full report.
- Prepare a demo.

FORM A

COMPUTING HONOURS PROJECT (COMP10034) PROGRESS AND MANAGEMENT MEETING AGENDA (To be completed **before** the scheduled meeting)

Student: Jonathan Livingstone

Supervisor: Paul Keir

Meeting Number: 4

Date/Time: 19/01/2017 - 2:00pm

PROGRESS

Over the last month, the following tasks have been completed:

- Finish interim report.
- Investigated replacing parser with Clang.
- General code tidying.

AGENDA FOR FORMAL MEETING (Example)

- Discuss interim report.
- Discuss what is still to be done.
- Set a date for next formal meeting.

FORM B

COMPUTING HONOURS PROJECT (COMP10034)

MANAGEMENT MEETING MINUTES AND PLAN

*(To be completed **after** the scheduled meeting)*

Student: Jonathan Livingstone

Supervisor: Paul Keir

Meeting Number: 4

Date/Time: 19/01/2017 - 2:00pm

MINUTES

The following tasks and issues were discussed and specific actions agreed:

- Attempt to replace the custom parser with Clang.
- Issues with building Clang on windows.

PLAN

The following tasks and timelines have been agreed both for the next month and beyond:

For the next month:

- Attempt to get Clang building from source.
- Handle any bugs that come up.

Beyond the next month

- Support more C++ features for introspection.
- Finish the full report.
- Prepare a demo.

FORM A

COMPUTING HONOURS PROJECT (COMP10034) PROGRESS AND MANAGEMENT MEETING AGENDA *(To be completed **before** the scheduled meeting)*

Student: Jonathan Livingstone

Supervisor: Paul Keir

Meeting Number: 5

Date/Time: 02/02/2017 - 10:00am

PROGRESS

Over the last month, the following tasks have been completed:

- Investigated replacing parser with Clang.
- Basic support for standard template library.

AGENDA FOR FORMAL MEETING (Example)

- Discuss interim report.
- Discuss the presentation.
- Further discuss Clang as a parser.
- Set a date for next formal meeting.

FORM B

COMPUTING HONOURS PROJECT (COMP10034)

MANAGEMENT MEETING MINUTES AND PLAN

*(To be completed **after** the scheduled meeting)*

Student: Jonathan Livingstone

Supervisor: Paul Keir

Meeting Number: 5

Date/Time: 02/02/2017 - 10:00am

MINUTES

The following tasks and issues were discussed and specific actions agreed:

- Discussion on replacing Clang as the parser, and issues relating to that.
- How to structure the presentation.
- How to generalize some of the code more to work with other C++ STL containers.

PLAN

The following tasks and timelines have been agreed both for the next month and beyond:

For the next month:

- Create a presentation which discusses the project and have a small demo ready.
- Generalize the code to work with 2 STL containers.
- Continue working with Clang to verify if replacing the parser with it is an option.

Beyond the next month

- Support more C++ features for introspection.
- Finish the full report.

FORM A

COMPUTING HONOURS PROJECT (COMP10034) PROGRESS AND MANAGEMENT MEETING AGENDA *(To be completed **before** the scheduled meeting)*

Student: Jonathan Livingstone

Supervisor: Paul Keir

Meeting Number: 6

Date/Time: 09/03/2017 - 3:00pm

PROGRESS

Over the last month, the following tasks have been completed:

- Template specialization of introspection data
- Work on report

AGENDA FOR FORMAL MEETING (Example)

- Discussion of current approach
- What should be in the report

FORM B

COMPUTING HONOURS PROJECT (COMP10034)

MANAGEMENT MEETING MINUTES AND PLAN

*(To be completed **after** the scheduled meeting)*

Student: Jonathan Livingstone

Supervisor: Paul Keir

Meeting Number: 6

Date/Time: 09/03/2017 - 3:00pm

MINUTES

The following tasks and issues were discussed and specific actions agreed:

- Discussion on last-minute stuff in project.
- How to structure report.

PLAN

The following tasks and timelines have been agreed both for the next month and beyond:

For the next month:

- Finish report.