

**BSc (Hons) Computer Games Technology**

**Introspection in C++**

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# Introduction

## 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 *structured* 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.

## 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.

## 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.

## 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 *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 that is a *class* or a *struct*. 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.

# 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.

## Runtime Reflection in Dynamic Languages

Dynamic languages, like JavaScript (Eich, 1995), Python (Rossum, 1991), and Lisp (McCarthy et all, 1958), have very powering 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 1 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\_\_', '\_\_getattribute\_\_', '\_\_gt\_\_', '\_\_hash\_\_', '\_\_init\_\_', '\_\_le\_\_', '\_\_lt\_\_', '\_\_module\_\_', '\_\_ne\_\_', '\_\_new\_\_', '\_\_reduce\_\_', '\_\_reduce\_ex\_\_', '\_\_repr\_\_', '\_\_setattr\_\_', '\_\_sizeof\_\_', '\_\_str\_\_', '\_\_subclasshook\_\_', '\_\_weakref\_\_', 'i', 'j']  “”” |

Figure 1 - A simple introspection example in Python

## Runtime Reflection in Strongly Typed Languages

The language C# has some advanced and powerful reflection abilities. In C#, every type in the .NETFramework 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 in simple comparisons. An example of the C# *GetType* method is shown in Figure 2 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 2 - An example of C#'s GetType method and its output

C# also provides ways to retrieve the properties of a class at runtime. This is possible because each class that supports the *GetType* method also supports the *GetProperties* method. The *GetProperties* method can be used to iterate through a class, and print out the name and value stored for each member. Figure 3 shows an example of iterating through a class, called *TestClass*, and printing out the name and value of each member.

|  |
| --- |
| 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 3 - C#'s GetProperties method being used to get all the member variables in a class.

There is also an *IConvertable* 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 to 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 method 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.

## 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. Figure 4 shows a simple example of introspection in Go; the program iterates through all of the members of a data structure. Figure 4 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 4 - 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 introspect variables while avoiding 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 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.

The examples in Figure 5 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 5 - Some examples of compile-time introspection in D.

The D programming 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 and compare types. In D, type comparisons must be wrapped up in an *is* statement, which tests that the type is semantically and syntactically correct. Figure 6 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 6 - Using D's typeof operator to test whether something is a function or not.

## External Introspection Tools

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

Boost, which is a very popular C++ library, provides some aid for serialization. Ramey (2004) created Boost Serialization, and it allows user 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 that it requires some intrusive code in order to set it up.

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 turn 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 7 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](http://doc.qt.io/qt-4.8/qobject.html)::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](http://doc.qt.io/qt-4.8/qobject.html)::connect(&a, SIGNAL(no\_function(int)),  &b, SLOT(no\_function (int)));  }; |

Figure 7 - 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 powerful 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 that it has introduced a lot of Unreal-specific keywords in the form of macros. Having a lot of these throughout 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.

Microsoft introduced C++/CLI, which can be used to introspect data types. Using C++/CLI, it is possible to query types using the *.NET* framework, similar to how C# works. Figure 8 shows an example of creating a *String* object and printing its value and type to the console, via the *GetType* member function. **TODO(Jonny): Double check all this, and find out what the hell ^ means.**

|  |
| --- |
| int main(int argc, char \*\*argv) {  System::String ^s = "Hello World";  // Prints "String Hello World  System::Console::WriteLine("{0} {1}", s->GetType(), s);  return(0);  } |

Figure - C++/CLI example. Must compile with /clr compiler switch.

It is also possible to serialise a class using C++/CLI. It allows this by adding attributes which can be used to mark classes and members. In Figure 9, we have a class called *TestClass*, which we make as *Serializable*, so the compile knows it must be able to serialise the class. However, we mark the data member *data* as *NonSerialized*, so the compiler does not serialise that specific member. The class will only serialise the data members *a*, *b*, and *c.* **TODO(Jonny): Find out if the *ref* keyword is nessessary, and how you actually serialise a marked-up class.**

|  |
| --- |
| [ Serializable ]  public ref class TestClass {  int a;  int b;  int b;  [ NonSerialized ]  int data;  }; |

Figure - C++/CLI serialization example. Must compile with /clr compiler switch.

**TODO(Jonny): Now write about limitations with C++/CLI.**

## Current State of Introspection in C++

As of the current C++ standard, C++14, the language has some limited support for introspection. The previous standard, C++11, add this 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 8 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 8, 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. For example, in Figure 9, we see an example of using *decltype* so we do not need to write the return type of a function. In *func1*, we return an integer that is 0. In *func2*, however, we the address of a local variable as a reference. This leads to undefined behaviour, because variables we are referencing is local to *func2*, and the variable may no longer exist in memory.

|  |
| --- |
| 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 9, 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 10, 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 10 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 added the Type Traits library, which can be used as an interface to query and modify the properties of types based on their compile-time value. This can be used to provide come limit introspection in C++. Figure 11 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.

The current standard, C++14, also has a few compile-time metaprogramming features which can be useful. In C++14, the compiler can detect the return type of a function based on what the *return* statements within the function return. An example of this is shown in Figure 12.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  // Can write auto for the return type, rather than int.  auto square(int n) {  return n \* n;  }  int main(int argc, char \*\*argv) {  int n = square(5 \* 5);  std::cout << n; // Prints "25"  return(0);  } |

Figure - C++14 function return type deduction.

C++17 provides some extra introspection information, which the C++11 standard lacked, in the form of structured bindings. Figure 12 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 15 - Structure Bindings example

Structured Bindings allow for some generic code examples to work. Figure 13 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 16 - Generic Structure Bindings example.

Figure 14 has some obvious 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.

C++ also allows some limited introspection via Run Time Type Information, herein referred to as *RTTI*. RTTI is a mechanism that allows the program to find out the type of an object as run time. There are two main types of RTTI in C++, the Dynamic Cast operator and the Type ID operator.

The Dynamic cast operator is fairly simple and allows the user to get the base class pointer of a class at runtime. This is shown in Figure 15, where we get the base pointer of the *Test* class.

|  |
| --- |
| #include "pp\_generated/test\_code\_generated.h"  #include <iostream>  class Base {};  class Test : public Base {};  int main(int argc, char \*\*argv) {  Test \*test = new Test;  // This will throw a compile-time error if Test does not inherit from Test,  // which is good for type safety.  Base \*base\_of\_test = dynamic\_cast<Base \*>(test);  return(0);  } |

Figure - RTTI Dynamic Cast operator example.

The Type ID operator for RTTI has some member functions which you can use to get the name of a class at runtime. Figure 16 shows a basic example using *typeid* operator. One of the issues with *typeid::name* is that the standard only says that the return type must be a null-terminated character sequence which identifies the type. It does not have to be the actual type as a string, and it does not have to be unique for different types.

|  |
| --- |
| #include <iostream>  #include <typeinfo.h>  class Base {};  class Derived : public Base {};  int main(int argc, char \*\*argv) {  Derived \*derived = new Derived;  Base \*base = derived;  std::cout << typeid(base).name() << std::endl; // "class Base \*"  std::cout << typeid(\*base).name() << std::endl; // "class Derived"  std::cout << typeid(derived).name() << std::endl; // "class Derived \*"  std::cout << typeid(\*derived).name() << std::endl; // "class Derived"  return(0);  } |

Figure - RTTI Type ID operator example.

## 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 add ing 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 14 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 19 - Example, using Chochlik's Clang fork, to get the number of members in a class.

# Current Work

## 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-complient 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 dynamicor 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.

## 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 16.

|  |
| --- |
| preprocessor test\_code.cpp  g++ test\_code.cpp |

Figure 20 - Example using the tool with GCC,

The first line from Figure 16, *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 16, *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 21 - Example using the tool, and passing in two files.

Figure 17 shows an example of using the tool with two files, *test\_code\_one.cpp* and *test\_code\_two.cpp*. Figure 17 will still generate the directory *pp\_generated* and *static\_generated.h*, like Figure 16, 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.

## 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 18 shows how you could call the tool and pass some flags in.

|  |
| --- |
| preprocessor test\_code.cpp –e –t |

Figure 22 - Example calling the tool and passing flags in.

## 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 performed on the codebase, while ensuring existing functionality kept working.

Figure 19 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 23 - Example of using Google Test.

First, the code creates a dummy string, which has a simpleclasswith 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 theclassparsed. Finally, it does a simple comparison to make sure the number of members parsed is actually three. An assertion would fail if the number of members was not correct here, indicating a bug in the parsing code.

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

## Note on section 3

The C++ specification is sometimes a little loose on terms. An example would be, from Figure 15, what is an *int* to an *int \*?*

|  |
| --- |
| int integer;  int \*ptr;  int &ref;  int arr[32]; |

Figure 24 - 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.

## 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 get rid of the custom C++ parsing code, and replace it with Clang. However, due to time constraints and the complexity of integrating Clang, this was decided against.

## TypeInfo specialisation **TODO(Jonny): Add more text.**

The generated code has a special templated class called *pp::TypeInfo*. The default implementation is shown in Figure 20.

|  |
| --- |
| 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 size\_t const ptr = 0;  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 25 - 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 21 shows an example of a typical class, and Figure 22 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 26 - 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 size\_t const ptr = 0;  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 27 - 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 23, but, for the sake of brevity, only the first line is shown. Each of the relevant fields, such as *ptr* and *is\_ref*, are 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 28 - 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 24 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 29 - 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 25.

|  |
| --- |
| #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 30 - Outputting type and weak\_type.

The field *ptr* on the *pp::TypeInfo* class is just an integer to tell if something is a pointer. It is an integer, rather than a Boolean, so we can find out how many levels of indirection it is. Figure 28 shows an example using *pp::TypeInfo::ptr* to print out whether the type passed into the function *do\_something* is a pointer or not.

|  |
| --- |
| #include "pp\_generated/test\_code\_generated.h"  #include <iostream>  template<typename T>void do\_something(T var) {  if(pp::TypeInfo<T>::ptr > 0) {  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 a, \*b;  do\_something(a); // "This is not a pointer"  do\_something(b); // "This is a pointer"  return(0);  } |

Figure 31 - pp::TypeInfo::ptr and pp::TypeInfo::is\_ref 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, using 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 a C++17 constant expression if statement. Because every member of the *pp::TypeInfo* class is a constant expression, they can be used with constant expression ifstatements. Figure 29 takes advantage of this to test whether the value passed into *do\_something­* is a pointer or not, and it will either directly output the value or dereference the value first before outputting it.

|  |
| --- |
| #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 32 - C++17 example, using pp::TypeInfo::is\_ptr.

The field *is\_ref* in the *pp::TypeInfo* class is a boolean which is used to tell if something is an integer or not.

The *base\_count* field 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 33 - 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. The function *print\_base\_class\_count* will take any value, and print out however many classes it inherits from.

|  |
| --- |
| #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 34 - 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. The reason *pp::TypeInfo::base* was set to *void* for the default was so the user can test whether something inherits from a base class easily or not. Had *base* been omitted for classes without a base class, then it would cause compile-time errors when the user passed in invalid data.

Figure 30 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 35 - 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 32 shows this. It first uses *pp::TypeInfo::base* to get the base class of *BaseOne*. Then it does a *pp::TypeInfo* around *BaseOne’s* base class, and gets its name as a string. Finally, it prints out this name.

|  |
| --- |
| #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 36 - Complicated pp::TypeInfo::base example.

Making the example in Figure 32 even more generic, we can write a function that will find the highest-level base class of any type and print it. Figure 33 demonstrates this. The function *hierarchy* only takes a type as a template parameter. It will then test if that type’s base class is *void* or not. If it is *void*, then it knows it has reach the top of the inheritance hierarchy and prints out the name of the class. If it is not *void*, then it recursively calls itself.

|  |
| --- |
| #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 37 - Generic pp::TypeInfo::base example.

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.

A lot of the code for *pp*::*TypeInfo* can also work hand-in-hand with the Type Traits library. Figure 34 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. The example provided is a common pattern with Object Orientated codebases, but much more generic. The function will take two variables, and will statically assert that they have the same base class.

|  |
| --- |
| #include "pp\_generated/test\_code\_generated.h"  #include <type\_traits>  class Animal {};  class Dog : public Animal {};  class Cat : public Animal {};  class Person {};  template<typename T, typename U>  void do\_something\_with\_similar\_classes(T a, U b) {  using a\_base = pp::TypeInfo<T>::base;  using b\_base = pp::TypeInfo<U>::base;  static\_assert(pp::type\_compare(a\_base, b\_base),  "The base classes of a and b must be the same");  // ...  // Can do something else with a and b now.  // ...  }  int main(int argc, char \*\*argv) {  Dog dog;  Cat cat;  Person person;  // Will compile fine.  do\_something\_with\_similar\_classes(dog, cat);  // The static assert inside do\_something\_with\_similar\_classes will fail  // for these types, because dog and person do not have the same  // base class.  do\_something\_with\_similar\_classes(dog, person);  return(0);  } |

Figure 38 - Mixing type\_traits and pp::TypeInfo::base.

## 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 35.

|  |
| --- |
| MEMBER\_TYPE \* pp::get\_member(CLASS\_TYPE \*variable, size\_t index); |

Figure 39 - 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 36, 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 40 - 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 37 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 41 - Basic pp::get\_member example.

The function *pp::get\_member* will also work for pointers. In that 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 38 shows an example of this, as well an example of a class within a class, and getting a 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 42 - Complex pp::get\_member example.

While Figure 38 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 39 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 43 - 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 40, 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 44 – C++17 only. Generic serialization example that supports classes within classes.

Figure 41 demonstrates how this can be used to work with pointers as well. Like Figure 40, 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 tha 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 45 – C++17 only. Generic serialization example that includes pointers.

Finally, Figure 42 combines both Figure 40 and Figure 41 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 46 - C++17 only. Fully generic serialization example, which supports classes within classes and pointers.

The nice thing about this example is all the serialization is in user code, not behind a black box, like *pp::print* function, which is discussed in section 3.10.

Building on the previous examples even more, Figure 43 writes a class to disk. It writes a class to disk in XML format (Bray et all, 1996), which could be read by other tools in order to draw some data about the class. Figure 44 shows the output from Figure 43.

|  |
| --- |
| #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 47 - 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 48 – XML output from Figure 43.

In object-oriented design, it is common to set member variables to *private*, and have functions which can access and set the variable. This is to aid with encapsulation, and prevent programmers modifying data by accident.

In an object-orientated codebase, 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 45 shows the return type of this function, which is an enumeration defined in *static\_generated.h*, and Figure 46 shows the definition of this function.

|  |
| --- |
| enum pp::Access {  Access\_public,  Access\_private,  Access\_protected,  }; |

Figure 49 - Enumeration returned from pp::get\_access\_at\_index.

|  |
| --- |
| template<typename T, int index> constexpr pp::Access pp::get\_access\_at\_index(); |

Figure 50 - 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 47 shows a simple example, based on Figure 39, which iterates through all the members of a simple class, and outputs them to the console. Figure 47, 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 51 - Output public members of a class.

## 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 is that C++ forbids the comparison of types. Figure 48 shows a line that will not compile under any standard-compliant C++ compiler.

|  |
| --- |
| if(int == int) |

Figure 52 - 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 49 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 53 - 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 50.

|  |
| --- |
| bool pp::type\_compare(TYPE a, TYPE b); |

Figure 54 - 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 51 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 55 - pp::type\_compare example.

## Printing Classes

One of the most powerful methods available inside the tool is used for printing aclassto the console. The function definition is provided in Figure 52.

|  |
| --- |
| void pp::print(TYPE v, char \*buffer = NULL, size\_t buffer\_size = 0); |

Figure 56 - 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 53 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 57 - pp::print example.

The function *pp::print* goes through all the members of the class and prints them. In Figure 53, it first goes to the member *text* and prints that, then it prints the member *length*.

Figure 54 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 58 - Complex pp::print example.

In Figure 54, 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 serialise function recursively calls itself and prints out the members.

For the first pointer in Figure 54, *int \*i\_p*, 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 54, *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 55.

|  |
| --- |
| size\_t pp::serialize(TYPE var, char \*buffer, size\_t buffer\_size); |

Figure 59 - 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 to pass in the size of the buffer, to make sure it does not write to invalid memory and cause a crash. It then returns the number of bytes it actually did write, in case the user wants to do something with this information.

Figure 56, 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 57.

|  |
| --- |
| #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 60 - 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 61 - Output from Figure 56.

Figure 56 shows a good example of writing class information to disk. In Figure 56, 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 deference. 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 57, 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 56, 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.

## Enumerations

Enumerations, defined under some limitations, which are discussed later, can use *pp::TypeInfo* in order to get some information about themselves. Figure 58 shows an example of using a C++11 enumeration classwith *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 62 - 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 59.

|  |
| --- |
| 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 63 - 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 60 shows some examples of *pp::string\_to\_enum*, and Figure 61 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 concatonation.  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 64 - 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 65 - 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 62 demonstrates the difference.

|  |
| --- |
| enum A : int {}; // Supported  enum class B : int {}; // Supported  enum C {}; // Not supported. |

Figure 66 - 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.

## Performance

Due to the nature of how C++ is usually compiled directly to assembly, having high-performance libraries and tool is a large concern for C++ programmers. Because of this, performance was a large concern when designing the introspection tool. Two examples are given, in Figure 63 and Figure 64, respectively, which demonstrates the high performance of the tool. 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.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 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);  } | ; 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 |

Figure 67 - Sample program and x86 Assembly generated.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 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);  } | ; 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 |

Figure 68 - Sample program using introspection tool and x86 assembly generated.

As you can see, from Figure 63 and Figure 64, the assembly generated is identical in terms of functionality. A nice benefit of having all the members of *pp::TypeInfo* marked as constant expressions is that the assembly generated for them is almost identical to the non-introspection version. This means that, for a large number of cases, there is no runtime performance penalty for using the tool compare to traditional methods.

# Future Work

## 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.

## 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.

## 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 be written directly to the Standard Error Stream.

## 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.

## 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 the container is to have two member functions to get the beginning element and end element. This is demonstrated in Figure 65.

|  |
| --- |
| #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 - 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.

# Conclusion

## Abstract Introspection Problems

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.

## Introspection Problems Specific to C++

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 means 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 to 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.

## Final Thoughts

Overall, the project proved successful in providing a clean API for programmers to access introspection data in C++. The project can definitely be expanded upon in the future to support more of the C++ language. The research provided in this document could also serve as a strong starting point for providing complicated introspection features in a compiled language through a clean API.

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