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1 Function Templates

To understand what a `template` is, it's helpful to first grasp why they're used. Consider how you might implement a function, `max()`, that takes two arguments and returns the greater of the two. This function is general enough to work on any type that supports the comparison `operator>`. Here's an implementation for a specific type, like `int`:

```
1 int max(int a, int b)
2 {
3     return (a > b ? a : b);
4 }
```

Now, imagine you need to implement the same `max()` function for `float` values:

```
1 float max(float a, float b)
2 {
3     return (a > b ? a : b);
4 }
```

And for `int*` values:

```
1 int* max(int* a, int* b)
2 {
3     return (a > b ? a : b);
4 }
```

At this point, the problem becomes clear: you are duplicating the same logic for every data type. This redundancy clutters the codebase and makes it difficult to build a reusable library for generic functionality. Consider a custom class that can be compared:

```
1 class YourClass
2 {
3 public:
4     bool operator>(const YourClass& c);
5     // ...
6 };
```

No library in the world can create generic functionality such as `max()` that works for `YourClass`—after all, they don’t even know it exists. Instead of shouting from the rooftops, pleading with the library architects to recognize the sheer brilliance of `YourClass`, and hoping they’ll bless us with support in the next version, we can take matters into our own hands with a more flexible approach:

```
1 template<class T>
2 T max(T a, T b)
3 {
4     return (a > b ? a : b);
5 }
```

Behold the almighty `template`. Templates allow us to write a single function that works with any type `T`, provided `T` supports the operations we perform on it. By declaring `template<class T>`, we instruct the compiler to generate a **generic function**—a blueprint that can operate on any type `T`. We can explicitly specify `T` when calling the function:

```
1 #include <iostream>
2
3 template<class T>
4 T max(T a, T b)
5 {
6     return (a > b ? a : b);
7 }
8
9 int main()
10 {
11     int    a { 32 }, b { 64 };
12     char   p { 'p' }, q { 'q' };
13     float  x { 1.5 }, y { 1.0 };
14
15     std::cout << max<int>(a, b) << std::endl;    // T = int
16     std::cout << max<char>(p, q) << std::endl;   // T = char
17     std::cout << max<float>(x, y) << std::endl;  // T = float
18 }
```

Terminal

```
$ ./a.out  
64  
q  
1.5
```

When `max()` is called, the compiler generates a specific version of the function tailored for the provided type `T`. This allows us to reuse the same logic across different types without duplicating code—an essential feature in library development, as it enables the creation of reusable code that can handle custom types.

1.1 Function Template Declaration and Definition

As with functions and classes, templates must be declared before they can be used. A template declaration specifies the template’s name, the types it operates on, but it does not provide the full implementation. The syntax for a template declaration looks like this:

```
1 template<class T, class U>  
2 void foo(T a, U b);
```

In this example, `T` and `U` are **template parameters**, which are placeholders representing types that will be provided when the template is instantiated. These parameters define the “family” of functions that the template describes.

The template definition is where you implement the function or class that was declared earlier. For example, continuing from the previous declaration:

```
1 template<class T, class U>  
2 void foo(T a, U b)  
3 {  
4     // do something...  
5 }
```

1.1.1 `typename` Keyword

In the parameter list of a template declaration, `typename` can be used interchangeably with `class` to declare template parameters. As a result, the following two declarations are equivalent:

```
1 template<class T>
2 T max(T a, T b);
```

```
1 template<typename T>
2 T max(T a, T b);
```

For most cases, the choice between `typename` and `class` is purely a matter of style or preference. Reasons to prefer one keyword or the other will present themselves throughout the following chapters. However, there are contexts where only `typename` is valid (and contexts where only `class` is valid) these cases will be discussed in later chapters.

1.2 Function Template Instantiation

When you declare a template function like `max()`, you are not creating a function. Instead, you're **defining a blueprint** that the compiler uses to create functions as needed. This process is called **template instantiation**. A function is only instantiated when you call it with a specific type, prompting the compiler to generate a corresponding version. We can illustrate this idea with an example comparing the compiler output of two source files:

```
1 // filea.cpp
2 template<class T>
3 T abs(T t) { return (t >= 0 ? t : -t); }
4
5 int main() {}
```

```
1 // fileb.cpp
2 int main() {}
```

Terminal

```
$ clang++ -S filea.cpp -o filea.s
$ clang++ -S fileb.cpp -o fileb.s
$ diff filea.s fileb.s | wc
      0      0      0
```

In the above example, we have two source files:

1. filea.cpp defines a template function `abs`, but it is never called.
2. fileb.cpp is a minimal C++ program containing only `main()`.

Since there are no calls to `abs()` in filea.cpp, the compiler does not generate any machine code for it. When we compile both files into assembly using the `-S` flag and compare the outputs with `diff`, they are identical. This confirms that template code is not instantiated until it is used.

Template instantiation occurs at compile-time when the function is called, generating a unique function definition for each combination of template parameters. The beauty of this approach lies in its efficiency; you only pay for what you use. If your program only requires a `max()` function for `int` and `double`, the compiler generates code only for those types, leaving other potential instantiations unused. This selective generation avoids unnecessary bloat, keeping your compiled binaries smaller and your compile times faster.

1.2.1 Implicit Instantiation

When you use a template function, the compiler must create a specific version of that function for the given type. If the required instance does not already exist (or if the existence of the definition affects the semantics of the program), the compiler will generate it through a process called **implicit instantiation**. In this process, the compiler deduces the template parameter `T` based on the types of the function arguments.

```
1 // implicit.cpp
2 template<class T>
3 T max(T a, T b) { return (a > b ? a : b); }
```

```

4 int main()
5 {
6     int x { max(5, 6) };           // max<int>(int, int)
7     double y { max(5.0, 6.0) };   // max<double>(double, double)
8     char z { max('5', '6') };     // max<char>(char, char)
9 }

```

1.2.2 Template Argument Deduction

Above, notice that we don't explicitly tell the compiler which version of `max()` to call. Instead, the compiler **deduces** the template parameter `T` from the function arguments. To implicitly instantiate a function template, the compiler must be able to determine every template argument, though they don't always need to be directly specified. This deduction mechanism enables the use of template **operator** functions, as there's no valid syntax to explicitly specify types passed to arguments without rewriting them as a function call:

```

1 #include <iostream>
2
3 int main()
4 {
5     // std::cout uses the template operator<< to handle
6     // printing different types
7     std::cout << "7" << 7 << 7.0 << std::endl;
8 }

```

1.2.3 Explicit Instantiation

Explicit instantiation forces the compiler to generate a specific version of a function with particular template parameters. This can be useful when you want to control exactly when and where the template code is generated. To explicitly instantiate a template function, simply follow the **template** keyword with a declaration for the function:

```

1 // explicit instantiation of max<int>()
2 template int max<int>(int, int);

```

We can verify that explicit instantiation indeed generates the function by using the `objdump` command to view the symbol table of the object file:

```
1 // filea.cpp
2 template<class T>
3 void foo() { /* fooing... */ }
4
5 template void foo<int>();    // instantiation of foo<int>()
6 template void foo<double>(); // instantiation of foo<double>()
7
8 int main() {}
```

```
1 // fileb.cpp
2 template<class T>
3 void foo() { /* fooing... */ }
4
5 // no explicit instantiations...
6
7 int main() {}
```

Terminal

```
$ clang++ filea.cpp -std=c++23 -c
$ clang++ fileb.cpp -std=c++23 -c
$ objdump -tC filea.o
SYMBOL TABLE:
0000000000000000 l      F __TEXT,__text ltmp0
0000000000000010 l      O __LD,__compact_unwind ltmp1
0000000000000004 w      F __TEXT,__text void foo<double>()
0000000000000000 w      F __TEXT,__text void foo<int>()
0000000000000008 g      F __TEXT,__text _main
$ objdump -tC fileb.o
SYMBOL TABLE:
0000000000000000 l      F __TEXT,__text ltmp0
0000000000000008 l      O __LD,__compact_unwind ltmp1
0000000000000000 g      F __TEXT,__text _main
```


In this example, `foo<int>()` and `foo<double>()` are explicitly instantiated in `filea.cpp`. Running `objdump` on the object file shows entries for `void foo<int>()` and `void foo<double>()`. However, in `fileb.cpp`, since no explicit instantiations are provided, no such entries appear in the symbol table.

It might still be unclear why you would want to use explicit instantiation, given that C++ can automatically instantiate template functions for you. To demonstrate the need for explicit instantiation, consider how your project grows in complexity. As it expands, you'll likely want to break it into multiple modules, across `.cpp` and `.h` files. For example:

```
1 // lib.h
2 template<class T>
3 T max(T a, T b);
```

```
1 // lib.cpp
2 template<class T>
3 T max(T a, T b)
4 {
5     return (a > b ? a : b);
6 }
```

Now, you might want to use this library in your main application:

```
1 // main.cpp
2 #include <iostream>
3 #include "lib.h"
4
5 int main()
6 {
7     std::cout << max(4, 5) << std::endl;
8 }
```

However, when you try to compile your masterpiece, you'll encounter a linker error:

Terminal

```
$ clang++ -std=c++23 main.cpp lib.cpp
Undefined symbols for architecture arm64:
  "int max<int>(int, int)", referenced from:
      _main in main-cbf51c.o
ld: symbol(s) not found for architecture arm64
```

When the translation unit for `main.cpp` is compiled, the compiler sees a reference to `int max<int>()` and assumes the linker will be able to resolve it. However, when `lib.cpp` is compiled, the compiler finds no instantiations of `max()`, and therefore does not generate any concrete functions for it. As a result, when it's time to link the object files, the necessary function does not exist, leading to the undefined symbol error. This issue can be resolved by explicitly instantiating `max<int>()` in `lib.cpp`:

```
1 // lib.cpp
2 template<class T>
3 T max(T a, T b)
4 {
5     return (a > b ? a : b);
6 }
7
8 template int max<int>(int, int);
```

By doing this, you ensure that the function is created, even if it's used across multiple translation units.

Like all features in programming, explicit instantiation comes with trade-offs. While it offers improved modularity by controlling when and where template code is generated, it sacrifices some level of generality because it requires explicitly defining functions for each type, limiting the flexibility to handle new or unforeseen types. This is why template libraries are often implemented entirely in header files. However, the trade-off can be worth it, especially when you know in advance which specific types your library needs to support.

2 Class Templates

Just like functions, classes can also be parameterized with types. This is especially useful for creating data structures or containers that can operate on a variety of data types. Class templates provide a way to write flexible and reusable code while maintaining type safety.

2.1 Class Template Declaration and Definition

Declaring and defining class templates follows the same structure as function templates. The `template` keyword introduces the template parameter list, which can then be used throughout the class:

```
1 template<class T>
2 class MyClass
3 {
4     // ...
5 };
```

The members of a class template can use the type parameters declared in the template definition:

```
1 template<class T, class U, class V>
2 class MyClass
3 {
4     private:
5         T var1;
6         U* var2;
7         V& var3;
8         // ...
9 };
```

We can then instantiate `MyClass` with specific types:

```
1 MyClass<int, int, int> x {};
```

For demonstration purposes, the following `List` class (defined in `list.h`) will be used throughout the examples:

```

1 #include <iostream>
2
3 template<class T>
4 class List {
5     struct Node {
6         T data;                // node's data
7         Node* next;            // ptr to next node
8         Node(T val): data(val), next(nullptr) {}
9     };
10    Node* head;                // ptr to first node
11
12 public:
13     List(): head(nullptr) {}
14     ~List() {
15         for (Node* cursor = head; cursor != nullptr; ) {
16             Node* next { cursor->next }; // save next node
17             delete cursor;              // delete current
18             cursor = next;              // move to next
19         }
20     }
21
22     void insert(T val) {
23         Node* node { new Node(val) }; // make new node
24         node->next = head;             // link it
25         head = node;                  // update head ptr
26     }
27
28     friend std::ostream& operator<<
29     (std::ostream& os, const List<T>& l) {
30         for (typename List<T>::Node* cursor = l.head;
31             cursor != nullptr; cursor = cursor->next) {
32             os << cursor->data << " -> "; // print node data
33         }
34         os << "nullptr" << std::endl;
35         return os;                    // end of list
36     }
37 };

```

Heres an example of how to use the List class:

```
1 #include "list.h"
2
3 int main()
4 {
5     List<int> list {};
6
7     list.insert(40);
8     list.insert(30);
9     list.insert(20);
10    list.insert(10);
11
12    std::cout << list << std::endl;
13 }
```

Terminal

```
$ ./a.out
10 -> 20 -> 30 -> 40 -> nullptr
```

2.1.1 Member Function Definitions

To define a member function outside of the class definition, we must specify that it is a template and fully qualify the class template with its parameter. Heres how the external definition of insert() would look:

```
1 template<class T>
2 void List<T>::insert(T val)
3 {
4     Node* node { new Node(val) };    // make new node
5     node->next = head;                // link it
6     head = node;                     // update head ptr
7 }
```

When a member function of a class template takes additional template parameters, those parameters must be specified when defining the function outside the

class definition:

```
1 #include <iostream>
2
3 template<class T>
4 struct Structure {
5     T value;
6     template<class U> void method() const;
7 };
8
9 template<class T>
10 template<class U>
11 void Structure<T>::method() const {
12     std::cout << U(value) << std::endl;
13 }
14
15 int main()
16 {
17     Structure<double> s { 5.5 };
18     s.method<int>(); // prints 5
19 }
```

2.1.2 Static Member Definitions

Class templates can have static members, just like regular classes. The definition of a static data member in a class template involves specifying the template parameter followed by the variable definition:

```
1 template<class T>
2 struct S {
3     static int s_var;
4 };
5
6 template<class T> int S<T>::s_var { -1 };
```

In this example, `s_var` is initialized to `-1`, and its value is shared across all instances of `S<T>` for any given type `T`.

3 Variable Templates

One notable feature introduced in C++14 is the **variable template**. Variable templates allow us to define parameterized constants, making it easy to work with constants of different types. Here's a simple example of how we can define π using a variable template:

```
1 template<class T>
2 const T pi = T(3.14159265358979323);
```

In this code, `pi` is a variable template that can be instantiated with various types. The variable template allows π to be used with different data types, such as `double` or `int`, without needing to write separate definitions for each type.

```
1 #include <iostream>
2
3 template<class T> const T pi = T(3.14159265358979323);
4
5 int main()
6 {
7     using namespace std;
8     cout << "math:" << pi<double> << endl; // 3.14159
9     cout << "engineering:" << pi<int> << endl; // 3
10 }
```

4 Variadic Templates

Since C++11, templates can accept a variable number of template parameters. This feature, known as **variadic templates**, allows you to pass an arbitrary number of arguments of arbitrary types to a template. It is especially useful in scenarios where you need flexibility in the number and types of arguments. For example, you can use variadic templates to create a function that prints an arbitrary set of objects:

```
1 #include <iostream>
2
3 void print() {}
4
5 template<class T, class... Types>
6 void print(T first, Types... args)
7 {
8     std::cout << first << std::endl;
9     print(args...);
10 }
11
12 int main()
13 {
14     print(5, 6, 7.0, "Hello, World!");
15 }
```

If one or more arguments are passed to `print()`, the function template is used. `print()` calls itself recursively for the remaining arguments. The remaining arguments names `args` are called a **parameter pack**.

5 Template Specialization

There are often advantages to treating certain combinations of template parameters as special cases. Sometimes these are performance advantages, while other times the general template may simply fail to work for a specific set of parameters. **Template specialization** allows us to define implementations for specific template parameter combinations that override the default instantiation. When the compiler encounters an instantiation matching a specialized version, it uses the specialized implementation instead of the generic one. Consider the following example:

```
1 #include <string>
2
3 template<class From, class To>
4 To convert(From x)
5 {
6     return To(x);
7 }
8
9 int main()
10 {
11     using std::string;
12     double x { convert<int, double>(114) }; // x = 114.0
13     char y { convert<int, char>(114) }; // y = 'r'
14     string z { convert<int, string>(114) }; // error!
15 }
```

The example above fails to compile because there is no viable conversion from `int` to `std::string`. While the generic template works for types with compatible constructors, some conversions require custom logic. If our project calls for an implementation, we can define one with template specialization. To declare a specialization, follow the `template` keyword with empty angle brackets `<>`, then write the specialized function declaration:

```
1 template<> std::string convert<int, std::string>(int x);
```

We then define our `int` \rightarrow `string` algorithm within the specialization:

```

1 template<> std::string convert<int, std::string>(int x)
2 {
3     std::string s {};
4     do
5     {
6         s = std::string(1, char('0' + x % 10)) + s;
7         x /= 10;
8     } while (x > 0);
9     return s;
10 }

```

The definition of a specialized template is also an instantiation:

```

1 // specialization.cpp
2
3 template<class T>
4 T max(T a, T b)
5 {
6     return (a > b ? a : b);
7 }
8
9 template<> int max<int>(int a, int b)
10 {
11     return a; // not sure why one would do this
12 }
13
14 int main() {}

```

When we compile and inspect the object file, we see the specialized version of `max<int>()` is instantiated:

```

Terminal
$ clang++ -std=c++23 -c specialization.cpp
$ objdump -tC specialization.o
SYMBOL TABLE:
0000000000000000 l F __TEXT,__text ltmp0
0000000000000020 l 0 __LD,__compact_unwind ltmp1

```

```
000000000000000000 g F __TEXT,__text int max<int>(int, int)
0000000000000000018 g F __TEXT,__text _main
```