

Modern C++ Programming

8. TEMPLATES AND META-PROGRAMMING I

FUNCTION TEMPLATES AND COMPILE-TIME UTILITIES

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1 Function Template

- Overview
- Template Parameters
- Template Parameters - Default Value
- Overloading
- Specialization

2 Template Variable

3 Template Parameter Types

- Generic Type Notes
- `auto` Placeholder
- Class Template Parameter Type
- Array and Pointer Types ★
- Function Type ★

4 Compile-Time Utilities

- `static_assert`
- `using` Keyword
- `decltype` Keyword

5 Type Traits

- Overview
- Type Traits Library
- Type Manipulation

Function Template

Template

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

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

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

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

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

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

Function Template

A **function template** is a function schema that operates with *generic* types (independent of any particular type) or concrete values

A function template works with multiple types without repeating the entire code for each of them

```
template<typename T> // or template<class T>
T add(T a, T b) {
    return a + b;
}

int    c1 = add(3, 4);           // c1 = 7
float  c2 = add(3.0f, 4.0f);     // c2 = 7.0f
```


Templates: Benefits and Drawbacks

Benefits

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

Drawbacks

- **Readability.** “With respect to C++, the syntax and idioms of templates are *esoteric* compared to conventional C++ programming, and templates can be very difficult to understand” [wikipedia] → hard to read, cryptic error messages
- **Compile Time/Binary Size.** Templates are implicitly instantiated for every distinct parameters

Template Instantiation

Template Instantiation

The **template instantiation** is the substitution of template parameters with concrete values or types

The compiler *automatically* generates a **function implementation** for each template instantiation

```
template<typename T>
T add(T a, T b) {
    return a + b;
}

add(3, 4);           // generates: int    add(int, int)
add(3.0f, 4.0f);    // generates: float add(float, float)
add(2, 6);           // already generated
// other instances are not generated
// e.g. char add(char, char)
```

Implicit and Explicit Template Instantiation

Implicit Template Instantiation

Implicit template instantiation occurs when the compiler generates code depending on the deduced argument types or the explicit template arguments, and such entity is used in the code

Explicit Template Instantiation

Explicit template instantiation occurs when the compiler generates code depending only on the explicit template arguments specified in the declaration. Useful when dealing with multiple translation units to reduce the binary size

```
template<typename T>  
void f(T a) {}
```

```
f(3); // generates: void f(int) → implicit  
f<short>(3.0); // generates: void f(short) → explicit  
template f<int>(int); // generates: void f(int) → explicit
```

Template Parameters

Template Parameters

Template Parameters are the names following the `template` keyword

```
template<typename T>
void f() {}

f<int>();
```

`typename T` is the **template parameter**

`int` is the **template argument**

A **template parameter** can be a generic type, i.e. `typename`, as well as a non-type template parameters (NTTP), e.g. `int`, `enum`, etc.

The **template argument** of a generic type is a builtin or user-declared type, while a concrete value for a non-type template parameter

int parameter

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

enum parameter

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

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

▪ Ceiling division

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

▪ Rounded division

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

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

C++11 Template parameters can have default values

(only at the end of the parameter list)

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

print1<2>();    // print 2
print1<>();     // print 3 (default)
print1();      // print 3 (default)
```

Template parameters may have no name

```
void f() {}

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

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

`f()` is always generated in the final code

`g()` is generated in the final code only if it is called

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

```
template<int A, int B = A + 3>
void f() {
    cout << B;
}

template<typename T, int S = sizeof(T)>
void g(T) {
    cout << S;
}

f<3>();    // B is 6
g(3);     // S is 4
```

Function Template Overloading

Template Functions can be *overloaded*

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

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

Also templates themselves can be *overloaded*

```
template<int C, typename T>
T add(T a, T b) { // it is not in conflict with
    return a + b + C; // T add(T a, T b)
} // "C" is part of the signature
```

Template Specialization

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

The problem:

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

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

Solution: Template specialization

```
template<>
bool compare<float>(float a, float b) {
    return ...    // a better floating point implementation
}
```

Full Specialization: *Function* templates can be specialized only if **ALL** template arguments are specialized

Template Variable

Template Variable

C++14 allows variables with templates

A template variable can be considered a special case of a template class

```
template<typename T>
constexpr T pi{ 3.1415926535897932385 }; // variable template

template<typename T>
T circular_area(T r) {
    return pi<T> * r * r; // pi<T> is a variable template instantiation
}

circular_area(3.3f); // float
circular_area(3.3); // double
// circular_area(3); // compile error, narrowing conversion with "pi"
```

Template Parameter Types

Template Parameter Types

Template parameters can be:

- *integral type*
- `enum`, `enum class`
- *floating-point type* C++20
- `auto` placeholder C++17
- *class literals* and *concepts* C++20
- *generic type* `typename`

and rarely:

- *function*
- *reference/pointer* to global `static` function or object
- *pointer to member type*
- `nullptr_t` C++14

Generic Type Notes

Pass multiple values and floating-point types

```
// template<float V>    // compiler error
// void print() {      // not valid before C++20

template<typename T>
void print() {
    cout << T::x << ", " << T::y;
}

struct Multi {
    static const    int    x = 1;
    static constexpr float y = 2.0f; // preferred
};

print<Multi>(); // print 2.0, 3.0
```

auto Placeholder

C++17 introduces automatic deduction of *non-type* template parameters with the `auto` keyword

```
template<int X, int Y>
void f() {}

template<typename T1, T1 X, typename T2, T2 Y>
void g1() {} // before C++17

template<auto X, auto Y>
void g2() {}

f<2u, 2u>();           // X: int, Y: int
g1<int, 2, char, 'a'>(); // X: int, Y: char
g2<2, 'a'>();          // X: int, Y: char
```

Class Template Parameter Type

C++20 A *non-type template parameter* of a **class literal type**:

- A *class literal* is a class that can be assigned to `constexpr` variable
- All *base classes* and *non-static data members* are public and non-mutable
- All *base classes* and *non-static data members* have the same properties

```
#include <array>
struct A {
    int x;
    constexpr A(int x1) : x{x1} {}
};
template<A a>
void f() { std::cout << a.x; }

template<std::array array>
void g() { std::cout << array[2]; }

f<A{5}>();           // print '5'
g<std::array{1,2,3}>(); // print '3'
```

Array and pointer

```
template<int* ptr>    // pointer
void g() {
    cout << ptr[0];
}

template<int (&array)[3]> // reference
void f() {
    cout << array[0];
}

int array[] = {2, 3, 4}; // global

int main() {
    f<array>(); // print 2
    g<array>(); // print 2
}
```

Class member

```
struct A {
    int x = 5;
    int y[3] = {4, 2, 3};
};

template<int A::*x>    // pointer to
void h1() {}           // member type

template<int (A::*y)[3]> // pointer to
void h2() {}           // member type

int main() {
    h1<&A::x>();
    h2<&A::y>();
}
```

Function

```
template<int (*)(int, int)> // <-- signature of "f"
int apply1(int a, int b) {
    return g(a, b);
}

int f(int a, int b) {
    return a + b;
}

template<decltype(f)> // alternative syntax
void apply2(int a, int b) {
    return g(a, b);
}

int main() {
    apply1<f>(2, 3); // return 5
    apply2<f>(2, 3); // return 5
}
```

Compile-Time Utilities

static_assert

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

If the *static assertion* fails, the program does not compile

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

```
template<typename T, typename R>
void f() {
    static_assert(sizeof(T) == sizeof(R)); // message not needed in C++17
}

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

using keyword (C++11)

The `using` keyword introduces an *alias-declaration* or *alias-template*

- `using` is an enhanced version of `typedef` with a more readable syntax
- `using` can be combined with templates, as opposite to `typedef`
- `using` is useful to simplify complex template expression
- `using` allows to introduce new names for partial and full specializations

```
typedef int distance_t; // equal to:
```

```
using distance_t = int;
```

```
typedef void (*function)(int, float); // equal to:
```

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


Full/Partial specialization alias:

```
template<typename T, int Size>
struct Vector {};                                // see next lecture for further details
                                              // on class template

template<int Size>
using Bitset = Vector<bool, Size>; // partial specialization alias

using IntV4 = Vector<int, 4>; // full specialization alias
```

Accessing a type within a structure:

```
struct A {
    using type = int;
};

using Alias = A::type;
```

C++11 `decltype` keyword captures the type of an *entity* or an *expression*

- `decltype` never executes, it is always evaluated at compile-time

```
int      x = 3;
int&     y = x;
const int z = 4;
int      array[2];
void     f(int, float);

decltype(x);           // int
decltype(2 + 3.0);     // double
decltype(y);           // int&
decltype(z);           // const int
decltype(array);       // int[2]
decltype(f(1, 2.0f));  // void

using function = decltype(f);
```

```
bool f(int) { return true; }

struct A {
    int x;
};

int x = 3;
const A a;

decltype(x);    // int
decltype((x));  // int&

decltype(f);    // bool (int)
decltype((f));  // bool (&)(int)

decltype(a.x);  // int
decltype((a.x)); // const int
```

C++11

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

```
unsigned v1 = add(1, 2u);
double   v2 = add(1.5, 2u);
```

C++14

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

Type Traits

Introspection

Introspection is the ability to inspect a type and query its properties

Reflection

Reflection is the ability of a computer program to examine, introspect, and modify its own structure and behavior

C++ provides compile-time reflection and introspection capabilities through type traits

Type traits (C++11)

Type traits define a compile-time interface to *query* or *modify* the properties of types

The problem:

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

integral_div(7, 2);      // returns 3 (int)
integral_div(71, 21);   // returns 3 (long int)
integral_div(7.0, 3.0); // !!! a floating-point value is not an integral type
```

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

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

```
template<typename T>
T integral_div(T a, T b); // declaration (error for other types)

template<>
char integral_div<char>(char a, char b) { // specialization
    return a / b;
}
template<>
int integral_div<int>(int a, int b) { // specialization
    return a / b;
}
...unsigned char
...short
...
```


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

```
#include <type_traits>          // <-- std type traits library
template<typename T>
T integral_div(T a, T b) {
    static_assert(std::is_integral<T>::value,
                  "integral_div accepts only integral types");
    return a / b;
}
```

`std::is_integral<T>` is a struct with a static constexpr boolean field `value`.
`value` is true if `T` is a `bool`, `char`, `short`, `int`, `long`, `long long`, false otherwise

C++17 provides utilities to improve the readability of type traits

```
std::is_integral_v<T>; // std::is_integral<T>::value
```

- `is_integral` checks for an integral type (`bool` , `char` , `unsigned char` , `short` , `int` , `long` , etc.)
- `is_floating_point` checks for a floating-point type (`float` , `double`)
- `is_arithmetic` checks for a integral or floating-point type
- `is_signed` checks for a signed type (`float` , `int` , etc.)
- `is_unsigned` checks for an unsigned type (`unsigned` , `bool` , etc.)
- `is_enum` checks for an enumerator type (`enum` , `enum class`)
- `is_void` checks for (`void`)
- `is_pointer` checks for a pointer (`T*`)
- `is_nullptr` checks for a (`nullptr`) C++14

Entity type queries:

- `is_reference` checks for a reference (`T&`)
- `is_array` checks for an array (`T (&)[N]`)
- `is_function` checks for a function type

Class queries:

- `is_class` checks for a class type (`struct` , `class`)
- `is_abstract` checks for a class with at least one pure virtual function
- `is_polymorphic` checks for a class with at least one virtual function

Type property queries:

- `is_const` checks if a type is `const`

Type relation:

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

Example - const Deduction

```
#include <type_traits>

template<typename T>
void f(T x) { cout << std::is_const_v<T>; }

template<typename T>
void g(T& x) { cout << std::is_const_v<T>; }

template<typename T>
void h(T& x) {
    cout << std::is_const_v<T>;
    x = nullptr; // ok, it compiles for T: (const int)*
}

const int a = 3;
f(a); // print false, "const" drop in pass by-value
g(a); // print true
const int* b = new int;
h(b); // print false!! T: (const int)*
```

Example - Type Relation

```
#include <type_traits>

template<typename T, typename R>
T add(T a, R b) {
    static_assert(std::is_same_v<T, R>, "T and R must have the same type")
    return a + b;
}

add(1, 2);           // ok
// add(1, 2.0); // compile error, "T and R must have the same type"
```

```
#include <type_traits>

struct A {}
struct B : A {}

std::is_base_v<A, B>;           // true
std::is_convertible_v<int, float>; // true
```

Type Manipulation

Type traits allow also to manipulate types by using the `type` field

Example: produce `unsigned` from `int`

```
#include <type_traits>

using U = typename std::make_unsigned<int>::type; // see next lecture to understand
                                                // why 'typename' is needed here

U y = 5; // unsigned
```

C++14 provides utilities to improve the readability of type traits

```
std::make_unsigned_t<T>; // instead of 'typename std::make_unsigned<T>::type'
```

Signed and Unsigned types:

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

Pointers and References:

- `remove_pointer` remove pointer (`T*` \rightarrow `T`)
- `remove_lvalue_reference` remove reference (`T&` \rightarrow `T`)
- `add_pointer` add pointer (`T` \rightarrow `T*`)
- `add_lvalue_reference` add reference (`T` \rightarrow `T&`)

`const` specifiers:

- `remove_const` remove `const` (`const T` \rightarrow `T`)
- `add_const` add `const`

Other type transformation:

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

Type Manipulation Example

```
#include <type_traits>

template<typename T>
void f(T ptr) {
    using R = std::remove_pointer_t<T>;
    R x = ptr[0]; // char
}
```

```
template<typename T>
void g(T x) {
    using R = std::add_const_t<T>;
    R y = 3;
    // y = 4;    // compile error
}
```

```
char a[] = "abc";
f(a);    // T: char*
g(3);    // T: int
```

std::common_type Example

```
#include <type_traits>

template<typename T, typename R>
std::common_type_t<R, T> // <-- return type
add(T a, R b) {
    return a + b;
}

// we can also use decltype to derive the result type
using result_t = decltype(add(3, 4.0f));
result_t x = add(3, 4.0f);
```

std::conditional Example

```
#include <type_traits>

template<typename T, typename R>
auto f(T a, R b) {
    constexpr bool pred = sizeof(T) > sizeof(R);
    using S = std::conditional_t<pred, T, R>;
    return static_cast<S>(a) + static_cast<S>(b);
}

f( 2,  'a'); // return 'int'
f( 2, 2ull); // return 'unsigned long long'
f(2.0f, 2ull); // return 'unsigned long long'
```