

Templates

- a template can be either a class or a function
 - a *class template* defines a family of classes
 - a *function template* defines a family of functions
- *object-oriented* construct
 - static polymorphism, a.k.a. compile-time polymorphism
- powerful and useful in many ways
 - traditional generic data structure design – element type parameterization
 - an alternative to function overloading – can also be combined with function overloading
 - policy design – parametrizing e.g. storage policy, ordering policy, etc., for containers
 - template meta programming – compile time type classification, type property inspection, type translation, code selection, ...
- pre-runtime
 - static type checking
 - highly optimizable
 - flexibility combined with safety and efficiency
- we will on the way see
 - programming techniques related to template programming
 - use of rvalue references, move semantics, perfect forwarding – all very important features of C++
 - core language features used in connection with templates – `auto`, `decltype`, `noexcept`, `constexpr`
 - examples of standard library components

Function template instantiation

- *template instantiation* – the act of instantiating a template


```
int a{ 1 };
int b{ 2 };

int c = max(a, b);      // name lookup...
```
- if no other, better candidate is found by name look up
 - the function call will create an **int instance** for our template `max()`
 - such an instance is an *implicit specialization* for **int**
 - template argument for T is deduced from the type of the function call arguments, i.e. the type(s) for a and b
 - x and y have the same template type T – a and b must have same type (**int**)
 - no implicit type conversion of arguments is allowed in this context
- *explicit instantiation* is a *declaration* using the keyword **template** only in front of a declaration or definition


```
template const int& std::max<int>(const int&, const int&);
```

 - this will force the compiler to create *one* instance for the entire program
 - used to make, e.g., compilation more efficient
 - this is *not* an *explicit specialization* (next slide)
- how instances are managed is implementation dependent
 - the standard does not specify

Function templates

- ```
template<typename T>
const T& max(const T& x, const T& y)
{
 return x < y ? y : x;
}
```
- *template parameter list* – a comma separated list of *template parameters* within angle brackets
 

```
template< template parameters >
```
  - *template type parameter* – two alternatives, no semantic difference
 

```
typename T class T
```
  - other kind of template parameters – *non-type parameter*, *template template parameter*, *template parameter pack*....
  - note – `max` is designed and implemented with care
    - the only requirement on T is **operator<**
    - there should also be an overloading with a second template parameter for a comparison predicate
    - pass by *reference* – T need not be copyable
    - pass by reference to `const` – in semantics enforced and arguments can be *constants* or *literals*
  - be aware of special cases
    - wrong semantics if T is, e.g., a pointer type

## Explicit function template specialization (1)

- the original declaration of a template is called **primary template**

```
template<typename T> const T& max(const T& x, const T& y) { ... }
```

- the name for a primary is a simple *identifier* – `max`
- an *explicit specialization* is typically defined to handle a *special case*, e.g.
  - when the *template primary* does not work for a specific type
  - when a more efficient solution can be found for a specific type
- an explicit specialization is introduced by `template<...>`

```
template<> max<const char*>(const char*&, const char*&) { ... }
```

- specialization for `const char*`
- the name is a *template-id* – `max<const char*>`
- is a *full specialization* if no template parameters are declared – `template<>`
- otherwise it's a *partial specialization* (examples will follow)
- a primary and its specializations are *separate definitions*
  - no code sharing

## Explicit function template specialization (2)

- an *explicit specialization* for `std::max` for `const char*` would be

```
template<> const char*& max<const char*&>(const char*& x, const char*& y)
{
 return (strcmp(x, y) < 0) ? y : x;
}
```

– T is replaced with `char*` (& must remain)

- don't specialize a function template unless needed
  - specializations never participate in overload resolution
  - but, an existing specialization will be used, if its primary is chosen by overload resolution
- prefer to overload with an ordinary function

```
const char* max(const char* x, const char* y)
{
 return (strcmp(x, y) < 0) ? y : x;
}
```

– obviously no point in specializing in this case

– this function *will* participate in overload resolution, and will be chosen before any template is considered

## Non-type template parameters

```
template<typename T, std::size_t N>
T* begin(T (&a)[N])
{
 return a;
}

template<typename T, std::size_t N>
T* end(T (&a)[N])
{
 return a + N;
}

int a[] { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 }; // type is int[9]

for (auto it = begin(a), it != end(a); ++it)
 cout << *it << endl;
```

- N is a *non-type template parameter*
  - acts as a *constant* within the template
  - the dimension of the array will be deduced from the function call argument
  - it is recommended to pass arrays to functions by reference, instead as by pointer

Examples taken from the standard library, *range access*.

## Function templates and overload resolution

Function templates can be overloaded with both template functions and normal functions.

Overload resolution basically goes through the following steps to find a function to match a call:

- if there is a normal function that exactly matches the call, that function is selected, *else*
- if a function template can be instantiated to exactly match the call, that specialization is selected, *else*
- if type conversion can be applied to the arguments, allowing a normal function to be used as a unique best match, that function is selected, *else*
- overload resolution fails – either no function matches the call, or the call is ambiguous

```
template<typename T> const T& max(const T& x, const T& y);

int a, b;
double x, y;
...

a = max(a, b); // OK, a and b have same type, int
x = max(x, y); // OK, x and y have same type, double
x = max(a, x); // ERROR, a and x has different types
x = max<double>(a, x); // explicit instantiation allows for implicit type conversion, a is converted to double
```

## Function templates, `auto` and `decltype`

```
template<class Container>
auto begin(Container& c) -> decltype(c.begin())
{
 return c.begin();
}

template<class Container>
auto end(Container& c) -> decltype(c.end())
{
 return c.end();
}

vector<int> v{ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 };

for (auto it = begin(v), it != end(v); ++it)
 cout << *it << endl;
```

- return type is not possible to determine from the template parameter
  - the actual type for Container must be known, and then what the member functions `begin()` and `end()` returns
- `decltype` is an *unevaluated context* – `c.begin()` and `c.end()` are *not* invoked
- In C++14 `auto` will be sufficient in cases where the return type can be deduced from the code in the body (as in these examples)

Note: This syntax is a reminiscent of the lambda syntax – [capture] (parameter-list) -> return-type { statements }

### Class templates

```
template<class T1, class T2> struct pair
{
 typedef T1 first_type;
 typedef T2 second_type;

 T1 first;
 T2 second;

 pair(const pair&) = default;
 pair(pair&&) = default;
 constexpr pair() : first(), second() {}
 pair(const T1& x, const T2& y) : first(x), second(y) {}
 // more constructors

 pair& operator=(const pair& p);
 pair& operator=(pair&& p);
 // more assignment operators

 void swap(pair& p)
 noexcept(noexcept(swap(first, p.first)) && noexcept(swap(second, p.second))) { ... }

};

template<class T1, class T2>
void
swap(pair<T1, T2>& x, pair<T1, T2>& y) noexcept(noexcept(x.swap(y))) { x.swap(y); }
```

### Helper function make\_pair()

```
template<class T1, class T2>
pair<T1, T2>
make_pair(T1& x, T2& y)
{
 return pair<T1, T2>(std::forward(x), std::forward(y));
}

auto p = make_pair(4711, string{"Eau de Cologne"}); // pair<int, string>

• common practice to have a helper function to create instances of a class template for given arguments
 - creating a pair object becomes easy
 - the types of the template arguments T1 and T2 are deduced from the given call arguments
 - reference collapsing is applied to T1&& and T2&& (more about that later)
• std::forward() is a utility function for perfect forwarding
 - makes it work as if the call to the pair constructor was made in the client code
 - preserves the actual type category of the arguments - lvalue or rvalue
• if the first argument is an lvalue of type L and the second argument is an rvalue of type R, the signature will effectively be

 pair<L, R> make_pair(L& x, R&& y);

 - why cannot std::move() be used in this context?
```

### Comments on std::pair

- pair<int, string> p{ 4711, "Eau de Cologne" };
- pair<int, string>::first\_type x = p.first;
- two template type parameters, T1 and T2
- member types first\_type and second\_type
  - T1 and T2 – but with better names – are made available to code using pair
  - common practice for class templates
- data members first and second
  - direct access causes no problem – public
- pair means pair<T1, T2>, when used within the template
- constexpr pair() means that a call to the constructor is a *constant expression*
  - can be evaluated during compile time
  - default initialized pair objects can be used in static contexts
- the noexcept specification for member swap specifies that it will not throw
  - if swapping T1 objects will not throw, and
  - if swapping T2 objects will not throw
- the noexcept specification for non-member swap specifies that it's no-throw, if member swap is no-throw

Note: noexcept is an operator – noexcept( expression )

### Class template instantiation and specialization

- implicit instantiation** occurs when the context requires an instance of a class template
  - class template arguments are *never deduced*, but default arguments can be used
- template<class T, class Allocator = allocator<T>> class vector;
 vector<int> v; // definition of v require instance of std::vector for int
  - class template member functions are *instantiated when called*
- an **explicit instantiation** is a declaration using the keyword **template**

```
template class vector<int>;
```
- a class template **specialization** is introduced by **template<...>** – the name is a *template-id*

```
template<typename Allocator> class vector<bool, Allocator> { ... };
```

  - specialization for vector<bool>
    - this is a *partial specialization*, since there is (at least) one template parameter left (Allocator)
    - a *full specialization* is introduced by **template<>**
  - primary and specialization have separate definitions – no code sharing

### Default template parameter arguments

```
template<typename T = int, // for demonstration only
 typename U = std::allocator<T>,
 template<typename = T, typename = U> class Container = std::vector>
ostream& operator<<(ostream& os, const Container<T, U>& c);

template<size_t N = 32> bitset;
```

- Note: only `std::allocator<T>` is in practice realistic to have as a default argument

- if all template parameters have a default argument, the template argument list can be empty

```
template<typename T = int> class X { ... };

X<> x1; // OK, same as X<int>
X x2; // Syntax error
```

- ambiguity between a *type identifier* (*type-id*) and an *expression* is resolved to a *type identifier*

```
template<typename T> void fun(); // function template with a type parameter
template<int I> void fun(); // function template with a non-type parameter
```

```
void g() { fun<int>(); } // int() is resolved as a type-id – first fun() is called
```

- what type?

### Variadic templates

- a *template parameter pack* is a template parameter that accepts zero or more template arguments.

```
template<class... Types>
class tuple { ... };
```

- Types is a template parameter pack

```
tuple<> t0; // Types contains no arguments
tuple<int> t1{ 17 }; // Types contains one arguments, int
tuple<int, double> t2{ 17, 3.14 }; // Types contains two arguments, int and double
```

- a *function parameter pack* is a function parameter that accepts zero or more arguments

```
template<class... Types>
void fun(Types... args); // function parameter pack
```

- args is a function parameter pack

```
fun(); // args contains no arguments
fun(1); // args contains one argument, type int
fun(2, 3.14); // args contains two arguments, type int and double
```

### Separate definitions for members of a class template

```
template<typename T>
struct S
{
 T t_{ T() }; // non-static data member definition
 T get_t(); // non-static member function declaration
 static T c_; // static data member declaration
 static T get_c(); // static member function declaration
};

template<typename T>
T S<T>::get_t() { return t_; }

template<typename T>
T S<T>::c_{ T() };

template<typename T>
T S<T>::get_c() { return c_; }

• instantiation argument used in qualified names – S<T>::name
• expression T() to initialize data members of a generic type T
```

### Variadic print function

```
template<typename T> void print(const &T x)
{
 cout << x;
}

template<typename First, typename... Rest>
void print(First first, Rest... rest) // Rest is expanded
{
 cout << first << ' ';
 print(rest...); // rest is expanded
}
```

- Rest is a template parameter pack
- rest is a function parameter pack
- rest... is a *pack expansion* – consists of a pattern and an ellipsis – rest is the *pattern*
  - beside *expanding*, the only thing one can do with a parameter pack is to take its *size* with `sizeof...`

```
print(); // error: no function matches call print()
print(17); // 17
print(17, "Hello"); // 17 Hello
print(17, "Hello", 3.14); // 17 Hello 3.14
print(17, "Hello", 3.14, 'X'); // 17 Hello 3.14 X
```

## Variadic emplace functions

- the purpose is to avoid copies – for example when inserting into a container and we have suitable constructor arguments at hand
- pass constructor arguments instead of ready-made objects – by rvalue reference or by lvalue reference
- objects are created in-place by a matching constructor – move or copy

```
template<typename T> class Container
{
public:
 void insert(const T& x) { ... }

 template<typename... Args>
 void emplace(Args&&... args) { construct(&storage_, std::forward<Args>(args)...); }

private:
 template<typename... Args>
 void construct(T* p, Args&&... args) { new(p) T{ std::forward<Args>(args)... }; }

 T storage_; // very, very simplified storage...
};

Container<pair<int, string>> c;
string s{ "foobar" };
c.emplace(4711, s); // note: first argument is an rvalue, second is an lvalue
c.insert(make_pair(4711, s)); // this is what we avoided, first creating a pair and then insert it
```

## Template parameter overview (2)

- template template parameter

```
template<typename T, typename U, template<typename, typename> class Container>
ostream& operator<<(ostream& os, const Container<T, U>& c)
{
 copy(begin(c), end(c), ostream_iterator<T>(os, " "));
 return os;
}

vector<int> v{ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 };

cout << v << endl;
```

– Container can be instantiated by any class type having two type parameters

```
template<typename, typename> class Container;
```

– vector, and all other sequence containers, except array, have two template type parameters

```
template <class T, class Allocator = allocator<T>> vector;
```

– default arguments for template parameters are *not* considered in this context

## Template parameter overview (1)

- template type parameter (typename or class)

```
template<typename T> class X;
```

– actual T can be any type (fulfilling the requirements the implementation of X puts on T)

- template non-type parameter – shall have one of the following types:

– integral or enumeration type

```
template<int n, Colour c> ...
```

– pointer to object, or to function

```
template<double* p, void (*pf)()> ...
```

– lvalue reference to object or to function

```
template<X& r, void (&rf)()> ...
```

– pointer to data member, or member function

```
template<int X::*pm, void (X::*pmf)()> ...
```

– std::nullptr\_t – hard to find examples...

## Template parameter overview (2)

- template template parameter

```
template<typename T, typename U, template<typename, typename> class Container>
ostream& operator<<(ostream& os, const Container<T, U>& c)
{
 copy(begin(c), end(c), ostream_iterator<T>(os, " "));
 return os;
}

vector<int> v{ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 };

cout << v << endl;
```

– Container can be instantiated by any class type having two type parameters

```
template<typename, typename> class Container;
```

– vector, and all other sequence containers, except array, have two template type parameters

```
template <class T, class Allocator = allocator<T>> vector;
```

– default arguments for template parameters are *not* considered in this context

## Template parameter overview (3)

- template type parameter pack

```
template<typename... Types> class tuple;
```

– tuple can be instantiated with zero or more type arguments

```
tuple<int, string, double> fragrance{ 4711, "Eau de Cologne", 39.39 };
```

– the sizeof... operator yields the number of arguments provided for a parameter pack

```
static const std::size_t number = sizeof...(Types);
```

- template non-type parameter pack

```
template<typename T, int... Dims> class Multi_Array;
```

– Multi\_Array can be instantiated with a type and zero or more int values

```
Multi_Array<string, 3, 4> m34;
```

### Template parameter overview (4)

- a template parameter (T) can be used in declaration of subsequent template parameters and their default arguments

```
template<class T, T* p, class U = T> class X;
```

- a template parameter of type *array of T* is adjusted to *pointer to T* by the compiler

```
template<int a[10]> is adjusted to template<int* a>
```

- as for an ordinary function parameter of array type

- a template parameter of type *function* is adjusted to *pointer to function* by the compiler

```
template<int f()> is adjusted to template<int (*f)()>
```

- as for an ordinary function parameter of function type

The two, in practice, dominant kinds of template parameters are

- *type parameters*
- *integral non-type parameters*

### Member templates

```
template<class T1, class T2>
struct pair
{
 ...
 template<class U, class V> pair(U&& x, V&& y);
 ...
};
```

- a class template or function template can be declared as member of a class
  - such a template is called a *member template*
  - a member function template cannot be virtual and never override a virtual function
  - allowing for type conversions is one use – if U is convertible to T1, and V is convertible to T2, the constructor above is fine
- copy/move constructors and copy/move assignment operators are *not* templates
- separate member template declaration syntax

```
template<class T1, class T1> // class template parameters
template<class U, class V> // member template parameters
pair<T1, T2>::pair(U&& x, V&& y)
 : first{ std::forward<U>(x) }, second{ std::forward<V>(y) }
{}
```

### Type equivalence

Two template identifiers refer to the same class or function, if their

- names are identical
- type arguments are the same types
- non-type arguments of integral or enumeration type have identical values
- non-type arguments of pointer or reference type points/refer to the same object or function
- template arguments refer to the same template

```
template<typename T, T t, T* p, template<typename> class C> class X;
```

```
template<typename T> class Y;
template<typename T> class Z;
```

```
int a;
int b;

X<int, 100, &a, Y> x1;
X<int, 2*50, &a, Y> x2; // x1 and x2 have same type
X<int, 10, &b, Z> x3; // x3 have not same type as x1 and x2
```

### Alias templates

The declaration for `std::vector` is:

```
template<class T, class Allocator = std::allocator<T>> class vector;
```

- an *alias template* for vector could be

```
template<typename T>
using default_alloc_vector = std::vector<T, std::allocator<T>>;
```

- template version of the alias declaration
- implicit partial instantiation of Allocator
- can be used as

```
default_alloc_vector<int> v;
```

- which is the same as

```
vector<int, std::allocator<int>> v;
```

- `default_alloc_vector` can be used as an argument for a template template type parameter with *one* parameter

```
template<typename T, template<typename> class C = default_alloc_vector> class X {};
X<int> x;
```

- vector cannot, since it has two template parameters

## Dependent names

Inside a template, constructs have semantics which may differ for different instances.

- such constructs *depends* on the template parameters
- in particular *types* and *expressions* may depend on the type and/or the value of template parameters, which are determined by the template arguments

Some examples:

```
template <typename T>
struct Derived : public Base<T> // Base<T> depend on T
{
 typename T::X* x_ptr; // T::X depend on T
 int value = Base<T>::value; // Base<T>::value depend on T
 void memfun()
 {
 typename vector<T>::iterator it; // vector<T>::iterator depend on T
 ...
 }
};
```

- dependent names are by definition *not* assumed to name a type, unless qualified by **typename**

– `T::X` could be the name of a data member, e.g.

## SFINAE – example of practical use

- if T is POD, use `std::memcpy` to copy T objects – efficient byte-by-byte copy

```
template<typename T>
typename std::enable_if< std::is_pod<T>::value, void >::type
copy(const T* source, T* destination, unsigned count)
{
 std::memcpy(destination, source, count * sizeof(T));
}

– if T is POD, std::is_pod<T>::value will be true
– std::enable_if<std::is_pod<T>::value, void>::type will be defined (void), otherwise not (failure)
– if type is defined the overload above will be enabled (and the one below will be disabled)
```

- if T is *non-POD*, use object-by-object copy assignment for T

```
template<typename T>
typename std::enable_if< !std::is_pod<T>::value, void >::type
copy(const T* source, T* destination, unsigned count)
{
 for (unsigned i = 0; i < count; ++i)
 {
 *destination++ = *source++;
 }
}
```

## SFINAE – Substitution Failure Is Not An Error

Invalid substitution of template parameters is *not* in itself an error.

When the compiler is deducing the template parameters for a function template from a function call

- if the deduced parameters would make the signature invalid, that function template is not considered for overload resolution
  - it does not stop the compilation with a compile error

Example – the `std::enable_if` template, from `<type_traits>`

- primary template have no members

```
template<bool, typename T = void> struct enable_if {};
```

- partial specialization for **true** have a member **typedef** for T, named `type`

```
template<typename T> struct enable_if<true, T> { typedef T type; };
```

- typically used in combination with some type traits component from the standard library

```
template<typename T>
typename std::enable_if< std::is_pod<T>, void >::type
fun(...)
{
 ...
}
```

– if T is *not* a POD there is no member `type` and this overload of `fun` is then *discarded* – it is *not an error*

## Utility function `std::move()` (1)

Typically used to allow for move semantics on lvalues – example from the standard library:

```
template<class T>
void swap(T& x, T& y)
 noexcept(is_nothrow_move_constructible<T>::value &&
 is_nothrow_move_assignable<T>::value)
{
 T tmp{ std::move(x) };
 x = std::move(y);
 y = std::move(tmp);
}
```

- x and y are lvalues
- in this context move semantics is appropriate to exchange the values of x and y
- `std::move()` converts its argument to a nameless rvalue reference (T&&)
- if T have move constructor and move assignment operator they will be used
- if not, the copy constructor and copy assignment operator will be used
- whether or not swap may throw an exception is specified by two *type property traits*
  - `value` will be **true** if T objects can be *move copied* and *move assigned* without throwing

**Utility function std::move() (2)**

```
template<typename T>
typename std::remove_reference<T>::type&&
move(T&& t)
{
 return static_cast<typename std::remove_reference<T>::type&&>(t);
}
```

Much to learn from this simple function template...

- move() uses *type modifier traits* class std::remove\_reference:

```
template<typename T> struct remove_reference { typedef T type; }; // primary
template<typename T> struct remove_reference<T&> { typedef T type; }; // spec 1
template<typename T> struct remove_reference<T&&> { typedef T type; }; // spec 2
```

- the primary template matches any type – used for non-reference types
- the first specialization matches *lvalue references* (T&)
- the second specialization matches *rvalue references* (T&&)
- std::remove\_reference<T>::type will always be T
- the return type of move() will always be rvalue reference (T&&)
- the type conversion will effectively be `static_cast<T&&>(t)`
- std::remove\_reference<T>::type is a dependent name – **typename** required

**Perfect forwarding**

Rvalue references was also designed to solve the *perfect forwarding problem*.

```
template<typename T, typename Arg>
shared_ptr<T> factory(Arg&& arg)
{
 return shared_ptr<T>{ new T{ arg } }; // arg is an lvalue (the name rule)
}
```

- we want this to work as if the argument passed to factory() was passed directly to the T constructor
  - lvalue as lvalue
  - rvalue as rvalue
- std::forward() does this

```
template<typename T, typename Arg>
shared_ptr<T> factory(Arg&& arg)
{
 return shared_ptr<T>{ new T{ std::forward<Arg>(arg) } };
}
```

- if factory() is called with an *lvalue* of type X, Arg resolves to X& and the type for parameter arg will be **X&** (**X& &&**)
  - forward will be instantiated `std::forward<X&>(arg)`
- if factory() is called with an *rvalue* of type X, Arg resolves to X and the type for parameter arg will be **X&&**
  - forward will be instantiated `std::forward<X>(arg)`

**Utility function std::move() (3)****Reference collapsing rules**

|     |    |         |     |     |
|-----|----|---------|-----|-----|
| A&  | &  | becomes | A&  | (1) |
| A&  | && | becomes | A&  | (2) |
| A&& | &  | becomes | A&  | (3) |
| A&& | && | becomes | A&& | (4) |

**Special template argument deduction rules for function templates**

```
template<typename T>
void foo(T&& arg); // deduced parameter type – type deduction takes place – && = universal reference
```

If foo() is called with an

- *lvalue* of type A, T resolves to A&, and by reference collapsing rule 2 the type of arg effectively becomes **A&**
- *rvalue* of type A, T resolves to A and the type of arg becomes **A&&** (no reference collapsing involved)

So, if std::move() is called with an

- *lvalue* of type A, T resolves to A& and the parameter type (A & &&) becomes A& – move(A& t)
- spec 1 of std::remove\_reference is used – std::remove\_reference<A>
- *rvalue* of type A, T resolves to A and parameter type becomes A&& – move(A&& t)
- primary of std::remove\_reference is used – std::remove\_reference<A>
- cast is always to rvalue reference, A&&

*Note:* Reference collapsing rule 1 has always been in effect since C++98.

**Utility function std::forward()**

*Lvalue* version:

```
template<typename T>
constexpr T&& forward(typename std::remove_reference<T>::type& t)
{
 return static_cast<T&&>(t);
}
```

- T&& effectively becomes T& (template argument deduction rule and reference collapsing rule)
- return type will be T& – conversion will be `static_cast<T&>` – parameter is always T&

*Rvalue* version:

```
template<typename T>
constexpr T&& forward(typename std::remove_reference<T>::type&& t)
{
 static_assert(!std::is_lvalue_reference<T>::value,
 "template argument substituting T is an lvalue reference type");
 return static_cast<T&&>(t);
}

• T&& will be T&& (template argument deduction rule, no reference collapsing involved)

• if instantiated with an lvalue reference type the program is ill-formed – prevent strange things like

 std::forward<string&>{ string{} } // string{} creates a prvalue
```

### Policy design (1)

Policy design is about letting a feature, a *policy*, of a type, the *host*, be a template type parameter.

- Two copy policies for objects of type T:
  - deep copy

```
template<typename T>
struct deep_copy
{
 static void copy(T*& destination, T*& source)
 {
 destination = new T{ *source };
 }
};

- destructive copy (move semantics)

template<typename T>
struct destructive_copy
{
 static void copy(T*& destination, T*& source)
 {
 destination = source;
 source = nullptr;
 }
};
```

*Note:* Alternatively the functions could be templates, instead of the policy classes – actually a better choice!

### Policy design (3)

A better alternative, in this case, would be to make member functions templates, instead of policy classes.

```
struct deep_copy
{
 template<typename T>
 static void copy(T*& destination, T*& source)
 {
 destination = new T{ *source };
 }
};

struct destructive_copy
{
 template<typename T>
 static void copy(T*& destination, T*& source)
 {
 destination = source;
 source = nullptr;
 }
};
```

- by this we can take advantage of template function argument deduction
- we will also see some other simplifications and also generalizations

### Policy design (2)

A smart pointer class with a copy policy – `deep_copy` as default

```
template<typename T, template<typename T> class copier = deep_copy>
class smart_ptr : private copier<T>
{
public:
 smart_ptr(T* p) : ptr_{ p } {}
 ~smart_ptr() { delete ptr_; }

 smart_ptr(smart_ptr& value) { this->copy(ptr_, value.ptr_); } // this-> required
 smart_ptr& operator=(smart_ptr& rhs)
 {
 T* tmp_ptr;
 copier<T>::copy(tmp_ptr, rhs.ptr_);
 delete ptr_;
 ptr_ = tmp_ptr;
 return *this;
 }
 ...

private:
 T* ptr_;
};
```

*Note:* Names are not looked up in dependent base classes – call to `copy()` require qualification of some kind.

### Policy design (4)

```
template<typename T, class copier = deep_copy>
class smart_ptr
{
public:
 smart_ptr(T* p) : ptr_{ p } {}
 ~smart_ptr() { delete ptr_; }

 smart_ptr(smart_ptr& value) { copier::copy(ptr_, value.ptr_); } // note!
 smart_ptr& operator=(smart_ptr& rhs)
 {
 T* tmp_ptr;
 copier::copy(tmp_ptr, rhs.ptr_);
 delete ptr_;
 ptr_ = tmp_ptr;
 return *this;
 }
 ...

private:
 T* ptr_;
};
```

## Meta programming and type traits

Meta programming is about programs that create or modifies programs.

- the template instantiation process in C++ can be used as a *computational engine – template meta programming*
- parametrized types and (compile-time) constants can be used to record *state*
- template specializations can be used to implement *conditions*
- C++ is both the *metalinguage* and the *object language*

The standard library define components to be used by C++ programs, particularly in templates, to

- support the widest possible range of types
- optimize template code usage
- detect type related user errors
- perform type inference and transformation at compile time

It includes:

- type *classification traits*
  - describe a complete taxonomy of all possible C++ types, and state where in that taxonomy a given type belongs
- type *property inspection traits*
  - allow important characteristics of types or of combinations of types to be inspected
- type *transformations*
  - allow certain properties of types to be manipulated

## Type classification traits (2)

- class template `integral_constant` is the common base class for all value-based type traits.

```
template<typename T, T v>
struct integral_constant
{
 static constexpr T value{ v }; // declaration and initialization
 using value_type = T;
 using type = integral_constant<T, v>;
 constexpr operator value_type() { return value; } // the type itself
};

template<typename T, T v>
constexpr T integral_constant<T, v>::value; // definition for value
```

- `true_type` and `false_type` are provided for convenience – most value traits are Boolean properties and will inherit from these

```
using true_type = integral_constant<bool, true>;
using false_type = integral_constant<bool, false>;
```

- `is_array` as an example

```
template<typename> struct is_array : public false_type {}; // primary
template<typename T, std::size_t Size> struct is_array<T[Size]> : public true_type {};
template<typename T> struct is_array<T[]> : public true_type {};
```

## Type classification traits (1)

- *unary type traits* describes a property of a type
  - *type categories* – `is_integral`, `is_floating_point`, `is_array`, `is_pointer`, `is_class`, `is_function`, `is_reference`, `is_arithmetic`, `is_fundamental`, `is_object`, `is_scalar`, `is_compound`, `is_member_pointer`, ...
  - *type properties* – `is_const`, `is_polymorphic`, `is_abstract`, `is_signed`, `is_copy_constructible`, `has_virtual_destructor`, ...
  - *type property queries* – `alignment_of`, ...
- *binary type traits* describes a relationship between two types
  - `is_same`, `is_base_of`, `is_convertible`
- *transformation traits* modifies a property of a type
  - const-volatile modifications – e.g. `remove_const`, `remove_cv`, `add_volatile`
  - reference modifications – `remove_reference`, `add_lvalue_reference`, `add_rvalue_reference`
  - sign modifications – `make_signed`, `make_unsigned`
  - array modifications – `remove_extent`, `remove_all_extent`
  - pointer modifications – `remove_pointer`, `add_pointer`
  - other transformations – ...

(There is about 90 type traits in C++11).

## Type classification traits (3)

Examples of some simple type traits.

```
template<typename> struct is_const : public false_type {};
template<typename T> struct is_const<T const> : public true_type {};

template<typename T> struct remove_const { typedef T type; };
template<typename T> struct remove_const<T const> { typedef T type; };

template<typename T> struct add_const { typedef T const type; };

template<typename, typename> struct is_same : public false_type {};
template<typename T> struct is_same<T, T> : public true_type {};

template<typename T> struct is_arithmetic
 : public integral_constant<bool, (is_integral<T>::value || is_floating_point<T>::value) > {};

template<typename T> struct is_object
 : public integral_constant<bool, !(is_function<T>::value
 || is_reference<T>::value
 || is_void<T>::value) > {};
```

### Example: Dispatching constructor

Example from the containers library – wrong constructor can be chosen...

```
template <typename T> class Container {
 ...
 Container(size_t n, const T& value) : size_(n), data_(allocate(size_))
 { std::fill_n(begin(), n, value); }

 template <typename InputIterator>
 Container(InputIterator first, InputIterator last) {
 typedef typename std::is_integral<InputIterator>::type Integral; // check type category
 initialize_dispatch(first, last, Integral()); // dispatch accordingly
 }

 template <typename Integer> // corresponds to the first constructor
 void initialize_dispatch(Integer n, Integer value, std::true_type)
 { std::fill_n(begin(), n, value); }

 template <typename InputIterator> // corresponds to the second constructor
 void initialize_dispatch(InputIterator first, InputIterator last, std::false_type)
 { std::copy(first, last, begin()); } // memory must be allocated first!
};

• size_t is an unsigned integer type
• if T is, e.g. int, an instance of the template constructor (aimed for iterators!) is a better match than the first constructor
• check what type category InputIterator in the second constructor belongs to and dispatch to the corresponding helper function
```

### Example: Select the most efficient implementation of several possible (2)

- the basic requirement is that the given iterator must fulfill the requirements of InputIterator, and  $n \geq 0$  – dispatch to

```
template <typename InputIterator, typename Distance>
void advance_dispatch(InputIterator& i, Distance n, input_iterator_tag)
{
 while (n--) ++i;
}

• if the given iterator is a BidirectionalIterator, n is allowed to be negative – dispatch to

template <typename BidirectionalIterator, typename Distance>
void advance_dispatch(BidirectionalIterator& i, Distance n, bidirectional_iterator_tag)
{
 if (n > 0)
 while (n--) ++i;
 else
 while (n++) --i;
}

• if the given iterator is a RandomAccessIterator the iterator can be advanced in a more efficient way – dispatch to
```

```
template <typename RandomAccessIterator, typename Distance>
void advance_dispatch(RandomAccessIterator& i, Distance n, random_access_iterator_tag)
{
 i += n;
}
```

### Example: Select the most efficient implementation of several possible (1)

The standard library divide iterators into different categories – one important issue is how they can be moved:

- an *InputIterator* can be moved forward one element at the time with `++`
- a *BidirectionalIterator* can be moved forward one element at the time with `++` and backward one element at the time with `--`
- a *RandomAccessIterator* can be moved also by pointer arithmetics, i.e., also by using `+`, `+=`, `-`, and `-=`
- `advance()` is a utility function to move an iterator a specified number of steps – `advance(it, n)`
- for an *InputIterator*  $n$  must be non-negative and the advancement is done by repeating `++it`  $n$  times
- for a *BidirectionalIterator* advancement is done by repeating `++it`  $n$  times, if  $n \geq 0$ , and repeating `--it`  $n$  times, if  $n < 0$
- for a *RandomAccessIterator* advancement can be done with `it += n` ( $n$  can be negative)
- `advance()` is implemented to select the most efficient way to advance an iterator, depending on which category it belongs to

```
template <typename InputIterator, typename Distance>
inline void advance(InputIterator& i, Distance n)
{
 typename iterator_traits<InputIterator>::difference_type d = n;
 advance_dispatch(i, d, typename iterator_traits<InputIterator>::iterator_category());
}
```

- the name *InputIterator* is used to specify the minimum requirements for the iterator
- *Distance* could be any relevant type – *d* is used to convert *n* to the correct difference type for the iterator in question
- *iterator\_traits<InputIterator>::iterator\_category* gives the category type for *InputIterator*, e.g. *random\_access\_iterator\_tag*
- *iterator\_traits<InputIterator>::iterator\_category()* creates an object of that type – used to dispatch to a suitable overloading of *advance\_dispatch()*

### Example: Constraints check (1)

Suppose a class template C require a template type T to have a member function `clone()`.

```
template <typename T> // T must have member function T* clone() const;
class C
{
 ...
private:
 template <T* (T::*)() const> struct _check_Cloneable {};
 using _check_Cloneable_t = _check_Cloneable<&T::clone>;
 ...
};

• _check_Cloneable is a utility template class
– a type definition is a static entity
– _check_Cloneable is a primary with one member function pointer parameter (name left out)
• _check_Cloneable_t is declared to be a name for the specialization _check_Cloneable<&T::clone>
– an alias declaration is a static entity
– T::clone is looked up in T and checked statically – this is what we actually want to do!
– if no such member function this will fail and generate a compile error
```

Note, leading underscores are used to emphasise internal use (typical compiler convention)

### Example: Constraints check (2)

As an alternative, define a *concept class* for checking cloneability.

```
template<typename T>
struct _Cloneable
{
 void __constraints() { T* (T::*test)() const = &T::clone; }

template<typename T>
class C
{
 ...
private:
 using __func = void (_Cloneable<T>::*); // simplifies the next declaration
 template<__func> struct _check_Cloneable {};
 using _check_Cloneable_t = _check_Cloneable<&_Cloneable<T>::__constraints>;
 ...
};

• becomes more general
- _Cloneable can be replaced by any concept class having member function __constraints()
- __constraints() can have several checks
- now we just have to find a way to simplify generating these declarations to check a concept
```

### Template compilation models

#### The inclusion compilation model

- the definition for a template is included in every file in which the template is instantiated
- one can still have a template function declaration on an inclusion file (fun.h) and its definition on a separate file (fun.tcc)
  - in such case the .h file pulls in the .tcc file at its end – #include "fun.tcc"
  - the alternative would be to have only the template function definition in fun.h, and no fun.tcc file
- a variation of this allows you to exclude #include "fun.tcc" in the fun.h file
  - in this case the compiler implicitly knows by some rule where to look for fun.tcc
- the inclusion compilation model is the model that most current C++ compilers provide

#### The separation compilation model

- basically the traditional model with header files and corresponding implementation files
  - an implementation file is *not* pulled into its header file
  - compiled separately
  - difficult to implement, few compilers have
- this compilation model is related to the keyword **export**
  - export** is removed from C++11 – “The **export** keyword is unused but is reserved for future use.”
  - seems meaningless to get into any details...

### Example: Constraints check (3)

(The simplification becomes a bit complicated though...)

- a preprocessor function macro can be used to create the declarations to check a concept `_concept` for a type `_type`

```
#define CLASS_REQUIRES(_type, _concept) \
using __func##_type##_concept = void (_concept<_type>::*)(); \
template <__func##_type##_concept> struct _check##_type##_concept {}; \
using _check_TYPEDEF##_type##_concept = \
 _check##_type##_concept<&_concept<_type>::__constraints>;
```
- simple use
 

```
CLASS_REQUIRES(T, _Cloneable);

- all instances of ##_type are replaced by T
- all instances of ##_concept are replaced by _Cloneable
```
- result (actually as a single line)
 

```
using __func_T_Cloneable = void (_Cloneable<T>::*);

template <__func_T_Cloneable> struct _check_T_Cloneable {};
using _check_TYPEDEF_T_Cloneable = _check_T_Cloneable<&_Cloneable<T>::__constraints>;
```
- leading underscores in names are to be regarded as reserved for the implementation, don't use for user names