

Abstract approach to templates

- ▶ A template is a function evaluated by the compiler

- ▶ Its arguments may be:

- integral constants

```
template< std::size_t N> /*...*/;
```

- types

```
template< typename T> /*...*/;
```

- other templates (voilà: functional programming)

```
template< template< /*...*/> class T> /*...*/;
```

Abstract description of templates in C++

- ▶ A template is a function evaluated by the compiler

- ▶ Its return value may be one of:

- an integral constant
 - indirectly (convention: static member constant named "value")

```
template< /*...*/> class F { static constexpr int value = /*...*/; };
```

- directly [C++14] (convention: named "F_v" if defined as F::value)

```
template< /*...*/> constexpr int F_v = /*...*/;
```

- a type
 - a class - directly

```
template< /*...*/> class F {/*...*/};
```

- any type indirectly (convention: member named "type")

```
template< /*...*/> class F { typedef /*...*/ type; };
```

- any type directly [C++11] (convention: named "F_t" if defined as F::type)

```
template< /*...*/> using F_t = /*...*/;
```

- a template
 - indirectly

```
template< /*...*/> class X { template< /*...*/> using type = /*...*/; };
```

- a run-time function (a function template or a static member function of a class template)

- ▶ A template is a function evaluated by the compiler
 - ▶ Its arguments may be:
 - integral constants
 - types
 - templates, i.e. compile-time functions
 - ▶ Its return value may (directly or indirectly) be one of:
 - an integral constant
 - a type
 - a template, i.e. a compile-time function
 - a run-time function
 - ▶ A template may also "return" a "compile-time structure":

```
template< /*...*/> class F {  
  
    using A = /*...*/;  
  
    static const int B = /*...*/;  
  
    static int C(int x, int y) {/*...*/}  
  
};
```

- ▶ There is a *compile-time programming language* inside C++
 - ▶ The language can operate on the following atomic "values":
 - integral constants
 - types
 - run-time functions
 - ▶ The operations available are
 - integral operators of C++ (plus part of standard library marked *constexpr*)
 - type constructions (creating pointers, references, arrays, classes, ...)
 - defining a new run-time function (which may call others, including compile-time "values")
 - ▶ The "values" may be combined into "structures"
- ▶ The compile-time language is *functional*
 - ▶ no variables which could change their value
 - ▶ "compile-time functions" (i.e. class templates) are first-class "values"

▶ **constexpr** functions

- ▶ The compiler will *interpret* the code of the function during compilation
- ▶ Limitations are gradually being lifted
 - C++11: A constexpr function must consist of single return statement
 - C++14: No virtual functions, no dynamic allocation, no goto/asm/throw/try-catch
 - C++17: No virtual functions, no goto/asm/throw/try-catch
 - C++20: No goto/asm, no static variables, few other limitations
- ▶ No access to run-time objects allowed

▶ **constexpr** functions, variables:

- ▶ Must be evaluated by compiler when used in template arguments etc.
 - In this case, any objects must have their lifetime confined within the evaluation
- ▶ May be evaluated by compiler as an optimization elsewhere
- ▶ [C++20] **consteval**, **constinit**: every call/init must return a constant

▶ Cf. **const** variables, references, pointers, functions:

- ▶ Compiler prohibits run-time modification (via this access path only)

▶ **constexpr** functions vs. template metaprogramming

- ▶ **constexpr** function always obey the rules for run-time functions
 - Types can not be manipulated by **constexpr** functions
 - Expressions must be statically typed
 - A loop can not work with elements of different types

```
using T = std::tuple<int,double,string>;  
  
/*constexpr*/ T for_each(T p)  
{  
    for (auto && x : p)          // ILLEGAL - std::tuple does not have begin()/end()  
        x += 'A';                // ILLEGAL - x is not statically typed here  
  
    return p;  
}
```

- Using templates, implementation of such loops is possible, although tricky

- ▶ There is a *compile-time programming language* inside C++
- ▶ The compile-time language is *functional*
- ▶ There are *Prolog-like features*
 - ▶ A "compile-time function" (i.e. a template) may be defined by several independent rules (using partial specialization)

```
template< typename T, int N> class F;  
  
template< typename T> class F<T, 0> { /*...*/ };  
  
template< typename U, int N> class F<U*,N> { /*...*/ };  
  
template< typename P> class F<X<P>, 1> { /*...*/ };
```

- There is unification of terms representing type arguments
- But unlike Prolog, there is no priority or try-next-if-failed mechanism
- ▶ With [C++20] concepts we can even emulate Prolog '!'
 - Before [C++20], it required decltype(), function templates, and SFINAE

- ▶ There is a *compile-time programming language* inside C++
- ▶ C++ types form a complex universe of "compile-time values"
 - ▶ Classes (class/struct/union) are compared *by name*
 - New unique "values" are generated by each occurrence of structure in source code
 - Empty structures may be employed as unique opaque values (usually called *tags*)
 - ▶ Other type constructs (*,&,&&,[],()) are compared by contents
 - This allows unification in partial specializations
 - ▶ Instances of the same class template are considered equal if their arguments are equal
 - ▶ Aliases created by typedef/using are considered equal to their defining types

- ▶ There is a *compile-time programming language* inside C++
- ▶ The output of the compile-time program is a run-time program
 - ▶ *Compile-time functions* may return *run-time types* and *run-time functions*
 - They may also generate `static_assert` and other error messages
- ▶ Elements used only during compile-time
 - ▶ integral constants
 - ▶ structures containing types, constants, static functions
 - often called *policy class*
 - even empty structures are important as *tags*
 - ▶ templates perceived as compile-time functions
 - those returning policy classes are often called *traits*
- ▶ Compile-time elements converted to run-time representations
 - ▶ C++ types
 - ▶ run-time functions

► Compile-time arithmetics

- Rational numbers

C++11: <ratio>

```
template< intmax_t n, intmax_t d = 1> struct ratio;
```

- Example

```
using platform = ratio_add<ratio<9>, ratio<3,4>>;
```

```
static_assert( ratio_equal< platform, ratio< 975, 100>>::value, "?");
```

- Evaluated by the compiler
 - Including computing the greatest common divisor!
- No longer needed because of stronger constexpr functions



Metaprogramming

Example

- Type transformation

- Goal: Transform, e.g., this triplet ...

```
using my_triplet = std::tuple< int, my_class, double>;
```

- ... into the triplet std::tuple< F(int), F(my_class), F(double)>

- What it is good for?

- column-stores:

```
std::tuple< std::vector<int>, std::vector<my_class>, std::vector<double>>
```

- passing of references:

```
std::tuple< int &, my_class &, double &>
```

Example

- Type transformation

- Goal: Transform, e.g., this triplet ...

```
using my_triplet = std::tuple< int, my_class, double>;
```

- ... into the triplet std::tuple< F(int), F(my_class), F(double)>

- ▶ How to invoke the transformation?

- Standard C++ library uses the “::type” convention:

```
using my_transformed_triplet = type_transform< my_triplet, F>::type;
```

- In case of dependent types, „typename“ is required

```
template< typename some_triplet> class X {  
  
    using transformed_triplet = typename type_transform< some_triplet, F>::type;  
  
};
```

- C++14 adds the “_t” convention:

```
using my_transformed_triplet = type_transform_t< my_triplet, F>;
```

- No typename required

Example

- Type transformation

- Goal: Transform, e.g., this triplet ...

```
using my_triplet = std::tuple< int, my_class, double>;
```

- ... into the triplet std::tuple< F(int), F(my_class), F(double)>

```
using my_transformed_triplet = type_transform_t< my_triplet, F>;
```

- ▶ How can we specify the F "function" for type_transform_t?

- A. Directly:

```
using my_reference_triplet = type_transform_t< my_triplet, std::add_lvalue_reference_t>;
```

- Failed before C++17 because std::add_lvalue_reference_t is not a class template

```
using my_vector_triplet = type_transform_t< my_triplet, std::vector>;
```

- Failed before C++17 because std::vector has 3 arguments but type_transform_t expects 1

Template template arguments

► Template template arguments before C++17

```
template< template< typename> class P>

class example { using a_class = P<int>; }
```

- The actual argument was required to be a class/struct template

```
template< typename T> using A1 = std::vector< T>;
using my_type1 = example< A1>;
```

- Failed because A1 is an alias template
- The arguments of the actual argument were required to exactly match the arguments of the formal argument

```
using my_type2 = example< std::vector>;
```

- Failed because std::vector has three arguments (although two of them have default values)

► C++17 changed the behavior

- Alias templates are allowed as actual arguments, default arguments considered
- The compatibility of the actual argument has a new, hardly readable definition:
 - Formally, a template template-parameter P is at least as specialized as a template template argument A if ...
 - "typename" may be used instead of "class" in the formal argument declaration

► Both the examples work in C++17

Example

- ▶ How can we specify the F function for type_transform_t?

- A. Directly (requires C++17):

- The argument is a template class/struct or template alias

```
using my_reference_triplet = type_transform_t< my_triplet, std::add_lvalue_reference_t>;  
using my_vector_triplet = type_transform_t< my_triplet, std::vector>;
```

- B. Indirectly, using the well-known “::type” convention:

- The argument is a template class/struct containing an alias member named "type"

```
using my_reference_triplet = type_transform_t< my_triplet, std::add_lvalue_reference>;  
template< typename T> struct add_vector { using type = std::vector< T>; };  
using my_vector_triplet = type_transform_t< my_triplet, add_vector>;
```

- C. Indirectly, using a nested template

- The argument is a class/struct containing a template alias member named "type"
 - This is an equivalent of a functor, in the realm of meta-functions returning types

```
struct add_vector { template< typename T> using type = std::vector< T>; };  
using my_vector_triplet = type_transform_t< my_triplet, add_vector>;
```

Example

- ▶ The implementation of type_transform must match the selected convention

- A. Directly (requires C++17):

- The argument is a template class/struct or template alias

```
template< typename T, template< typename> typename F>

struct type_transform {

    using example_usage = F< int>;

};
```

- B. Indirectly, using the well-known “::type” convention:

- The argument is a template class/struct containing an alias member named "type"

```
template< typename T, template< typename> class F>

struct type_transform {

    using example_usage = typename F< int>::type;

};
```

- C. Indirectly, using a nested template

- The argument is a class/struct containing a template alias member named "type"

```
template< typename T, typename F>

struct type_transform {

    using example_usage = typename F::template type<int>;

};
```

- ▶ type_transform_t is a wrapper with the same arguments as type_transform

Example

- ▶ The full implementation (C++17)

- General template struct declaration

```
template< typename T, template< typename> typename F>
struct type_transform;
```

- Partial specialization for std::tuple

- The partial specialization allows to extract the type list L from std::tuple< L...>
 - A type list can exist only as a template argument – accessible only inside such a template

```
template< typename ... L, template< typename P> class F>
struct type_transform< std::tuple< L ...>, F>
{
    using type = std::tuple< F< L> ...>;
};
```

- We may also implement specializations for std::pair or std::array
 - Wrapper alias template

```
template< typename T, template< typename> typename F>
using type_transform_t = typename type_transform< T, F>::type;
```

- ▶ In the other two conventions, more complex type-ids are used instead of F<L>

Iterating through n-tuple elements

Example

► Working with tuple values

```
using my_triple = std::tuple< int, my_class, double>;
using my_transformed_triple = type_transform_t< my_triple, std::vector>;  
  
my_triple a;  
my_transformed_triple c;  
auto my_value_function = /*...*/;  
static_transform(a, c, my_value_function);
```

- `static_transform` shall be an equivalent of `std::transform` for tuples
 - The intent is to apply `f` to every element of `x` and store the results in `r`
 - Implementation like this will **not** compile:

```
template< typename T1, typename T2, typename F>
void static_transform( T1 && x, T2 && r, F f)
{ for ( std::size_t i = 0; i < std::tuple_size_v< T1>; ++i)
    std::get<i>(r) = f( std::get<i>(x));  
}
```

- `my_value_function` is a polymorphic functor
 - applied to arguments of different types, may return different types
 - in this case, it transforms single values into vectors

▶ Polymorphic functors

- applied to arguments of different types, may return different types
- in this case, it transforms single values into vectors

▶ The simplest case is a polymorphic lambda (C++14)

```
auto my_value_function = [](auto && x){  
    return std::vector</*???* />( 1, x );  
};
```

- Problem: How to derive the type for the vector?

```
std::vector<std::remove_cv_t<std::remove_reference_t<decltype(x)>>>
```

- Problem: The argument x shall be passed using std::forward</*???* />(x)

▶ Since C++20, lambda may contain explicit template arguments

```
auto my_value_function = []<typename T>(T && x){  
    return std::vector<std::remove_cvref_t<T>>( 1, std::forward<T>(x));  
};
```

Example

▶ Polymorphic functors

- applied to arguments of different types, may return different types
- in this case, it transforms single values into vectors

▶ Explicitly defined functor

```
struct my_value_functor {  
    template< typename T1>  
    std::vector<T1> operator()( T1 && x) const  
    { return std::vector<T1>( 1, std::forward<T1>(x));  
    }  
};  
  
auto my_value_function = my_value_functor{};
```

- BEWARE: It does NOT work correctly!
- If the actual argument is an lvalue of type T, T1 would be T &
 - Reference collapsing rules apply
 - The result type would be a vector of references!

▶ The problem encountered here is quite frequent and often forgotten!

▶ Polymorphic functors

- applied to arguments of different types, may return different types
- in this case, it transforms single values into vectors

▶ Explicitly defined functor – corrected implementation

```
struct my_value_functor {  
  
    template< typename T1>  
  
    auto operator()( T1 && x) const  
  
    { return std::vector<std::remove_cv_t<std::remove_reference_t<T1>>>  
        ( 1, std::forward<T1>(x));  
  
    }  
  
};
```

- `std::remove_reference_t` removes `&` or `&&` if present
- `std::remove_cv_t` removes `const` or `volatile` if present
- C++20: `std::remove_cvref_t` combines the two
- Using `auto` in the operator declaration avoids repeating the ugly type-id

▶ Polymorphic functors

- applied to arguments of different types, may return different types
- in this case, it transforms single values into vectors

▶ Polymorphic lambda – corrected implementation

```
auto my_value_function = [](auto && x){  
  
    using x_t = decltype(x);  
  
    using e_t = std::remove_cv_t< std::remove_reference_t< x_t>>;  
  
    return std::vector<e_t>( 1, std::forward<x_t>(x));  
  
};
```

- decltype(x) is the type of x, always a (lvalue or rvalue) reference
- std::forward is used differently from the usual practice, but it works:
 - Our code is equivalent to

```
template< typename U> auto f(U && x) { /*...*/ std::forward<U &&>(x) /*...*/ }  
  
    ▪ std::forward<T>(x) is by definition equivalent to static_cast<T&&>(x)  
    ▪ Therefore, std::forward<U&&> is equivalent to std::forward<U> due to reference collapsing
```

Example

- ▶ Iterating through n-tuple elements

- A non-working implementation

```
template< typename A, typename R, typename F>

void static_transform(A && a, R && r, F f)

{

    using atuple = std::remove_cv_t< std::remove_reference_t< A>>;
    using rtuple = std::remove_cv_t< std::remove_reference_t< R>>;
    static constexpr auto a_size = std::tuple_size_v< atuple>;
    static constexpr auto r_size = std::tuple_size_v< rtuple>;
    static_assert(a_size == r_size, "tuples must be of equal length");

    for ( std::size_t i = 0; i < std::tuple_size_v< T1>; ++i)
        std::get<i>(r) = f( std::get<i>(x));

}
```

- `std::get<i>` requires constant `i`
 - The compiler must be able to instantiate `f()` for the correct types

Example

- ▶ Iterating through n-tuple elements

- Reformulated using a compile-time version of std::for_each
- static_for_each_index calls transform_ftor for each index in the given range

```
template< typename A, typename R, typename F>

void static_transform(A && a, R && r, F f)

{

    using atuple = std::remove_cv_t< std::remove_reference_t< A>>;
    using rtuple = std::remove_cv_t< std::remove_reference_t< R>>;
    static constexpr auto asize = std::tuple_size_v< atuple>;
    static constexpr auto rsize = std::tuple_size_v< rtuple>;
    static_assert(asize == rsize, "tuples must be of equal length");

    static_for_each_index< 0, rsize>(
        transform_ftor< A, R, F>(
            std::forward< A>(a), std::forward< R>(r), std::move(f)));
}
```

Example

► static_for_each_index - interface

```
template< std::size_t b, std::size_t e, typename F>
void static_for_each_index(F f);
```

- Logically, it shall call $f(i)$ for every i in $[b,e)$
- Problem: i must be a constant inside f
 - The compiler must create a separate instantiation for every $f(i)$
- Problem: $f<i>()$ does not work because f is a variable, not a function
 - $f.\text{operator}()<i>()$ does not work either
- Possible solution: call a normal member function instead of $\text{operator}()$

```
f.call<i>();  
    ▪ Requires a functor like
```

```
struct ftor {  
  
    template< std::size_t i>  
    void call() const  
    { /*...*/ }  
  
};
```

Example

► static_for_each_index - interface

```
template< std::size_t b, std::size_t e, typename F>
void static_for_each_index(F f);
```

- Logically, it shall call $f(i)$ for every i in $[b,e)$
- Problem: i must be a constant inside f
- A better solution: pass the constant through the type of an argument

```
f(static_index<i>{});
```

- The argument type is an empty tag class

```
template< std::size_t i> struct static_index {};
```

- Requires a functor like

```
struct ftor {
```

```
    template< std::size_t i>
    void operator()(static_index<i>) const
    { /*...*/ }
```

```
};
```

Example

- A better solution: pass the constant through the type of an argument
 - We can also use std::integral_constant as the tag class

```
template< std::size_t i>

using static_index = std::integral_constant<std::size_t, i>;
```

- With integral constant, we may even use a (C++14) lambda:

```
auto ftor = [](auto tag_value){

constexpr std::size_t i = tag_value;

};
```

- std::integral_constant defines a conversion operator to std::size_t which, although not declared static, does not access the object and returns the template argument i
- therefore, the member function may be evaluated in constant context although tag_value is a run-time object
- at run-time, the tag_value is an empty object and most compilers will not reserve any space for it, consequently, there will be no run-time cost for dealing with this object
- tag objects shall always be passed by value – passing by reference may have a run-time cost

Example

- ▶ A functor for static_transform

```
template< typename A, typename R, typename F> struct transform_ftor
{
    transform_ftor(A && a, R && r, F f)
        : a_(std::forward<A>(a)), r_(std::forward<R>(r)), f_(std::move(f))
    {}

    template< std::size_t i> void operator()(static_index<i>) const
    {   std::get< i>(std::forward<R>(r_)) = f_( std::get< i>(std::forward<A>(a_)));
    }

private: A && a_; R && r_; F f_;
};
```

- ▶ Formally, A && and R && in the constructor are NOT universal references
 - However, we will supply the type arguments A, R from a context where A && and R && are universal references (and consistent with the actual arguments to the constructor)
 - Therefore, the use of forward in the constructor is correct
 - Since the member variables a_ and r_ have the same type as the arguments, they also act as if they were universal references
 - The use of forward in operator() is correct because it is invoked only once for each i
- ▶ if A && is rvalue reference, f_ may steal from it
 - std::get propagates the rvalue/lvalue distinction from its argument

Example

- ▶ Static for-loop – an implementation by recursion
 - A class/struct template is required because we need partial specialization

```
template< std::size_t b, std::size_t n> struct for_each_index_helper {  
  
    template< typename F> static void call(F && f)  
    {  
        f(static_index< b>());  
        for_each_index_helper< b + 1, n - 1>::call( std::forward<F>(f));  
    }  
};
```

- Partial specialization stops the recursion

```
template< std::size_t b> struct for_each_index_helper< b, 0> {  
  
    template< typename F> static void call(F &&) {}  
};
```

- Public wrapper

```
template< std::size_t b, std::size_t e, typename F>  
void static_for_each_index(F f)  
{  
    for_each_index_helper< b, e - b>::call(std::move(f));  
}
```

- The public function receives the functor f by value, similarly to all std algorithms
- Internally, we pass it by universal reference to avoid excess copying

Example

► Static for-loop – implementation without recursion

- we need to generate the indices {0,...,n-1}

- C++14 library contains this:

```
template< std::size_t ... IL>

using index_sequence = std::integer_sequence<std::size_t, IL...>;
```

- index_sequence is an alias to a more general tag class

```
template< std::size_t N>

using make_index_sequence = /* black magic */;
```

- The black magic ensures that `make_index_sequence<N> == index_sequence< 0, 1, ..., N-1 >`

► Usage:

- Use `make_index_sequence<N>` to generate a list of indices
 - The list is not accessible directly
- Use partial specialization (or a function template) as a context in which the list is visible as a template parameter pack
 - Similar to the implementation of `type_transform`; instead of a type list argument of a tuple, here we have a constant list argument of an `index_sequence`

Example

- ▶ Static for-loop – implementation without recursion

- A helper class

```
template< std::size_t b, typename S>
struct for_each_index_helper2;
```

- A partial specialization is used to access the template parameter pack L

```
template< std::size_t b, std::size_t ... L>
struct for_each_index_helper2< b, std::index_sequence< L ...> >
{
    template< typename F> static void call(F & f)
    {
        (f( static_index< b + L>()), ...);
    }
};
```

- A public wrapper

```
template< std::size_t b, std::size_t e, typename F>
void static_for_each_index(F && f)
{
    for_each_index_helper2< b, std::make_index_sequence< e - b> >::call(f);
}
```

Example

- ▶ Implementation of `make_index_sequence`

- A tag struct template

```
template< typename T, T ... IL> struct integer_sequence {};
```

- A helper struct to recursively generate a list of integers

- Defines member type = `integer_sequence< T, 0, 1, /*...*/, N-1, (IL+N) ...>`

```
template< typename T, T N, T ... IL> struct integer_sequence_generator
```

```
: integer_sequence_generator< T, N-1, 0, (IL+1)...> {};
```

- A partial specialization stops the recursion

```
template< typename T, T ... IL>
```

```
struct integer_sequence_generator< T, 0, IL...> {
```

```
    using type = integer_sequence< T, IL...>;
```

```
};
```

- The public wrapper

```
template< std::size_t N>
```

```
using make_index_sequence = typename integer_sequence_generator< std::size_t, N>::type;
```

- ▶ This is recursive at compile time, allowing to avoid recursion at run time

- The compile-time complexity (N^2) may be improved to ($N * \log(N)$)

- Hint: `<IL..., (IL+sizeof...(IL))...>` doubles the length of the sequence