

Traits, policies, functors, tags

# Traits, policies, tags, etc.

## ▶ Traits

- Class/struct template not designed to be instantiated into objects; contents limited to:
  - type definitions (via typedef/using or nested struct/class)
  - constants (via static constexpr)
  - static functions
- Used as a compile-time function which assigns types/constants/run-time functions to template arguments

## ▶ Policy class

- Non-template class/struct, usually not instantiated
- Compile-time equivalent of objects, containing types/constants/run-time functions
- Passed as template argument to customize the behavior of the template

## ▶ Functor

- Class/struct containing non-static function named operator()
- Usually passed as run-time argument to function templates
- Functor acts as a function, created by packing a function body together with some data stored or referenced in the body (closure)

## ▶ Tag class

- Empty class/struct
- Passed as run-time argument to function templates
- Used to carry a compile-time information by their types themselves
  - Classes/structs are distinguished by their name, not by contents

## ► Policy class

- Non-template class/struct, usually not instantiated
- Compile-time equivalent of objects, containing types/constants/run-time functions
- Passed as template argument to customize the behavior of the template

```
template< typename P> class container { public:  
    container(std::size_t n) { m_ = P::alloc(n); /*...*/ }  
private:  
    typename P::pointer m_  
};  
struct my_policy {  
    using pointer = void*;  
    static pointer alloc(std::size_t s) { /*...*/ }  
};  
container< my_policy> k;
```

## ► Motivation:

- Policy class allows to pass several types/constants/functions as one argument
- Policy class is the only way to pass a function as a template argument
- Policy classes are distinguished by name, not by contents
  - This could be an advantage or a disadvantage, depending on context

- ▶ Policy class works as a set of parameters for generic code
  - ▶ Types (defined by typedef/using or nested classes/enums)
  - ▶ Constants (defined by static constexpr)
  - ▶ Functions (defined as static)
- ▶ The use of policy class instead of individual arguments...
  - ▶ ...makes instantiated template names shorter
  - ▶ ...avoids order-related mistakes
  - ▶ This is the only way how functions may become parameters of a template
- ▶ In simple cases, policy classes are not instantiated into objects
  - ▶ Some policy-class tricks would not work well when instantiated

# Instantiated policy classes

- ▶ Some policy classes may be used as objects

- ▶ Such objects carry run-time options to policies; policy functions are not static

```
template< typename P> class container { public:
```

```
    container(std::size_t n, const P & p) : p_(p) { m_ = p_.alloc(n); /*...*/ }
```

```
private:
```

```
    P p_; // the template usually contains a policy-object
```

```
    typename P::pointer m_; // compile-time properties extracted from policy-class
```

```
};
```

```
class my_policy {
```

```
public:
```

```
    using pointer = void*;
```

```
    pointer alloc(std::size_t s) { /*...*/ }
```

```
    my_policy(heap * h) : my_heap_(h) {}
```

```
private:
```

```
    heap * my_heap_;
```

```
};
```

```
my_policy mp(/*...*/);
```

```
container< my_policy> k( mp);
```

- ▶ Functors are special cases of instantiated policy classes

- ▶ no type members, only one member function named operator()

## ▶ Functor

- Class/struct containing non-static function named `operator()`
  - Usually non-template, but template cases exists (`std::less<T>`)
  - Since C++11, mostly created by the compiler as a result of a lambda expression
- Usually passed as run-time argument to function templates
  - Example: `std::sort` receives a functor representing a comparison function
- For class templates, a functor becomes both a template argument to the class and a value argument to its constructor
  - Example: `std::map` receives a functor representing a comparison function
- Functor acts as a function, created by packing a function body together with some data referenced in the body (closure)
  - Functionality (i.e. the function implementation) selected at compile-time by template instantiation mechanism
  - Functionality parameterized at run-time by the data members of the functor object
- If there is no data member in the functor, the functionality is equivalent to a non-instantiated policy class containing a static function
  - However, the functor must be instantiated and passed as an object since `operator()` cannot be static

# Instantiated policy classes vs. object oriented programming

## ▶ Effect similar to instantiated policy classes can be implemented using OOP

- The "policy" must have an explicit interface with virtual functions

```
class abstract_allocator { public: virtual void * alloc(std::size_t) = 0; /*...*/ };
```

- There is no compile-time argument; a pointer to the abstract class is passed at runtime

```
class container { public:
```

```
    container(std::size_t n, abstract_allocator * p) : p_(p) { m_ = p_->alloc(n); /*...*/ }
```

```
private:
```

```
    abstract_allocator * p_;// instead of a policy-object, there is a pointer to an abstract class
```

```
    void * m_;           // types can't be extracted by OOP means
```

```
};
```

- A concrete "policy" must inherit the interface; the functions are now virtual

```
class my_allocator : public abstract_allocator {
```

```
public:
```

```
    virtual void * alloc(std::size_t s) override { /*...*/ }
```

```
    my_policy(heap * h) : my_heap_(h) {}
```

```
private:
```

```
    heap * my_heap_;
```

```
};
```

```
my_allocator ma(/*...*/);
```

```
container k( & ma);           // because OOP requires pointers, ownership of the "policy-object" must be solved somehow
```

## ▶ OOP is a runtime mechanism – significantly slower than policy classes

- ▶ in addition, it cannot supply compile-time configuration (types, constants)

# Static vs. dynamic polymorphism

- ▶ Polymorphism = ability to customize behavior of existing code
- ▶ Static/compile-time polymorphism in C++
  - ▶ Behavior customized by compile-time (template) arguments
  - ▶ There may be a run-time component – policy-objects/functors
  - ▶ Customization: The generic code calls **non-virtual** member functions of a class passed as template argument
    - The run-time data are used inside these functions
  - ▶ Duck typing: These functions may have any signature compatible with the call
    - They can be templated themselves
  - ▶ The compiler compiles the generic code when the template is instantiated with specific policy-object/functor type
    - The compiler knows exactly which function is invoked at the point of customization
    - Function integration (aka. inlining) or inter-procedural optimization possible
- ▶ Dynamic/run-time polymorphism in C++
  - ▶ Behavior customized by run-time arguments (and run-time type information contained inside objects)
  - ▶ Customization: The universal code calls **virtual** member functions via a pointer/reference to an abstract class passed as run-time argument
  - ▶ Strong typing: The virtual functions must have exactly the signature defined by the abstract class
    - Virtual functions can not be templates
  - ▶ The universal code is not a template – compiled only once
    - There is an indirect virtual-function call at the customization point
    - No optimization possible for the compiler
  - ▶ Slower than static/compile-time polymorphism
    - However, the binary code is smaller – relevant in embedded applications etc.
  - ▶ Required when behavior must be switched at run time
    - Polymorphic containers, GUI systems, middleware, ...

- ▶ Prefer static/compile-time polymorphism whenever possible
- ▶ Use dynamic/run-time polymorphism only when needed
  - Polymorphic containers, GUI systems, middleware, ...
- ▶ Example: Functors are a case of static polymorphism
  - ▶ Functors/lambdaes will become arguments of templated functions
  - ▶ It is impossible to directly mix different lambdaes in one expression/container

```
cond ? [](int & x){ ++x; } : [](int & x){ --x; } // ERROR
```

```
k[0] = [](int & x){ ++x; }; k[1] = [](int & x){ --x; }; // ERROR
```

- These cases may be solved using `std::function`

```
std::vector< std::function<void(int)>> k;
```

```
k[0] = [](int & x){ ++x; }; k[1] = [](int & x){ --x; }; // OK
```

- ▶ `std::function` is implemented using dynamic polymorphism
  - An internal virtual function has a templated implementation
    - Instantiation triggered by the conversion operator of `std::function`
  - The outer interface of `std::function` is again a functor
    - `std::function` acts as a dynamic polymorphism between two static-polymorphism interfaces

- ▶ Trait [FR]
  - From latin tractus
- ▶ Action of firing a projectile
  - Le javelot est une arme de trait. [The javelin is a thrown weapon.]
- ▶ Traction
  - Animaux de trait. [Draft animals.]
- ▶ Line drawn in one movement
  - Un trait noir. [A black line.]
- ▶ Characteristic facial lines
  - Elle a de jolis traits. [She has pretty curves.]
- ▶ **Characteristic of a person, a thing**
  - Traits saillants d'une rencontre. [Highlights of a meeting.]
- ▶ The term “trait” is used in psychology and evolutionary biology
  - The set of psychological/evolutional properties of an individual is termed “traits”
- ▶ From there, it was acquired in programming, almost always as “traits”:
  - The set of compile-time properties of a programming language item (usually a type)

## ▶ Traits

- Class/struct template not designed to be instantiated into objects; contents limited to:
  - type definitions (via typedef/using or nested struct/class)
  - constants (via static constexpr)
  - static functions
- Used as a compile-time function which assigns types/constants/run-time functions to template arguments
- Most frequently declared with one type argument
  - Used to retrieve information related to the type
  - Example: `std::numeric_limits<T>` contains constants and functions describing the properties of a numeric type T

## ▶ Conventions and syntactic sugar

- When a traits class contains just one type, the type is named “type”
  - C++11: Usually made accessible directly via template using declaration named “...\_t”

```
template< typename T> using some_traits_t = typename some_traits< T>::type;
```

- When a traits class contains just one constant, the constant is named “value”
  - C++14: Usually made accessible directly via template variable named “...\_v”

```
template< typename T> inline constexpr some_type some_traits_v = some_traits< T>::value;
```

- ▶ Traits are useful when implementing a template acting on unknown type
  - `std::numeric_limits<T>::lowest()` returns the minimal (finite) value of a numeric type

```
template< typename T> T vector_max(const std::vector<T> & v) {  
    T m = std::numeric_limits<T>::lowest();  
    for (auto && a : v)  
        m = std::max(m, a);  
    return m;  
}
```

- This example has too narrow interface – a better version uses iterators:
  - Another traits class required to determine the element type:

```
template< typename IT>  
std::iterator_traits<IT>::value_type range_max(IT b, IT e) {  
    using T = std::iterator_traits<IT>::value_type;  
    T m = std::numeric_limits<T>::lowest();  
    for (; b != e; ++b)  
        m = std::max(m, *b);  
    return m;  
}
```

- Container-manipulation functions usually use iterators in their interface
- Such functions need to know some properties of the underlying containers
- ▶ If IT is an iterator type, **std::iterator\_traits<IT>** contains the following types:
  - **difference\_type** – a signed type large enough to hold distances between iterators
    - usually `std::ptrdiff_t`
  - **value\_type** – the type of an element pointed to by the iterator
  - **reference** – a type acting as a reference to an element
    - this is the type actually returned by operator\* of the iterator
    - usually `value_type&` or `const value_type&`
    - it may be a class simulating a reference (e.g. for `vector<bool>`)
  - **pointer** – a type acting as a pointer to an element
    - `value_type*`, `const value_type*`, or a class simulating a pointer
  - **iterator\_category** – one of predefined tags describing the category of the iterator
    - `std::input_iterator_tag`, `std::output_iterator_tag`, `std::forward_iterator_tag`, `std::bidirectional_iterator_tag`, or `std::random_access_iterator_tag`
    - shall be used via template specialization or using `std::is_same_v`
- ▶ These properties can also be determined using C++20 concepts
  - new versions of algorithms in `std::ranges` do not rely on `std::iterator_traits`

- Implemented in standard library as

```
template< typename IT> struct iterator_traits {  
    using difference_type = typename IT::difference_type;  
    using value_type = typename IT::value_type;  
    using reference = typename IT::reference;  
    using pointer = typename IT::pointer;  
    using iterator_category = typename IT::iterator_category;  
};
```

- Any class intended to act as an iterator must define the five types referenced above
  - The five types shall be accessed only indirectly through std::iterator\_traits
  - Not required if the iterators are passed only to modern concept-aware generic code
- Since raw pointers may act as iterators, there is a partial specialization:

```
template< typename T> struct iterator_traits<T*> {  
    using difference_type = std::ptrdiff_t;  
    using value_type = std::remove_cv_t<T>;  
    using reference = T&;  
    using pointer = T*;  
    using iterator_category = std::random_access_iterator_tag;  
};
```

- std::remove\_cv\_t<T> removes any const/volatile modifiers from T

- ▶ Traits returning constants, e.g. `std::is_reference_v<T>`

- Based on the traits template `std::is_reference<T>`

- general template

```
template< typename T> struct is_reference<T> : std::false_type {};
```

- partial specializations have higher priority

```
template< typename T> struct is_reference<T&> : std::true_type {};
```

```
template< typename T> struct is_reference<T&&> : std::true_type {};
```

- Uses two type aliases (logically acting as policy classes):

```
using false_type = std::integral_constant<bool, false>;
```

```
using true_type = std::integral_constant<bool, true>;
```

- These are aliases of a particular case of a more general auxiliary class:

```
template< typename U, U v> struct integral_constant {  
    static constexpr U value = v;  
    // ... there are more members here ... explanation later  
};
```

- The result is represented by a static constexpr member named “value” by convention

- For convenience, the result may be accessed using the global variable alias:

```
template< typename T> inline constexpr is_reference_v = is_reference<T>::value;
```

## ▶ Tag class

- Empty class/struct
- A tag class acts like a compile-time enumeration constant
  - Unlike an enum type, the set of tag classes may be independently extended
  - It is limited to compile-time, therefore there is no need to assign unique numbering

## ▶ Two use cases

- Tag classes are used as type arguments to templates or member types of a class
  - Example: the tags used for `iterator_category`
  - In this case, a tag class is never instantiated into object, it is also usually empty
- Tag classes are used as parameters of a function
  - The tag class is instantiated into an empty runtime object (usually optimized out by the compiler)
  - This allows to distinguish between different functions of the same name (e.g. constructors)

## ▶ In advanced cases, tag classes are templates

- They are used to carry the “values” of their template arguments

# Tag arguments

## ▶ Distinguishing constructors

- Another use-case for value-less function arguments
- All constructors have the same name
  - the name cannot be used to specify the required behavior
- Example: `std::optional<T>` can store T or nothing

```
using string_opt = std::optional< std::string>;
```

```
string_opt x; // initialized as nothing
```

```
assert(!x.has_value());
```

```
string_opt y(std::in_place); // initialized as std::string()
```

```
assert(y.has_value() && (*y).empty());
```

```
string_opt z(std::in_place, "Hello"); // initialized as std::string("Hello")
```

```
assert(z.has_value() && *z == "Hello");
```

### ▪ Implementation:

```
struct in_place_t {}; // a tag class
```

```
inline constexpr in_place_t in_place; // an empty variable of tag type
```

```
template< typename T> class optional { public:
```

```
    optional(); // initialize as nothing
```

```
    template< typename... L>
```

```
    optional( in_place_t, L &&... l); // initialize by constructing T from the arguments l
```

```
};
```

# Employing type non-equivalence with tag classes

```
template< typename P>
class Value {
    double v;
    // ...
};

struct mass {};

struct energy {};

Value< mass> m;
Value< energy> e;

e = m;    // error
```

- ▶ Type non-equivalence
  - Two classes/structs/unions/enums are always considered different
    - even if they have the same contents
  - Two instances of the same template are considered different if their parameters are different
    - It also works with empty classes
      - Called **tag** classes
- ▶ Usage:
  - To distinguish types which represent different things using the same implementation
    - Physical units
    - Indexes to different arrays
    - Similar effect to *enum class*