Structured bindings with polymorphic lambas

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1 Introduction

This paper proposes usage of structured bindings with polymorphic lambdas, adding them to another place where auto can be used as a declarator

```
std::for_each(map, [](auto [key, value]) {
    cout << key << " " << value << endl;
});</pre>
```

This would make for nice syntactic sugar to situations such as the above without having to decompose the tuple-like object manually, similar to how structured bindings are used in range based for loops

```
for (auto [key, value] : map) {
    cout << key << " " << value << endl;
}</pre>
```

2 Motivation

2.1 Simplicity and uniformity

Structured binding initialization can be used almost anywhere auto is used to initialize a variable (not considering auto deduced return types), and allowing this to happen in polymorphic lambdas would make code simpler, easier to read and generalize better

```
std::find_if(range, [](const auto& [key, value]) {
    return examine(key, value);
});
```

2.2 Programmer demand

There is some programmer demand and uniform agreement on this feature

- 1. Stack Overflow: Can the structured bindings syntax be used in polymorphic lambdas
- 2. ISO C++: Structured bindings and polymorphic lambdas

2.3 Prevalence

It is not uncommon to execute algorithms on containers that contain a value type that is either a tuple or a tuple-like decomposable class. And in such cases code usually deteriorates to manually unpacking the instance of the decomposable class for maximum reaadability, for example

```
auto result = std::count_if(map, [](const auto& key_value_pair) {
    const auto& key = key_value_pair.first;
    const auto& value = key_value_pair.second;

    return examine(key, process_key(key), value);
});
```

The first two lines in the lambda are just noise and can nicely be replaced with structured bindings in the function parameter

```
auto result = std::count_if(map, [](const auto& [key, value]) {
    return examine(key, process_key(key), value);
});
```

3 Impact on the standard

The proposal describes a pure language extension which is a non-breaking change - code that was previously ill-formed now would have well-defined semantics.

4 Interaction with concepts and traits

Definition (x-decomposable) If a type can be decomposed into a structured binding expression with x bindings, then it is said to be x-decomposable (reference [dcl.struct.bind] for the exact requirements). More specifically, if the following expression is well formed in the least restrictive member access scope (where privates are accessible) for a type T

```
auto&& [one, two, three, ..., x] = o;
```

Where decltype(o) is T, then the type T is said to be x-decomposable

This can be made available to the compiler as both a concept and a trait. The presence of such a concept makes it easy to define templates in terms of a type that is x-decomposable. A trait allows for the same thing but can be considered more versatile as it also fits well with existing code that employs value driven template specialization mechanisms and other more complicated specialization workflows.

It is possible to make a concept or trait that enables us to check if a type is decomposable into x bindings by virtue of it's interface. In particular the presence of an ADL defined or member get<>() function and the existence of specialized std::tuple_element<> and std::tuple_size<> traits qualifies something to be x-decomposable. However, a type can be x-decomposable even when these are not present (see [dcl.struct.bind]p4)

[dcl.struct.bind] p2 and [dcl.struct.bind] p3 define decomposability that can be checked by the programmer at compile time (described above) via a concept or trait. However [dcl.struct.bind] p4 describes a method of unpacking that cannot be enforced purely by the language constructs available as of C++17. As such a compiler intrinsic, say __is_decomposable<T, x> is required. Given such an intrinsic, defining a trait and concept that check if a type is x-decomposable on top of that is trivial. The trait itself can be used as a backend for the concept, leaving the implementation of the concept entirely in portable code without the help of compiler intrinsics.

The concept, say std::decomposable<x> accepts a non type template parameter of type std::size_t that determines the cardinality of the structured bindings decomposition. This concept holds if a type is x-decomposable (and this will take into consideration the requirements set forth by [dcl.struct.bind] paragraphs 2, 3 and 4.

The corresponding trait, say std::is_decomposable<T, x> has value true if and only if type T is x-decomposable. The usual variable template std::is_decomposable_v<T, x> should also be defined.

5 Impact on overloading and function resolution

Lambdas do not natively support function overloading, however one can lay out lambdas in a way that they are overloaded, for example let's assume the following definition of make_overload() for the rest of the paper

```
template <typename... Types>
struct Overload : public Types... {
   template <typename... T>
   Overload(T&&... types) : Types{std::forward<T>(types)}... {}
   using Types::operator()...;
};
```

```
template <typename... Types>
auto make_overload(Types&&... instances) {
    return Overload < std::decay_t < Types > ... > { std::forward < Types > (instances) ... };
}
```

Now this can be used like so to generate a functor with overloaded operator() methods from anonymous lambdas

```
namespace {
   auto one = [](int) {};
   auto two = [](char) {};
   auto overloaded = make_overload(one, two);
} // namespace <anonymous>
```

In such a situation the consequences of this proposal must be considered. The easiest way to understand this proposal is to consider the rough syntactic sugar that this provides. A polymorphic lambda with a structured binding declaration translates to a simple functor with a templated operator() method with the structured binding "decomposition" happening inside the function

```
auto lambda = [](const auto [key, value]) { ... };

/**
   * Expansion of the above lambda
   */
struct ANONYMOUS_LAMBDA {
    template <std::decomposable<2> __Type>
    auto operator()(const __Type __instance) const {
        auto& [key, value] = __instance;
        ...
    }
};
```

Note that although this expansion has almost the same semantics as the actual lambda. The above is just for illustration purposes. It has some differences with the way such a lambda would translate into real code - for example, the introduced bindings are lvalue references to the referenced type of the bindings. In the actual code they would conditionally be lvalue references or rvalue references depending on the value category of the corresponding initializer. The referenced type of the bindings however, would remain the same in both cases; so the change in the actual reference type of the bindings can be considered a mere implementation detail.

Similarly a lambda that has two separate groups of structured binding declarations will translate with the decompositions happening serially within the function body

```
auto lambda = [](const auto [key, value], auto&& [one, two, three]) { ... };

/**
    * Expansion of the above lambda
    */
struct ANONYMOUS_LAMBDA {
    template <std::decomposable <2> __One, std::decomposable <3> __Two>
    auto operator()(const One __one, Two&& __two) {
        auto& [key, value] = __one;
        auto& [one, two, three] = __two;
        ...
    }
};
```

Given the above expansions, a polymorphic lambda behaves identically to a lambda with a auto parameter type with the difference that these are constrained to work only with parameters that are \mathbf{x} decomposable. And nothing special happens when overloading

```
namespace {
   auto one = [](int) {};
   auto two = [](auto [key, value]) {};
   auto overloaded = make_overload(one, two);
```

```
} // namespace <anonymous>
int main() {
    auto integer = int{1};
    auto pair = std::make_pair(1, 2);
    auto error = double{1};

    // calls the lambda named "one"
    overloaded(integer);
    // calls the lamdba named "two"
    overloaded(pair);
    // error
    overloaded(error);
}
```

5.1 Viable orthogonal overloads

One key point to consider here is that the concept based constraints on such lambdas allows for the following two orthogonal overloads to work nicely with each other

```
namespace {
    auto lambda_one = [](auto [one, two]) {};
    auto lambda_two = [](auto [one, two, three]) {};
    auto overloaded = make_overload(lambda_one, lambda_two);
} // namespace <anonymous>

int main() {
    auto tup_one = std::make_tuple(1, 2);
    auto tup_two = std::make_tuple(1, 2, 2);
    overloaded(tup_one);
    overloaded(tup_two);

    return 0;
}
```

Since here either one lambda can be called or both, in no case can both satisfy the requirements set forth by the compiler concept std::decomposable<x>

5.2 Access control and decompositions

Another key point to consider is acess control within the expansion of the lambda. Decompositions will share the access control powers of the code in the surrounding scope where the lambda is defined. So if the decomposition was in the body of the lambda and was valid (for example, even if the type being decomposed has private get<>() methods) the lambda would be able to decompose it successfully. For example the following code is valid

```
class Something {
public:
    static auto make_decomposer();
private:
    std::tuple<int, int> tup{1, 2};
    template <std::size_t Index>
    int get();
};

namespace std {
template <>
class tuple_size<Something> : public std::integral_constant<std::size_t, 2> {};
template <std::size_t Index>
class tuple_element<Index, Something> {
```

```
public:
    using type = int;
} // namespace std
template <std::size_t Index>
int Something::get() {
    return std::get<Index>(this->tup);
auto Something::make_decomposer() {
    // decomposition of Something instances is allowed access to the privates
    // of Something since it's defined in a context where private members are
    // visible
    return [](auto [one, two]) {
        assert(one == 1);
        assert(two == 2);
    };
}
void foo() {
    auto something = Something{};
    auto decomposer = Something::make_decomposer();
        // the decomposition here happens in the scope of the lambda so is valid
    decomposer (something);
}
```

6 Conversions to function pointers

A capture-less polymorphic lambda with structured binding parameters can also be converted to a plain function pointer. Just like a regular polymorphic lambda

```
using FPtr_t = void (*) (std::tuple<int, int>);
auto f_ptr = static_cast<FPtr_t>([](auto [a, b]){});
```

So another conversion operator needs to be added to the expansion of the polymorphic lambda with structured bindings above

```
auto lambda = [](const auto [one, two]) { ... };
 st Expansion of the above lambda in C++17 form with respect to overloading
*/
struct ANONYMOUS_LAMBDA {
    template <std::decomposable <2> __Type>
    auto operator()(const __Type __instance) const {
        auto& [one, two] = __instance;
        . . .
    }
private:
    /**
     * Cannot use operator() because that will either cause moves or copies,
     st elision isn't guaranteed to happen to function parameters (even in
     * return values)
    */
    template <std::decomposable <2> __Type>
    static auto __invoke(const __Type __instance) {
        auto& [key, value] = __instance;
```

```
public:
    /**
    * Enforce the decomposable requirement on the argument of the function
    */
    template <typename Return, std::decomposable<2> Arg>
    operator Return(*)(Arg)() const {
        return &__invoke;
    }
};
```

And like regular polymorphic lambdas, returning the address of the static function invokes an instantiation of the function with the types used in the conversion operator

7 Exceptions

Any exceptions during copy/move construction of the instance which is to be decomposed being will be thrown from the call site, just as with regular polymorphic lambdas. However, if there is an exception thrown during the decomposition process, for example if get<>() throws, that will propagate from within the lambda, so if a function level try catch block was allowed for a lambda that would catch an exception that was generated during the "decomposition" process.

8 Acknowledgements

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9 Changes to the current C++17 standard

9.1 Section 8.1.5.1 ([expr.prim.lambda.closure]) paragraph 3

For a generic lambda, the closure type has a public inline function call operator member template (17.5.2) whose template-parameter-list consists of one invented type template-parameter for each occurrence of auto in the lambdas parameter-declaration-clause, in order of appearance. For each occurrence of a structured binding with cardinality x, the template-parameter-list consists of an invented type template-parameter with the constraint that it has to be decomposable into x structured bindings (see [dcl.struct.bind]). And as such the function template only participates in overloading when all the structured bindings are appropriately decomposable at the call site. The invented type template-parameter is a parameter pack if the corresponding parameter-declaration declares a function parameter pack (11.3.5). A structured binding parameter-declaration cannot be used to invent a parameter pack. The return type and function parameters of the function call operator template are derived from the lambda-expressions trailing-return-type and parameter-declaration-clause by replacing each occurrence of auto in the decl-specifiers of the parameter-declaration-clause with the name of the corresponding invented template-parameter.

9.2 Section 11.5 ([dcl.struct.bind])

5. If the number of structured bindings introduced by a structured binding declaration is x, then a type T is called x-decomposable if the following is well formed

```
auto&& [one, two, three, ..., x] = o;
```

where T is decltype(o)

9.3 Section 23.15.4.3 Type properties ([meta.unary.prop])

template <typename T, std::size_t X>
struct is_decomposable;

Condition The type T has to be x-decomposable (see [expr.prim.lambda.closure]p3)