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1 Move Semantics

1.1 Copy

By default cpp will always create copies, this is good for memory safety etc, as you will not be returning null values, but it can be a runtime hit!
(There are some special types that can't be copied like mutexes etc)

```
// Copy constructor
class something {
    something(const something &other) {
        // copy values from other
    }
}
```

1.2 Move

Move constructor will *NOT* copy values, instead, it will move these values into the new object, this is better for performance, but it requires more management from the programmer!

Make sure to free the memory at the old object, otherwise you might be dealing with nullpointers!

```
Vector(Vector<T> &&vec)
    : size(vec.size), cap(vec.cap), data(std::move(vec.data)) {
    vec.data = nullptr;
} // yes this is the vector that you implemented kek
```

In short, the move constructor makes a lot of sense when you have *Heap data*, aka if you have something like an array or a vector, then you will want to make sure to always use the move constructor if you can do so.

The default move constructor is as follows:

```
struct S {
    S(S && s) : member{std::move(s.member)}
    {...}
    M member;
};
```

1.3 Copy Assignment

Default copy assignment constructor:

```
struct S {
    auto operator=(S const& s) -> S& {
        member = s.member;
        return *this;
    }
    M member;
};
```

1.4 Move Assignment

Default move assignment constructor:

```
struct S {
    auto operator=(S&& s) -> S& {
        member = std::move(s.member);
        return *this;
    }
}
```

```

}
M member;
};

```

1.5 Rvalue and Lvalue

lvalue T&: variable with some location in ram, either on the stack or on the heap.

rvalue T&&: temporary value that has no variable and no location in memory, it only exists in code.

```

int a = 5;
// 5 is an r value, it has no memory location
// a is an lvalue -> some address is set to 5

int b = 10;

int c = a + b;
// a + b is an rvalue -> value is 15, but no memory location for this calculation
// c is an lvalue -> some address is set to 5

```

1.5.1 Convert lvalue to rvalue

By default you can't just use an lvalue as an rvalue, however, you can use `std::move` to explicitly convert an lvalue to an rvalue.

Note that in this case, you can't use the old variable anymore, as the data has been moved! -> see rust

```

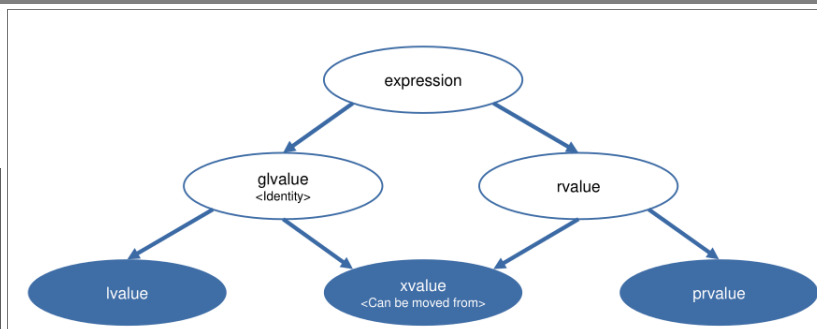
auto consume(Food&& food) -> void;

auto fryBurger() -> Food;
auto fastFood() -> void {
    Food fries{"salty and greasy"};
    consume(fryBurger()); //call with rvalue
    consume(fries); //cannot pass lvalue to rvalue reference
    consume(std::move(fries)); //explicit conversion lvalue to xvalue
    Food&& burger = fryBurger(); //life-extension of temporary
}

```

1.6 Other value types

has identity?	can be moved from?	Value Category
Yes	No	lvalue
Yes	Yes	xvalue (expiring value)
No	No (Since C++17)	prvalue (pure rvalue)
No	Yes (Since C++17)	- (doesn't exist anymore)



- **lvalue**
 - address can be taken
 - Can be on the left-hand side of an assignment if modifiable
 - Can be used to initialize lvalue references
 - Examples: variables, function calls that return reference, increment and decrement operators, array index access if array is lvalue
 - all string literals
- **prvalue**
 - address can't be taken -> doesn't exist
 - cannot be on the left hand side of assignment
 - temporary "materialization" to xvalue
 - Examples: literals, false, nullptr, function call with non reference return type, postincrement and postdecrement!!
- **xvalue**
 - address cannot be taken
 - Cannot be used as left-hand operator of built-in assignment
 - Conversion from prvalue through temporary materialization
 - Examples: function calls with rvalue reference return type -> `std::move`, access of non-references members of an rvalue object, array index access when array is rvalue

1.6.1 Temporary Materialization

Getting from something imaginary to something you can point to....

When this happens:

- binding a reference to a prvalue
- when accessing a member of prvalue
- when accessing an element of a prvalue array
- when converting a prvalue array to a pointer
- when initializing an `std::initializer_list<T>` from a braced-init-list
- Type needs to be complete and needs to have a destructor

```

struct Ghost {
    auto haunt() const -> void {
        std::cout << "booooo!\n";
    }
    //~Ghost() = delete;
};

auto evoke() -> Ghost {
    return Ghost{};
}

auto main() -> int {
    Ghost&& sam = evoke(); // bind reference to a prvalue
    Ghost{}.haunt(); // access member of prvalue
}

```

1.7 l and rvalue references

lvalue reference made only of lvalues!!

- type: T&
- alias for a variable
- can be used as function member type, local member/variable, return type
- be aware of dangling references when returning!

rvalue reference made of rvalues, prvalues or xvalues!

- Type: T&&
- when assigned to a name (for example inside of a function), then it is actually an lvalue!!
- Argument is either a literal or a temporary object

```
std::string createGlass() -> std::string;
void fancyNameForFunction() {
    std::string mug{"cup of coffee"};
    std::string&& glass_ref = createGlass(); //life-extension of temporary
    std::string&& mug_ref = std::move(mug); //explicit conversion lvalue to rvalue
    int&&
    i_ref = 5;
    //binding rvalue reference to prvalue
}
```

1.8 Binds

T value{};	std::cout << value;	lvalue
int value{};	std::cout << value + 1;	rvalue
auto foo(T& param) -> void {	std::cout << param;	lvalue
auto print(T&& param) -> void {	std::cout << param;	lvalue
auto create() -> T;	create();	rvalue

T & create();	create();	lvalue
T && create();	create();	rvalue
T value{};	std::cout << value + 1;	depends on +
T value{};	T o = std::move(value);	rvalue
	std::cout << "Hello";	lvalue

• lvalue Reference

■ binds

```
auto f(Type&) -> void;
Type t{};
f(t);
```

• const lvalue Reference

■ binds

```
auto f(Type const&) -> void;
Type t{};
f(t);
f(std::move(t));
f(Type{});
```

• rvalue Reference

■ binds

```
auto f(Type&&) -> void;
Type t{};
f(Type{});
f(std::move(t));
```

	f(S)	f(S &)	f(S const &)	f(S &&)
S s{};	✓	✓ (preferred over const &)	✓	✗
f(s);				
S const s{};	✓	✗	✓	✗
f(s);				
f(S{});	✓	✗	✓	✓ (preferred over const &)
S s{};	✓	✗	✓	✓ (preferred over const &)
f(std::move(s));				

	S::m()	S::m() const	S::m() &	S::m() const &	S::m() &&
S s{};	✓	✓	✓ (preferred over const &)	✓	✗
s.m();					
S const s{};	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗
s.m();					
S{}.m();	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓ (preferred over const &)
S s{};	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓ (preferred over const &)
std::move(s).m();					

1.9 Destructor

Whenever you need to write an explicit destructor, please make sure that you will not throw exceptions here. This can cause memory to not be freed, which.... well you guess what happens In general you should make sure that *ANY form of memory management doesn't throw exceptions!!!*

1.10 Default Constructors and user defined Constructors

What you get							Where you want to be
	default constructor	destructor	copy constructor	copy assignment	move constructor	move assignment	
nothing	defaulted	defaulted	defaulted	defaulted	defaulted	defaulted	Avoid if possible
any constructor	not declared	defaulted	defaulted	defaulted	defaulted	defaulted	
default constructor	<u>user declared</u>	defaulted	defaulted	defaulted	defaulted	defaulted	
destructor	defaulted	<u>user declared</u>	defaulted (!)	defaulted (!)	not declared	not declared	Avoid if possible
copy constructor	not declared	defaulted	<u>user declared</u>	defaulted (!)	not declared	not declared	
copy assignment	defaulted	defaulted	defaulted (!)	<u>user declared</u>	not declared	not declared	
move constructor	not declared	defaulted	deleted	deleted	<u>user declared</u>	not declared	
move assignment	defaulted	defaulted	deleted	deleted	not declared	<u>user declared</u>	

The ! means that it is a standard library bug, don't use those defaulted ones!!!

Note that deleting a constructor will be the same as "user declared"!!!

1.11 The problem with func(T const&)

When working with const T references, this implies that we can either *copy or move it*, this means we will not necessarily know what we get. The only possible way without type deduction is an overload for both.

```
template <typename T>
auto log_and_do(T const& param) -> void {
    //log
    do_something(param);
} // lvalue

template <typename T>
auto log_and_do(T&& param) -> void {
    //log
    do_something(std::move(param));
} // lvalue and rvalue!!
```

Note, with more parameters, you would need x amount of overloads for each combination of parameters!!

2 Type Deduction

2.1 Forwarding Reference

A T&& is not always an rvalue! In some cases, it is a forwarding reference, which can be either an lvalue or an rvalue!!

```
template <typename T>
auto f(T && param) -> void;

// lvalue
int x = 23;
f(x);
// auto f(int & param) -> void; (inferred)

// rvalue
f(23);
// auto f(int && param) -> void; (inferred)
```

2.2 Rules for Type Deduction

```
// base function
template <typename T>
auto f(T param) -> void;

// type usages with function instances and deduced T
int x = 23; // f(x) = f(int param) -> T = int
int const cx = x; // f(cx) = f(int param) -> T = int
int const& crx = x; // f(crx) = f(int param) -> T = int
char const * const ptr = /* something */; // f(ptr) = f(char const * param) -> T = char const*;
// -- ignore outermost const
// -- ignore reference types
// -- take base type

// base function 2
template <typename T>
auto f(T & param) -> void;

// type usages with function instances and deduced T
int x = 23; // f(x) = f(int& param) -> T = int
int const cx = x; // f(cx) = f(int const& param) -> T = int const
int const& crx = x; // f(crx) = f(int const& param) -> T = int const
// -- ignore reference type

// base function 3
template <typename T>
auto f(T const& param) -> void;

// type usages with function instances and deduced T
int x = 23; // f(x) = f(int const& param) -> T = int
int const cx = x; // f(cx) = f(int const& param) -> T = int
int const& crx = x; // f(crx) = f(int const& param) -> T = int
// -- ignore reference types
// -- take base type

// base function 4
template <typename T>
auto f(T&& param) -> void;

// type usages with function instances and deduced T
int x = 23; // f(x) = f(int& param) -> T = int&
int const cx = x; // f(cx) = f(int const& param) -> T = int const&
int const& crx = x; // f(crx) = f(int const& param) -> T = int const&
// // f(27) = f(int&& param) -> T = int
// -- if param is an lvalue, then they become lvalue references
// -- otherwise rvalue, default rules for references
```

2.2.1 Deducing Initializer Lists

With initializer lists, you can't directly deduce the type as it will think T is the entire list, which is nonsense!

```
template <typename T>
auto f(T param) -> void;
f({23}); //error

template <typename T>
auto f(std::initializer_list<T> param) -> void;
f({23}); //T = int
//ParamType = std::initializer_list<int>
```

2.2.2 Deducing auto types

```
auto x = 23; //auto is a value type
auto const cx = x; //auto is a value type
auto& rx = x; //auto is a reference type
auto&& uref1 = x; //x is an lvalue, uref1 is int&
auto&& uref2 = cx; //cx is an lvalue, uref2 is int const&
auto&& uref3 = 23; //23 is an rvalue, uref3 is int&&

// special cases
auto init_list1 = {23}; //std::initializer_list<int>
auto init_list2{23}; //int, was std::initializer_list<int>
auto init_list3{23, 23}; //Error, requires one single argument
```

Note that auto type deduction works with parameters and return types, with the special cases like initializer list still applying!!

2.2.3 Type Deduction with decltype

```
int x = 23;
int const cx = x;
decltype(cx) cx_too = cx; //type of cx_too is int const
```

```
int& rx = x;
decltype(rx) rx_too = rx; //type of rx_too is int&

// these two are the only surprises! auto only gives the base type without reference, while the other gives the full reference
// type
auto just_x = rx; //type of just_x is int
decltype(auto) more_rx = rx; //type of more_rx is int&
```

decltype(auto) etc can also be used for returning something specific:

```
// auto decltype
template <typename Container, typename Index>
decltype(auto) access(Container & c, Index i) {
    return c[i];
}

// specific decltype
template <typename Container, typename Index>
auto access(Container & c, Index i) -> decltype(c[i]) {
    return c[i];
}
```

Note we can only declare decltype(c[i]) as a trailing type! The reason for this is that c and i are only known AFTER the parameters!

2.2.4 Returns with decltype

```
decltype(auto) funcName() {
    int local = 42;
    return local; // decltype(local) => int
} // lvalue -> T
decltype(auto) funcNameRef() {
    int local = 42;
    int & lref = local;
    return lref; // int & -> bad (dangling)
} // lvalue reference -> T&
decltype(auto) funcXvalue() {
    int local = 42;
    return std::move(local); // int && -> bad (dangling)
} // rvalue reference -> T&&
decltype(auto) funcLvalue() {
    int local = 42;
    return (local); // int & -> bad (dangling)
} // lvalue reference -> T&
decltype(auto) funcPrvalue() {
    return 5; // int
} // prvalue -> T
```

2.3 Checking for r and l-values

We learned that we can solve the issue of multiple overloads with T&&, but what if we want to differentiate after the fact? std::forward!

```
template <typename T>
auto log_and_do(T&& param) -> void {
    //log
    do_something(std::forward<T>(param));
}

// example for implementation
template <typename T>
decltype(auto) forward(std::remove_reference_t<T>& param) {
    return static_cast<T&&>(param);
}

// explanation
// this will check if we have an lvalue or not by trying to cast to an rvalue reference
// if & and && are casted, it will always result in &
// this means only an rvalue will result in an rvalue being returned, everything else will result in lvalue being returned
// this is called reference collapsing!
// example -> when T is int& the static cast will be int&& && and hence collapsed to int&
// when T is int&& the static cast will be int&& && and hence collapsed to int&&
// when T is int, the static cast will be int&&, no collapse is needed here.
// note references are only checked for the type, the actual references are removed, as can be seen by the std::
    remove_reference_t
```

This means that forwards is essentially a conditional cast to an rvalue reference!

Rules for reference collapsing:

- & and & = &
- && and & = &
- & and && = &
- && and && = &&

2.3.1 std::move vs std::forward

While forward is the conditional cast, std::move is the unconditional cast! This means you will always receive an rvalue!

```
// std::forward
template <typename T>
decltype(auto) forward(std::remove_reference_t<T>& param) {
    return static_cast<T&&>(param);
} // will collapse dynamically
// std::move
template <typename T>
decltype(auto) move(T&& param) { // param is always T&& !!!
    return static_cast<std::remove_reference_t<T>&&>(param);
} // will always collapse to && and && meaning && is returned
```

3 Lambdas

3.1 From lambda to actual code

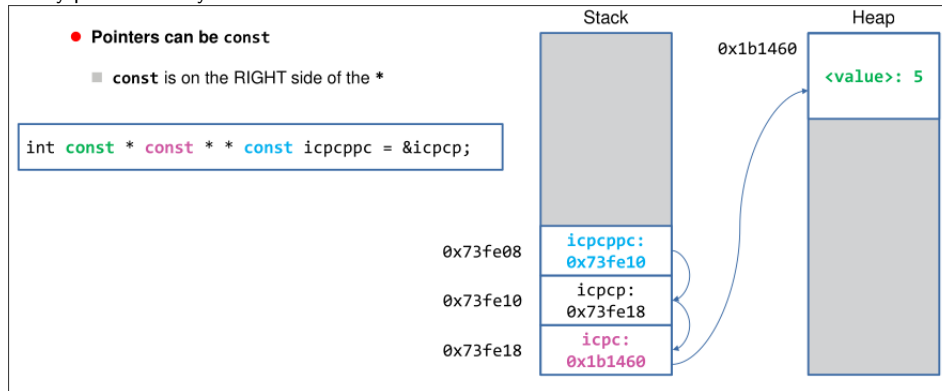
```
// lambda
int i0 = 42;
auto missingMutable = [i0] {return i0++;};
```

```
// compiler code
struct CompilerKnows {
    auto operator()() const -> int {
        return i0++;
    }
    int i0;
};
```

4 Memory Management and Heap

4.1 Pointers

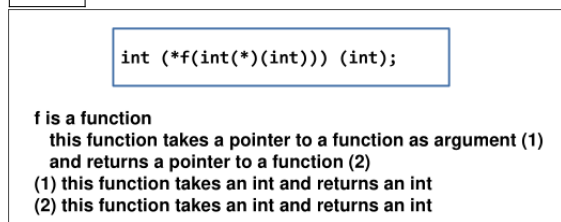
Funny pointer consty fun.



4.1.1 Reading a pointer declaration



2023_03_21_02_13_40.png



2023_03_21_02_16_23.png

4.1.2 nullptr

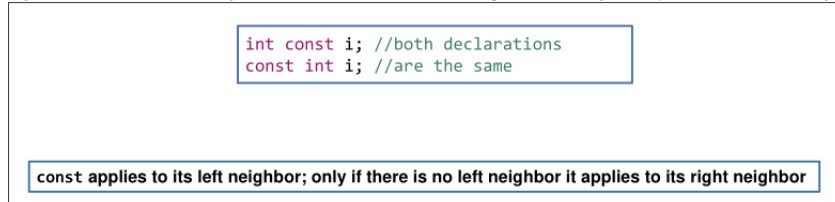
The `nullptr` has a more specific meaning than either 0 or `NULL`, other than 0, it has no implicit conversion to integral type, unlike 0, and also ensures no mistakes with overloads -> again integral.
 There is also the implicit conversion from `nullptr` to `T*`

```
int* test = nullptr;
float* test2 = nullptr;

// lol
void* something = nullptr;
int* no = (int*) something;
```

4.2 Const

By default the `const` keyword needs to be on the right, the only exception is the first type on the left!



Be careful with left const assignments when using aliases!

```
// Extract the int const * part
using alias = int const *;
alias const icpc; // works well

// Extract the int * const part
using alias = int * const;
const alias icpc; // this is bs! Compiles however!
```

4.3 mutable

The `mutable` keyword is always used on the variable itself!

```
// the value at mutable_const_int_pointer is constant
// however the pointer itself is not!
// the mutable keyword here is only used for const functions -> can be used inside of them
class Something {
    mutable const int * mutable_const_int_pointer;
}
```

4.4 New

```
struct Point {
    Point(int x, int y):x {x}, y {y}{}
    int x, y;
};
auto createPoint(int x, int y) -> Point* {
    return new Point{x, y}; //constructor
}
auto createCorners(int x, int y) -> Point* {
    return new Point[2]{{0, 0}, {x, y}};
}
```

4.5 Delete

Every new needs to be accomodated with a delete, *deleting twice will lead to undefined behavior!*.

However, deleting the nullptr is well defined, it does nothing.

```
struct Point {
    Point(int x, int y):x {x}, y {y} {}
    int x, y;
}
auto funWithPoint(int x, int y) -> void {
    Point * pp = new Point{x, y};
    //pp member access with pp->
    //pp is the pointer value
    delete pp; //destructor
}
```

Using delete with [] will delete arrays.

```
struct Point {
    Point(int x, int y) :x {x}, y {y}{}
    int x, y;
}
auto funWithPoint(int x, int y) -> void {
    Point * arr = new Point[2]{{0, 0},{x, y}};
    //element access with [], e.g. arr[1]
    //arr points to the first element
    delete[] arr; //destructors
} // this also deletes multidimensional arrays!!
```

4.5.1 Placement new

This takes a ptr where *currently no element is placed* and creates a new class instance of choice in this pointer.

This means that you can potentially create a pointer to a smaller instance. It just needs to be suitable, aka big enough, so bigger objects won't work!!

```
struct Point {
    Point(int x, int y):x {x}, y {y}{}
    int x, y;
};
auto funWithPoint() -> void {
    auto ptr = new Point{9, 8};
    // must release Point{9, 8}
    // release can be done with ptr->~NewTest();
    // or with std::destroy_at(ptr);
    new (ptr) Point{7, 6};
    delete ptr;
}
```

4.5.2 Placement Destroy

There is no proper placement destroy, instead there is the *regular destructor*, but that one doesn't work with primitive built-in types, so instead use `std::destroy_at`.

```
struct Resource {
    Resource() {
        /*allocate resource*/
    }
    ~Resource() {
        /*deallocate resource*/
    }
};
auto funWithPoint() -> void {
    auto ptr = new Resource{};
    ptr->~Resource();
    new (ptr) Resource{};
    delete ptr;
}
```

Non Default Constructible Types This refers to types that do not have a constructor with no parameters. -> default constructor

With these types we can't use `new TypeName`, instead we need to allocate memory explicitly like this:

```
struct Point {
    Point(int x, int y); // default deleted!
    ~Point();
    int x, y;
};

// allocate memory
auto memory = std::make_unique<std::byte[]>(sizeof(Point) * 2);

// initialize
new (memory.get()) Point{1, 2};
```