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1  // Lecture 58: std::move() Function (C++11)
2
3  // main.cpp
4  /*
5   std:: move() always used with L-values (these have a
6   • name) – it forces the compiler to use the move
7   • function instead of the copy
8   It forces the compiler to use move semantics instead
9   • of copy semantics.
10
11  */
12  #include "Integer.h"
13  #include <iostream>
14  main(){
15      Integer a{1};
16      // Create a copy of the object a in b
17      Integer b{a}; // because a is an l-value, the
18      • function overload resolution will choose the
19      • copy constructor, because the parameter type is
20      • an L-value.
21      // In some cases, you may not want to create a
22      • copy of this object, instead you want to MOVE it
23      • into b, but by default the compiler will call
24      • the COPY CTOR.
25      //// Applying TYPECAST
26      // If you would like the latter, we can apply a
27      • TYPECAST to an R-value reference, when we do
28      • this you'll see that the compiler invokes the
29      • move constructor instead of the copy.
30      ;
31      // So that looks like this:
32      auto c{static_cast<Integer&&>(a)}; // And you will
33      • see the move constructor is invoked.
34      // This code is not very readable and does not
35      • communicate the intent clearly because what
36      • we're doing here is 'just performing a cast', and
37      • that does not indicate that we want to move the
38      • state from A into B.
39      // To avoid ambiguity and to increase readability,
40      • the std:: library provides a function called
41      • Move() that internally performs the same cast,
42      • but it communicates the intent of the code:

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23     auto d{std::move(a)};
24     // The reader will immediately know that the
    •     programmer intends to move the state from A into
    •     B, std::move is defined in the utility header
    •     file. Even though we did not explicitly include
    •     it, it is indirectly included in the iostream
    •     header. If we run this, we get the same output
    •     and the move constructor has been invoked.
25 }
26 // Why would you want to do this anyway?
27
28 main(){
29     // A possible reason is that you create an object
    •     and initialise it here:
30     Integer a{1};
31     // and you perform some operations on it, and you
    •     no longer need its state, but the state that it
    •     contains is required in some other object.
32     // So in this case, you would apply std move on
    •     it, this is commonly required if you use a
    •     function like this: (SEE FUNCTION BELOW)
33     Print(std::move(a));
34
35     // After moving from A, you cannot read from this
    •     object because we set it to a nullptr, so that's
    •     why if you try reading from A, the program may
    •     crash.
36     // so when you move FROM an object, the object is
    •     an unspecified state, but the object is still a
    •     valid object and you can reinitialise and reuse
    •     it.
37     /// reinitialising the object:
38     a.SetValue(5); // We need to adjust more things if
    •     you would like to do reinitialisation
39 }
40 // Integer.cpp
41 int Integer::GetValue() const {
42     return *m_pInt;
43 }
44 // This is insufficient, because dereferencing a moved
    •     object is just like dereferencing a nullptr.
45

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46 // For reinitialisation, adjust the setValue function:
47 int Integer::GetValue() const {
48     if (m_pInt == nullptr) m_pInt = new int{};
49     return *m_pInt;
50 }
51 // Remember after moving an object, DO NOT read from
52     • it.
53 void Print(Integer val){
54     // If you don't want the state of the Integer
55     • object after you invoke the print function,
56     • instead of letting the compiler copy the object
57     • into val, you can move it. the advantage is
58     • that, when you move the state of a, after the
59     • Print() function finishes execution, the object
60     • will be destroyed, and it will release the
61     • underlying resources. If you simply pass the Int
62     • by value a copy is created, and when the
63     • function val finishes it will release its own
64     • resources, but the underlying resources of A
65     • will only be released at the end of the
66     • function. And we don't want to utilise these
67     • resources after the Print() function. So
68     • that's why we will implement std::move() here.
69 }
70
71 //==== 2ND USE OF STD::MOVE() => Objects which are non-
72     • copyable,
73 /* A non-copyable object does NOT have copy
74     • operations, it only has move() operations. The class
75     • may contain members that cannot be copied.
76 For instance, you cannot create a copy of a file
77     • stream. So imagine Integer class contains a member
78     • that cannot be copied, we can simulate this by
79     • removing the copy constructor and copy assignments.
80 */
81 void Print(Integer val){}
82 main(){
83     Integer a(1);
84     Print(std::move(a)); // This works!
85     // Print(a); ERROR CODE!
86 }

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67
68  ///// other common areas of implementation: UNIQUE
69  •    POINTER, FILES, THREADS
70
71  // This is also a common pattern with unique pointer,
72  •    it's a smart pointer and used extensively on C++,
73  •    and you will see heavy usage of std::move() in the
74  •    unique pointers chapter.
75
76  // Conclusion:
77  /*
78  std::move() basically performs a type cast to an R-
79  •    value reference, it hence only applies to l-values.
80  •    The typecast causes the compiler to choose the move
81  •    functions over the copy functions. When an object is
82  •    moved, it goes in unspecified state, but you can
83  •    still reuse it by reinitialising it.
84
85  What will happen if we apply std::move on a primitive
86  •    type? Since primitive type do not have any
87  •    underlying resoruces, applying std::move() does not
88  •    accomplish anything. So its usage on primitive types
89  •    is redundant.
90
91  */
92
```