



# More Syntax and Borrowing

`struct`, `enum`, `impl`, `match`, and the Borrow Checker

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# Attendance



<https://forms.gle/nZnBH3qjdBK9cVq9>

# Outline

1 `Vec` and `Box`

2 `structs` and `enums`

3 Control Flow

4 `impl` blocks

5 `match` expressions

6 Ownership

## Vec<T>

Recall `[T; N]`: size known at compile time is pretty restrictive. What if I want a dynamically sized array?

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// We can construct these like arrays, with the vec! macro  
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let y = vec![0; 100];
```

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let y = vec![0; 100];
```

Because the sizing is dynamic, we can add to these:

```
x.push(5);  
x.push(6);  
assert_eq!(x.len(), 7);  
assert!(match x.pop() { Some(6) => true, _ => false });
```

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What about out-of-bounds access?

```
let z = x[100];
```

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let mut x: Box<i32> = Box::new(42);  
// Can do all the usual reference-y stuff!  
*x += 27;  
println!("{}", x);
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What about checking for null?

What about uninitialized/invalid memory?

What about freeing memory?

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## structs

Like many other languages, Rust supports structs.

We can have traditional, C-style structs:

```
struct Student {  
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    name: String,  
    section: char,  
}
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struct Fraction(u32, u32);
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or named tuple style structs:

```
struct Fraction(u32, u32);
```

or unit structs:

```
struct Refl;
```

Every field of a struct must be assigned a value when initialising it.

```
let jack = Student {  
    andrewid: [b'j', b'r', b'd', b'u', b'v', b'a', b'l', b'l'],  
    name: String::from("Jack Duvall"),  
    section: 'A',  
};
```

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    name: String::from("Jack Duvall"),  
    section: 'A',  
};
```

If there are local variables with the same name, we can shortcut this somewhat:

```
// Dereference because this gives a reference to the array.  
let andrewid = *b"cppierce";  
let name = String::from("Cooper Pierce");  
let section = 'A';  
let cooper = Student { andrewid, name, section };
```

Member access for structs is similar to C, with the exception of eliminating `->`. A period `.` is used for both accessing through reference and direct access.

```
assert_ne!(cooper.andrewid, jack.andrewid);
```

```
let s = &cooper;
```

```
assert_eq!(cooper.name, s.name);
```

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Fields of named-tuple structs are accessed the same as tuples.

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let f = Fraction(3, 10);  
fn get_denominator(f: Fraction) -> u32 { f.1 }
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Unit structs behave exactly like the unnamed unit `()`:

```
let x: Refl = Refl;
```

## enums

Rust also has enums. Both C-style “named constants” like

```
enum Weekday {  
    Monday,  
    Tuesday,  
    Wednesday,  
    Thursday,  
    Friday  
}
```

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```
enum Weekday {  
    Monday,  
    Tuesday,  
    Wednesday,  
    Thursday,  
    Friday  
}
```

which are kept in their own namespace (like C++ `enum classes`):

```
let today = Weekday::Wednesday;
```

And also more functionally-inspired ones with data:

```
enum Number {  
    Rational { numer: u32, denom: u32, sign: bool }  
    Float(f64),  
    Int(i32),  
    Infinity,  
}
```

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Which we can use similarly:

```
let f = Number::Float(1.6);  
let r = Number::Rational { numer: 3, denom: 8, sign: true };
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What would an enum for `sign` look like?

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## `if` expressions

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So while we can do

```
let x;  
if some_condition {  
    x = 7;  
} else {  
    x = 9  
}
```

You'd typically see

```
let x = if some_condition { 7 } else { 9 };
```

If we omit the else branch the if branch must evaluate to unit—()

```
if is_admin(user) {  
    println!("Hello administrator!");  
}
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```

Note that any expression followed by a semicolon will be an expression which discards the result and evaluates to unit.

# while loops

We have the typical while loop:

```
fn exp(mut n: i32) -> i32 {
    let mut b = 2;
    let mut x = 1;
    while n > 1 {
        if n % 2 == 1 {
            x = x * b;
        }
        b *= b;
        n /= 2;
    }
    x * b
}
```

# for loops

and iterator-based for loops:

```
let nums = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5];  
for n in nums {  
    println!("{}", n);  
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let nums = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5];
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```

Range types are often useful here:

```
for i in 0..n {
    println("{} squared is {}", i, i * i);
}
```

# loop loops

In addition, we also have an unconditional loop construct:

```
loop {  
    println!("Hi again!");  
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This is more useful when using `break`

```
let prime = loop {  
    let p = gen_random_number();  
    if miller_rabin(p) {  
        break p;  
    }  
};
```

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We can add associated functions and methods to a struct or enum we've defined by using an `impl` block.

```
struct Rectangle {  
    width: u32,  
    height: u32,  
}
```

```
impl Rectangle {  
    fn unit() -> Self {  
        Self { width: 1, height: 1 }  
    }  
  
    fn area(&self) -> u32 {  
        self.width * self.height  
    }  
}
```

Invoking an associated function is done by qualifying it with the type

```
let unit_square = Rectangle::unit();
```

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let unit_square = Rectangle::unit();
```

and methods are typically invoked using a dot:

```
let r = Rectangle { width: 4, height: 7 };  
assert_eq!(unit_square.area(), 1);  
assert_eq!(r.area(), 28);
```

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## match expressions

What if we want to deal with many possible branching choices for an expression?

```
fn fib(n: u32) -> u32 {  
    match n {  
        0 | 1 => 1,  
        n => fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2),  
    }  
}
```

This is a bit more useful when dealing with enums

```
enum Coin { Penny, Nickel, Dime, Quarter }

impl Coin {
    fn value(&self) -> u32 {
        match self {
            Coin::Penny    => 1,
            Coin::Nickel   => 5,
            Coin::Dime     => 10,
            Coin::Quarter  => 25,
        }
    }
}
```

Most of all when the enum has data

```
enum Transmission {
    Incoming(String)
    Done,
}

fn listen(&mut p: Port) {
    loop {
        match p.receive() {
            Transmission::Incoming(s) => {
                println!(s);
            }
            Transmission::Done => return,
        }
    }
}
```

Sometimes we can employ more specific pattern matching constructs to simplify code.

```
enum Transmission {
    Incoming(String)
    Done,
}

fn listen(&mut p: Port) {
    while let Transmission::Incoming(s) = p.receive() {
        println!(s);
    }
}
```

Likewise, there's also `if let`. However, you'll essentially always want to use `match` if you have two or more things to do.

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- Regions of memory you can store data in
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# Recall: Stack and Heap

- Regions of memory you can store data in
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  - Local to current function invocation
  - Data ideally has known size at compile time (or a reasonable upper bound)
  - Automatically (logically) freed when function exits
- Heap:
  - Persistent across function calls; not thread-local
  - Data can have unknown size
  - Some level of explicit memory management (gc, `malloc/free`, refcounting, dtors, etc..)

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```

- **Scope:** A region of code where a variable is (lexically) valid
- **Dropping:** The process of running a value's destructor
  - think: calling `free`, C++ `delete`, `delete []`

# Ownership Rules

- Each value in Rust has a single owner.
- There can only be one owner at a time.
- When the owner goes out of scope<sup>1</sup>, the value will be dropped.
- See also <https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/book/ch04-01-what-is-ownership.html>

---

<sup>1</sup>modulo shadowing

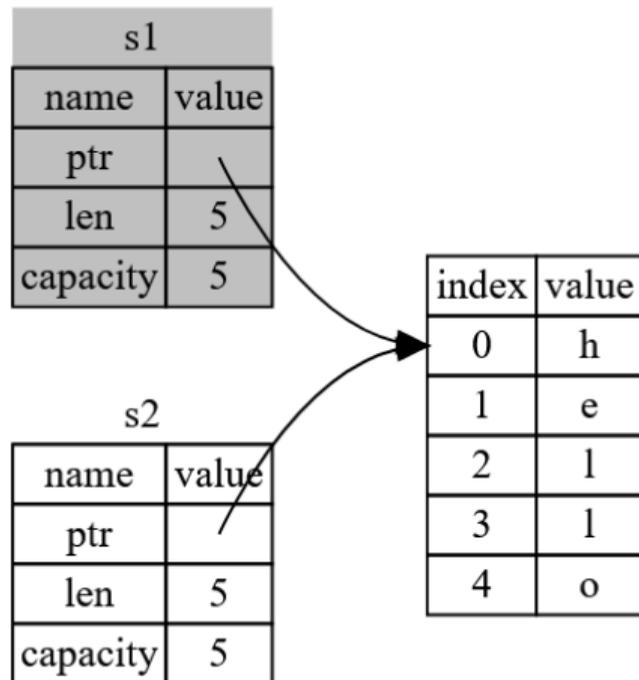
# Upcoming Examples

- Simple Move
- Move Into Function
- Move Out of Function
- Cloning

# Ownership Example: Simple Move

```
let s1 = String::from("hello");  
let s2 = s1; // `s2` now "owns" the data that `s1` used to refer to  
println!("{}", s1); // So this is an error  
  
let x = 5;  
let y = x; // `x` can be copied efficiently, so the data is just  
// copied into `y`  
println!("{}", x); // This is OK
```

# Ownership Example: Simple Move



# Ownership Example: Move Into Function

```
fn take_ownership(x: String) { println!("{}", x); }
fn makes_copy(x: i32)      { println!("{}", x); }

fn main() {
    let x = String::from("hello");
    take_ownership(x);
    println!("{}", x); // !

    let y = 5;
    makes_copy(y);
    println!("{}", y);
}
```

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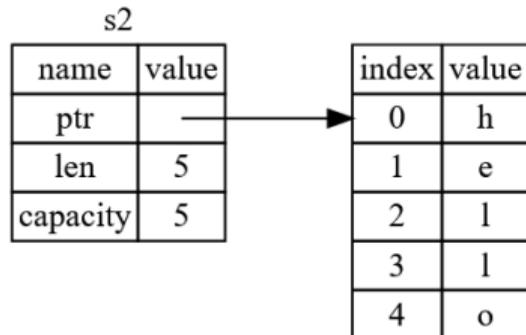
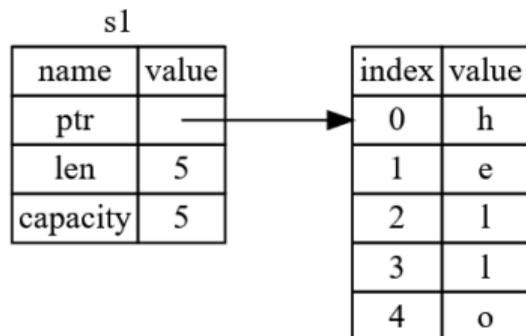
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# Ownership: Cloning

- What if you have data that can't be automatically copied, but you still want a copy?
- Solution: `.clone()` the data!

```
let s1 = String::from("hello");  
let s2 = s1.clone(); // different and distinct from s1
```

# Ownership: Cloning: Diagram



# When Can I Copy Or Clone?

- Copy: whenever a type implements the `Copy` trait!
- Clone: whenever a type implements the `Clone` trait!
- We'll get into traits more next lecture
- Important: the programmer implementing the struct decides if (and for `Clone`, how) these operations are allowed
  - Restriction on `Copy`: every field/variant must be `Copy`
  - If something is `Copy`, it must also be `Clone`

# Next Time

- References
- Function types
- Closures
- More advanced ownership semantics

# Homework

Homework 1 going out tonight on the course website!

- “Due” next Wednesday night
- Filling out starter code
- Hopefully not too bad, ask questions on Discord