

Rust Workshop

Day 3

Recap of Day 2

Structs

```
1 struct Person {
2     name: String,
3     age: u8,
4 }
5 fn main() {
6     let person = Person {
7         name: String::from("John"),
8         age: 35,
9     };
10    println!("Person's name: {}", person.name);
11 }
12 struct NonZeroByte(u8);
13 struct OnePossibleValue;
```

Methods

```
1  impl Rectangle {
2      fn area(&self) -> u32 {
3          self.width * self.height
4      }
5      fn new_square(size: u32) -> Self {
6          Self {
7              width: size,
8              height: size,
9          }
10     }
11 }
12 fn main() {
13     let area = rect.area();
14     let square = Rectangle::new_square(size);
15 }
```

Enums

```
1  enum Message {
2      Quit,
3      Move { x: i32, y: i32 },
4      Write(String),
5      ChangeColor(u8, u8, u8),
6  }
7  enum Option<T> {
8      None,
9      Some(T),
10 }
```

Pattern Matching

```
1 match msg {
2     Message::Quit => println!("bye bye!"),
3     Message::Write(text) => println!("{}", text),
4     Message::Move { x, y } => set_position(x, y),
5     _ => {},
6 }
7 if let Some(num) = option_of_num {
8     println!("number detected: {}", num);
9 }
10 while let Some(num) = vec_of_nums.pop() {
11     println!("removed from vec: {}", num);
12 }
```

Project Organization

The *crate* is the unit of compilation, `main.rs` or `lib.rs` the *root* of the crate.

Above the crate: `Cargo.toml` defines a *package* for the build system (`cargo`).

Inside the crate: Code is structured in a *tree* of *modules*.

Modules & Visibility

```
1 pub fn carrot() {}
2 fruits::orange()           // relative
3 crate::garden::fruits::orange() // absolute
4 super::garden::fruits::orange() // backwards
5 use std::collections::HashMap;
6 let m: HashMap; // type is now in scope
7 use std::collections::*;
```


Error Handling

```
1  enum AreaError {
2      BadSeparator,
3      BadInteger(String),
4  }
5  fn calculate_area(input: &str) -> Result<usize, AreaError> {
6      let (left, right) = match input.split_once('x') {
7          Some(t) => t,
8          None => return Err(AreaError::BadSeparator),
9      };
10     Ok(parse_int(left)? * parse_int(right)?)
11 }
12 fn main() {
13     match calculate_area(input) {
14         Ok(area) => println!("the area is: {}", area),
15         Err(AreaError::BadSeparator) => try_different_separator(),
16         _ => give_up(),
17     }
18 }
```

Advanced Features 1

book chapters 10 & 13

- generics
- traits
- lifetimes
- closures
- iterators

Generics

book chapter 10.1

```
1 let num: i32 = Some(42).unwrap();  
2 let s: &str = Some("hello").unwrap();
```

Can we write `unwrap` ourselves?

The Problem: Duplication

```
1 fn my_unwrap_i32(maybe_int: Option<i32>) -> i32 {  
2     maybe_int.unwrap()  
3 }  
4  
5 fn my_unwrap_i64(maybe_int: Option<i64>) -> i64 {  
6     maybe_int.unwrap()  
7 }
```

`void *`



we don't do that here

The Solution: Generics

```
1 fn my_unwrap<T>(maybe_int: Option<T>) -> T {  
2     maybe_int.unwrap()  
3 }  
4  
5 // compiler copies my_unwrap for each type  
6 my_unwrap(Some(42_i32));  
7 my_unwrap(Some(42_i64));
```

Generics in Structs

```
1 struct Point<T> {
2     x: T,
3     y: T,
4 }
5
6 fn main() {
7     let integer = Point { x: 5, y: 10 };
8     let float = Point { x: 1.0, y: 4.0 };
9     let mix = Point { x: 1.0, y: 10 };
10    //                ^^
11    // mismatched types: expected float
12 }
```


Multiple Generic Type Parameters

```
1 struct Point<T, U> {
2     x: T,
3     y: U,
4 }
5
6 fn main() {
7     let mix = Point { x: 1.0, y: 10 };
8     // inferred type: Point<f64, i32>
9 }
```

Generics in Enums

```
1  enum Result<T, E> {  
2      Ok(T),  
3      Err(E),  
4  }
```

Generics in Methods

```
1  struct Point<T> {  
2      x: T,  
3      y: T,  
4  }  
5  
6  impl<T> Point<T> {  
7      fn x(&self) -> &T {  
8          &self.x  
9      }  
10 }
```

Performance?

Generics are resolved at compile time.

Generic code is essentially copy-pasted for every type parameter.

There is zero runtime cost to using generics.

(just like C++ templates)

Traits

book chapter 10.2

What are Traits?

German: Eigenschaft, Merkmal

Traits fulfill the same purpose as interfaces in other languages.

They enable polymorphism by specifying shared behavior.

(Rust does not have OOP-style class inheritance.)

Problem: T is useless

```
1 fn find_largest<T>(list: &[T]) -> &T {  
2     let mut largest = &list[0];  
3  
4     for item in list {  
5         if item > largest {  
6             largest = item;  
7         }  
8     }  
9  
10    largest  
11 }
```

compiler says:

```
binary operation > cannot be applied to type &T
```

Define Shared Behavior

```
1 trait Comparable {  
2     fn is_greater_than(&self, other: &Self) -> bool;  
3 }
```


Implementation for Concrete Types

```
1  impl Comparable for i32 {  
2      fn is_greater_than(&self, other: &Self) -> bool {  
3          self > other  
4      }  
5  }  
6  impl Comparable for i64 {  
7      fn is_greater_than(&self, other: &Self) -> bool {  
8          self > other  
9      }  
10 }
```

Constrain Generic Type Parameters

```
1  fn find_largest<T: Comparable>(list: &[T]) -> &T {
2      let mut largest = &list[0];
3
4      for item in list {
5          if item.is_greater_than(largest) {
6              largest = item;
7          }
8      }
9
10     largest
11 }
```

Default Implementations

```
1 trait Comparable {  
2     fn is_greater_than(&self, other: &Self) -> bool;  
3  
4     fn is_less_than_or_equal(&self, other: &Self) -> bool {  
5         !self.is_greater_than(other)  
6     }  
7 }
```

Multiple Trait Bounds

```
1 fn find_largest<T: Comparable + Debug>(list: &[T]) -> &T {  
2     // ...  
3     println!("found {largest:?!}!");  
4     largest  
5 }
```

Where Clauses

```
1 // hard to read
2 fn some_function<T: Display + Clone, U: Clone + Debug>(t: &T, u: &U) -> i32 {
3
4 // much better
5 fn some_function<T, U>(t: &T, u: &U) -> i32
6 where
7     T: Display + Clone,
8     U: Clone + Debug,
9 {
```

Blanket Implementations

demo

```
1 use std::array;
2
3 fn main() {
4     println!("{:?}", 42.clone_10_times());
5     println!();
6     println!("{:?}", String::from("hello").clone_10_times());
7     println!();
8     println!("{:?}", vec![1, 2].clone_10_times());
9 }
10
11 trait Clone10Times: Sized {
12     fn clone_10_times(self) -> [Self; 10];
13 }
14
15 impl<T: Clone> Clone10Times for T {
16     fn clone_10_times(self) -> [Self; 10] {
17         array::from_fn(|_| self.clone())
18     }
19 }
```

Useful Traits

`Debug` string-representation for debugging

`Clone` & `Copy` can be copied (cheaply)

`Default` has default value (zero, empty string)

`PartialEq` & `Eq` can check for equality (`==` , `!=`)

`PartialOrd` & `Ord` can be ordered (`<` , `>` etc.)

`Hash` can compute hash (for `HashMap` etc.)

not derivable: `Display` , `From` & `TryFrom`

Lifetimes

book chapter 10.3

Reminder:

Rust forbids invalid references

```
1  fn main() {
2      let r;                               // -----+-- 'a
3                                          //      |
4      {                                    //      |
5          let x = 5;                       // -+-- 'b |
6          r = &x;                          // |   |
7      }                                    // -+   |
8                                          //      |
9      println!("r: {}", r);               //      |
10 }
```

Problem: Returning References

```
1 fn longest(x: &str, y: &str) -> &str {
2     if x.len() > y.len() {
3         x
4     } else {
5         y
6     }
7 }
```

compiler says:

missing lifetime specifier:
this function's return type contains a borrowed value,
but the signature does not say whether it is borrowed from `x` or `y`

Recommended Solution

```
1 fn longest(x: &str, y: &str) -> String {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x.clone()  
4     } else {  
5         y.clone()  
6     }  
7 }
```

Cloning the string results in an additional heap allocation.

This is perfectly fine in 99% of situations.

Lifetime Annotations

```
1 fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

Lifetime Annotations

```
1 fn longest<u>'a'2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

There is some lifetime `'a`.

Lifetime Annotations

```
1 fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

x lives at least for 'a .

Lifetime Annotations

```
1 fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

y lives at least for 'a .

Lifetime Annotations

```
1 fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

The returned reference lives at least for 'a .

Lifetime Annotations

```
1 fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

In essence:

The lifetime of the returned reference
is the shorter one of `x` and `y`'s lifetimes.

Limitations

```
1 fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {/**/}
2
3 fn main() {
4     let long;
5     let x = String::from("looooong string");
6     {
7         let y = String::from("short str");
8         long = longest(&x, &y);
9     }
10    println!("The longest string is: {}", long);
11 }
```

compiler says:

y does not live long enough

...but we know this would be OK at runtime.

Alternatively...

```
1 fn maybe_strip_prefix<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &str) -> &'a str {  
2     x.strip_prefix(y).unwrap_or(x)  
3 }
```

The lifetime of `y` has no relation to the lifetime of the return value.

LT Annotations in Structs

```
1 struct StoringBorrowedData<'number, 'text> {  
2     n: &'number i32,  
3     s: &'text str,  
4 }
```

Lifetime Elision Rules

(slightly simplified)

★ For a single parameter, its lifetime is assigned to all outputs.

```
1 fn foo(single_arg: &str) -> &str {}
2 // is the same as
3 fn foo<'a>(single_arg: &'a str) -> &'a str {}
```

★ For methods, the lifetime of `self` is assigned to all outputs.

```
1 impl Whatever {
2     fn foo(&self, second_arg: &str) -> &str {}
3     // is the same as
4     fn foo<'a>(&'a self, second_arg: &str) -> &'a str {}
5 }
```

The 'static' Lifetime

```
1  static GREETING: &'static str = "hello world";
2
3  fn main() {
4      let greeting: &'static str = "hello world";
5
6      let answer: &'static i32;
7      {
8          let heap_alloc = Box::new(42);
9          answer = Box::leak(heap_alloc); // explicit memory-leak
10     }
11     println!("answer: {}", answer);
12 }
```

Rust Easy Mode™

premature optimization is the root of all evil

```
1 fn longest(x: &str, y: &str) -> String {
2     if x.len() > y.len() {
3         x.clone()
4     } else {
5         y.clone()
6     }
7 }
```

Clone is your friend!

Closures

book chapter 13.1

What is a Closure?

Closures are inspired by functional programming, where anonymous functions are often created at runtime and passed around as arguments to and return values from other functions.

They are sometimes called *lambdas* by other languages.

Unlike regular functions, closures can capture values from the scope in which they were defined.

Basic Syntax

```
1  fn main() {
2      fn multiply(x: i32, y: i32) -> i32 { x * y }
3      let multiply = |x: i32, y: i32| -> i32 { x * y };
4      let multiply = |x: i32, y: i32|      { x * y };
5      let multiply = |x      , y      |      { x * y };
6      let multiply = |x      , y      |      x * y ;
7
8      // most concise:
9      let multiply = |x, y| x * y;
10 }
```

Closures as Arguments

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let x = 3;  
3  
4     let mut nums = vec![1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10];  
5  
6     nums.retain(|elem| elem % x == 0);  
7  
8     println!("remaining: {:?}", nums); // [3, 6, 9]  
9 }
```

Mutating the Environment

```
1  fn main() {
2      let mut nums = vec![1, 2, 3];
3
4      let mut push_seven = || nums.push(7);
5
6      for _ in 0..10 {
7          push_seven();
8      }
9
10     println!("nums: {:?}", nums);
11 }
```

Forcing a Move

actually a copy in this case

```
1 fn main() {
2     let x_squared;
3     {
4         let x = 3;
5         x_squared = || x * x; // `x` does not live long enough
6         x_squared = move || x * x; // ✓
7     }
8     println!("{}", x_squared());
9 }
```

What is the Type of a Closure?

```
1 let square: ??? = |x| x * x;
```

We don't need to write the type, but can we?

What is the Type of a Closure?

```
1 let square: fn(i32) -> i32 = |x| x * x;
```

This is a *function pointer* and occupies space in memory.

Doesn't work with capturing...

```
1 let x = 3;  
2 let times_x: fn(i32) -> i32 = |y| x * y;  
3 // ✗ error: expected fn pointer, found closure
```

Another thing that doesn't work

```
1 let x = 3;  
2 let mut times_x = |y| x * y;  
3  
4 let x = 5;  
5 times_x = |y| x * y;
```

mismatched types

expected closure, found a different closure

= note: no two closures, even if identical, have the same type

The Fn -Traits

Trait	Informal Meaning	Connection to Ownership Rules
<code>Fn</code>	can be called and shared without restriction	captures only immutable references
<code>FnMut</code>	can be called many times but not shared	mutates captured values
<code>FnOnce</code>	can be called only once	moves captured values into closure

Closures have *unnamable* types.
We can only refer to them via the traits they implement.

The Fn -Traits

```
1 let mut text_buffer = String::from("To whom it may concern\n\n");
2
3 // implements `Fn() -> usize`
4 let buf_len = || text_buffer.len();
5
6 // implements `FnMut(&str)`
7 let mut append_to_buf = |s| text_buffer.push_str(s);
8
9 // implements `FnOnce()`
10 let print_and_drop_buf = move || println!("{text_buffer}");
```

Note: `Fn` is a "superset" of `FnMut`, which in turn is a "superset" of `FnOnce`.

Fn-Trait Example: `Vec::retain`

demo

```

1  fn main() {
2      let x = 3;
3
4      let mut nums: Vec<_> = (1..=16).collect();
5
6      my_retain(&mut nums, |elem| elem % x == 0);
7
8      println!("remaining: {:?}", nums);
9  }
10
11 fn my_retain<P>(nums: &mut Vec<i32>, predicate: P)
12 where
13     P: Fn(i32) -> bool,
14 {
15     for i in (0..nums.len()).rev() {
16         if !predicate(nums[i]) {
17             nums.remove(i);
18         }
19     }
20 }

```

Iterators

book chapter 13.2

Processing a Series of Items

```
1 trait Iterator {  
2     type Item; // associated type (new syntax)  
3     fn next(&mut self) -> Option<Self::Item>;  
4 }
```

For a type to be an iterator, it needs to...

- define the type of the items it iterates over.
- provide a method to get the next item in the series.


```
1 // manually calling next
2
3 fn main() {
4     let v = vec!['a', 'b'];
5
6     let mut iter = v.into_iter();
7
8     // a
9     let item = iter.next().unwrap();
10    println!("next item: {}", item);
11
12    // b
13    let item = iter.next().unwrap();
14    println!("next item: {}", item);
15
16    // crash
17    let item = iter.next().unwrap();
18    println!("next item: {}", item);
19 }
```

Before

```
fn main() {
    let v = vec!['a', 'b'];

    let mut iter = v.into_iter();

    loop {
        let item = iter.next();
        if item.is_none() {
            break;
        }
        let item: char = item.unwrap();
        println!("next item: {}", item);
    }
}
```

After

```
fn main() {
    let v = vec!['a', 'b'];

    for item in v {
        println!("next item: {}", item);
    }
}
```

Iteration and Borrowing

```
1 let nums = vec![1, 2, 3];
2
3 for elem: i32 in nums {
4     // elem is deallocated
5 }
6 // nums is destroyed
7
8 for elem: &i32 in nums.iter() {
9     // can only read from elem
10 }
11 // nums is still intact
12
13 for elem: &mut i32 in nums.iter_mut() {
14     // can modify value of elem
15 }
16 // nums is still intact
```

Writing an Iterator

demo

```
1 struct MyRange {
2     start: i32,
3     end: i32,
4 }
5
6 impl Iterator for MyRange {
7     type Item = i32;
8
9     fn next(&mut self) -> Option<Self::Item> {
10         if self.start >= self.end {
11             return None;
12         }
13         let result = self.start;
14         self.start += 1;
15         Some(result)
16     }
17 }
18
19 fn my_range(start: i32, end: i32) -> MyRange {
20     MyRange { start, end }
21 }
```

Interlude: Turbofish

check out <https://turbo.fish> – it's fun

```
1 fn main() {
2     println!("{}", "00123".parse().unwrap()); // ✗
3     // type annotations needed
4     // consider specifying the generic argument: `::<F>`
5
6     println!("{}", "00123".parse::i32(>().unwrap());
7
8     // why the double colon? why not this:
9     println!("{}", "00123".parse<i32>().unwrap());
10    // => syntax ambiguity with comparison operators `\_(\_)\_/_`
11 }
12
13 // for reference, from the standard library:
14 impl str {
15     fn parse<F: FromStr>(&self) -> Result<F, <F as FromStr>::Err>;
16 }
```

Iterator Adapters

demo

```
1 pub fn get_solution(input: &str) -> u32 {
2     input
3     .split("\n\n")
4     .map(|elf| elf.lines().map(|line| line.parse::<u32>().unwrap()).sum())
5     .max()
6     .unwrap()
7 }
```


Performance?

Iterators and their adapters are heavily optimized.
Sometimes, they are even faster than hand-coded loops.

Rule of Thumb:

Do not pick one over the other based on performance speculations.
If performance really matters, you need to benchmark.

Hint for Practice Session

```
1 // a test that ensures an expected panic occurs
2 #[test]
3 #[should_panic]
4 fn expected_panic_occurs() {
5     let v = vec![1, 2, 3];
6     v[10];
7 }
```

Practice

`rust-exercises/day_3/README.md`
