

Comparative Programming Languages Prof. Alex Ufkes

Topic 11: Ownership & Lifetime in Rust

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Course Administration (CCPS)

- Getting closer! Two more lectures.
- Don't forget about the assignments!

Shadowing **–VS–** Mutating

Rust is **VERY** strongly typed:

```
Command Prompt
                                                                                              \times\BoxC:\ RustCode>rustc main.rs
error[E0277]: cannot add a float to an integer --> main.rs:2:16
         let r1 = 3 + 4.0;^ no implementation for `{integer} + {float}`
  = help: the trait `std::ops::Add<{floatly' is not implomanted for 'fintegonl'
                                           <sup>®</sup> main.rs
                                                      \boldsymbol{\times}error: aborting due to previous erro
                                                     fn main() \{\mathbf{1}For more information about this erro
                                                            let r1 = 3 + 4.0;\overline{2}println!("r1: {}", r1);
                                                 \overline{\mathbf{3}}C:\_RustCode>_
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```
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```
<sup>®</sup> main.rs
         \boldsymbol{\mathsf{x}}fn main()
         ₹
               let temp = 33;\sqrt{4}5
              let state = if temp < 0 \{ "Frozen" }
    \epsilonelse if temp < 100 { "Liquid" }
                                else { "Boiling" };
    \, \,\mathcal{G}println!("Water is \{\}!", state);
   10
       \rightarrow11
```


Moving on….

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Ownership

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Ownership

Arguably Rust's most unique feature:

- In C, the programmer is responsible for allocating and freeing heap memory. Memory leaks common!
- In Java, Smalltalk, Python, Elixir, Haskell, garbage collector periodically looks for unused memory and frees it.
- Rust takes a third approach: A system of ownership with rules checked at compile time.
	- \circ Thus, the program is not slowed at run-time

Reminder: Stack VS Heap

Stack:

- Last in, first out
- Push/pop stack frames is fast
- Data has known, fixed size.

Heap:

- Less organized
- Slower access, follow pointers
- Data size can be unknown
- If we dynamically allocate memory in C/C++, the pointer goes on the stack, the memory itself is in the heap.
- Heap memory is allocated by the OS at the request of the program.
- Stack memory (some fixed amount) managed by the program, no need to involve the OS.

Ownership

Three rules:

- 1. Each value in Rust has a variable that's called its *owner*.
- 2. There can only be one owner at a time.
- 3. When the owner goes out of scope, the value is dropped.

Scope in Rust

- Primitives stored on the stack behave as per usual.
- How does Rust clean up data stored on the heap?
- Consider Strings A complex type stored on the heap.

Strings

fn main() // String literals like this are immutable! $let s1 = "Hello";$ // String declared thusly can be mutable: let mut $s2 = String::from("Hello")$; $s2.push_str(", World!");$ println!(" $\{\}$ ", s1); println! $("{}'$, s2);

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- String literals are different from regular strings.
- Their size is fixed, encoded directly into the executable.
- Strings not defined as a literal might have unknown size
- They are stored on the heap.

Governmanu From pr

- $C:\$ RustCode>rustc main.rs
- C:_RustCode>main Hello Hello, World!

 \Box

Heap Strings

- Memory for string requested at run time.
- Memory must be returned to the OS when we're done with the string.

What happens when we no longer need that string?

- Without garbage collection, we must identify when memory is no longer being used and free it explicitly.
- This has historically been a difficult programming problem.
- Too early, variables still in scope become invalid. Too late, waste memory. Do it twice by accident? Also a problem.
- We need to pair one **allocate()** to one **free()**.

In Rust, memory is automatically returned when the variable that *owns* it leaves scope.

In Rust, memory is automatically returned when the variable that owns it leaves scope.

What about having multiple references to a single object? Freeing after one leaves scope could invalidates the others.

```
public static void main(String[] args)
                                              4 BlueJ: Terminal Window -...
                                                                             \mathcal{N}Options
    String s1 = new String("Hello");
                                              true
    String s2 = s1;
    String s3 = s2;
                                             true
    System.out.println(s1 == s2);
    System.out.println(s2 == s3);
                                          Three references, one object!
```
But Remember!

Ownership - Three Rules:

- 1. Each value in Rust has a variable that's called its *owner*.
- 2. There can only be one owner at a time.
- 3. When the owner goes out of scope, the value is dropped.

There can only be one!

In Rust, memory is automatically returned when the variable that owns it leaves scope.

- When a variable goes out of scope, Rust calls a special function automatically called **drop()**
- This function is called at the closing **}**
- What happens if we have multiple variables interacting with the same data?

- With primitives, we get two separate variables stored in memory (stack)
- **x** and **y** are separate changing one does not affect the other
- This is typical, and efficient

 $s1$

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- Stack data copied; heap data is not.
- Copying heap data is more expensive.
- This is typical in most imperative languages.
- We can still potentially free data twice
- We can still potentially invalidate other references

1. Each value in Rust has a variable that's called its *owner*.

2. There can only be one owner at a time.

3. When the owner goes out of scope, the value is dropped.

1. Each value in Rust has a variable that's called its *owner*.

2. There can only be one owner at a time.

3. When the owner goes out of scope, the value is dropped.

```
fn main()let s1 = String::from("Hello");
    let s2 = s1;
    println!("{}', s2);
```
- When we say **let s2=s1**, s1 becomes invalid.
- Thus, when it leaves scope, memory is not freed.
- We can no longer use s1!

$$
\begin{array}{c}\n\text{fn main()} \\
\{\n\begin{array}{c}\n\text{let s1 = String::from("Hello");} \\
\text{let s2 = s1;} \\
\end{array}\n\end{array}
$$

In Rust, we say s1 gets *moved* to s2

GSI Command Prompt

```
C:\_RustCode>rustc main.rs
                                    error[E0382]: use of moved value: `s1`
                                    \rightarrow main.rs:6:20
                                         let s2 = s1;
                                            -- value moved here
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```
clone()

Like most languages, Rust can clone:

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = String::from("Hello");
    let s2 = s1.close();println!("{\}", s1);
    println!("{}', s2);
}
```


clone()

Like most languages, Rust can clone:

```
Command Prompt
fn main()
                                           C:\_\ RustCode>rustc main.rs
{
    let s1 = String::from("Hello");C:\_\ RustCode>main
    let s2 = s1.close();Hello
                                           Hello
    println!("{\}", s1);
                                           C:\_RustCode>
    println!("{}', s2);
}
```
Ownership and Functions

Passing an argument moves or copies, just like assignment:

```
fn main()
                                      Command Prompt
                                     C:\ RustCode>rustc main.rs
    let s = String::from("Weird");error[E0382]: use of moved value: `s`
                                      -- main.rs: 7:20stringPass(s);stringPass(s);println!("{}', s);
                                                         - value moved here
                                             println!("{\}", s);
                                                             ^ value used here after move
  stringPass (word: String)
fn
                                       = note: move occurs because `s` has type `std::string
    println!(''\{\}''), word);
                                      which does not implement the `Copy` trait
```
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Ownership and Functions

Passing an argument moves or copies, just like assignment:

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```
fn main()• Ownership moved from s to word!
      let s = String::from("Weird");• s is now invalid!
                                         • This is very different from any other 
      stringPass(s);language we're used to.
      println!("{}', s);
                                         • This doesn't happen with primitives 
                                           because they will simply be copied.
                                           We get a hint:
    stringPass (word: String)
  fn
= note: move occurs because `s` has type `std::string::String`
```
hich does not implement the `Copy` trait

Returning Ownership

fn main()

```
let mut s = String::from("Weird");
```

```
s = string_{pass}(s);
```

```
println!("{\}", s);
```

```
fn string_pass (word: String) -> String
   println!("{}', word);
   word
```
- Ownership moved from **s** to **word** and back to **s**
- **s** is invalid when we move to **word**
- **word** is invalid when moved to **s**
- Allowed because **s** is mutable.
- When string_pass reaches }, **word** has already been moved to **s**
- Thus **word** is invalid and the string on the heap isn't freed.

Returning Ownership

fn main()

```
let mut s = String::from("Weird");
```

```
s = string_{pass}(s);
```

```
println!("{\}", s);
```

```
fn string_pass (word: String) -> String
{
    println!("{}', word);
    word
}
```
Command Prompt

```
C:\RustCode>rustc main.rs
```

```
C:\_\ RustCode>main
Weird
Weird
```

```
C:\Leftrightarrow RustCode>
```
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}

Returning Ownership

Limiting. Forced to use return value for ownership.

```
fn main()
                                                  • s1 moves to word, word moves to s2
                                                   • Return a tuple consisting of the 
        let s1 = String::from("Weird");length of word, and word itself.
        let (len, s2) = string len(s1);
                                                   len() function returns length of array.
        println!("{}' has \} characters", s2, len);
                                                       Command Prompt
                                                       C:\RustCode>rustc main.rs
   fn string_len (word: String) -> (usize, String)
                                                       C:\RustCode>main
                                                       Weird has 5 characters
        (word.length), word)
                                                       C:\_RustCode>
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```
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Ownership: Moving VS *Borrowing*

Instead of returning a tuple, pass a reference:

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = String::from("Weird");println!("{}' has {}' characters", s1, string_len(&s1));
}
                                                    • This looks like C++
fn string_len (word: &String) -> usize
                                                    • word is now a reference to s1
{
                                                    • What about ownership?
    word.len()
                                                    • What's happening in memory?
}
```
Ownership: Moving VS *Borrowing*

Ownership: Moving VS *Borrowing*

Unlike C++, we can't modify something we're borrowing:

use `&mut String` here to make mutable

Borrowing Rules

Can only have <u>one</u> mutable borrow at a time:

When the first mutable borrow goes out of scope, we can borrow again

Borrowing Rules

Can only have one mutable borrow at a time:

When the first mutable borrow goes out of scope, we can borrow again

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When the first mutable borrow goes out of scope, we can borrow again

```
fn main()
                                                Command Prompt
                                               C:\_RustCode>rustc main.rs
    let mut s1 = String::from("Weird");
    s1. push_str(" test1");C:\RustCode>main
                                               Weird test1 test2
    let r3 = 8mut s1;C:\_RustCode>
    r3.push_str(" test2 ")
                                           Here, r3 is already a reference. 
    println!("{}', r3);
                                             We're not borrowing again.
```
Borrowing Rules

Using an immutably borrowed value prevents mutable borrow:

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Borrowing Rules: In Short

In any given scope, only ONE of the following can be true:

- 1. We can have a single mutable borrow
- 2. We can have any number of immutable borrows

These restrictions keep mutation under control

Slices

Reference to a subset of an array

Slices, Arguments, Functions

```
fn main()
                                             • Reminder: indexes must be usize
   let nums = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8];
                                           • Pass in reference to array
   let subset = get\_slice(Rnums, 1, 5);Return slice (reference to subarray)
                                              • Array only exists once in memory
   for n in subset.iter() {
                                              • subset and nums point to different 
        print!("{} ", n);
                                              parts of the same memory.
fn get_slice(a: &[i32], s: usize, e: usize) -> &[i32]&a[s..e]
```
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String Slices

… are a little bit different.

String Slice Type

```
• & Str is a reference to a string slice
fn main()
                                                • &String is a reference to a String
                                                   • String VS string slice: different types
    let msg = String::from("Hello, World!");Other than that, the function works
   let slc = get\_slice(\& msg, 0, 5);the same as with numeric arrays.
                                                  • A string slice is effectively a read-
    println!("{}', slc);
                                                   only view of a String.
fn get_slice (w: & String, s: usize, e: usize) \rightarrow & str
   \&w[s..e]
```
String Slice Type

Better to do this:

String Literals

- String literals are different from regular strings.
- **Recall:** • Their size is fixed, *encoded directly into the executable*.
	- They are immutable.

In fact, string literals are *slices***:**

Lifetime

Rust Features

Memory Safety:

- *Rust is designed to be memory safe*
- *Null or dangling pointers are not permitted.*

Dangling References

Rust prevents them:

```
fn main()
                                            dangle()
    let ref_to</u>nothing = dangle();• Create String s
}
                                               • Return a reference to it
                                               s goes out of scope when
   dangle() \rightarrow &String
fn.
                                               dangle function ends.
                                               What happens to the
    let s = String::from("Hello");
                                               reference that was returned?
    &s
}
```
Dangling References

Rust prevents them:

```
fn main()
                                  Command Prompt
                                                                                     \Box\times:\ RustCode>rustc main.rs
                                  error[E0106]: missing lifetime specifier
    let ref to nothing = dang
                                   - \frac{1}{2} main rs:6:16
}
                                                                           Lifetime? 
                                      fn dangle() \rightarrow & String
                                  6
                                                      ^ expected lifetime parameter
   dangle() \rightarrow &= help: this function's return type contains a bo
    let s = String::from("Hel)rrowed value, but there is no value for it to be bo
    &s
                                  rrowed from
                                    = help: consider giving it a 'static lifetime
                                  error: aborting due to previous error
```
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Lifetime is a very distinct feature of Rust:

Every reference in Rust has *lifetime*

The lifetime of a reference is the scope for which that reference is valid.

Lifetimes are often implicit and inferred, but can be defined explicitly

Just like variable types!

Example

The Borrow Checker

- The Rust compiler has a "Borrow Checker" that compares scope to determine if borrows are valid
- If one variable borrows another, the variable being borrowed must have a lifetime at least as long as the variable doing the borrowing.

What happens if the borrow checker gets confused?

Consider:

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= help: this function's return type contains a borrowe value, but the signature does not say whether it is bo prowed from `x` or `y`

The Borrow Checker can't determine lifetime of the return value, because it's not clear which input argument the return value will borrow from.

More generally: The borrow checker follows certain patterns when determining lifetime. If none of its patterns apply, we get a lifetime error.

```
fn main()
```
}

```
let s1 = "abcde";let s2 = "abc";
```

```
println!("{}', longest(s1, s2));
```

```
fn longest (x: 8str, y: 8str) \rightarrow 8str {
    if x.length() > y.length() { x }
    else \{ y \}
```
- We as programmers know that this function is perfectly safe.
- **x**, **y** refer to string literals which live the entire duration of the program.
- **HOWEVER**
- What's obvious to us is not necessarily obvious to the compiler.
- Thus, we get compile errors.

It even happens when the return reference is fixed:

Lifetime Annotation Syntax

When the borrow checker is confused (for whatever reason), we must be specific:

```
fn main()Specify generic lifetime
    let s1 = "abcde":let s2 = "abc";
                                               • Similar to generic type: <T>
                                              • <'a> specifies a generic lifetime, a
    println!("{}', longest(s1, s2));
                                              • &'a says this reference has lifetime a
}
                                                          Command Prompt
  longes < a> (x & a str, y: & a str) ->
fn
                                               &'a str
    if x.length \rightarrow y.length() \{ x \}C:\RustCode>main
    else \{ y \}labcde
}
                                                          C:\ RustCode>
```


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Consider

```
fn main()
       let s1 = "abc";let s2 = "abcde";
           let s3 = \text{longest}(s1, s2);println!("{}', s3);
    fn longest<'a> (x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str
       if x.length() > y.length() { x }else \{ y \}© Alex Ufkes, 2020, 2022 66
```
- Lifetime of **s1** is different from **s2** and **s3**.
- Lifetime **'a** is the scope in which **x** and **y** are both valid. I.e., when **s1** and **s2** are valid.
- When we last use **s3**, **s1** and **s2** are valid.
- Thus, the borrow checker accepts this code.
- **s3** references something that is valid until after the last time **s3** is used.

Now This:

Lifetime Considerations

In general, we need some sort of lifetime indication any time we're passing in more than one reference and returning a reference.

 $x.length() + y.length()$

As is this

}

Lifetime Considerations

Originally, every reference required a lifetime specifier.

The Rust developers noticed some cases of reference passing were always the same, and thus added them as patterns for the compiler to recognize without requiring explicit lifetime annotations.

fn sum_len $(x: 8str, y: 8str)$ -> usize $x.length() + y.length()$

fn first $(x: 8str) \rightarrow 8str$ X

Lifetime Considerations

The compiler first checks its list of known patterns

If none are found, we get a compile error such as we've been seeing

What are these patterns?

Lifetime Inference Rules

1. The compiler first assigns a *different* lifetime to each reference input parameter.

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- 1. The compiler first assigns a *different* lifetime to each reference input parameter.
- 2. If there is *one* input reference parameter, it is assigned the same lifetime as any output references.
- 3. If there are multiple input references, but one of them is **&self**, then the output references have the same lifetime as **&self**.

If, after applying these rules, there are still references *without* a lifetime specifier, we get a compile error.

If, after applying these rules, there are still references without a lifetime specifier, we get a compile error.

fn sum_len $(x: 8str, y: 8str)$ -> usize $x.length() + y.length()$

fn first $(x: 8str) \rightarrow 8str$ X

We don't get errors here, because applying rules 1 and 2 results in all references having annotated lifetimes

We get an error here, because even after applying all three rules, we still don't have a lifetime annotation for the output:

- 1. The compiler first assigns a *different* lifetime to each reference input parameter.
- 2. If there is *one* input reference parameter, it is assigned the same lifetime as any output references.
- 3. If there are multiple input references, but one of them is **&self**, then the output references have the same lifetime as **&self**.

Rule 1 applies, Rules 2 and 3 do not

We get an error here, because even after applying all three rules, we still don't have a lifetime annotation for the output:

Static Lifetime

- A special lifetime that is simply the duration of the program.
- String literals have a static lifetime.
- Makes sense, they're not on the heap but embedded in the executable

Fantastic Rust Reference:

https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/title-page.html

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