

# C/CPS 506

**Comparative Programming Languages**

**Prof. Alex Ufkes**

**Topic 11:** Ownership & Lifetime in Rust

# Notice!









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# Course Administration (CCPS)

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  CCPS506 - Comparative Programming La...      Alexander Ufkes 

Content Grades Assessment ▾ Communication ▾ Resources ▾ Classlist Course Admin

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







# Previously

## Shadowing –VS– Mutating

```
main.rs x
1 fn main() {
2     let x = 3;
3     let x = x + 1;
4     let x = 3.1415;
5     println!("x: {}", x);
6 }
```

Shadowing allows us  
to change type

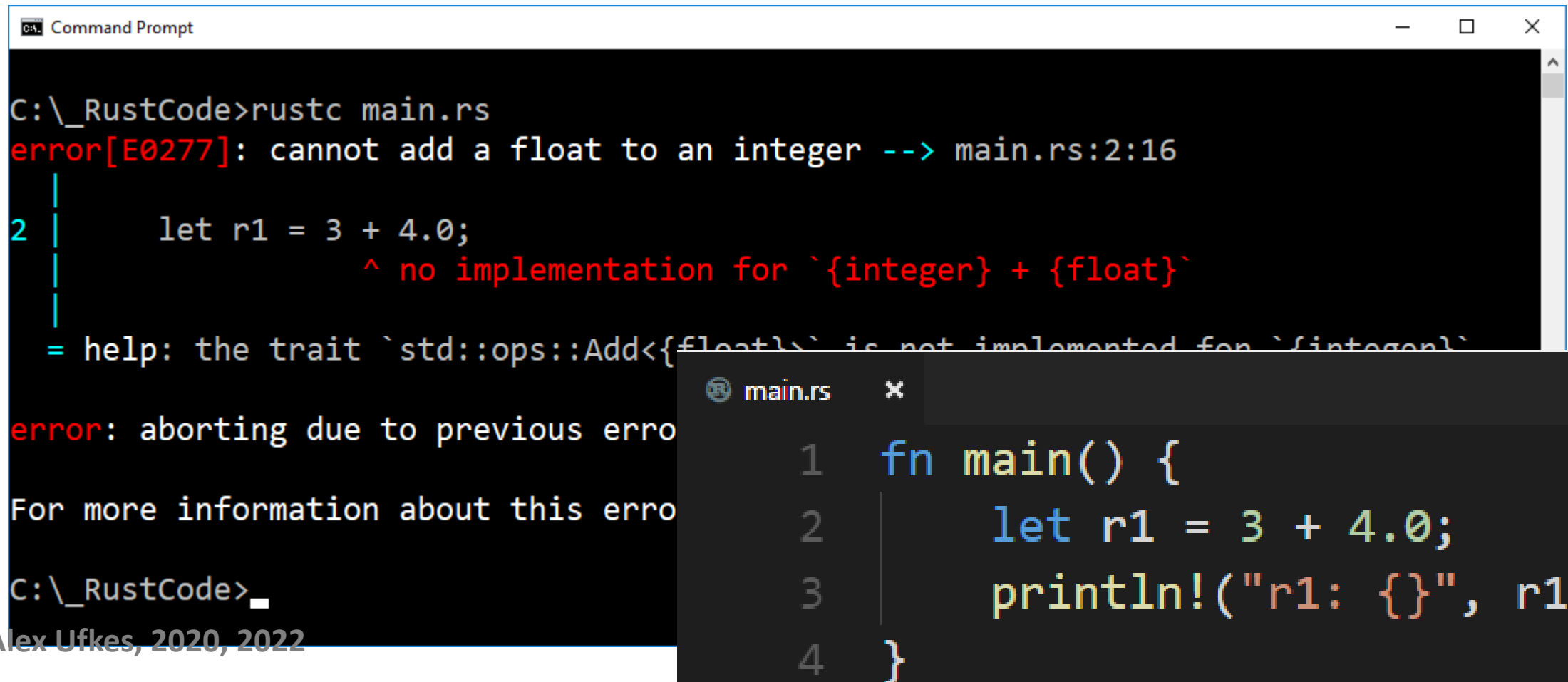
```
main.rs x
1 fn main() {
2     let mut x = 3;
3     x = x + 1;
4     x = 3.1415;
5     println!("x: {}", x);
6 }
```

Mutating  
does not!

```
Command Prompt
C:\_RustCode>rustc main.rs
error[E0308]: mismatched types
--> main.rs:4:9
4 |         x = 3.1415;
  |         ^^^^^^ expected integral variable,
  |         found floating-point variable
```

# Previously

Rust is **VERY** strongly typed:



The image shows a Windows Command Prompt window with a dark background. The prompt is at `C:\_RustCode>`. The command `rustc main.rs` has been executed, resulting in a red error message: `error[E0277]: cannot add a float to an integer --> main.rs:2:16`. Below the error, a vertical line points to line 2 of the code: `let r1 = 3 + 4.0;`. A red caret points to the `+` operator, with the message `^ no implementation for `{integer} + {float}``. Below this, a help message is partially visible: `= help: the trait `std::ops::Add<f64>` is not implemented for `{integer}``. The prompt then shows `error: aborting due to previous error` and `For more information about this error`. The prompt ends with `C:\_RustCode>`.

Overlaid on the bottom right is a code editor window titled `main.rs`. It shows the following code:

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let r1 = 3 + 4.0;  
3     println!("r1: {}", r1);  
4 }
```

# Previously

```
main.rs x
1 fn main()
2 {
3     print_val (5);
4     print_two_vals (5, 3);
5 }
6
7 fn print_val (n: i32)
8 {
9     println!("{}", n);
10 }
11
12 fn print_two_vals (n1: i32, n2: f64)
13 {
14     println!("{}", n1, n2);
15 }
```

```
Command Prompt
C:\_RustCode>rustc main.rs
error[E0308]: mismatched types
  --> main.rs:4:24
   |
4  |     print_two_vals (5, 3);
   |                      ^ expected f64,
   | found integral variable
   |
   = note: expected type `f64`
           found type `{integer}`

error: aborting due to previous error

For more information about this error, try
`rustc --explain E0308`.
```

# Previously

---

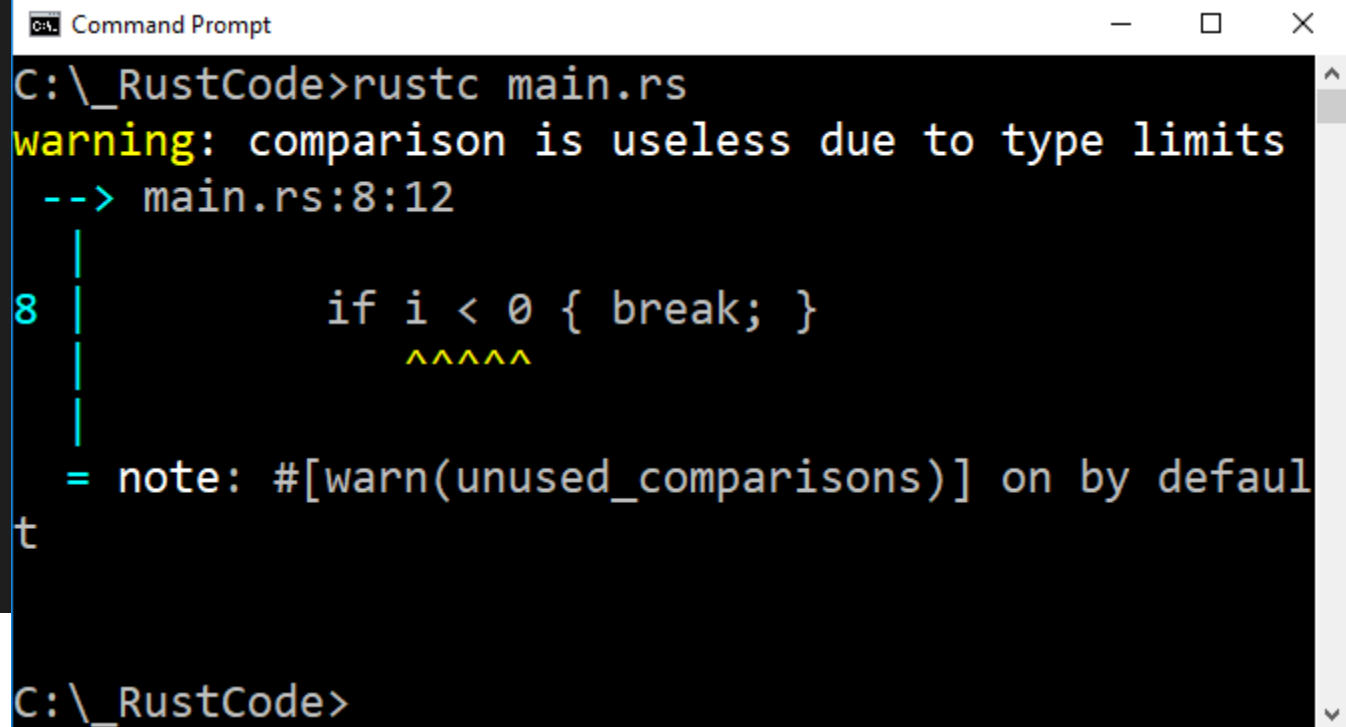
```
main.rs x
1 fn main()
2 {
3     let temp = 33;
4
5     let state = if temp < 0 { "Frozen" }
6                 else if temp < 100 { "Liquid" }
7                 else { "Boiling" };
8
9     println!("Water is {}", state);
10 }
11
```



# Previously

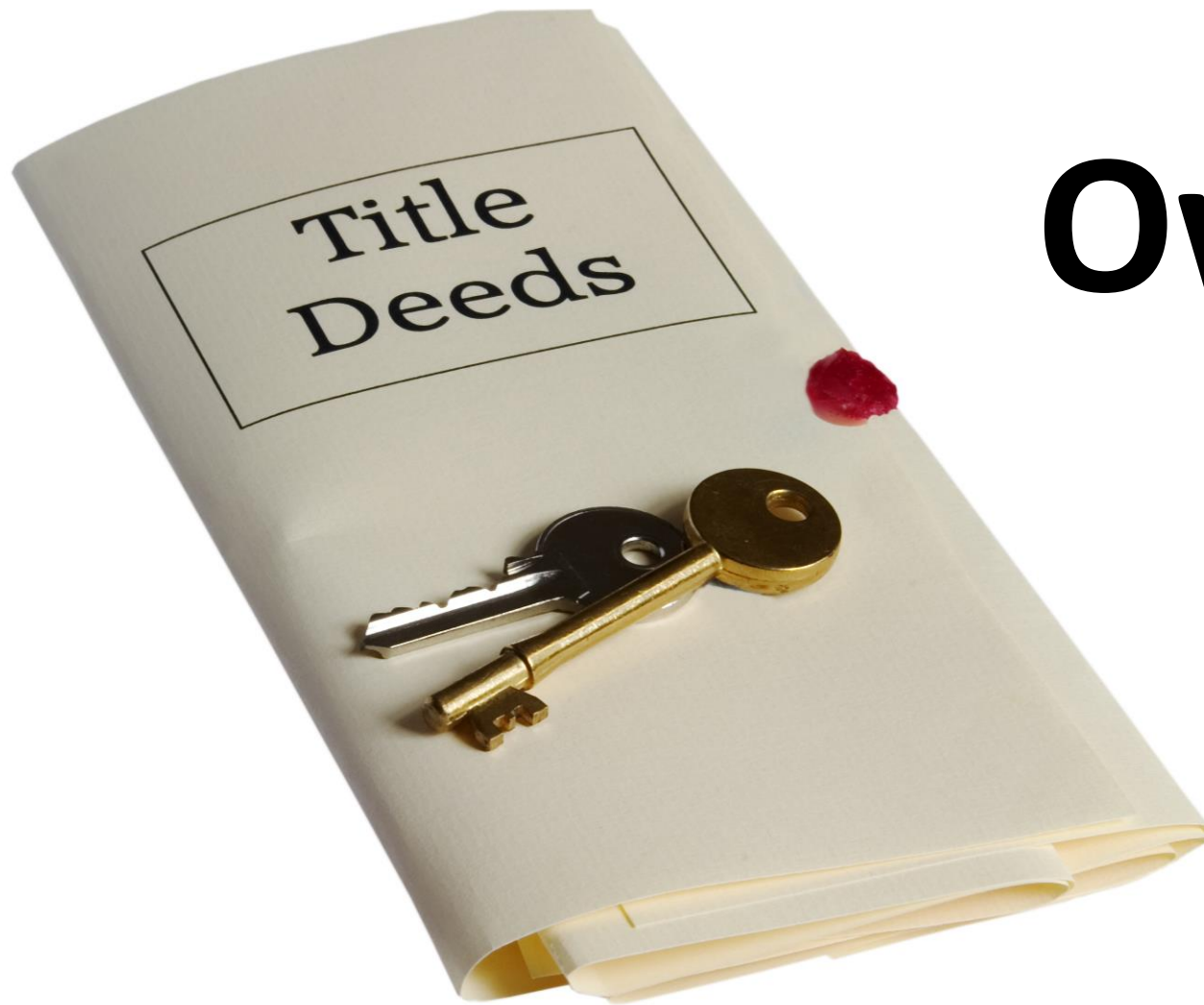
```
fn main()
{
    let nums = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10];
    let mut i = 9;

    loop
    {
        if i < 0 { break; }
        print!("{}", nums[i]);
        i -= 1;
    }
    print!("\nLIFTOFF!\n");
}
```



```
Command Prompt
C:\_RustCode>rustc main.rs
warning: comparison is useless due to type limits
--> main.rs:8:12
8 |         if i < 0 { break; }
  |         ^^^^^
= note: #[warn(unused_comparisons)] on by default
C:\_RustCode>
```

# Moving on....



# Ownership



# 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.
  - 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) belongs to the program, no need to invoke 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

---

This is normal, nothing new.

```
x
fn main()
{
    // s not valid here, not yet declared
    let s = "hello"; // s is valid from this point forward
    // do stuff with s
} // this scope is now over, s is no longer valid
```

- 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);
}
```

- 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.

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

C:\_RustCode>main
Hello
Hello, World!
```

# Heap Strings

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

- Calling `String::from` makes a memory request.
- Once again, this is normal behavior. In Java we would say: `String s = new String("Hello");` to accomplish the same.

```
x
fn main()
{
    let mut s = String::from("Hello");

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

What happens when we no longer need that 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()**.

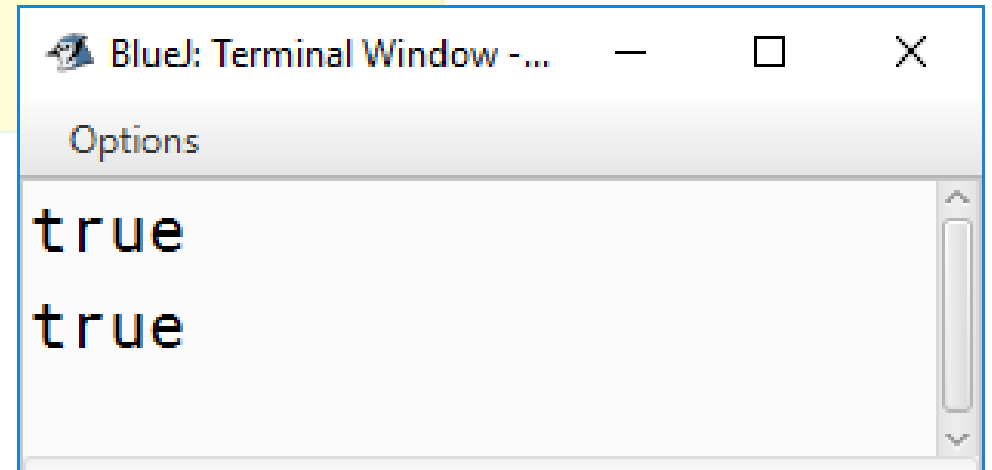
In Rust, memory is automatically returned when the variable that ***owns*** it leaves scope.

*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 invalidates the others. In Java:

```
public static void main(String[] args)
{
    String s1 = new String("Hello");
    String s2 = s1;
    String s3 = s2;

    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?

```
fn main()
{
    let x = 5;
    let y = x;
}
```

- 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

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = String::from("Hello");
    let s2 = s1;
}
```

On the stack

s1

name	value
ptr	→
len	5
capacity	5

index	value
0	h
1	e
2	l
3	l
4	o

On the heap

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = String::from("Hello");
    let s2 = s1; ←
}
```

s1

name	value
ptr	
len	5
capacity	5

s2

name	value
ptr	
len	5
capacity	5

index	value
0	h
1	e
2	l
3	l
4	o

- 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.

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = String::from
    let s2 = s1;

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

Command Prompt

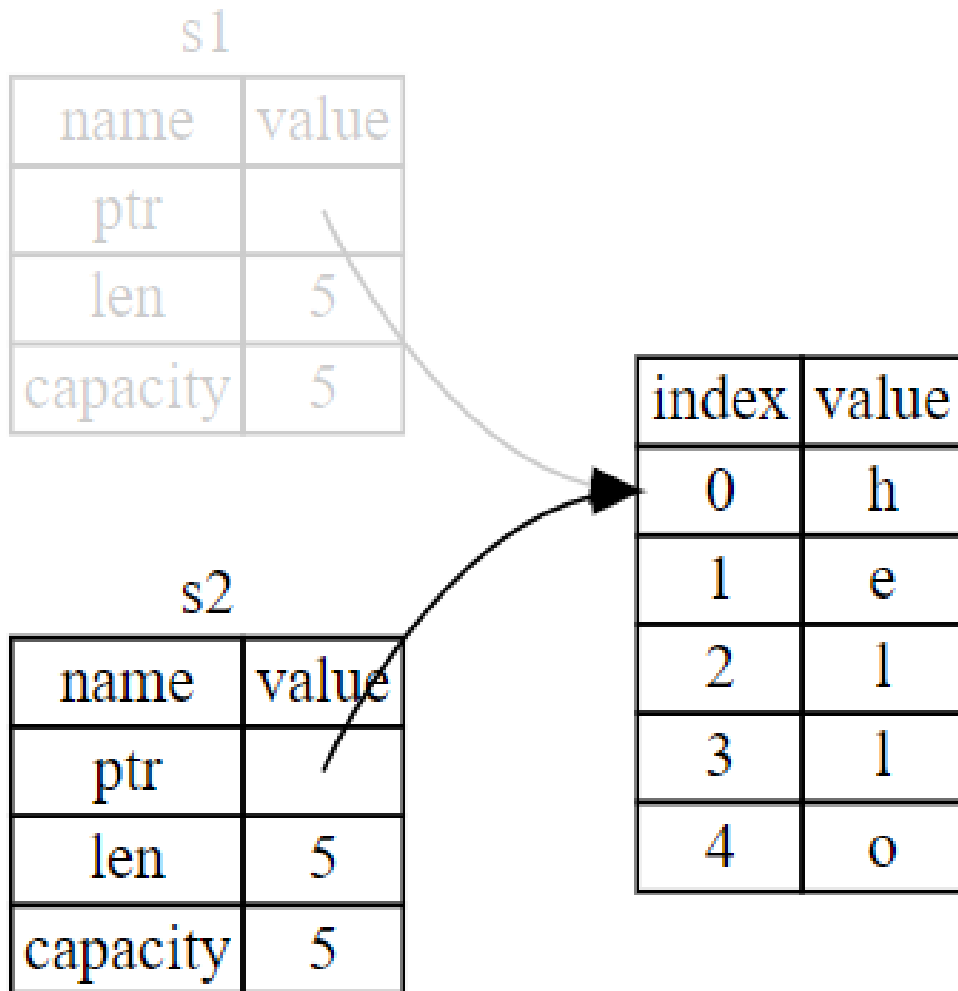
```
C:\_RustCode>rustc main.rs
error[E0382]: use of moved value: `s1`
--> main.rs:6:20
4 |         let s2 = s1;
  |         -- value moved here
5 |
6 |         println!("{}", s1);
  |                        ^^ value used here after move
```

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!("{}", 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`!



```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = String::from("Hello");
    let s2 = s1;
}
```

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

```
Command Prompt

C:\_RustCode>rustc main.rs
error[E0382]: use of moved value: `s1`
  --> main.rs:6:20
4 |     let s2 = s1;
  |     -- value moved here
5 |
6 |     println!("{}", s1);
```



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

Different from a shallow copy, since the old reference is invalidated.

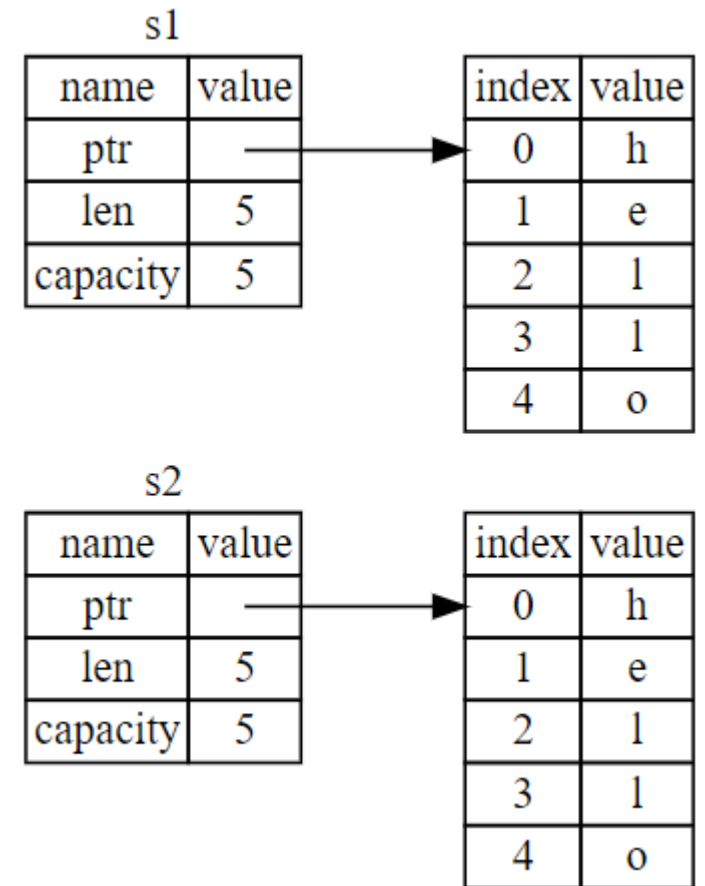
Only one reference can free the heap memory.

# clone()

Like most languages, Rust can clone:

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = String::from("Hello");
    let s2 = s1.clone();

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



# clone()

---

Like most languages, Rust can clone:

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = String::from("Hello");
    let s2 = s1.clone();

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

```
Command Prompt
C:\_RustCode>rustc main.rs
C:\_RustCode>main
Hello
Hello
C:\_RustCode>
```

# Ownership and Functions

Passing an argument moves or copies, just like assignment:

```
fn main()
{
    let s = String::from("Weird");

    stringPass(s);

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

fn stringPass (word: String)
{
    println!("{}", word);
}
```

```
Command Prompt
C:\_RustCode>rustc main.rs
error[E0382]: use of moved value: `s`
--> main.rs:7:20
5 |         stringPass(s);
   |                     - value moved here
6 |
7 |         println!("{}", s);
   |                       ^ value used here after move

= note: move occurs because `s` has type `std::string`
which does not implement the `Copy` trait
```

# Ownership and Functions

Passing an argument moves or copies, just like assignment:

```
fn main()
{
    let s = String::from("Weird");

    stringPass(s);

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

fn stringPass (word: String)
{
    println!("{}", word);
}
```

- Ownership moved from **s** to **word**!
- **s** is now invalid!
- This is very different from any other language we're used to.
- This doesn't happen with primitives because they will simply be copied.
- We get a hint:

= note: move occurs because `s` has type `std::string::String`, which 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
}
```

C:\\_ RustCode

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

```
C:\_RustCode>main
```

```
Weird
```

```
Weird
```

```
C:\_RustCode>_
```

# Returning Ownership

Limiting. Forced to use return value for ownership.

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = String::from("Weird");

    let (len, s2) = string_len(s1);

    println!("{}", s2, len);
}

fn string_len (word: String) -> (usize, String)
{
    (word.len(), word)
}
```

- **s1** moves to **word**, **word** moves to **s2**
- Return a tuple consisting of the length of word, and word itself.
- **len()** function returns length of array.

Command Prompt

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

```
C:\_RustCode>main
Weird has 5 characters
```

```
C:\_RustCode>
```

# Ownership: Moving VS Borrowing

Instead of returning a tuple, pass a reference:

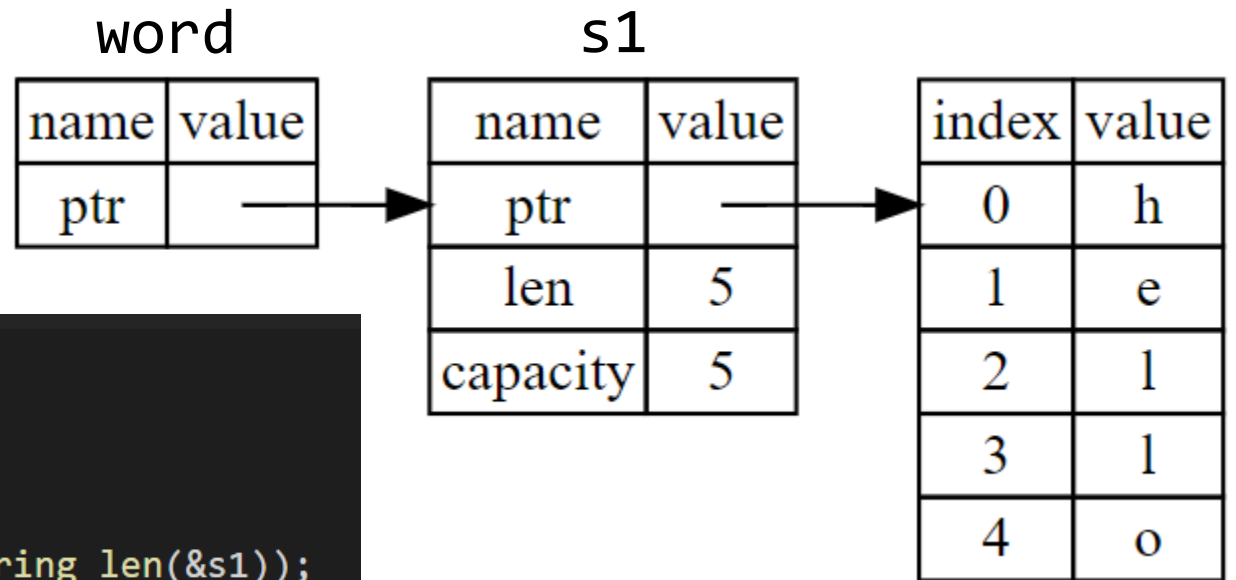
```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = String::from("Weird");

    println!("{}", s1, string_len(&s1));
}

fn string_len (word: &String) -> usize
{
    word.len()
}
```

- This looks like C++
- **word** is now a *reference* to **s1**
- What about ownership?
- What's happening in memory?

# Ownership: Moving VS Borrowing



```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = String::from("Weird");

    println!("{}", s1, string_len(&s1));
}

fn string_len (word: &String) -> usize
{
    word.len()
}
```

- word is a reference to s1, it does NOT point to the string in the heap.
- word has no ownership over s1.
- We call this ***borrowing***.

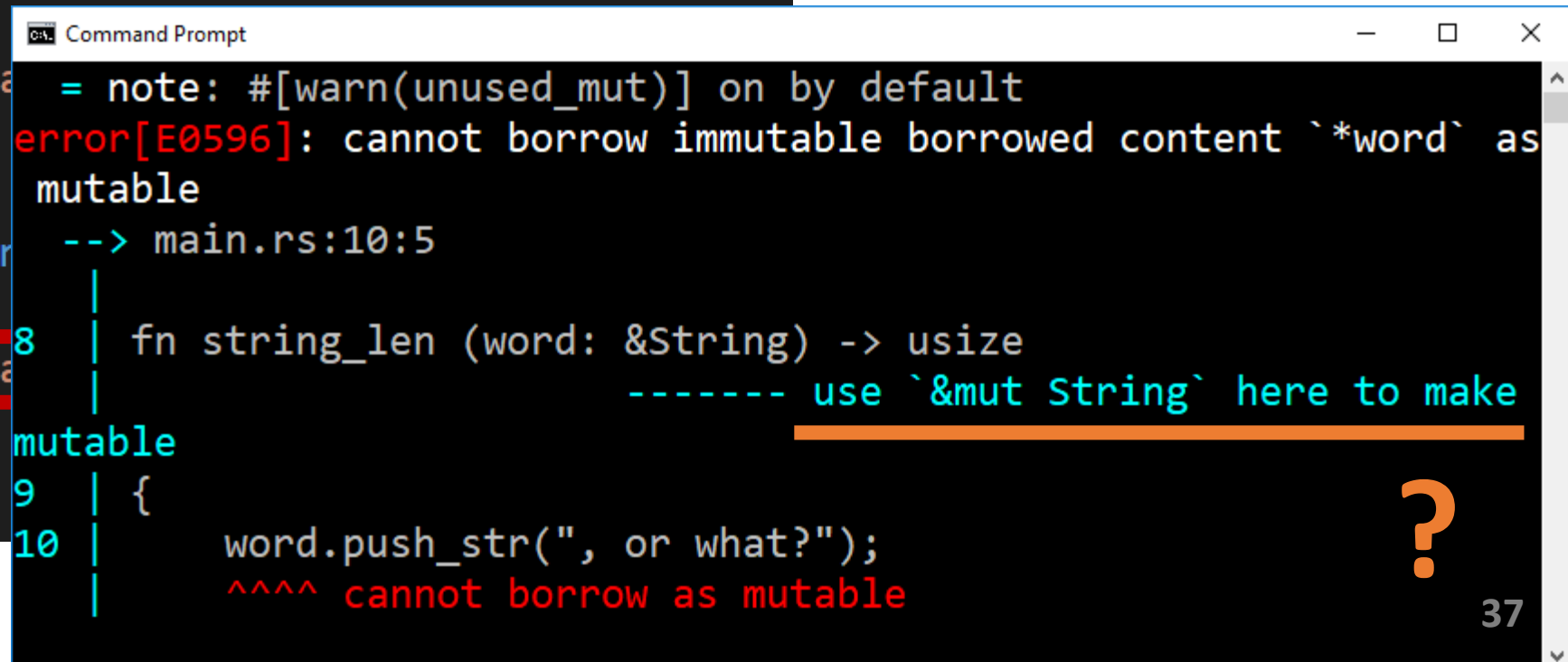
# Ownership: Moving VS Borrowing

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

```
fn main()
{
    let mut s1 = String::from("Weird");

    println!("{}", s1);
}

fn string_len (word: &String) -> usize
{
    word.push_str(", or what");
    word.len()
}
```



The screenshot shows a Rust compiler error in a Command Prompt window. The error message is: `error[E0596]: cannot borrow immutable borrowed content `*word` as mutable`. The error points to line 10, column 5 of `main.rs`. The code snippet shown is: `fn string_len (word: &String) -> usize { word.push_str(", or what"); word.len() }`. The error message is repeated twice, once at the top and once at the bottom. The bottom message has a red box around the text `word.push_str(", or what");` and a red box around the text `word.len()`. A large orange question mark is visible in the bottom right corner of the Command Prompt window.

```
Command Prompt
= note: #[warn(unused_mut)] on by default
error[E0596]: cannot borrow immutable borrowed content `*word` as mutable
--> main.rs:10:5
8 | fn string_len (word: &String) -> usize
  | ----- use `&mut String` here to make mutable
9 | {
10| word.push_str(", or what");
   ^^^^ cannot borrow as mutable
```

&String) -> usize

----- use `&mut String` here to make mutable

```
fn main()
{
    let mut s1 = String::from("Weird");
    let len = string_len(&mut s1);

    println!("{}", s1, len);
}

fn string_len (word: &mut String) -> usize
{
    word.push_str(", or what?");
    word.len()
}
```

Command Prompt

C:\\_RustCode>rustc main.rs

C:\\_RustCode>main

Weird, or what? has 15 characters

C:\\_RustCode>\_

**word** is a mutable reference, borrowed from **s1**





# Borrowing Rules

Can only have one mutable borrow at a time:

```
fn main()
{
    let mut s1 = String::from("Weir");
    let r = &mut s1;
    let len = string_len(&mut s1);

    println!("{}", s1.len());
}
```

```
error[E0499]: cannot borrow `s1` as mutable more than once at a time
--> main.rs:5:31
4 |     let r = &mut s1;
  |             -- first mutable borrow occurs here
5 |     let len = string_len(&mut s1);
  |                        ^^ second mutable borrow occurs here
..
8 | }
  | - first borrow ends here
```

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

# Borrowing Rules

Can only have one mutable borrow at a time:

```
fn main()
{
    let mut s1 = String::from("Weird");
    let r3 = &mut s1;

    s1.push_str(" test1 ");
    r3.push_str(" test2 ");
}
```

- push\_str must make mutable borrow of s1
- Not allowed!

```
C:\_RustCode>rustc main.rs
error[E0499]: cannot borrow `s1` as mutable more than once at a time
--> main.rs:6:5
4 |         let r3 = &mut s1;
  |         -- first mutable borrow occurs here
5 |
6 |         s1.push_str(" test1 ");
  |         ^^ second mutable borrow occurs here
7 |         r3.push_str(" test2 ");
```

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

```
fn main()
{
    let mut s1 = String::from("Weird");

    {
        let r1 = &mut s1;
    }

    let r2 = &mut s1;
}
```

**Scope of r1**

**Scope of r2**

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

```
fn main()
{
    let mut s1 = String::from("Weird");
    s1.push_str(" test1 ");

    let r3 = &mut s1;
    r3.push_str(" test2 ");

    println!("{}", r3);
}
```

Command Prompt

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

```
C:\_RustCode>main
Weird test1 test2
```

```
C:\_RustCode>_
```

Here, **r3** is already a reference.  
We're not borrowing again.

```
fn main()
{
    let mut word = String::from("hello");
    let r1 = &word;
    word.push_str(", or what?");
    println!("{}", r1);
}
```

```

PS D:\GoogleDrive\Teaching - Ryerson\ (C)CPS 506\Resources\Code\F
error[E0502]: cannot borrow `word` as mutable because it is also
--> borrow.rs:8:5

6 |         let r1 = &word;
   |                   ----- immutable borrow occurs here
7 |
8 |         word.push_str(", or what?");
   |         ^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^ mutable borrow occurs here
9 |         println!("{}", r1);
   |                                -- immutable borrow later used here

error: aborting due to previous error

For more information about this error, try `rustc --explain E0502`
PS D:\GoogleDrive\Teaching - Ryerson\ (C)CPS 506\Resources\Code\F

```

# Borrowing Rules: In Short

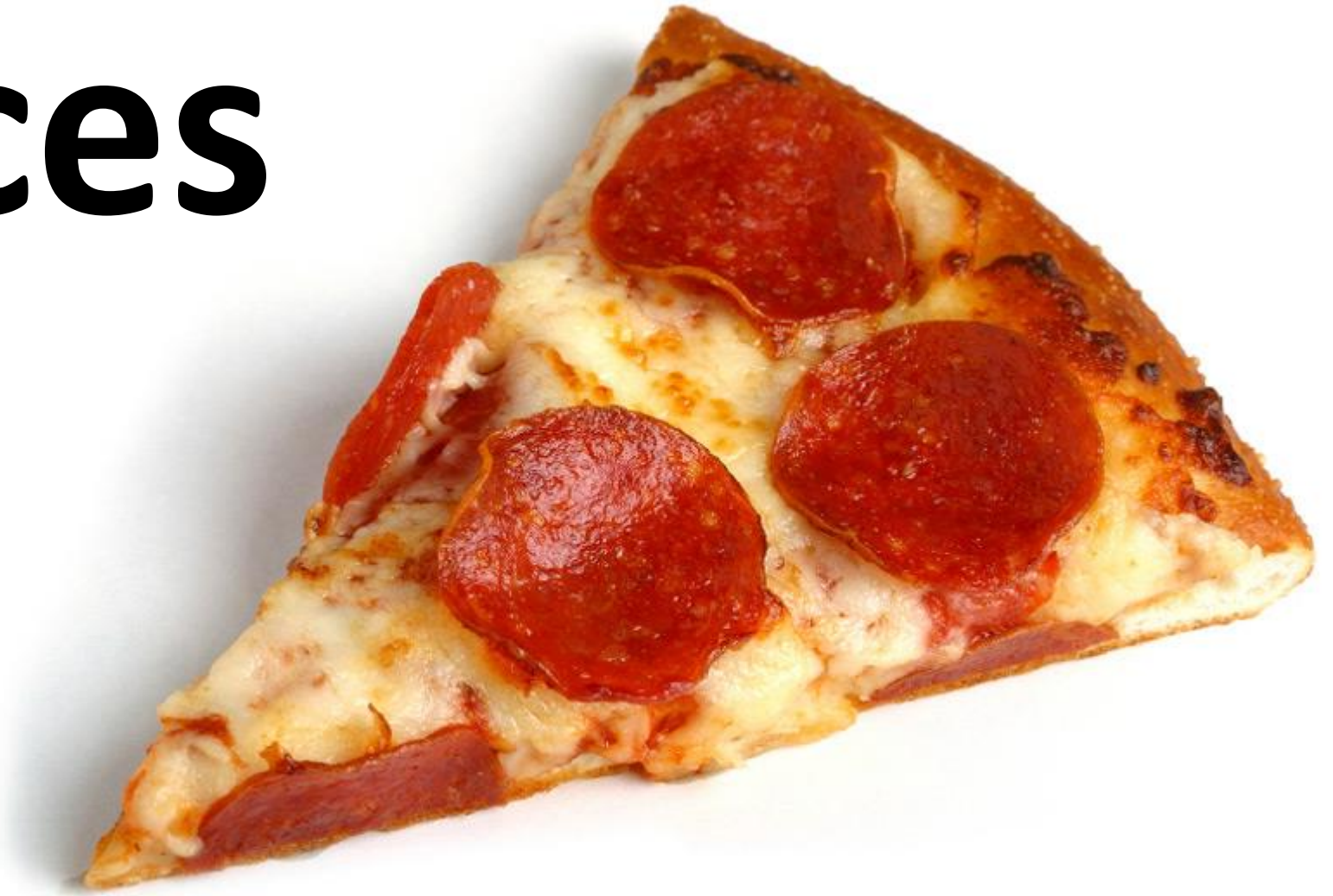
---

**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





# Slices

Reference to a subset of an array

```
1 fn main()
2 {
3     let nums = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8];
4     let tail = &nums[4..8];
5
6     for n in tail.iter() {
7         print!("{}", n);
8     }
9 }
10
11
```

Command Prompt

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

```
C:\_RustCode>main
```

```
5 6 7 8
```

```
C:\_RustCode>
```

- We've seen this notation before!
- Remember that the second index is *not* included

# Slices, Arguments, Functions

```
fn main()
{
    let nums = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8];
    let subset = get_slice(&nums, 1, 5);

    for n in subset.iter() {
        print!("{}", n);
    }
}

fn get_slice(a: &[i32], s: usize, e: usize) -> &[i32]
{
    &a[s..e]
}
```

- **Reminder:** indexes must be **usize**
- Pass in reference to array
- Return slice (reference to subarray)
- Array only exists once in memory
- **subset** and **nums** point to different parts of the same memory.

# String Slices

... are a little bit different.

```
fn main()
{
    let msg = String::from("Hello, World!");
    let hello = &msg[..5]; // same as &msg[0..5]
    let world = &msg[7..]; // same as &msg[7..msg.len()]

    println!("{}", hello);
    println!("{}", world);
}
```

Command Prompt

C:\\_RustCode>rustc main.rs

C:\\_RustCode>main

Hello

World!

C:\\_RustCode>

Normal so far

# String Slice Type

```
fn main()
{
    let msg = String::from("Hello, World!");

    let slc = get_slice(&msg, 0, 5);

    println!("{}", slc);
}

fn get_slice (w: &String, s: usize, e: usize) -> &str
{
    &w[s..e]
}
```

- &str is a reference to a string slice
- &String is a reference to a String
- String VS string slice: different types
- Other than that, the function works the same as with numeric arrays.
- A string slice is effectively a ***read-only*** view of a String.

# String Slice Type

---

```
fn get_slice (w: &String, s: usize, e: usize) -> &str
{
    &w[s..e]
}
```

**Better to do this:**

```
fn get_slice (w: &str, s: usize, e: usize) -> &str
{
    &w[s..e]
}
```

**Works for both Strings and string slices**

# String Literals

---

## Recall:

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

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

```
fn main()
{
    let msg = "Hello, World!";
}
```

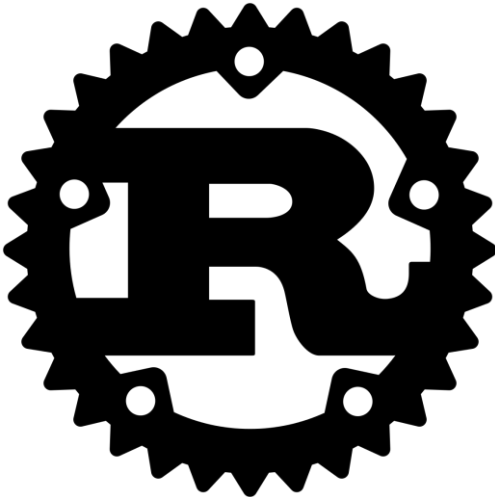
- The type of `msg` is `&str`
- It's a slice pointing to a specific point of the binary file.
- This is why string literals are immutable!

# 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()
{
    let ref_to_nothing = dangle();
}

fn dangle() -> &String
{
    let s = String::from("Hello");
    &s
}
```

## dangle()

- Create String s
- Return a reference to it
- s goes out of scope when dangle function ends.
- What happens to the reference that was returned?

# Dangling References

Rust prevents them:

```
fn main()
{
    let ref_to_nothing = dang
}

fn dangle() -> &String
{
    let s = String::from("Hel
    &s
}
```

Command Prompt

C:\\_RustCode>rustc main.rs

error[E0106]: missing lifetime specifier  
--> main.rs:6:16

6 fn dangle() -> &String

^ expected lifetime parameter

= help: this function's return type contains a borrowed value, but there is no value for it to be borrowed from

= help: consider giving it a 'static lifetime

error: aborting due to previous error

# 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

```
fn main()
{
    let r: &i32;

    {
        let x = 5;
        r = &x;
    }

    println!("r: {}", r);
}
```

- **r** is a reference to **x**
- **x** goes out of scope while **r** is still referring to it!

Command Prompt

C:\\_RustCode>rustc main.rs

error[E0597]: `x` does not live long enough

--> main.rs:7:14

7 | r = &x;

^ borrowed value does not live long enough

8 | }

- `x` dropped here while still borrowed

...

11 | }

# 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?

# Generic Lifetimes

---

Consider:

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = "abcde";
    let s2 = "abc";

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

fn longest (x: &str, y: &str) -> &str {
    if x.len() > y.len() { x }
    else { y }
}
```

## Simple program:

- Function accepts two string slices, returns the slice that is longer.
- Recall that slices are just references
- There's no ownership changing here
- No moves

# Generic Lifetimes

Consider:

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = "abcde";
    let s2 = "abc";

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

fn longest (x: &str, y: &str)
{
    if x.len() > y.len() { x }
    else { y }
}
```

Command Prompt

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

```
error[E0106]: missing lifetime specifier
```

```
--> main.rs:9:34
```

```
9 | fn longest (x: &str, y: &str) -> &str {
   |                                ^ expected lifetime parameter
```

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

```
error: aborting due to previous error
```

# Generic Lifetimes

---

```
|  
= help: this function's return type contains a borrowed  
value, but the signature does not say whether it is borrowed  
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.



# Generic Lifetimes

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = "abcde";
    let s2 = "abc";

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

fn longest (x: &str, y: &str) -> &str {
    if x.len() > y.len() { 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.

# Generic Lifetimes

It even happens when the return reference is fixed:

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = "abcde";
    let s2 = "abc";

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

fn longest (x: &str, y: &str) -> &str {
    x
    //if x.len() > y.len() { x }
    //else { y }
}
```

```
Command Prompt
C:\_RustCode>rustc main.rs
error[E0106]: missing lifetime specifier
  --> main.rs:9:34
   |
9  | fn longest (x: &str, y: &str) -> &str {
   |                                   ^ expected lifetime parameter
   = help: this function's return type contains a borrowed value, but the signature does not say whether it is borrowed from `x` or `y`
error: aborting due to previous error
```

# Lifetime Annotation Syntax

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

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = "abcde";
    let s2 = "abc";

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

## Specify generic lifetime

- Similar to generic type: `<T>`
- `<'a>` specifies a generic lifetime, `a`
- `&'a` says this reference has lifetime `a`

```
fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {
    if x.len() > y.len() { x }
    else { y }
}
```

Command Prompt

```
C:\_RustCode>main
abcde
```

```
C:\_RustCode>
```

# Generic Lifetimes

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = "abcde";
    let s2 = "abc";

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

```
fn longest<'a> (x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {
    if x.len() > y.len() { x }
    else { y }
}
```

## What does mean precisely?

- The function accepts two arguments
- Both live at least as long as lifetime **a**
- Also, the string slice returned will live at least as long as lifetime **a**
- We don't know what **a** is!
- We're just making this promise to the borrow checker.

# Generic Lifetimes

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = "abcde";
    let s2 = "abc";

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

fn longest<'a> (x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {
    if x.len() > y.len() { x }
    else { y }
}
```

## However!

- We're ***NOT*** actually changing any lifetimes!
- We're just explicitly indicating them to help the confused Borrow Checker.
- The borrow checker will reject any values that don't adhere to these constraints.

**So how can we  
break this?**

# Consider

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = "abc";
    {
        let s2 = "abcde";
        let s3 = longest(s1, s2);

        println!("{}", s3);
    }
}
```

- 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.

```
fn longest<'a> (x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str
{
    if x.len() > y.len() { x }
    else { y }
}
```

# Now This:

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = "abc";
    let s3;
    {
        let s2 = "abcde";
        s3 = longest(s1, s2);
    }
    println!("{}", s3)
}
```

- Here, lifetime **a** excludes a reference made by **s3**
- **s3** references something that *might* be out of scope (**s2** will be, **s1** won't be)
- When we last use **s3**, **s2** is no longer valid.
- Although *in this case* it doesn't matter, because we've declared both s1 and s2 as string slices.
- Slices aren't on the heap, and thus references to them will always be valid.

```
fn longest<'a> (x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str
{
    if x.len() > y.len() { x }
    else { y }
}
```

Oops. Let's try again with  
Strings instead...

Command Prompt

C:\\_RustCode>rustc main.rs

C:\\_RustCode>main  
abcde

```
fn main()
{
    let s1 = String::from("ab");
    let s3;
    {
        let s2 = String::from("cd");
        s3 = longest(s1.as_str(), s2.as_str());
    }
    println!("{}", s3);
}

fn longest<'a> (x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str
{
    if x.len() > y.len() { x }
    else { y }
}
```

Command Prompt

C:\\_RustCode>rustc main.rs

error[E0597]: `s2` does not live long enough

--> main.rs:7:35

```
7         s3 = longest(s1.as_str(), s2.as_str());
                                   ^^ borrowed value
8     }
    does not live long enough
```

```
8     }
9     println!("{}", s3);
10 }
    - `s2` dropped here while still borrowed
    - borrowed value needs to live until here
```



# 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.

```
fn first (x: &str) -> &str
{
    x
}
```

This is fine

```
fn sum_len (x: &str, y: &str) -> usize
{
    x.len() + y.len()
}
```

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: &str, y: &str) -> usize
{
    x.len() + y.len()
}
```

```
fn first (x: &str) -> &str
{
    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.

```
fn sum_len (x: &str, y: &str) -> usize
{
    x.len() + y.len()
}
```

Is seen as:

```
fn sum_len<'a, 'b> (x: &'a str, y: &'b str) -> usize
{
    x.len() + y.len()
}
```

# Lifetime Inference Rules

---

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.

```
fn first (x: &str) -> &str
{
    x
}
```

Is seen as:

```
fn first<'a> (x: &'a str) -> &'a str
{
    x
}
```

# Lifetime Inference Rules

---

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: &str, y: &str) -> usize
{
    x.len() + y.len()
}
```

```
fn first (x: &str) -> &str
{
    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:

```
fn first (x: &str, y: &str) -> &str
{
    x
}
```



```
fn first<'a,'b> (x: &'a str, y: &'b str) -> &str
{
    x
}
```

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:

```
fn first (x: &str, y: &str) -> &str
{
    x
}
```

```
fn first<'a,'b> (x: &'a str, y: &'b str) -> &str
{
    x
}
```

- No lifetime annotation after applying rules.
- Compile error.

Command Prompt

```
C:\_RustCode>rustc main.rs
error[E0106]: missing lifetime specifier
  --> main.rs:17:45
   |
17 | fn first<'a,'b> (x: &'a str, y: &'b str) -> &str
   |                                             ^ expected lifetime parameter
```

# 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

```
fn main()
{
    let _x: &'static str = "I AM FOREVER";
    let _y = "I am also forever...";
}
```

# Static Lifetime

---

- You might get error messages suggesting you use static lifetime.
- Be careful doing so. Does your reference really live for the duration of the program? Probably not.
- It's a lazy solution, much like adding dozens of global variables to avoid using pointers or references.
- *(Although in the case of string literals you're safe)*

# Fantastic Rust Reference:

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

