



Lecture 10

Generic Data Types

Goals For Today



- Generics
- Smart Pointers

Motivating Example



- In Rust, several types can contain other types
 - `Vec<T>`
 - `[T]`
 - `HashMap<K, V>`
 - `Option<T>`
 - `Result<T>`
- How do they do this?

Motivating Example (cont)



- Both functions do essentially the same thing, just with different function signatures
- If want to apply the same logic to other types (ex: `u16`), need to repeat these same code
- Seems wasteful
- Can we reduce the boilerplate?

```
fn largest_i32(list: &[i32]) -> &i32 {  
    let mut largest: &i32 = &list[0];  
  
    for item: &i32 in list {  
        if item > largest {  
            largest = item;  
        }  
    }  
  
    largest  
}
```

```
fn largest_char(list: &[char]) -> &char {  
    let mut largest: &char = &list[0];  
  
    for item: &char in list {  
        if item > largest {  
            largest = item;  
        }  
    }  
  
    largest  
}
```

Generics



- Abstract stand-ins for concrete types or other properties
- Kind of like “template” in C++
- Can be used in the definitions of
 - Structs: `Vec<T>`
 - Enums: `Option<T>`, `Result<T>`
 - Methods
 - Functions

Generics in Structs



- Note the struct signature: `Point<T>`, meaning "struct `Point` containing members with generic type `T`"
- `x` and `y` can be any type, but they must be of the same type
- What if we want them to be of different types `T` and `U`?

```
fn main() {  
    let integer: Point<i32> = Point { x: 1, y: 2 };  
    let float: Point<f32> = Point { x: 1.0, y: 2.0 };  
}  
  
0 implementations  
struct Point<T> {  
    x: T,  
    y: T  
}
```

Generics in Structs (cont)



- Note struct signature: `Point<T, U>`; meaning “struct `Point` containing members with generic types `T` and `U`”
- Allows `x` and `y` to take different types
- Syntax rule: must list all generic types of members in struct definition

```
fn main() {  
    let wont_work: Point<i32> = Point { x: 1, y: 2.0 };  
}
```

0 implementations

```
struct Point<T> {  
    x: T,  
    y: T  
}
```

```
fn main() {  
    let will_work: Point<i32, f32> = Point { x: 1, y: 2.0 };  
}
```

0 implementations

```
struct Point<T, U> {  
    x: T,  
    y: U  
}
```


Generics in Enums



- Enum signature: `Number<T>`, meaning "enum Number with variant(s) containing value of type `T`"
- Note: Even if we use a variant not containing `T`, still need to declare the concrete type for `T`

```
fn main() {  
    let finite_num: Number<i32> = Number::Finite(5);  
    let infinite_num: Number<u32> = Number::Infinite;  
}  
  
0 implementations  
enum Number<T> {  
    Finite(T),  
    Infinite  
}
```

Generics in Enums (cont)



- `Number<T, U, V>`: "enum Number with variants containing values of type `T`, `U`, `V`"
- Syntax rule: must list the generic types of all values, contained in every variants of the enum

```
fn main() {  
    let finite_1d_num: Number<i32, u32, f32> = Number::OneDimFinite(5);  
    let finite_2d_num: Number<i32, u32, f32> = Number::TwoDimFinite(2, 1.0);  
    let infinite_num: Number<i32, u32, f32> = Number::Infinite;  
}
```

0 implementations

```
enum Number<T, U, V> {  
    OneDimFinite(T),  
    TwoDimFinite(U, V),  
    Infinite  
}
```

Generics in Enums (cont)



```
enum Option<T> {  
    Some(T),  
    None,  
}
```

```
enum Result<T, E> {  
    Ok(T),  
    Err(E),  
}
```


Generics in Methods



- Syntax: `impl<T> Point<T>`
- Meaning: methods in this implementation work on `Points` containing generic type `T`
- Wait, why need the distinction?

```
fn main() {  
    let p: Point<i32> = Point { x: 5, y: 10 };  
  
    // prints out 'p.x = 5'  
    println!("p.x = {}", p.x());  
}  
  
1 implementation  
struct Point<T> {  
    x: T,  
    y: T,  
}  
  
impl<T> Point<T> {  
    fn x(&self) -> &T {  
        &self.x  
    }  
}
```

Generics in Methods (cont)



- Even though `Point<T>` contains generic `T`, we can still create methods for a concrete type
- Note: No longer need to specify generic `T` in the `impl` keyword, still need to specify the concrete type for the struct

```
struct Point<T> {
    x: T,
    y: T,
}

impl<T> Point<T> {
    fn x(&self) -> i32 {
        5
    }
}

impl Point<i32> {
    fn distance_from_origin(&self) -> f32 {
        (self.x.pow(exp: 2) as f32 + self.y.pow(exp: 2) as f32).sqrt()
    }
}
```

```
fn main() {
    let p_int: Point<i32> = Point { x: 3, y: 4 };
    // p_int_dist = 5
    let p_int_dist: f32 = p_int.distance_from_origin();

    let p_float: Point<f64> = Point { x: 5.0, y: 10.0 };
    // Error: no method distance_from_origin found for Point<f64>
    // method was found for Point<i32>
    let p_float_dist = p_float.distance_from_origin();
}
```

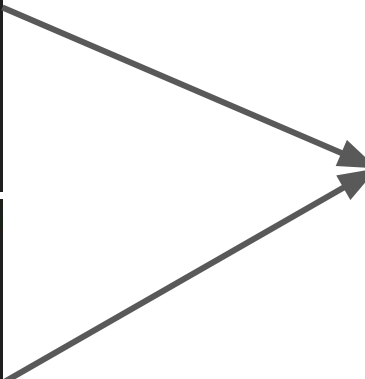

Generics in Functions



- Now that we know generics exist, we can combine these 2 functions! (and express the same logic for other types)

```
fn largest_i32(list: &[i32]) -> &i32 {  
    let mut largest: &i32 = &list[0];  
  
    for item: &i32 in list {  
        if item > largest {  
            largest = item;  
        }  
    }  
  
    largest  
}
```

```
fn largest_char(list: &[char]) -> &char {  
    let mut largest: &char = &list[0];  
  
    for item: &char in list {  
        if item > largest {  
            largest = item;  
        }  
    }  
  
    largest  
}
```

Two arrows originate from the two separate function definitions on the left. One arrow points from the `largest_i32` function to the generic `largest` function, and the other points from the `largest_char` function to the same generic `largest` function, illustrating how the generic function subsumes the two specific ones.

```
fn main() {  
    let number_list: Vec<i32> = vec![1, 2, 5, 4, 3];  
    let result: &i32 = largest(&number_list);  
    println!("The largest number is {}", result);  
  
    let char_list: Vec<char> = vec!['y', 'm', 'a', 'q'];  
    let result: &char = largest(&char_list);  
    println!("The largest char is {}", result);  
}  
  
fn largest<T>(list: &[T]) -> &T {  
    let mut largest: &T = &list[0];  
  
    for item: &T in list {  
        if item > largest {  
            largest = item;  
        }  
    }  
  
    largest  
}
```


Generics in Functions (cont)



- But it looks like Rust is unhappy?

```
error[E0369]: binary operation `>` cannot be applied to type `&T`
  --> src/main.rs:17:17
17 |         if item > largest {
    |                ^      ----- &T
    |                |
    |                &T
help: consider restricting type parameter `T`
13 | fn largest<T: std::cmp::PartialOrd>(list: &[T]) -> &T {
    |                +++++++++++++++++++++
```

- What if `T` is `HashMap<i32, i32>`?
- The concrete type the user inputs into the function **might not be comparable**

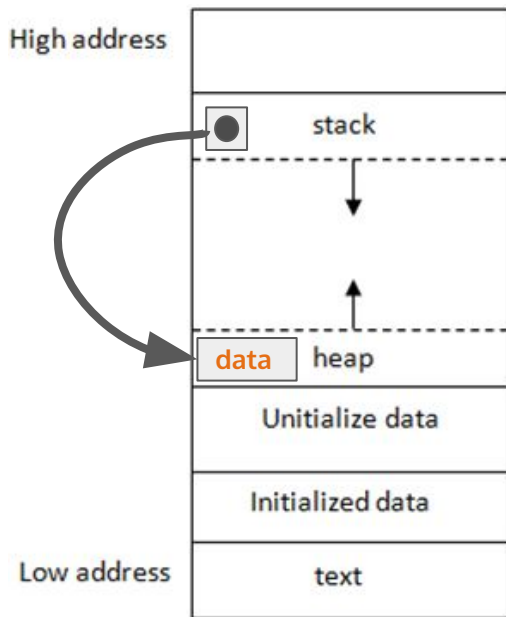
Smart Pointers



- Pointers (raw pointer): variables that contain (point to) an address in memory
- Smart pointers: act like pointers but with additional capabilities
 - Example: `String` and `Vec<T>` - manage own memory, knows the length of collections they store
 - Take ownership of data they point to
 - When smart pointer goes out of scope, data is also dropped
- Due to ownership rules, safe Rust does not allow raw pointers
- All pointer-like types in Rust are smart pointers

The Box smart pointer

- `Box<T>` allows you to store data on the heap
 - Unlike `Vec<T>/String`, said data does not need to be a collection
- Raw pointer on the stack (like all containers/data structures).
- When pointer on the stack goes out of scope, data on the heap is freed (dropped)



Reference:

- <https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch15-01-box.html>

Using Boxes



- Create a Box smart pointer using `Box::new(data: T)`
- Make the Box `mutable` if you want to modify the stored data
- Dereference (`*`) the smart pointer to access the data (just like raw pointers in C++)
 - Do not need to dereference when calling functions on the data, Rust does it for you
- Sounds familiar?

```
// this int lives on the stack
let stack_int: i32 = 5;

// this int lives on the heap, with a stack pointer to it
let heap_int: Box<i32> = Box::new(4);
// prints out: `Value of heap int: 4`
println!("Value of heap int: {}", *heap_int);
```

Boxes vs References



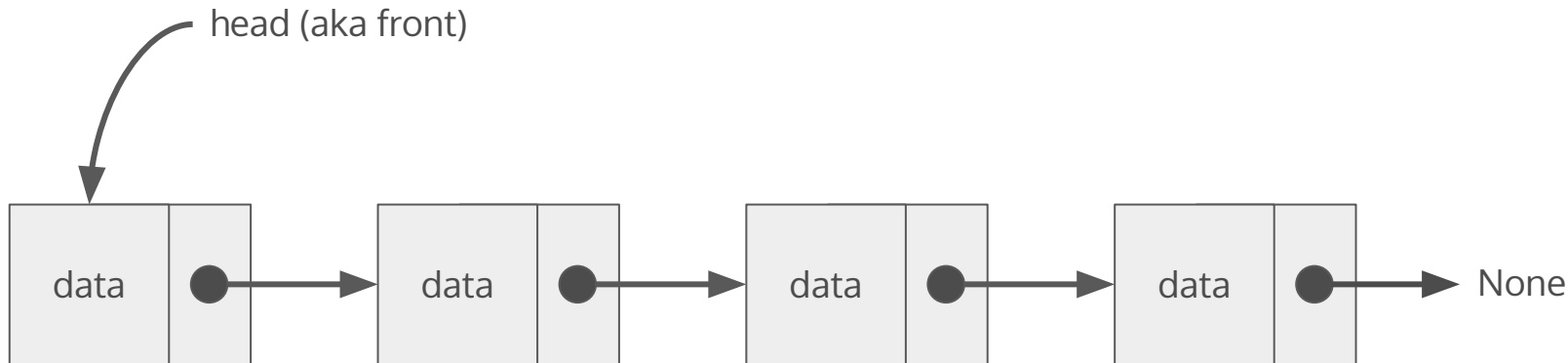
- Both act like pointers, both ensure that the data they point to can't be null
- **Box**:
 - **Owns** the data it points to
- References:
 - **Borrow** the data they point to
 - Data is owned by some other variable
- Want nullable pointers anyway?
 - `Option<Box<T>>`
 - `Option<&T>`

Why Boxes?



- When you have a type whose size can't be known at compile time and want to use a value of that type in a context requiring an exact size (any context involving the stack)
 - Conceptually, the size of the stack pointer will be treated as said exact size
 - Also why `Vec<T>/String` exist!
- Example use cases:
 - Implementing a Linked List

Linked Lists (Wrong Rust Implementation)



```
pub struct Link<T: std::fmt::Display> {  
    thing: T,  
    next: Option<Link<T>>,  
}
```

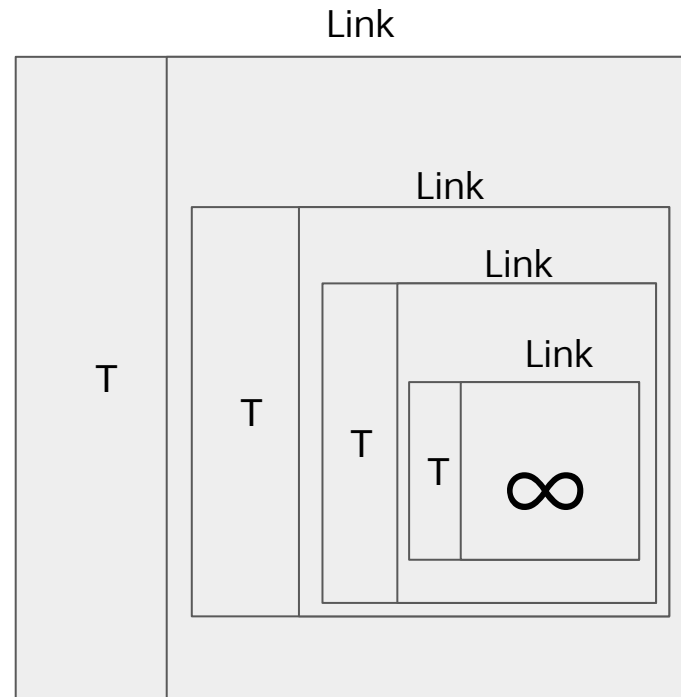
Linked Lists (Wrong Rust Implementation)



```
pub struct Link<T: std::fmt::Display> {  
    thing: T,  
    next: Option<Link<T>>,  
}
```

Rust can't know the exact size of `Link` and `Link` lives on stack by default -> forbidden

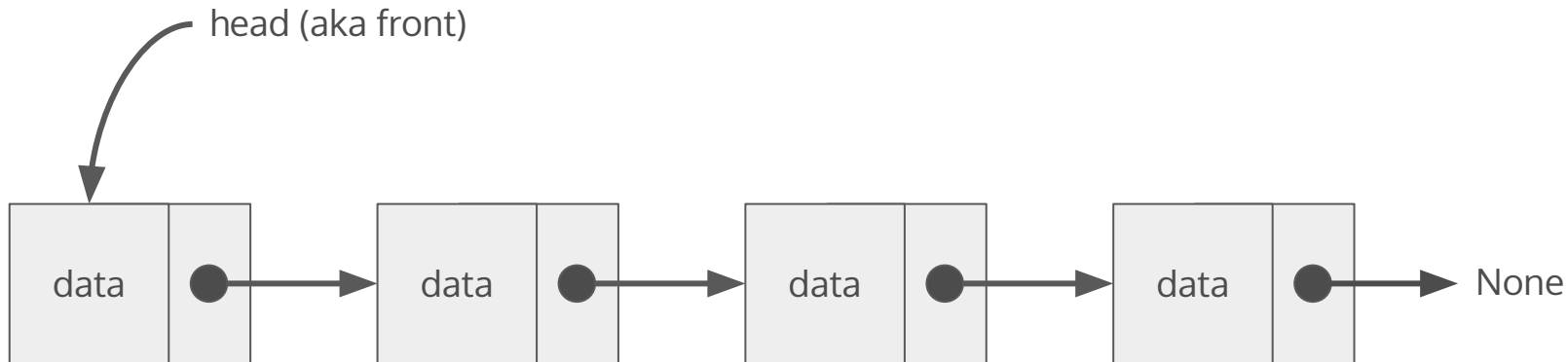
```
error[E0072]: recursive type `Link` has infinite size  
--> src/bin/list.rs:8:1  
8 | pub struct Link<T: std::fmt::Display> {  
  ~~~~~ recursive type has infinite size  
9 |     thing: T,  
10 |     next: Option<Link<T>>,  
    ~~~~~ recursive without indirection  
help: insert some indirection (e.g., a `Box`, `Rc`, or `&`) to make `Link` representable  
10 |     next: Box<Option<Link<T>>>,  
       ++++++ +
```



Reference:

- <https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch15-01-box.html>

Linked Lists (Correct Rust Implementation)



```
pub struct Link<T> {  
    thing: T,  
    next: Option<Box<Link<T>>>,  
}
```

Due to the indirection, Rust will determine the exact size as the size of the first `Box`'s stack pointer!

Announcements



HW 8 has been released (due 3/07 at 11:59 PM)

MP 2 has been released (due 3/14 at 11:59 PM)