Rust is a System Programming Language System Prog Lang is by which we access hardware very easily.

Rust is known for Memory Management, concurrency, speed

Rust generally follows SnakeCase (not CamalCase)

snake_case
JS - camelCase

Error in rust if camel case is used

Cargo. tool for dependencies Toml means Tom's obvious minimal language

Data types -

- 1. Scaler (integer, floating point)
- 2. Compound (array, tuple, string, vector)

Signed Integer	Unsigned Integer
i8	u8
i16	u16
i32	u32
i64	u64
isize	usize

- 3
- 4. In general, every datatype in Rust is immutable
- 5. To make it mutable add a mut keyword while declaring

Function return type should be mentioned using the arrow

Memory management has 3 approach

- Control first approach used in c/cpp Ismein pointer point karta jaha memory allocate hui hai Agar humne free kiya variable, toh pointer dangling ho jaata
- 2. Safety first approach used in Python/java
 Garbage collection hota hai here we don't know how this would work therefore there
 is an issue in this approach
- 3. Ownership used in rust

Ownership rules apply only on both but the main purpose is to manage heap data (dynamic memory allocated data type)

Here we do not require a garbage collector

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 will be dropped

Scope?

The Area where we can access the variable is the scope of that variable.

Note - const - naming only in capital letters and its data type should be mentioned(mandatory)

In Rust, if two dynamic data-typed variables are pointing to the same address then it performs moving of address to a recently accessed variable bcoz

If two variables are pointing to the same location then if both try to free up the space then this would be a double pointer Error.

```
fn main() {
    let x:String = String::from("Hello");//x is the owner of Hello
    process_string(x);//transfer of ownership

// corintln!("The value of x in main() is {}",x);

fn process_string(item:String){//Hello-new owner is item
    println!("The value of x in process_string() is {}",item);
}
```

Error in main function's last line - due to transfer of ownership.

Example to understand ownership - here ownership of string is transferred

```
fn main() {
    let s1:String = String::from("hello");//s1 owner
    let (s2,len) = calculate_length(s1);//ownership transfer, new own
    println!("The length of {} is {}",s2,len);
}

fn calculate_length(s:String)->(String,usize){//s will be the new of let length:usize = s.len();
    return (s,length);//return ownership transfer,5
}
```

The same example without the ownership concept (passing clone as a parameter)

```
src > ® main.rs
       fn main() {
         let s1:String = String::from("hello");//s1 owner
         let len = calculate_length(s1.clone());
  4
         println!("The length of {} is {}",s1,len);
       fn calculate_length(s:String)->usize{
          let length:usize = s.len();
          return length;//5
OUTPUT
        DEBUG CONSOLE
                       TERMINAL
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                                                         ≥ powershe
The length of hello is 5
PS C:\Users\user\hello_program>
```

BORROW OPERATION - We just use string s1 by passing it by reference and using it This does not transfer the owner and our work is done.

```
main.rs
fn main() {
    let s1:String = String::from("Hello");
    let len:usize = calculate_length(&s1);//borrow operation
    println!("The length of {} is {}",s1,len);
}

fn calculate_length(s2:&String)->usize{
    return s2.len();
}
```

When borrow takes place Rust makes sure that no mutable operations take place on the variables/parameters

Therefore variable borrowed cant be mutable

MUTABLE REFERENCE

```
fn main() {
    let mut s1:String = String::from("Hello");
    append_string(&mut_s1);
    println!("The new string is {}",s1);
    // let len:usize = calculate_length(&s1);//borrow operation
    // println!("The length of {} is {}",s1,len);
}

// fn calculate_length(s2:&String)->usize{
    // return s2.len();
// }

fn append_string(s3:&mut String){
    s3.push_str("World");
}
```

```
fn main() {
    let mut s1:String = String::from("Hello");
    let w1 = &mut s1;
    w1.push_str(" World");
    println!("w1={}",w1);

let w2 = &mut s1;
    w2.push_str(" Code");
    println!("w2={}",w1);
}
```

This above code gives an error in a second print statement as w1 is printed after w2 begins modified

To avoid race Conditions like the above example

Once a variable is referred(mutably or immutably) it can't be used in any way after another variable is mutably referred

REFERENCING, DEREFERENCING, AUTO-DEREFERENCING

```
fn main() {
    let x = 5;
    let y = &x;//y is reference to the value of x, value of x is 5
    println!("{}",y);//auto dereferencing
}
```

Reference is not a pointer (it has more data than a pointer) Pointer is unsafe that's why reference is used

The below code will give an error as & the mut integer type is not the same as the integer type due to auto dereferencing.

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 5;
    x=x+1;//6
    let y = &mut x; //y is reference to the value of x, value of x i
    y=y+1;//7
    println!("x={}",y);
}
```

This will work fine.

```
fn main() {|
    let mut x = 5;
    x=x+1;//6
    let y = &mut x;//y is reference to the value of x, value of x i
    *y=*y+1;//7
    println!("x={}",y);
}
```

Dangling Reference -

This is due to the issue that the local variable has a reference but the local variable is killed beyond its scope.

An example is shown below:

Programming concepts Data type in detail-

```
Float Type
```

```
fn main() {
   let float32_number: f32 = 3.14; // f32 floating-point number
   let float64_number = 6.28; // f64 floating-point number (type inference)
   println!("Float32_number: ()", float32_number);
   println!("Float64_number: ()", float64_number);
}
```

Bool Type

represents a boolean value which can either be true false.

```
fn main() {
    let is_raining: bool = true;
    let is_sunny = false;

    let need_umbrella = is_raining && !is_sunny;
    let need_glasses = is_raining || is_sunny;

    println!("need umberella is (), need glasses is ()", need_umbrella, need_glasses)
```

Character Type

```
fn main() {
   let letter_a = 'a'; // ASCII character
   let emoji = '②'; // Unicode emoji
   let kanji = '漢'; // Unicode character representing a Kanji character

   println!("Letter a: ()", letter_a);
   println!("Emoji: ()", emoji);
   println!("Kanji character: ()", kanji);
}
```

A char in Rust is always 4 bytes in size and can represent characters from various languages, including ASCII characters, emojis, and characters from non-Latin scripts.

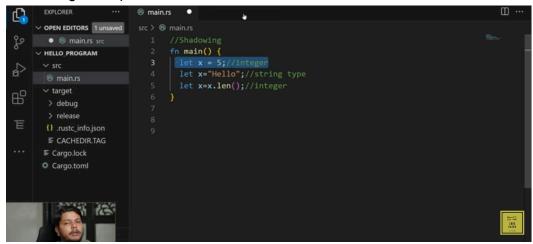
ARRAY -

Dynamic Array - Vector

```
Type Inference

fn main() {
    // Type inference in Rust
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```

Shadowing concept



This above code won't give any error, because here concept of shadowing is applied. Shadowing states that - if a variable name is used again and again and redeclared , so the compiler consider it a new variable and doesnot give any error.

```
main.rs
fn main(){

fn is_even(num:i8)->bool{
    if num%2==0{
        return true;
    }
    return false;
}

let number = 5;
match number {
        | x if is_even(x)|=>println!("Even"),
        | x if !is_even(x)=>println!("Odd"),
        | _=>println!("Number is not recongnizible")
}
```