Rust programming

Module 2: Foundations of Rust

Unit 4

Traits and Generics

Learning objectives

Traits and generics

The problem

```
fn add_u32(1: u32, r: u32) -> u32 { /* -snip- */ }

fn add_i32(1: i32, r: i32) -> i32 { /* -snip- */ }

fn add_f32(1: f32, r: f32) -> f32 { /* -snip- */ }

/* ... */
```

No-one likes repeating themselves

We need generic code!

Generic code

An example

```
1 fn add<T>(lhs: T, rhs: T) -> T { /* - snip - */}
```

Or, in plain English:

- `<T>` = "let `T` be a type"
- `lhs: T` "let `lhs` be of type `T` "
- -> T "let T be the return type of this function"

Some open points:

- What can we do with a `T`?
- What should the body be?

Bounds on generic code

We need to provide information to the compiler:

- Tell Rust what `T` can do
- Tell Rust what `T` is accepted
- Tell Rust how `T` implements functionality

`trait`

Describe what the type can do

```
1 trait MyAdd {
2    fn my_add(&self, other: &Self) -> Self;
3 }
```

`impl trait`

Describe how the type does it

```
impl MyAdd for u32 {
fn my_add(&self, other: &Self) -> Self {
    *self + *other
}
}
```

Using a `trait`

```
1  // Import the trait
2  use my_mod::MyAdd
3
4  fn main() {
5   let left: u32 = 6;
6   let right: u32 = 8;
7   // Call trait method
8   let result = left.my_add(&right);
9   assert_eq!(result, 14);
10   // Explicit call
11   let result = MyAdd::my_add(&left, &right);
12   assert_eq!(result, 14);
13 }
```

- Trait needs to be in scope
- Call just like a method
- Or by using the explicit associated function syntax

Trait bounds

```
fn add_values<T: MyAdd>(this: &T, other: &T) -> T {
    this.my_add(other)
}

// Or, equivalently

fn add_values<T>(this: &T, other: &T) -> T
    where T: MyAdd

{
    this.my_add(other)
}
```

Now we've got a *useful* generic function!

English: "For all types `T` that implement the `MyAdd` `trait`, we define..."

Limitations of MyAdd

What happens if...

- We want to add two values of different types?
- Addition yields a different type?

Making MyAdd itself generic

Add an 'Input type' `0`:

```
trait MyAdd<0> {
    fn my_add(&self, other: &0) -> Self;
}

impl MyAdd<u16> for u32 {
    fn my_add(&self, other: &u16) -> Self {
        *self + (*other as u32)
    }
}
```

We can now add a `u16` to a `u32`.

Defining output of `MyAdd`

- Addition of two given types always yields in one specific type of output
- Add associated type for addition output

```
fn my add(&self, other: &0) -> Self::Output;
     impl MyAdd<u16> for u32 {
         type Output = u64;
 9
         fn my add(&self, other: &u16) -> Self::Output {
10
           *self as u64 + (*other as u64)
11
12
13
14
     impl MyAdd<u32> for u32 {
         type Output = u32;
15
16
17
         fn my add(&self, other: &u32) -> Self::Output {
           *self + *other
18
19
20
```

`std::ops::Add`

The way `std` does it

```
pub trait Add<Rhs = Self> {
    type Output;

fn add(self, rhs: Rhs) -> Self::Output;
}
```

Default type of `Self` for `Rhs`

`impl std::ops::Add`

```
use std::ops::Add;
     pub struct BigNumber(u64);
     impl Add for BigNumber {
      type Output = Self;
      fn add(self, rhs: Self) -> Self::Output {
 8
           BigNumber(self.0 + rhs.0)
 9
10
11
12
    fn main() {
13 // Call `Add::add`
    let res = BigNumber(1).add(BigNumber(2));
14
15 }
```

What's the type of `res`?

`impl std::ops::Add` (2)

```
pub struct BigNumber(u64);

impl std::ops::Add<u32> for BigNumber {
    type Output = u128;

    fn add(self, rhs: u32) -> Self::Output {
        (self.0 as u128) + (rhs as u128)
    }

fn main() {
    let res = BigNumber(1) + 3u32;
}
```

What's the type of `res`?

Traits: Type Parameter vs. Associated Type

Type parameter (input type)

if trait can be implemented for many combinations of types

```
1  // We can add both a u32 value and a u32 reference to a u32
2  impl Add<u32> for u32 {/* */}
3  impl Add<&u32> for u32 {/* */}
```

Associated type (output type)

to define a type for a single implementation

```
impl Add<u32> for u32 {
    // Addition of two u32's is always u32
    type Output = u32;
}
```

`#[derive]` a `trait`

```
#[derive(Clone)]
struct Dolly {
    num_legs: u32,
}

fn main() {
    let dolly = Dolly { num_legs: 4 };
    let second_dolly = dolly.clone();
    assert_eq!(dolly.num_legs, second_dolly.num_legs);
}
```

- Some traits are trivial to implement
- Derive to quickly implement a trait
- For `Clone` : derived `impl` calls `clone` on each field

Orphan rule

Coherence: There must be at most one implementation of a trait for any given type

Trait can be implemented for a type iff:

- Either your crate defines the trait
- Or your crate defines the type

Or both, of course

Compiling generic functions

```
impl MyAdd for i32 {/* - snip - */}
impl MyAdd for f32 {/* - snip - */}

fn add_values<T: MyAdd>(left: &T, right: &T) -> T

{
    left.my_add(right)
}

fn main() {
    let sum_one = add_values(&6, &8);
    assert_eq!(sum_one, 14);
    let sum_two = add_values(&6.5, &7.5);
    println!("Sum two: {}", sum_two); // 14
}
```

Code is *monomorphized*:

- Two versions of `add_values` end up in binary
- Optimized separately and very fast to run (static dispatch)
- Slow to compile and larger binary

Common traits from `std`

Operator overloading: `std::ops::Add<T>` et al.

Shared behavior

```
impl Add for BigNumber {
      fn add(self, rhs: Self) -> Self::Output {
     fn main() {
      // Now we can use `+` to add `BigNumber`s!
13
14
      let res: BigNumber = BigNumber(1) + (BigNumber(2));
```

■ Others: `Mul`, `Div`, `Sub`,...

Markers: `std::marker::Sized`

Marker traits

```
1  /// Types with a constant size known at compile time.
2  /// [...]
3  pub trait Sized { }

`u32` is `Sized`

Slice `[T]`, `str` is not `Sized`

Slice reference `&[T]`, `&str` is `Sized`
```

Others:

- Sync : Types of which references can be shared between threads
- Send: Types that can be transferred across thread boundaries

Default values: `std::default::Default`

```
fn default() -> Self;
     #[derive(Default)] // Derive the trait
     // Or, implement it
10
     impl Default for MyCounter {
11
      fn default() -> Self {
12
13
     MyCounter {
           count: 1, // If you feel so inclined
14
15
16
17
```

Duplication: `std::clone::Clone` & `std::marker::Copy`

```
pub trait Clone: Sized {
    fn clone(&self) -> Self;

fn clone_from(&mut self, source: &Self) {
    *self = source.clone()
    }

pub trait Copy: Clone { } // That's it!
```

- Both `Copy` and `Clone` can be `#[derive]` d
- Copy is a marker trait
- `trait A: B` == "Implementor of `A` must also implement `B` "
- clone_from has default implementation, can be overridden

Conversion: Into<T> & From<T>

```
fn from(value: T) -> Self;
        fn into(self) -> T;
    impl <T, U> Into<U> for T
    where U: From<T>
10
11
12
   fn into(self) -> U {
13
     U::from(self)
14
15 }
```

Blanket implementation

Prefer From over Into if orphan rule allows to

Reference conversion: `AsRef<T>` & `AsMut<T>`

```
pub trait AsRef<T: ?Sized>
{
    fn as_ref(&self) -> &T;
}

pub trait AsMut<T: ?Sized>
{
    fn as_mut(&mut self) -> &mut T;
}
```

- Provide flexibility to API users
- `T` need not be `Sized`, e.g. slices `[T]` can implement `AsRef<T>`, `AsMut<T>`

Reference conversion: `AsRef<T>` & `AsMut<T>` (2)

```
fn print bytes<T: AsRef<[u8]>>(slice: T) {
      for byte in bytes {
     fn main() {
13
       let byte slice: [u8; 4] = [0xFE, 0xED, 0xC0, 0xDE];
14
       print bytes(byte slice);
```

Have user of `print_bytes` choose between stack local `[u8; N]` and heap-allocated `Vec<u8>`

Destruction: `std::ops::Drop`

```
pub trait Drop {
    fn drop(&mut self);
}
```

Called when owner goes out of scope

Destruction: `std::ops::Drop`

```
impl Drop for Inner {
      fn drop(&mut self) {
     impl Drop for Outer {
       fn drop(&mut self) {
19
     fn main() {
       // Explicit drop
20
21
       std::mem::drop(Outer { inner: Inner });
22
```

Output:

- Dropped outer
 Dropped inner
- Destructor runs before members are removed from stack
- Signature `&mut` prevents explicitly dropping`self` or its fields in destructor
- Compiler inserts `std::mem::drop` call at end of scope

```
1  // Implementation of `std::mem::drop`
2  fn drop<T>(_x: T) {}
```

Question: why does `std::mem::drop` work?

Lifetime annotations

What lifetime?

- References refer to variable
- Variable has a lifetime:
 - Start at declaration
 - End at drop

Question: Will this compile?

```
1  /// Return reference to longest of `&str`s
2  fn longer(a: &str, b: &str) -> &str {
3     if a.len() > b.len() {
4         a
5     } else {
6         b
7     }
8  }
```

```
fn longer(a: &str, b: &str) -> &str {
        if a.len() > b.len() {
   Compiling playground v0.0.1 (/playground)
error[E0106]: missing lifetime specifier
 --> src/lib.rs:2:32
2 | fn longer(a: &str, b: &str) -> &str {
                                  ^ expected named lifetime parameter
  = help: this function's return type contains a borrowed value, but the signature does not say whether it is borrowed
```

help: consider introducing a named lifetime parameter

2 | fn longer<'a>(a: &'a str, b: &'a str) -> &'a str {

For more information about this error, try `rustc --explain E0106`.

error: could not compile `playground` due to previous error

++++

Lifetime annotations

```
fn longer<'a>(left: &'a str, right: &'a str) -> &'a str {
    if left.len() > right.len() {
        left
    } else {
        right
    }
}
```

English:

- Given a lifetime called `'a`,
- `longer` takes two references `left` and `right`
- that live for <u>at least</u> `'a`
- and returns a reference that lives for `'a`

Note: Annotations do NOT change the lifetime of variables! Their scopes do!

They just provide information for the borrow checker

Validating boundaries

- Lifetime validation is done within function boundaries
- No information of calling context is used

Question: Why?

Lifetime annotations in types

```
/// A struct that contains a reference to a T
pub struct ContainsRef<'r, T> {
    reference: &'r T
}
```

Lifetime elision

Q: "Why haven't I come across this before?"

A: "Because of lifetime elision!"

Rust compiler has heuristics for eliding lifetime bounds:

- Each elided lifetime in input position becomes a distinct lifetime parameter.
- If there is exactly one input lifetime position (elided or annotated), that lifetime is assigned to all elided output lifetimes.
- If there are multiple input lifetime positions, but one of them is `&self` or `&mut self`, the lifetime of `self` is assigned to all elided output lifetimes.
- Otherwise, annotations are needed to satisfy compiler

Lifetime elision examples

```
fn print(s: &str);
     fn print<'a>(s: &'a str);
     fn debug(lvl: usize, s: &str);
     fn debug<'a>(lvl: usize, s: &'a str);
     fn substr(s: &str, until: usize) -> &str;
     fn substr<'a>(s: &'a str, until: usize) -> &'a str;
     fn get_str() -> &str;
     fn frob(s: &str, t: &str) -> &str;
     fn get mut(&mut self) -> &mut T;
                                                           // elided
14
15
     fn get mut<'a>(&'a mut self) -> &'a mut T;
                                                            // expanded
```

Summary