RUST PROGRAMMING COURSE NOTES

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1. Rust Basics

```
// fields go in structs
struct Dog {
   breed: String,
   age: u32, // unsigned
}
// methods/functions go in "impl" block
impl Dog {
   fn bark(&self) {
       println!("bark!");
   }
}
// add and max functions
fn add(a: i32, b: i32) -> i32{
   a + b // or "return a + b;"
fn max(a: i32, b: i32) -> i32{
   if a > b {
       а
   }
   else {
       b
   }
}
fn order(a: i32, b: i32) -> (i32, i32) {
   if a > b { (b, a) } else { (a, b) }
}
fn my_name() -> String {
   "David".to_string()
}
fn main() {
   // print statement
```

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```
println!("Hello, world!");
   // for loop
   for i in 0..10 {
       println!("i is: {}", i);
   // defining immutable int
   let x: i32 = 0;
   println!("{x}");
   // array
   let arr = [1,2,3,4];
   // using classes
   let sparky = Dog {
       breed: "Chihuahua".to_string(),
       age: 4,
   };
   sparky.bark();
   // testing functions
   println!("{}", add(4, 5));
   let x: i32 = -5;
   // no parentheses around conditionals
   let mut abs: i32 = if x > 0 {
       Х
   } else {
       -x
   };
   abs += 1;
}
```

2. Memory Management in Rust

2.1. Ownership.

Definition 1. Rust uses an **ownership model** to manage memory, with three fundamental rules.

- (1) Every value has an owner (variable/struct).
- (2) Every owner is unique.
- (3) When the owner goes out of scope, the value is dropped (freed).

```
fn main() {
    // allocated on the heap
    let string = "Hello".to_string();
    // dropped
} // 'string' goes out of scope, so "Hello" freed

fn say_string(string: String) {
    println!("{}", string);
}

fn main() {
    let string = "Hello".to_string();
    say_string(string);
    // running say_string(string) again would give an error, as the value
    // is used after the move.
}
```

Ownership is checked at compile time. One approach would be to clone the string with string.clone and to then call the function on it.

Note that this ownership model <u>does not</u> impact "cheap types" like integers, booleans, and floats.

2.2. **References.** We can use '&' for references. For example, we could pass a reference to an initial string and call say_string on it just fine.

```
fn say_string(string: &String) {
    println!("{}", string);
}

fn main() {
    let string = "Hello".to_string();
    say_string(&string);
    say_string(&string);
}
```

Another example:

```
fn main() { // this is okay, as a loses ownership to b.
    let b;
    {
        let a = "Hello".to_string();
        say_string(&a);
        b = a;
    }
    say_string(&b);
}
```

Let's now try to implement a counter.

```
struct Counter {
    count: u32,
}

impl Counter {
    fn get_count(&self) -> u32 {
        self.count
    }

    fn increment(&mut_self) {
        self.count += 1
    }
}

fn main() {
    let mut counter = Counter {count : 0};
    // mutable reference needs to have mutable 'var' owner
}
```

You can take one mutable reference or as many immutable references as you want at a time (but not both).

```
let mut vec: vec![1, 2, 3];
let first = &vec[0];
vec.clear(); // mutable reference

printn!("{}", first) // first is an immutable borrow, and we cannot have both
   at the same time
```