

Struct

Structs and enums are the building blocks for creating new types in your program's domain to take full advantage of Rust's compile time type checking.

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Structure Definition

- A structure is defined as a group of *fields*.

```
struct User {  
    active: bool,  
    username: String,  
    email: String,  
    sign_in_count: u64,  
}
```

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Structure Creation and Accessing Fields

- Create an instance by specifying **key: value** pair for each field.
- Order of the fields doesn't matter.
- To get a specific value from a struct, use dot notation like `user1.email`.

```
let mut user1 = User {  
    email: String::from("someone@example.com"),  
    username: String::from("someusername123"),  
    active: true,  
    sign_in_count: 1,  
};  
  
let email = user1.email;
```

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Mutable Structure Instance

- In order to mutate a structure instance, the entire instance must be mutable (**inherited mutability**); Rust doesn't allow us to mark only certain fields as mutable.

```
let mut user1 = User {  
    email: String::from("someone@example.com"),  
    username: String::from("someusername123"),  
    active: true,  
    sign_in_count: 1,  
};  
  
user1.email = String::from("anotheremail@example.com");
```

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Using the Field Init Shorthand

```
fn build_user(email: String, username: String) -> User {
    User {
        email,    // values omitted because fields and parameters
        username, // have the same names.
        active: true,
        sign_in_count: 1,
    }
}
```

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Creating Instances From Other Instances With Struct Update Syntax

- The syntax `..` specifies that the remaining fields not explicitly set should have the same value as the fields in the given instance.

```
let user1 = User { ... }
let user2 = User {
    active: user1.active,
    username: user1.username,
    email: String::from("another@example.com"),
    sign_in_count: user1.sign_in_count,
};

let user2 = User {
    email: String::from("another@example.com"),
    ..user1 // must come last to be effective
};
```

*Since **move** semantics applied, **user1** is no longer available after **user2** is created.*

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Tuple Structs

- Tuple structs are useful when you want to give the whole tuple a name and make the tuple a different type from other tuples.

```
struct Color(i32, i32, i32);
struct Point(i32, i32, i32);

fn main() {
    let black = Color(0, 0, 0);
    let origin = Point(0, 0, 0);
}
```

Note that the black and origin values are different types

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Unit-Like Structs Without Any Fields

- You can also define structs that don't have any fields!
- Useful when you need to implement a trait on some type but don't have any data that you want to store in the type itself.

```
struct AlwaysEqual;

fn main() {
    let subject = AlwaysEqual; // No need for curly brackets or parentheses!
}
```

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[Very Hard!!!] Ownership of Struct Data

- This code doesn't compile.
- Guess why?

```
struct User {  
    active: bool,  
    username: &str,  
    email: &str,  
    sign_in_count: u64,  
}  
  
fn main() {  
    let user1 = User {  
        email: "someone@example.com",  
        username: "someusername123",  
        active: true,  
        sign_in_count: 1,  
    };  
}
```



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Newtype Pattern with Single Element Tuple Struct

- The simplest use of the **newtype pattern** is to indicate additional semantics for a type, over and above its normal behaviour.

```
struct Username(String);  
  
struct Password(String);  
  
fn login(username: Username, password: Password) {  
    // ...  
}
```

- The other common, but more subtle, scenario that requires the newtype pattern revolves around Rust's **orphan rule**.

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Newtype Limitations

- Every operation that involves the newtype needs to forward to the inner type.
- Any trait implementations on the inner type are lost.

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Associated Functions and Methods

We can associate some behaviors to a specific type or type instances like static methods and instance methods in OO languages.

- **Associated Functions**

- Associated functions are functions that are defined on a type generally
- Corresponds to *static methods* in OO languages

- **Methods**

- Methods are associated functions that are called on a particular instance of a type.
- Corresponds to *instance methods* in OO languages

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Associated Functions

```
struct Point { x : f64, y: f64 }
```

- We may have one or more implementation blocks for a given type.

```
// Implementation block, all `Point` associated functions & methods go in here
impl Point {
    // This is an "associated function" because this function is associated with
    // a particular type, that is, Point.
    //
    // Associated functions don't need to be called with an instance.
    // These functions are generally used like constructors.
    fn origin() -> Point {
        Point { x: 0.0, y: 0.0 }
    }

    // Another associated function acting as constructors:
    fn new(x: f64, y: f64) -> Point {
        Point { x: x, y: y }
    }
}
```

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Methods

```
struct Rectangle { p1: Point, p2: Point }
```

```
impl Rectangle {
    // `&self` is sugar for `self: &Self`, where `Self` is the type of the
    // caller object. In this case `Self` = `Rectangle`
    fn area(&self) -> f64 {
        // `self` gives access to the struct fields via the dot operator
        let Point { x: x1, y: y1 } = self.p1;
        let Point { x: x2, y: y2 } = self.p2;

        ((x1 - x2) * (y1 - y2)).abs() // `abs` is a `f64` method
    }

    // This method requires the caller object to be mutable
    // `&mut self` is sugar for `self: &mut Self`
    fn translate(&mut self, x: f64, y: f64) {
        self.p1.x += x; self.p2.x += x;
        self.p1.y += y; self.p2.y += y;
    }
}
```

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Calling Associated Functions and Methods

```
let rectangle = Rectangle {  
  // Associated functions are called using double colons  
  p1: Point::origin(), p2: Point::new(3.0, 4.0),  
};  
  
// Methods are called using the dot operator  
// Note that the first argument `&self` is implicitly passed, i.e.  
// `rectangle.perimeter()` == `Rectangle::perimeter(&rectangle)`  
println!("Rectangle perimeter: {}", rectangle.perimeter());  
println!("Rectangle area: {}", rectangle.area());  
  
// Error! `rectangle` is immutable, but this method requires a mutable object  
rectangle.translate(1.0, 0.0);  
  
let mut square = Rectangle {  
  p1: Point::origin(), p2: Point::new(1.0, 1.0),  
};
```

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Enums and Pattern Matching

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Enumerations (or Enums)

- Enums allow you to define a type by enumerating its possible “**variants**”, i.e., a possible set of values.

```
// IpAddrKind is now a custom data type
enum IpAddrKind {
    V4,    // unit-like variant
    V6,
}

// Create instances of each of the two variants of IpAddrKind.
let four = IpAddrKind::V4;
let six = IpAddrKind::V6;

// The `route` function is defined to take an `IpAddrKind` enum.
fn route(ip_kind: IpAddrKind) { ... }

route(IpAddrKind::V4);
route(IpAddrKind::V6);
```

Each variant acts as a constructor.

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enum can have variants with different types

- The important detail is that each enum variant can have data to go along with it.

```
enum Animal {
    // Enum constructors can have either named or unnamed fields:
    Dog(String, f64), // tuple-like
    Cat {             // struct-like
        name: String,
        weight: f64,
    },
}

let mut a: Animal = Animal::Dog("Cocoa".to_string(), 37.2);
a = Animal::Cat { name: "Spotty".to_string(), weight: 2.7 };
```

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Discriminant

- Each enum instance has a *discriminant* which is an integer associated to it.

```
enum Foo {  
    Bar, // 0 - starts at 0 by default  
    Baz, // 1  
    Quux, // 2  
}  
  
let baz_discriminant = Foo::Baz as isize;  
assert_eq!(baz_discriminant, 1);  
  
enum Fruit {  
    Apple = -1, // -1  
    Banana = 42, // 42  
    Orange, // 43  
}
```

If an enum has only unit variants, then the numeric value of the discriminant can be accessed with an `[as]` cast:

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Discriminant (cont'd)

```
#[derive(Debug)]  
enum Fruit { Apple, Banana, Orange }  
  
impl From<u8> for Fruit {  
    fn from(discriminant: u8) -> Self {  
        match discriminant {  
            0 => Fruit::Apple,  
            1 => Fruit::Banana,  
            2 => Fruit::Orange,  
            _ => unreachable!(),  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
fn to_fruit(ordinal: u8) -> Fruit  
{  
    Fruit::from(ordinal)  
}  
  
for ordinal in 0..3 {  
    let fruit = to_fruit(ordinal);  
    println!("fruit: {fruit:?}");  
}
```

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Option<T> enum

- “Null References: The Billion Dollar Mistake,” Tony Hoare
- Rust doesn’t have the null feature that many other languages have.
- `Option` is an **enum** defined by the standard library.

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

Option type encodes the very common scenario in which a value could be something or it could be nothing.

```
let some_number: Option<i32> = Some(5);  
let some_char: Option<char> = Some('e');
```

```
let absent_number: Option<i32> = None; // explicitly set to None required
```

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Find the square of the second even number which is greater than 11.

```
let vs = [1, 11, 16, 7, 4, 15, 6, 14, 9];
```

```
fn find(vs: &[i32]) -> Option<i32> {  
    let mut count = 0;  
    for v in vs {  
        if *v % 2 == 0 && *v > 11 {  
            count += 1;  
            if count == 2 {  
                return Some(v * v);  
            }  
        }  
    }  
    None  
}  
  
assert_eq!(find(&vs), Some(196));
```

```
fn find(vs: &[i32]) -> Option<i32> {  
    vs.iter()  
        .filter(|&v| *v % 2 == 0 && *v > 11)  
        .skip(1)  
        .map(|v| v * v)  
        .next()  
}  
  
assert_eq!(find(&vs), Some(196));
```

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Pattern Matching

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C++ Switch vs. Rust Match

C++ switch statement

```
int whatIsThis = 10;
switch (whatIsThis) {
case 8:
case 10:
    doSomething(); break;
case 12:
    doSomethingElse(); break;
default:
    doDefault();
}
```

Rust match expression

```
let whatIsThis = 8;
match whatIsThis {
    8 | 10 => do_something(),
    12     => do_something_else(),
    -     => do_default(),
}
```

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Pattern Matching
a.k.a.
Switch on steroids



Slide from Karel Smutný

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Pattern Matching
a.k.a.
Batman's toolbelt

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Given the following code ...

```
#[derive(Debug, Clone)]
enum Character {
    Civilian {
        name: String,
        wealth: Wealth,
    },
    SuperHero {
        name: String,
        powers: Vec<Power>,
        alterEgo: Option<Box<Character>>,
    },
}
use Character::*;
```

```
let tonyStark = Character::Civilian {
    name: "Tony Stark".to_string(),
    wealth: 10000000000.0,
};

let ironMan = Character::SuperHero {
    name: "Iron Man".to_string(),
    powers: vec![100, 200, 300],
    alterEgo: Some(Box::new(tonyStark)),
};

let unknownPerson: Character =
    get_Character();
```

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The Problem

What are the **super powers** of an unknown person if it is a **super hero** who's alter ego is **Tony Stark**?

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Java

```
if (unknownPerson instanceof SuperHero) {  
    final SuperHero hero = (SuperHero) unknownPerson;  
    if (hero.alterEgo.equals(tonyStark)) {  
        return hero.powers;  
    } else {  
        return null;  
    }  
} else {  
    return null;  
}
```

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Rust

How cool is that?

```
match unknownPerson {  
    SuperHero {  
        name: _,  
        powers,  
        alterEgo: tonyStark,  
    } => Some(powers),  
    _ => None,  
};
```



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Pattern Matching

```
match expression {  
  pattern1 => expression1,  
  pattern2 => expression2,  
  pattern3 => expression3,  
}
```

Each "pattern => expression"
pair is called an "arm"

```
enum Coin { Penny, Nickel, Dime, Quarter, }  
  
fn value_in_cents(coin: Coin) -> u8 {  
  match coin {  
    Coin::Penny => {  
      println!("Lucky penny!");  
      1  
    }  
    Coin::Nickel => 5,  
    Coin::Dime => 10,  
    Coin::Quarter => 25,  
  }  
}
```

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Pattern matching should be exhaustive

- Matches in Rust are exhaustive. The arms' patterns must cover all possibilities.

```
fn plus_one(x: Option<i32>) -> Option<i32> {  
  // Error: non-exhaustive patterns: `None` not covered  
  match x {  
    Some(i) => Some(i + 1),  
  }  
}
```

Error: non-exhaustive patterns: `None` not covered

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Catch All Pattern (*aka* Wildcard Pattern)

- Note that we have to **put the *catch-all arm last*** because the patterns are *evaluated in order*.
- The “`_`” pattern will match any value.

By putting it last, the “`_`” will match all the possible cases that aren’t specified before it.

```
let dice_roll = 9;
match dice_roll {
  3 => add_fancy_hat(),
  7 => remove_fancy_hat(),
  _ => (), // _ is the placeholder pattern
}
```

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Multiple Patterns

```
let x = get_int();

match x {
  1 | 2 => println!("one or two"),
  3 => println!("three"),
  _ => println!("anything"),
}
```

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Matching Ranges of Values with .. or ..=

```
let x = get_int();
match x {
  1..=5 => println!("one through five"),
  _ => println!("something else"),
}

let x = get_char();
match x {
  'a'..'j' => println!("early ASCII letter"),
  'k'..'z' => println!("late ASCII letter"),
  _ => println!("something else"),
}
```

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Patterns that Bind to Values

- Match arms can bind to the parts of the values that match the pattern.

```
fn plus_one(opt: Option<i32>) -> Option<i32> {
  match opt {
    None => None,
    Some(i) => {
      println!("current value = {i}");
      Some(i + 1)
    }
  }
}
```

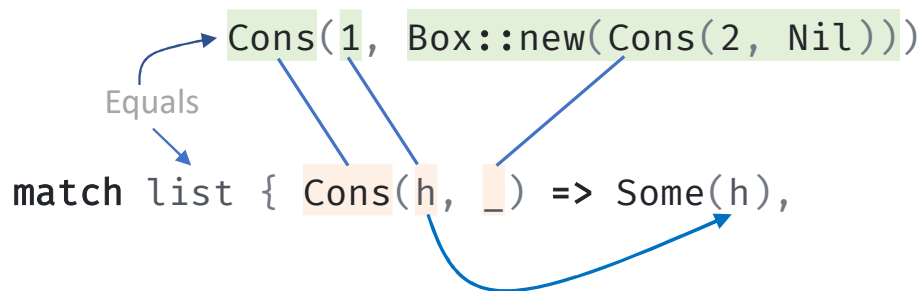
opt: Some(42)

pattern: Some(**i**)

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Destructuring to Break apart Values

```
enum List { Nil, Cons(i32, Box<List>) }  
use List::{Cons, Nil};  
  
let list = Cons(1, Box::new(Cons(2, Nil)));  
  
let maybe_head = match list {  
  Cons(h, _) => Some(h),  
  _ => None,  
};
```



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Destructuring Structs

```
struct Point { x: i32, y: i32 }  
  
let p = Point { x: 0, y: 7 };  
let Point { x: a, y: b } = p;  
  
// Shorthand if the variables and fields have the same name:  
let Point { x, y } = p;  
  
match p {  
  Point { x, y: 0 } => println!("On the x axis at {x}"),  
  Point { x: 0, y } => println!("On the y axis at {y}"),  
  Point { x, y }    => println!("On neither axis: ({x}, {y})"),  
}
```

Since all items (x and y) are Copy, Point is automatically Copy.

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Destructuring Enums

```
enum Message {
    Quit,
    Move { x: i32, y: i32 },
    Write(String),
    ChangeColor(i32, i32, i32),
}

let msg = Message::ChangeColor(0, 160, 255);

match msg {
    Message::Quit => { println!("The Quit variant has no data to destructure."); }
    Message::Move { x, y } => {
        println!("Move in the x direction {x} and in the y direction {y}");
    }
    Message::Write(text) => { println!("Text message: {text}"); }
    Message::ChangeColor(r, g, b) => {
        println!("Change the color to red {r}, green {g}, and blue {b}")
    }
}
```

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Destructuring nested structs and enums

```
enum Color {
    Rgb(i32, i32, i32),
    Hsv(i32, i32, i32),
}

enum Message {
    Quit,
    Move { x: i32, y: i32 },
    Write(String),
    ChangeColor(Color),
}

let msg = ChangeColor(Hsv(0, 160, 255));

match msg {
    ChangeColor(Rgb(r, g, b)) => {
        println!("Change color to red {r}, green {g}, and blue {b}");
    }
    ChangeColor(Hsv(h, s, v)) => {
        println!("Change color to hue {h}, saturation {s}, value {v}");
    }
    _ => (),
}
```

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Ignoring Values in a Pattern

There are a few ways to ignore entire values or parts of values:

- using the `_` pattern (as a catch-all pattern),
- using the `_` pattern within another pattern,
- using a name that starts with an underscore, or
- using `..` to ignore remaining parts of a value.

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Ignoring an Entire Value with `_`

```
fn foo(_: i32, y: i32) {  
    println!("This code only uses the y parameter: {y}");  
}  
  
fn main() {  
    foo(3, 4);  
}
```

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Ignoring Parts of a Value with Nested `_`

```
let mut setting_value = Some(5);
let new_setting_value = Some(10);

match (setting_value, new_setting_value) {
    (Some(_), Some(_)) => {
        println!("Can't overwrite an existing customized value");
    }
    _ => {
        setting_value = new_setting_value;
    }
}

println!("setting is {setting_value:?}");
```

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Ignoring an Unused Variable by Starting Its Name with `_`

```
fn main() {
    let _x = 5; // No compiler warning!
    let y = 10;

    println!("y = {y}");
}
```

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Ignoring Remaining Parts of a Value with ..

```
struct Point { x: i32, y: i32, z: i32 }
let origin = Point { x: 0, y: 0, z: 0 };
match origin {
    Point { x, .. } => println!("x is {x}"),
}

let numbers = (2, 4, 8, 16, 32);
match numbers {
    (first, .., last) => {
        println!("Some numbers: {first}, {last}");
    }
}
```

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Extra Conditionals with Match Guards

```
let num = Some(4);
match num {
    Some(x) if x % 2 == 0 => println!("The number {x} is even"),
    Some(x) => println!("The number {x} is odd"),
    None => (),
}

let x = 4;
let y = false;
match x {
    4 | 5 | 6 if y => println!("yes"),
    _ => println!("no"),
}
```

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Extra Conditionals with Match Guards (Cont'd)

```
let x = Some(5);
let y = 10;

match x {
  Some(50) => println!("Got 50"),
  Some(n) if n == y =>
    println!("Matched, n = {n}"),
  _ => println!("Default case, x = {x:?}"),
}

println!("at the end: x = {x:?}, y = {y}");
```

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The @ Bindings

```
enum Message {
  Hello { id: i32 },
}

let msg = Message::Hello { id: 5 };

match msg {
  Message::Hello { id: id_variable @ 3..=7 } =>
    println!("Found an id in range: {id_variable}"),
  Message::Hello { id: 10..=12 } => {
    println!("Found an id in another range")
  }
  Message::Hello { id } => println!("Found some other id: {id}"),
}
```

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let Statement

let PATTERN = EXPRESSION;

```
let (x, _, z) = (1, 2, 3);  
println!("x = {x}");  
println!("z = {z}");
```

≡

```
match (1, 2, 3) {  
  (x, _, z) => {  
    println!("x = {x}");  
    println!("z = {z}");  
  }  
}
```

let Statement (Cont'd)

let PATTERN = EXPRESSION;

```
let x = 5; // "bind everything to the variable x, whatever the value is."

let (x, y) = (1, 2, 3); // error: expected tuple with 2 elements,
                       // found tuple with 3 elements
let (x, y, _) = (1, 2, 3);

// Destructuring Structs and Tuples
let ((feet, inches), Point { x, y }) = ((3, 10), Point { x: 3, y: -10 });
```

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for-Loops

- In a for-loop, the value that directly follows the keyword **for** is a pattern.
- For example, in `for x in y` the `x` is the pattern.

```
let v = vec!['a', 'b', 'c'];

for (index, value) in v.iter().enumerate() {
    println!("{value} is at index {index}");
}
```

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Function Parameters

- Function parameters can also be patterns.

```
fn main() {  
    let point = (3, 5);  
    print_coordinates(&point);  
}  
  
fn print_coordinates(&(x, y): &(i32, i32)) {  
    println!("Current location: ({x}, {y})");  
}
```

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Concise Control Flow with `if let`

- The `if let` syntax lets you combine `if` and `let` into a less verbose way to handle values that match one pattern while ignoring the rest.

```
let config_max = Some(3u8);  
  
match config_max {  
    Some(max) => println!("maximum: {max}"),  
    _ => (),  
}  
  
// The syntax `if let` takes a pattern and an expression  
// separated by an equal sign.  
if let Some(max) = config_max {  
    println!("maximum: {max}");  
}
```

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`if let` can have `else if` or `else`

```
let coin = Coin::Quarter(UsState::Alaska);
let mut count = 0;

if let Coin::Quarter(state) = coin {
    println!("State quarter from {state:?}!");
} else {
    count += 1;
}
```

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`while let` Conditional Loop

```
let mut stack = Vec::new();

stack.push(1);
stack.push(2);
stack.push(3);

while let Some(top) = stack.pop() {
    println!("{top}");
}
```

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The ref Pattern

- The `ref` keyword makes a variable **bound to the reference** of a target.
- When doing pattern matching or destructuring via the `let` binding, the `ref` keyword can be used to take references to the fields of a struct/tuple.

```
#[derive(Debug)]
struct Person { name: String, age: Box<u8> }

let person = Person { name: String::from("Alice"), age: Box::new(20) };

// `name` is moved out of person, but `age` is referenced
let Person { name, ref age } = person;
```

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The ref Pattern (Cont'd)

```
#[test]
fn both_are_the_same() {
    let s = String::from("Rusty!");
    let y = &s;
    let ref x = s; // also works, but discouraged
                  // #[warn(clippy::toplevel_ref_arg)]
    assert_eq!(*x, *y);
}
```

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Notes on `ref`

- `ref` on an entire `let` pattern is discouraged, take a reference with `&` instead.

```
let s = String::from("Rusty!");  
let ref x = s; // discouraged  
let x = &s; // preferred  
  
fn foo(ref _x: u8) {} // discouraged  
fn foo(x: &u8) {} // preferred
```

- *Note that `&` takes part in the matching process, whereas `ref` does not.*

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So, when to use `ref`?

*“You want to pattern match against a variable,
but want to **bind to the reference of the variable**
from then on.”*

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Partial Moves

- Within the destructuring of a single variable, both *by-move* and *by-reference* pattern bindings can be used at the same time.
- This **partial move** means that parts of the variable will be moved while other parts stay.
- In such a case, the parent variable cannot be used afterwards as a whole, however the parts that are only referenced (and not moved) can still be used.

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Partial Moves (Cont'd)

```
#[derive(Debug)]
struct Person {
    name: String,
    age: Box<u8>,
}

let person = Person { name: String::from("Alice"), age: Box::new(20) };

// `name` is moved out of person, but `age` is referenced
let Person { name, ref age } = person;

println!("The person's age is {age} and name is {name}");

// Error! borrow of partially moved value: `person` partial move occurs
println!("The person struct is {person:?}");

// `person` cannot be used but `person.age` can be used as it is not moved
println!("The person's age from person struct is {}", person.age);
```

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Summary

- Use **enums** to create custom types that can be one of a set of enumerated values.
- Standard library's `Option<T>` type helps you use the type system to prevent errors.
- When **enum** values have data inside them, you can use `match` or `if let` to extract and use those values, depending on how many cases you need to handle.
- Your Rust programs can now express concepts in your domain using **structs** and **enums**.
- Creating custom types to use in your API ensures **type safety**: the compiler will make certain your functions get only values of the type each function expects.