



Rust Language Cheat Sheet

5. July 2022

Contains clickable links to **The Book** ^{BK}(<https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/>), **Rust by Example** ^{EX}(<https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/>), **Std Docs** ^{STD}(<https://doc.rust-lang.org/std>), **Nomicon** ^{NOM}(<https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/>), **Reference** ^{REF}.



Data Structures

Data types and memory locations defined via keywords.

Example	Explanation
<pre>struct S {}</pre>	Define a struct ^{BK} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch05-00-structs.html) ^{EX} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/custom_types/structs.html) ^{STD} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/keyword.struct.html) ^{REF} with named fields.
<pre>struct S { x: T }</pre>	Define struct with named field <code>x</code> of type <code>T</code> .
<pre>struct S (T);</pre>	Define "tupled" struct with numbered field <code>.0</code> of type <code>T</code> .
<pre>struct S;</pre>	Define zero sized ^{NOM} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/exotic-sizes.html#zero-sized-types-zsts) unit struct. Occupies no space, optimized away.
<pre>enum E {}</pre>	Define an enum , ^{BK} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch06-01-defining-an-enum.html) ^{EX} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/custom_types/enum.html#enums) ^{REF} c. algebraic data types, tagged unions .
<pre>enum E { A, B (), C {} }</pre>	Define variants of enum; can be unit- <code>A</code> , tuple- <code>B ()</code> and struct-like <code>C{}</code> .
<pre>enum E { A = 1 }</pre>	If variants are only unit-like, allow discriminant values, e.g., for FFI.
<pre>union U {}</pre>	Unsafe C-like union ^{REF} for FFI compatibility.
<pre>static X: T = T();</pre>	Global variable ^{BK} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-01-unsafe-rust.html#acessing-or-modifying-a-mutable-static-variable) ^{EX} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/custom_types/constants.html#constants) ^{REF} with <code>'static</code> lifetime, single memory location.
<pre>const X: T = T();</pre>	Defines constant , ^{BK} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch03-01-variables-and-mutability.html#constants) ^{EX} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/custom_types/constants.html) ^{REF} copied into a temporary when used.
<pre>let x: T;</pre>	Allocate <code>T</code> bytes on stack ¹ bound as <code>x</code> . Assignable once, not mutable.
<pre>let mut x: T;</pre>	Like <code>let</code> , but allow for mutability ^{BK} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch03-01-variables-and-mutability.html) ^{EX} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/variable_bindings/mut.html) and mutable borrow. ²
<pre>x = y;</pre>	Moves <code>y</code> to <code>x</code> , invalidating <code>y</code> if <code>T</code> is not <code>Copy</code> , ^{STD} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/marker/trait.Copy.html) and copying <code>y</code> otherwise.

¹ **Bound variables** [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch03-01-variables-and-mutability.html) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/variable_bindings.html) REF live on stack for synchronous code. In `async { }` they become part of `async`'s state machine, may reside on heap.

² Technically *mutable* and *immutable* are misnomer. Immutable binding or shared reference may still contain Cell [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/cell/index.html), giving *interior mutability*.

Creating and accessing data structures; and some more *sigilic* types.

Example	Explanation
<code>S { x: y }</code>	Create <code>struct S {}</code> or <code>use 'ed enum E::S {}</code> with field <code>x</code> set to <code>y</code> .
<code>S { x }</code>	Same, but use local variable <code>x</code> for field <code>x</code> .
<code>S { ..s }</code>	Fill remaining fields from <code>s</code> , esp. useful with <code>Default</code> .
<code>S { 0: x }</code>	Like <code>S(x)</code> below, but set field <code>.0</code> with struct syntax.
<code>S(x)</code>	Create <code>struct S(T)</code> or <code>use 'ed enum E::S()</code> with field <code>.0</code> set to <code>x</code> .
<code>S</code>	If <code>S</code> is unit <code>struct S;</code> or <code>use 'ed enum E::S</code> create value of <code>S</code> .
<code>E::C { x: y }</code>	Create enum variant <code>C</code> . Other methods above also work.
<code>()</code>	Empty tuple, both literal and type, aka unit . [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/primitive.unit.html)
<code>(x)</code>	Parenthesized expression.
<code>(x,)</code>	Single-element tuple expression. [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/primitives/tuples.html) [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/primitive.tuple.html) REF
<code>(S,)</code>	Single-element tuple type.
<code>[S]</code>	Array type of unspecified length, i.e., slice . [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/primitives/array.html) [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/primitive.slice.html) REF Can't live on stack. *
<code>[S; n]</code>	Array type [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/primitives/array.html) [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/primitive.array.html) of fixed length <code>n</code> holding elements of type <code>S</code> .
<code>[x; n]</code>	Array instance with <code>n</code> copies of <code>x</code> . REF
<code>[x, y]</code>	Array instance with given elements <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> .
<code>x[0]</code>	Collection indexing, here w. <code>usize</code> . Implementable with Index , IndexMut .
<code>x[..]</code>	Same, via range (here <i>full range</i>), also <code>x[a..b]</code> , <code>x[a..=b]</code> , ... c. below.
<code>a..b</code>	Right-exclusive range [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ops/struct.Range.html) REF creation, e.g., <code>1..3</code> means <code>1, 2</code> .
<code>..b</code>	Right-exclusive range to [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ops/struct.RangeTo.html) without starting point.
<code>..=b</code>	Inclusive range to [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ops/struct.RangeToInclusive.html) without starting point.
<code>a..=b</code>	Inclusive range , [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ops/struct.RangeInclusive.html) <code>1..=3</code> means <code>1, 2, 3</code> .
<code>a..</code>	Range from [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ops/struct.RangeFrom.html) without ending point.
<code>..</code>	Full range , [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ops/struct.RangeFull.html) usually means <i>the whole collection</i> .
<code>s.x</code>	Named field access , REF might try to <code>Deref</code> if <code>x</code> not part of type <code>S</code> .
<code>s.0</code>	Numbered field access, used for tuple types <code>S(T)</code> .

* For now, RFC pending completion of tracking issue.

References & Pointers

Granting access to un-owned memory. Also see section on Generics & Constraints.

Example	Explanation
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Example

Explanation

&S	Shared reference [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch04-02-references-and-borrowing.html) [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/primitive.reference.html) [NOM](https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/references.html) REF (space for holding any &s).
&[S]	Special slice reference that contains (address , length).
&str	Special string slice reference that contains (address , length).
&mut S	Exclusive reference to allow mutability (also &mut [S] , &mut dyn S , ...).
&dyn T	Special trait object [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch17-02-trait-objects.html#using-trait-objects-that-allow-for-values-of-different-types) reference that contains (address , vtable).
&s	Shared borrow [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch04-02-references-and-borrowing.html) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/scope/borrow.html) [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/borrow/trait.Borrow.html) (e.g., address, len, vtable, ... of this s , like 0x1234).
&mut s	Exclusive borrow that allows mutability . [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/scope/borrow/mut.html)
*const S	Immutable raw pointer type [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-01-unsafe-rust.html#dereferencing-a-raw-pointer) [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/primitive.pointer.html) REF w/o memory safety.
*mut S	Mutable raw pointer type w/o memory safety.
&raw const s	Create raw pointer w/o going through reference; c. ptr:addr_of!() [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ptr/macro.addr_of.html) 🚧
&raw mut s	Same, but mutable. 🚧 Raw ptrs. are needed for unaligned, packed fields.
ref s	Bind by reference , [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/scope/borrow/ref.html) makes binding reference type. 🚧
let ref r = s;	Equivalent to let r = &s .
let S { ref mut x } = s;	Mutable ref binding (let x = &mut s.x), shorthand destructuring ↗ version.
*r	Dereference [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch15-02-deref.html) [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ops/trait.Deref.html) [NOM](https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/vec-deref.html) a reference r to access what it points to.
*r = s;	If r is a mutable reference, move or copy s to target memory.
s = *r;	Make s a copy of whatever r references, if that is Copy .
s = *r;	Won't work 🛑 if *r is not Copy , as that would move and leave empty place.
s = *my_box;	Special case [🔗](https://www.reddit.com/r/rust/comments/b4so6i/what_is_exactly/ej8xwg8) for Box that can also move out Box'ed content if it isn't Copy .
'a	A lifetime parameter , [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch10-00-generics.html) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/scope/lifetime.html) [NOM](https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/lifetimes.html) REF duration of a flow in static analysis.
&'a S	Only accepts an address holding an s ; addr. existing 'a or longer.
&'a mut S	Same, but allow content of address to be changed.
struct S<'a> {}	Signals s will contain address with lifetime 'a . Creator of s decides 'a .

Example	Explanation
trait T<'a> {}	Signals a <code>S</code> which <code>impl T for S</code> might contain address.
fn f<'a>(&'a T)	Same, for function. Caller decides <code>'a</code> .
'static	Special lifetime lasting the entire program execution.
Functions & Behavior	
Define units of code and their abstractions.	
Example	Explanation
trait T {}	Define a trait ; [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch10-02-trait.html) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/trait.html) REF common behavior others can implement.
trait T : R {}	<code>T</code> is subtrait of supertrait [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-03-advanced-traits.html#using-supertraits-to-require-one-trait-functionality-within-another-trait) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/trait/supertraits.html) REF R. Any <code>S</code> must <code>impl R</code> before it can <code>impl T</code> .
impl S {}	Implementation REF of functionality for a type <code>S</code> , e.g., methods.
impl T for S {}	Implement trait <code>T</code> for type <code>S</code> .
impl !T for S {}	Disable an automatically derived auto trait . [NOM](https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/send-and-sync.html) REF ??
fn f() {}	Definition of a function ; [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch03-03-how-functions-work.html) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/fn.html) REF or associated function if inside <code>impl</code> .
fn f() -> S {}	Same, returning a value of type <code>S</code> .
fn f(&self) {}	Define a method , [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch05-03-method-syntax.html) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/fn/methods.html) REF e.g., within an <code>impl S {}</code> .
struct S(T);	More arcaneously, also ¹ defines <code>fn S(x: T) -> S</code> constructor function . RFC
const fn f() {}	Constant <code>fn</code> usable at compile time, e.g., <code>const X: u32 = f(Y)</code> . ¹⁸
async fn f() {}	Async REF ¹⁸ function transformation, ¹ makes <code>f</code> return an <code>impl Future</code> . [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/future/trait.Future.html)
async fn f() -> S {}	Same, but make <code>f</code> return an <code>impl Future<Output=S></code> .
async { x }	Used within a function, make <code>{ x }</code> an <code>impl Future<Output=X></code> .
fn() -> S	Function pointers , [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-05-advanced-functions-and-closures.html#function-pointers) [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/primitive.fn.html) REF memory holding address of a callable.
Fn() -> S	Callable Trait [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-05-advanced-functions-and-closures.html#returning-closures) [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ops/trait.Fn.html) (also <code>FnMut</code> , <code>FnOnce</code>), implemented by closures, fn's ...
{}	A closure [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch13-01-closures.html) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/fn/closures.html) REF that borrows its captures , ¹ REF (e.g., a local variable).

Example	Explanation
x {}	Closure accepting one argument named <code>x</code> , body is block expression.
x x + x	Same, without block expression; may only consist of single expression.
move x x + y	Closure taking ownership of its captures; i.e., <code>y</code> transferred to closure.
return true	Closures sometimes look like logical ORs (here: return a closure).
unsafe	If you enjoy debugging segfaults Friday night; unsafe code . [↑] [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-01-unsafe-rust.html#unsafe-superpowers) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/unsafe.html#unsafe-operations) [NOM](https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/meet-safe-and-unsafe.html) REF
unsafe fn f() {}	Means "calling can cause UB, [↑] YOU must check requirements ".
unsafe trait T {}	Means "careless impl. of <code>T</code> can cause UB; implementor must check ".
unsafe { f(); }	Guarantees to compiler " I have checked requirements, trust me ".
unsafe impl T for S {}	Guarantees <code>S</code> is well-behaved w.r.t <code>T</code> ; people may use <code>T</code> on <code>S</code> safely.

Control Flow

Control execution within a function.

Example	Explanation
while x {}	Loop , REF run while expression <code>x</code> is true.
loop {}	Loop indefinitely REF until <code>break</code> . Can yield value with <code>break x</code> .
for x in iter {}	Syntactic sugar to loop over iterators . [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch13-02-iterators.html) [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/iter/index.html) REF
if x {} else {}	Conditional branch REF if expression is true.
'label: loop {}	Loop label , [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/flow_control/loop/nested.html) REF useful for flow control in nested loops.
break	Break expression REF to exit a loop.
break x	Same, but make <code>x</code> value of the loop expression (only in actual <code>loop</code>).
break 'label	Exit not only this loop, but the enclosing one marked with <code>'label</code> .
break 'label x	Same, but make <code>x</code> the value of the enclosing loop marked with <code>'label</code> .
continue	Continue expression REF to the next loop iteration of this loop.

Example	Explanation
continue 'label	Same but instead of this loop, enclosing loop marked with 'label.
x?	If <code>x</code> is <code>Err</code> or <code>None</code> , return and propagate. [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch09-02-recoverable-errors-with-result.html#propagating-errors) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/error/result/enter_question_mark.html) [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/result/index.html#the-question-mark-operator-) REF
x.await	Only works inside <code>async</code> . Yield flow until <code>Future</code> [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/future/trait.Future.html) or <code>Stream</code> <code>x</code> ready. REF '18
return x	Early return from function. More idiomatic way is to end with expression.
f()	Invoke callable <code>f</code> (e.g., a function, closure, function pointer, <code>Fn</code> , ...).
x.f()	Call member function, requires <code>f</code> takes <code>self</code> , <code>&self</code> , ... as first argument.
x::f(x)	Same as <code>x.f()</code> . Unless <code>impl Copy</code> for <code>x {}</code> , <code>f</code> can only be called once.
x::f(&x)	Same as <code>x.f()</code> .
x::f(&mut x)	Same as <code>x.f()</code> .
s::f(&x)	Same as <code>x.f()</code> if <code>x</code> derefs to <code>S</code> , i.e., <code>x.f()</code> finds methods of <code>S</code> .
T::f(&x)	Same as <code>x.f()</code> if <code>x</code> impl <code>T</code> , i.e., <code>x.f()</code> finds methods of <code>T</code> if in scope.
X::f()	Call associated function, e.g., <code>X::new()</code> .
<x as T>::f()	Call trait method <code>T::f()</code> implemented for <code>x</code> .

Organizing Code

Segment projects into smaller units and minimize dependencies.

Example	Explanation
mod m {}	Define a module , [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch07-02-defining-modules-to-control-scope-and-privacy.html) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/mod.html#modules) REF get definition from inside <code>m</code> . ↴
mod m;	Define a module, get definition from <code>m.rs</code> or <code>m/mod.rs</code> . ↴
a::b	Namespace path [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/mod/use.html) REF to element <code>b</code> within <code>a</code> (<code>mod</code> , <code>enum</code> , ...).
::b	Search <code>b</code> in crate root ¹⁵ REF or external prelude ¹⁸ REF; global path . REF ↗
crate::b	Search <code>b</code> in crate root. ¹⁸
self::b	Search <code>b</code> in current module.
super::b	Search <code>b</code> in parent module.
use a::b;	Use [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/mod/use.html#the-use-declaration) REF <code>b</code> directly in this scope without requiring <code>a</code> anymore.
use a::{b, c};	Same, but bring <code>b</code> and <code>c</code> into scope.
use a::b as x;	Bring <code>b</code> into scope but name <code>x</code> , like <code>use std::error::Error as E</code> .
use a::b as _;	Bring <code>b</code> anonymously into scope, useful for traits with conflicting names.

Example	Explanation
<code>use a::*; pub use a::b;</code>	Bring everything from <code>a</code> in, only recommended if <code>a</code> is some prelude . ^[STD] (https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/prelude/index.html#other-preludes) ^[🔗] (https://stackoverflow.com/questions/36384840/what-is-the-prelude)
<code>pub T</code>	Bring <code>a::b</code> into scope and reexport from here.
<code>pub(crate) T</code>	"Public if parent path is public" visibility ^[BK] (https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch07-02-defining-modules-to-control-scope-and-privacy.html) ^[REF] for <code>T</code> .
<code>pub(super) T</code>	Visible at most ¹ in current crate.
<code>pub(self) T</code>	Visible at most ¹ in parent.
<code>pub(in a::b) T</code>	Visible at most ¹ in ancestor <code>a::b</code> .
<code>extern crate a;</code>	Declare dependency on external crate ; ^[BK] (https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch02-00-guessing-game-tutorial.html#using-a-crate-to-get-more-functionality) ^[REF] just <code>use a::b</code> in '18.
<code>extern "C" {}</code>	Declare external dependencies and ABI (e.g., <code>"C"</code>) from FFI . ^[BK] (https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-01-unsafe-rust.html#using-extern-functions-to-call-external-code) ^[EX] (https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/std_misc/ffi.html#foreign-function-interface) ^[NOM] (https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/ffi.html#calling-foreign-functions) ^[REF]
<code>extern "C" fn f() {}</code>	Define function to be exported with ABI (e.g., <code>"C"</code>) to FFI.

¹ Items in child modules always have access to any item, regardless if `pub` or not.

Type Aliases and Casts

Short-hand names of types, and methods to convert one type to another.

Example	Explanation
<code>type T = S;</code>	Create a type alias , ^[BK] (https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-04-advanced-types.html#creating-type-synonyms-with-type-aliases) ^[REF] i.e., another name for <code>S</code> .
<code>Self</code>	Type alias for implementing type , ^[REF] e.g. <code>fn new() -> Self</code> .
<code>self</code>	Method subject in <code>fn f(self) {}</code> , same as <code>fn f(self: Self) {}</code> .
<code>&self</code>	Same, but refers to self as borrowed, same as <code>f(self: &Self)</code>
<code>&mut self</code>	Same, but mutably borrowed, same as <code>f(self: &mut Self)</code>
<code>self: Box<Self></code>	Arbitrary self type , add methods to smart pointers (<code>my_box.f_of_self()</code>).
<code>S as T</code>	Disambiguate ^[BK] (https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-03-advanced-traits.html#fully-qualified-syntax-for-disambiguation-calling-methods-with-the-same-name) ^[REF] type <code>S</code> as trait <code>T</code> , e.g., <code><S as T>::f()</code> .
<code>S as R</code>	In <code>use</code> of symbol, import <code>S</code> as <code>R</code> , e.g., <code>use a::S as R</code> .
<code>x as u32</code>	Primitive cast , ^[EX] (https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/types/cast.html#casting) ^[REF] may truncate and be a bit surprising. ¹ ^[NOM] (https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/casts.html)

¹ See [Type Conversions](#) below for all the ways to convert between types.

Macros & Attributes

Code generation constructs expanded before the actual compilation happens.

Example

Explanation

<code>m!()</code>	Macro invocation, also <code>m!{}</code> , <code>m![]</code> (depending on macro).
<code># [attr]</code>	Outer attribute , [EX] annotating the following item.
<code>#! [attr]</code>	Inner attribute, annotating the <i>upper</i> , surrounding item.

Inside Macros	Explanation
<code>\$x:ty</code>	Macro capture, the <code>... fragment</code> REF declares what is allowed for <code>\$x</code> . ¹
<code>\$x</code>	Macro substitution, e.g., use the captured <code>\$x:ty</code> from above.
<code>\$(x),*</code>	Macro repetition REF zero or more times in macros by example.
<code>\$(x),?</code>	Same, but zero or one time.
<code>\$(x),+</code>	Same, but one or more times.
<code>\$(x)<+</code>	In fact separators other than <code>,</code> are also accepted. Here: <code><<</code> .

¹ See [Tooling Directives](#) below for all captures.

Pattern Matching

Constructs found in `match` or `let` expressions, or function parameters.

Example

Explanation

<code>match m {}</code>	Initiate pattern matching , [BK] [EX] then use match arms, c. next table.
<code>let S(x) = get();</code>	Notably, <code>let</code> also destructures [EX] similar to the table below.
<code>let S { x } = s;</code>	Only <code>x</code> will be bound to value <code>s.x</code> .
<code>let (_, b, _) = abc;</code>	Only <code>b</code> will be bound to value <code>abc.1</code> .
<code>let (a, ..) = abc;</code>	Ignoring 'the rest' also works.
<code>let (... a, b) = (1, 2);</code>	Specific bindings take precedence over 'the rest', here <code>a</code> is <code>1</code> , <code>b</code> is <code>2</code> .
<code>let s @ S { x } = get();</code>	Bind <code>s</code> to <code>S</code> while <code>x</code> is bound to <code>s.x</code> , pattern binding , [BK] [EX] c. below
<code>let w @ t @ f = get();</code>	Stores 3 copies of <code>get()</code> result in each <code>w</code> , <code>t</code> , <code>f</code> .
<code>let Some(x) = get();</code>	Won't work if pattern can be refuted , REF use <code>if let</code> instead.
<code>if let Some(x) = get() {}</code>	Branch if pattern can be assigned (e.g., <code>enum</code> variant), syntactic sugar.*

Example

Explanation

while let Some(x) = get() {} fn f(s { x }: s)	Equiv.; here keep calling <code>get()</code> , run <code>{}</code> as long as pattern can be assigned. Function parameters also work like <code>let</code> , here <code>x</code> bound to <code>s.x</code> of <code>f(s)</code> . * Desugars to <code>match get() { Some(x) => {}, _ => () }</code> .
---	---

Pattern matching arms in `match` expressions. Left side of these arms can also be found in `let` expressions.

Within Match Arm	Explanation
<code>E::A => {}</code>	Match enum variant <code>A</code> , c. pattern matching . [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch06-02-match.html) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/flow_control/match.html) REF
<code>E::B (..) => {}</code>	Match enum tuple variant <code>B</code> , wildcard any index.
<code>E::C { .. } => {}</code>	Match enum struct variant <code>C</code> , wildcard any field.
<code>S { x: 0, y: 1 } => {}</code>	Match struct with specific values (only accepts <code>s</code> with <code>s.x</code> of <code>0</code> and <code>s.y</code> of <code>1</code>).
<code>S { x: a, y: b } => {}</code>	Match struct with <code>any()</code> values and bind <code>s.x</code> to <code>a</code> and <code>s.y</code> to <code>b</code> .
<code>S { x, y } => {}</code>	Same, but shorthand with <code>s.x</code> and <code>s.y</code> bound as <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> respectively.
<code>S { .. } => {}</code>	Match struct with any values.
<code>D => {}</code>	Match enum variant <code>E::D</code> if <code>D</code> in <code>use</code> .
<code>D => {}</code>	Match anything, bind <code>D</code> ; possibly false friend • of <code>E::D</code> if <code>D</code> not in <code>use</code> .
<code>_ => {}</code>	Proper wildcard that matches anything / "all the rest".
<code>0 1 => {}</code>	Pattern alternatives, or-patterns . RFC
<code>E::A E::Z => {}</code>	Same, but on enum variants.
<code>E::C {x} E::D {x} => {}</code>	Same, but bind <code>x</code> if all variants have it.
<code>Some(A B) => {}</code>	Same, can also match alternatives deeply nested.
<code>(a, 0) => {}</code>	Match tuple with any value for <code>a</code> and <code>0</code> for second.
<code>[a, 0] => {}</code>	Slice pattern , REF [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/edition-guide/rust-2018/slice-patterns.html) match array with any value for <code>a</code> and <code>0</code> for second.
<code>[1, ..] => {}</code>	Match array starting with <code>1</code> , any value for rest; subslice pattern . ?
<code>[1, .., 5] => {}</code>	Match array starting with <code>1</code> , ending with <code>5</code> .

Within Match	Explanation
Arm	
[1, x @ ..., 5] => {}	Same, but also bind <code>x</code> to slice representing middle (c. pattern binding).
[a, x @ ..., b] => {}	Same, but match any first, last, bound as <code>a</code> , <code>b</code> respectively.
1 .. 3 => {}	Range pattern , [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch18-03-pattern-syntax.html#matching-ranges-of-values-with-) REF here matches <code>1</code> and <code>2</code> ; partially unstable. ⚡
1 ..= 3 => {}	Inclusive range pattern, matches <code>1</code> , <code>2</code> and <code>3</code> .
1 .. => {}	Open range pattern, matches <code>1</code> and any larger number.
x @ 1..=5 => {}	Bind matched to <code>x</code> ; pattern binding , [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch18-03-pattern-syntax.html#bindings) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/flow_control/match/binding.html#binding) REF here <code>x</code> would be <code>1</code> , <code>2</code> , ... or <code>5</code> .
Err(x @ Error {..}) => {}	Also works nested, here <code>x</code> binds to <code>Error</code> , esp. useful with <code>if</code> below.
S { x } if x > 10 => {}	Pattern match guards , [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch18-03-pattern-syntax.html#extra-conditionals-with-match-guards) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/flow_control/match/guard.html#guards) REF condition must be true as well to match.
Generics & Constraints	
Generics combine with type constructors, traits and functions to give your users more flexibility.	
Example	Explanation
S<T>	A generic [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch10-01-syntax.html) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/generics.html) type with a type parameter (<code>T</code> is placeholder name here).
S<T: R>	Type short hand trait bound [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch10-02-traits.html#using-trait-bounds-to-conditionally-implement-methods) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/generics/bounds.html) specification (<code>R</code> must be actual trait).
T: R, P: S	Independent trait bounds (here one for <code>T</code> and one for <code>P</code>).
T: R, S	Compile error, ● you probably want compound bound <code>R + S</code> below.
T: R + S	Compound trait bound , [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch10-02-traits.html#specifying-multiple-trait-bounds-with-the-syntax) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/generics/multi_bounds.html) <code>T</code> must fulfill <code>R</code> and <code>S</code> .
T: R + 'a	Same, but w. lifetime. <code>T</code> must fulfill <code>R</code> , if <code>T</code> has lifetimes, must outlive <code>'a</code> .
T: ?Sized	Opt out of a pre-defined trait bound, here <code>Sized</code> . ?
T: 'a	Type lifetime bound ; [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/scope/lifetime/lifetime_bounds.html) if <code>T</code> has references, they must outlive <code>'a</code> .
T: 'static	Same; does esp. <i>not</i> mean value <code>t</code> will ● live <code>'static</code> , only that it could.
'b: 'a	Lifetime <code>'b</code> must live at least as long as (i.e., <code>outlive</code>) <code>'a</code> bound.

Example

Explanation

```
S<const N:  
    usize>
```

Generic const bound: ? user of type `S` can provide constant value `N`.

```
S<10>
```

Where used, const bounds can be provided as primitive values.

```
S<{5+5}>
```

Expressions must be put in curly brackets.
`S<T> where T: R` Almost same as `S<T: R>` but more pleasant to read for longer bounds.

```
S<T> where  
u8: R<T>
```

Also allows you to make conditional statements involving *other* types.

```
S<T = R>
```

Default parameters; [BK](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-03-advanced-trait.html#default-generic-type-parameters-and-operator-overloading>) bit easier to use, but still flexible.

```
S<const N:  
    u8 = 0>
```

Default parameter for constants; e.g., in `f(x: S) {}` param `N` is `0`.

```
S<T = u8>
```

Default parameter for types, e.g., in `f(x: S) {}` param `T` is `u8`.

```
S<'_>
```

Inferred **anonymous lifetime**; asks compiler to '*figure it out*' if obvious.

```
S<_>
```

Inferred **anonymous type**, e.g., as `let x: Vec<_> = iter.collect()`

```
S::<T>
```

Turbofish [STD](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/iter/trait.Iterator.html#method.collect>) call site type disambiguation, e.g.
`f::<u32>()`.

```
trait T<x>  
{}
```

A trait generic over `X`. Can have multiple `impl T for S` (one per `X`).

```
trait T {  
    type X; }
```

Defines **associated type** [BK](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-03-advanced-trait.html#specifying-placeholder-types-in-trait-definitions-with-associated-types>) REF RFC `x`. Only one `impl T for S` possible.

```
type X =  
R;
```

Set associated type within `impl T for S { type X = R; }`.

```
impl<T>  
S<T> {}
```

Implement functionality for any `T` in `S<T>`, here `T` type parameter.

```
impl S<T>  
{}
```

Implement functionality for exactly `S<T>`, here `T` specific type (e.g., `S<u32>`).

```
fn f() ->  
impl T
```

Existential types, [BK](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch10-02-trait.html#returning-types-that-implement-trait>) returns an unknown-to-caller `S` that `impl T`.

```
fn f(x:  
&impl T)
```

Trait bound, "impl traits", [BK](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch10-02-trait.html#trait-bound-syntax>) somewhat similar to
`fn f<S:T>(x: &S)`.

```
fn f(x:  
&dyn T)
```

Marker for **dynamic dispatch**, [BK](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch17-02-trait-objects.html#using-trait-objects-that-allow-for-values-of-different-types>) REF `f` will not be monomorphized.

```
fn f()  
where  
Self: R;
```

In `trait T {}`, make `f` accessible only on types known to also `impl R`.

```
fn f()  
where  
Self: Sized;
```

Using `Sized` can opt `f` out of `dyn T` trait object vtable, enabling trait obj.

```
fn f()  
where  
Self: R {}
```

Other `R` useful w. dflt. methods (non dflt. would need be impl'ed anyway).

Higher-Ranked Items

Actual types and traits, abstract over something, usually lifetimes.

Example	Explanation
for<'a>	Marker for higher-ranked bounds . [NOM](https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/hrtb.html) REF
trait T: for<'a> R<'a> {}	Any <code>S</code> that <code>impl T</code> would also have to fulfill <code>R</code> for any lifetime.
fn(&'a u8)	Function pointer type holding <code>fn</code> callable with specific lifetime <code>'a</code> .
for<'a> fn(&'a u8)	Higher-ranked type ¹ [🔗](https://github.com/rust-lang/rust/issues/56105) holding <code>fn</code> callable with any <code>It</code> ; subtype ¹ of above.
fn(&'_ u8)	Same; automatically expanded to type <code>for<'a> fn(&'a u8)</code> .
fn(&u8)	Same; automatically expanded to type <code>for<'a> fn(&'a u8)</code> .
dyn for<'a> Fn(&'a u8)	Higher-ranked (trait-object) type, works like <code>fn</code> above.
dyn Fn(&'_ u8)	Same; automatically expanded to type <code>dyn for<'a> Fn(&'a u8)</code> .
dyn Fn(&u8)	Same; automatically expanded to type <code>dyn for<'a> Fn(&'a u8)</code> .

¹ Yes, the `for<>` is part of the type, which is why you write `impl T for for<'a> fn(&'a u8)` below.

Implementing Traits	Explanation
impl<'a> T for fn(&'a u8) {}	For <code>fn</code> pointer, where call accepts specific <code>It</code> . <code>'a</code> , <code>impl trait T</code> .
impl T for for<'a> fn(&'a u8) {}	For <code>fn</code> pointer, where call accepts any <code>It</code> , <code>impl trait T</code> .
impl T for fn(&u8) {}	Same, short version.

Strings & Chars

Rust has several ways to create textual values.

Example	Explanation
"..."	String literal , REF , ¹ UTF-8, will interpret <code>\n</code> as <i>line break</i> <code>0xA</code> , ...
r"..."	Raw string literal , REF , ¹ UTF-8, won't interpret <code>\n</code> , ...
r#"..."#	Raw string literal, UTF-8, but can also contain <code>"</code> . Number of <code>#</code> can vary.
b"..."	Byte string literal , REF , ¹ constructs ASCII <code>[u8]</code> , not a string.
br"...", br#"..."#	Raw byte string literal, ASCII <code>[u8]</code> , combination of the above.
🦀	Character literal , REF fixed 4 byte unicode 'char'. [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/primitive.char.html)
b'x'	ASCII byte literal , REF

¹ Supports multiple lines out of the box. Just keep in mind `Debug`¹ (e.g., `dbg!(x)` and `println!("{}:{}")`) might render them as `\n`, while `Display`¹ (e.g., `println!("{}")`) renders them *proper*.

Documentation

Debuggers hate him. Avoid bugs with this one weird trick.

Example	Explanation
///	Outer line doc comment , ¹ [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch14-02-publishing-to-crates-io.html#making-useful-documentation-comments) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/meta/doc.html#documentation) REF use these on types, traits, functions, ...
//!	Inner line doc comment, mostly used at start of file to document module.
//	Line comment, use these to document code flow or <i>internals</i> .
/*...*/	Block comment. ² [✖](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/meta/doc.html#block-comments)

Example

Explanation

`/** ... */` Outer block doc comment.²

`/*! ... */` Inner block doc comment.²

¹ Tooling directives [outline what you can do inside doc comments.](#)

² Generally discouraged due to bad UX. If possible use equivalent line comment instead with IDE support.

Miscellaneous

These sigils did not fit any other category but are good to know nonetheless.

Example

Explanation

`!` Always empty **never type**. ^{BK}[\[BK\]](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-04-advanced-types.html#the-never-type-that-never-returns) ^{EX}[\[EX\]](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/fn/diverging.html#diverging-functions) ^{STD}[\[STD\]](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/primitive.never.html) [REF](#)

`_` Unnamed variable binding, e.g., `|x, _| {}`.

`let _ =
x;` Unnamed assignment is no-op, does **not** move out or preserve scope!

`_x` Variable binding explicitly marked as unused.

`1_234_567` Numeric separator for visual clarity.

`1_u8` Type specifier for **numeric literals** ^{EX}[\[EX\]](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/types/literals.html#literals) [REF](#) (also `i8`, `u16`, ...).

`0xBEEF,
0o777,
0b1001` Hexadecimal (`0x`), octal (`0o`) and binary (`0b`) integer literals.

`r#foo` A **raw identifier** ^{BK}[\[BK\]](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/appendix-01-keywords.html#raw-identifiers) ^{EX}[\[EX\]](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/compatibility/raw_identifiers.html#raw-identifiers) for edition compatibility.

`;` **Statement** [REF](#) terminator, c. **expressions** ^{EX}[\[EX\]](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/expression.html) [REF](#)

Common Operators

Rust supports most operators you would expect (`+`, `*`, `%`, `=`, `==`, ...), including **overloading**. ^{STD}[\[STD\]](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ops/index.html) Since they behave no differently in Rust we do not list them here.

Behind the Scenes

Arcane knowledge that may do terrible things to your mind, highly recommended.



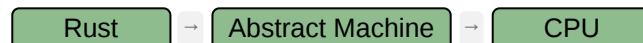
The Abstract Machine

Like `C` and `C++`, Rust is based on an *abstract machine*.

Overview



● Misleading.



Correct.

With rare exceptions you are never 'allowed to reason' about the actual CPU. You write code for an *abstracted* CPU. Rust then (sort of) understands what you want, and translates that into actual RISC-V / x86 / ... machine code.

This *abstract machine*

- is not a runtime, and does not have any runtime overhead, but is a *computing model abstraction*,
- contains concepts such as memory regions (*stack*, ...), execution semantics, ...
- *knows* and sees things your CPU might not care about,
- forms a contract between programmer and machine,
- and **exploits all of the above for optimizations**.

Misconceptions

Things people may incorrectly assume they *should get away with* if Rust targeted CPU directly, and *more correct* counterparts:

Without AM	With AM
<code>0xffff_ffff</code> would make a valid <code>char</code> .	Memory more than just bits.
<code>0xff</code> and <code>0x0ff</code> are same pointer.	Pointers can come from different <i>domains</i> .
Any r/w pointer on <code>0xff</code> always fine.	Read and write reference may not exist same time.
Null reference is just <code>0x0</code> in some register.	Holding <code>0x0</code> in reference summons Cthulhu.

Language Sugar

If something works that "shouldn't work now that you think about it", it might be due to one of these.

Name	Description
Coercions [NOM](https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/coercions.html)	Weakens types to match signature, e.g., <code>&mut T</code> to <code>&T</code> ; c. type conversions.
Deref [NOM](https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/vec-deref.html) [🔗] (https://stackoverflow.com/questions/28519997/what-are-rusts-exact-auto-dereferencing-rules)	Derefs <code>x: T</code> until <code>*x</code> , <code>**x</code> , ... compatible with some target <code>S</code> .
Prelude [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/prelude/index.html)	Automatic import of basic items, e.g., <code>Option</code> , <code>drop</code> , ...
Reborrow	Since <code>x: &mut T</code> can't be copied; moves new <code>&mut *x</code> instead.
Lifetime Elision [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch10-03-lifetime-syntax.html#lifetime-elision) [NOM](https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/lifetime-elision.html#lifetime-elision) REF	Automatically annotates <code>f(x: &T)</code> to <code>f(<'a>(x: &'a T))</code> .
Method Resolution REF	Derefs or borrow <code>x</code> until <code>x.f()</code> works.

Name	Description
Match Ergonomics RFC	Repeatedly dereferences <code>scrutinee</code> and adds <code>ref</code> and <code>ref mut</code> to bindings.
Rvalue Static Promotion RFC	Makes references to constants <code>'static</code> , e.g., <code>&42</code> , <code>&None</code> , <code>&mut []</code> .
Dual Definitions RFC	Defining one thing (e.g., <code>struct S(u8)</code>) implicitly def. another (e.g., <code>fn S</code>).

Opinion — The features above will make your life easier, but might hinder your understanding. If any (type-related) operation ever feels *inconsistent* it might be worth revisiting this list.

Memory & Lifetimes

Why moves, references and lifetimes are how they are.

Types & Moves



- Application memory is just array of bytes on low level.
- Operating environment usually segments that, amongst others, into:
 - **stack** (small, low-overhead memory,¹ most *variables* go here),
 - **heap** (large, flexible memory, but always handled via stack proxy like `Box<T>`),
 - **static** (most commonly used as resting place for `str` part of `&str`),
 - **code** (where bitcode of your functions reside).
- Most tricky part is tied to **how stack evolves**, which is **our focus**.

¹ For fixed-size values stack is trivially manageable: *take a few bytes more while you need them, discarded once you leave*. However, giving out pointers to these *transient* locations form the very essence of why *lifetimes* exist; and are the subject of the rest of this chapter.



```
let t = S(1);
```

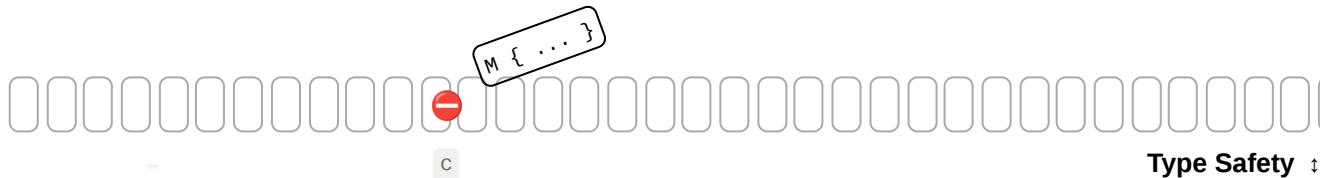
- Reserves memory location with name `t` of type `S` and the value `S(1)` stored inside.
- If declared with `let` that location lives on stack.¹
- Note the **linguistic ambiguity**,² in the term **variable**, it can mean the:
 1. **name** of the location in the source file ("rename that variable"),
 2. **location** in a compiled app, `0x7` ("tell me the address of that variable"),
 3. **value** contained within, `S(1)` ("increment that variable").
- Specifically towards the compiler `t` can mean **location of** `t`, here `0x7`, and **value within** `t`, here `S(1)`.

¹ Compare above,¹ true for fully synchronous code, but `async` stack frame might placed it on heap via runtime.



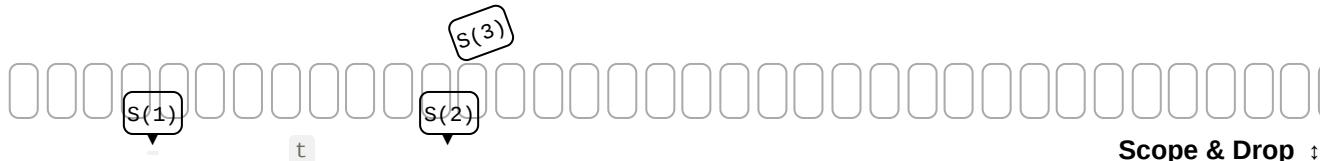
```
let a = t;
```

- This will **move** value within `t` to location of `a`, or **copy** it, if `S` is `Copy`.
- After move location `t` is **invalid** and cannot be read anymore.
 - Technically the bits at that location are not really *empty*, but *undefined*.
 - If you still had access to `t` (via `unsafe`) they might still *look* like valid `S`, but any attempt to use them as valid `S` is undefined behavior.¹
- We do not cover `Copy` types explicitly here. They change the rules a bit, but not much:
 - They won't be dropped.
 - They never leave behind an 'empty' variable location.



```
let c: S = M::new();
```

- The **type of a variable** serves multiple important purposes, it:
 1. dictates how the underlying bits are to be interpreted,
 2. allows only well-defined operations on these bits
 3. prevents random other values or bits from being written to that location.
- Here assignment fails to compile since the bytes of `M::new()` cannot be converted to form of type `S`.
- **Conversions between types will always fail** in general, **unless explicit rule allows it** (coercion, cast, ...).



```
{
  let mut c = S(2);
  c = S(3); // <- Drop called on `c` before assignment.
  let t = S(1);
  let a = t;
} // <- Scope of `a`, `t`, `c` ends here, drop called on `a`, `c`.
```

- Once the 'name' of a non-vacated variable goes out of (drop-)**scope**, the contained value is **dropped**.
 - Rule of thumb: execution reaches point where name of variable leaves `{}`-block it was defined in
 - In detail more tricky, esp. temporaries, ...

- Drop also invoked when new value assigned to existing variable location.
- In that case `Drop::drop()` is called on the location of that value.
 - In the example above `drop()` is called on `a`, twice on `c`, but not on `t`.
- Most non-`Copy` values get dropped most of the time; exceptions include `mem::forget()`, `Rc` cycles, `abort()`.

Call Stack



```
fn f(x: S) { ... }

let a = S(1); // <- We are here
f(a);
```

- When a **function is called**, memory for parameters (and return values) are reserved on stack.¹
- Here before `f` is invoked value in `a` is moved to 'agreed upon' location on stack, and during `f` works like 'local variable' `x`.

¹ Actual location depends on calling convention, might practically not end up on stack at all, but that doesn't change mental model.



```
fn f(x: S) {
    if once() { f(x) } // <- We are here (before recursion)
}

let a = S(1);
f(a);
```

- **Recursively calling** functions, or calling other functions, likewise extends the stack frame.
- Nesting too many invocations (esp. via unbounded recursion) will cause stack to grow, and eventually to overflow, terminating the app.



```

fn f(x: S) {
    if once() { f(x) }
    let m = M::new() // <- We are here (after recursion)
}

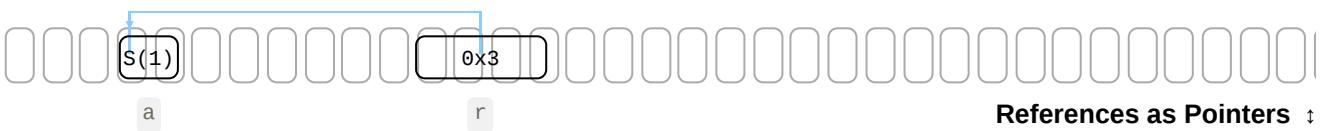
let a = S(1);
f(a);

```

- Stack that previously held a certain type will be repurposed across (even within) functions.
- Here, recursing on `f` produced second `x`, which after recursion was partially reused for `m`.

Key take away so far, there are multiple ways how memory locations that previously held a valid value of a certain type stopped doing so in the meantime. As we will see shortly, this has implications for pointers.

References & Pointers



```

let a = S(1);
let r: &S = &a;

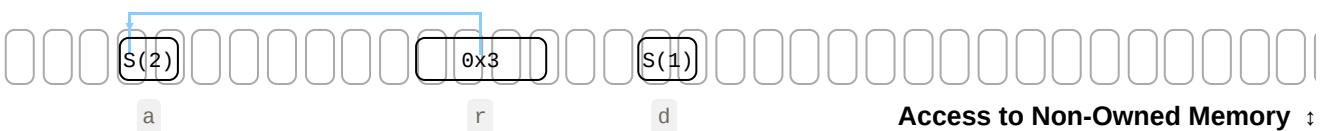
```

- A **reference type** such as `&S` or `&mut S` can hold the **location of** some `S`.
- Here type `&S`, bound as name `r`, holds *location of* variable `a` (`0x3`), that must be type `S`, obtained via `&a`.
- If you think of variable `c` as *specific location*, reference `r` is a **switchboard for locations**.
- The type of the reference, like all other types, can often be inferred, so we might omit it from now on:

```

let r: &S = &a;
let r = &a;

```



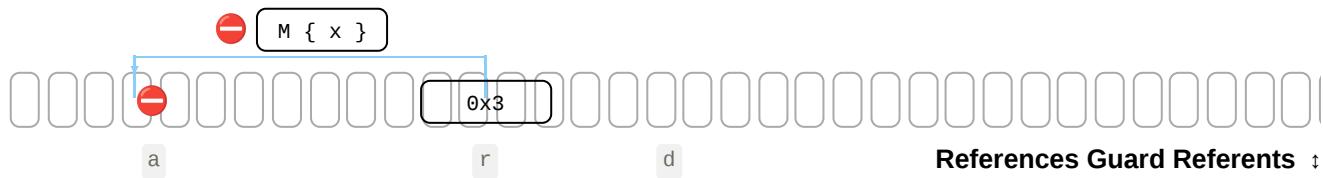
```

let mut a = S(1);
let r = &mut a;
let d = r.clone(); // Valid to clone (or copy) from r-target.
*r = S(2);         // Valid to set new S value to r-target.

```

- References can **read from** (`&S`) and also **write to** (`&mut S`) location they point to.
- The *dereference* `*r` means to neither use the *location of* or *value within* `r`, but the **location `r` points to**.
- In example above, clone `d` is created from `*r`, and `S(2)` written to `*r`.
 - Method `Clone::clone(&T)` expects a reference itself, which is why we can use `r`, not `*r`.

- On assignment `*r = ...` old value in location also dropped (not shown above).



```
let mut a = ...;
let r = &mut a;
let d = *r;           // Invalid to move out value, `a` would be empty.
*r = M::new();        // invalid to store non S value, doesn't make sense.
```

- While bindings guarantee to always *hold* valid data, references guarantee to always *point to* valid data.
- Esp. `&mut T` must provide same guarantees as variables, and some more as they can't dissolve the target:
 - They do **not allow writing invalid** data.
 - They do **not allow moving out** data (would leave target empty w/o owner knowing).



```
let p: *const S = questionable_origin();
```

- In contrast to references, pointers come with almost no guarantees.
- They may point to invalid or non-existent data.
- Dereferencing them is `unsafe`, and treating an invalid `*p` as if it were valid is undefined behavior. [↓](#)

Lifetime Basics



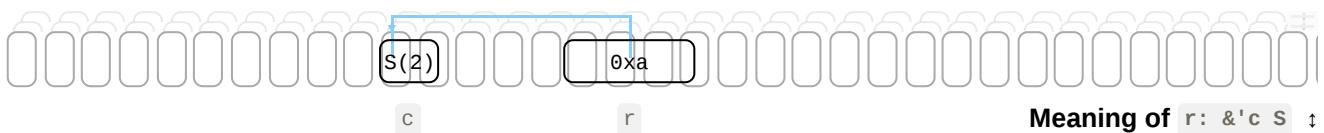
- Every entity in a program has some (temporal / spatial) room where it is relevant, i.e., *alive*.
- Loosely speaking, this *alive time* can be¹
 - the **LOC** (lines of code) where an **item is available** (e.g., a module name).
 - the **LOC** between when a *location* is **initialized** with a value, and when the location is **abandoned**.
 - the **LOC** between when a location is first **used in a certain way**, and when that **usage stops**.
 - the **LOC (or actual time)** between when a *value* is created, and when that value is dropped.
- Within the rest of this section, we will refer to the items above as the:
 - scope** of that item, irrelevant here.
 - scope** of that variable or location.
 - lifetime**² of that usage.

4. **lifetime** of that value, might be useful when discussing open file descriptors, but also irrelevant here.

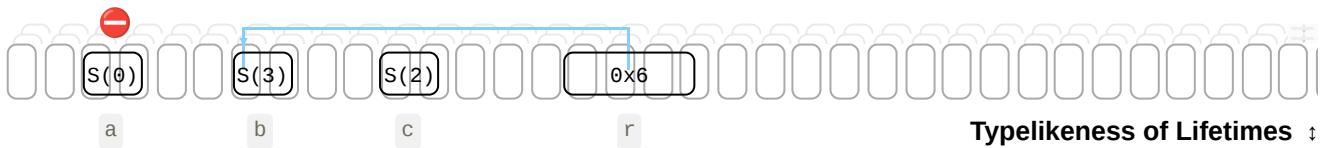
- Likewise, lifetime parameters in code, e.g., `r: &'a S`, are
 - concerned with LOC any **location r points to** needs to be accessible or locked;
 - unrelated to the 'existence time' (as LOC) of `r` itself (well, it needs to exist shorter, that's it).
- `&'static S` means address must be *valid during all lines of code*.

¹ There is sometimes ambiguity in the docs differentiating the various *scopes* and *lifetimes*. We try to be pragmatic here, but suggestions are welcome.

² *Live lines* might have been a more appropriate term ...

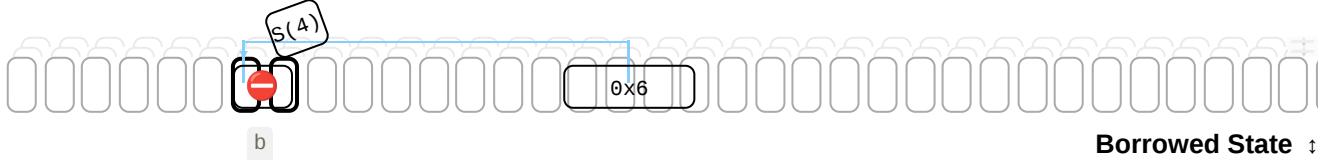


- Assume you got a `r: &'c S` from somewhere it means:
 - `r` holds an address of some `S`,
 - any address `r` points to must and will exist for at least `'c`,
 - the variable `r` itself cannot live longer than `'c`.



```
{  
    let b = S(3);  
    {  
        let c = S(2);  
        let r: &'c S = &c;           // Does not quite work since we can't name lifetimes of local  
                                // variables in a function body, but very same principle applies  
                                // to functions next page.  
        let a = S(0);  
  
        r = &a;                  // Location of `a` does not live sufficient many lines -> not ok.  
        r = &b;                  // Location of `b` lives all lines of `c` and more -> ok.  
    }  
}
```

- Assume you got a `mut r: &mut 'c S` from somewhere.
 - That is, a mutable location that can hold a mutable reference.
- As mentioned, that reference must guard the targeted memory.
- However, the `'c part`, like a type, also **guards what is allowed into r**.
- Here assigning `&b (0x6)` to `r` is valid, but `&a (0x3)` would not, as only `&b` lives equal or longer than `&c`.



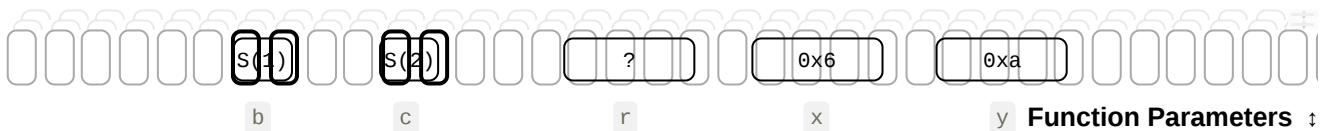
```
let mut b = S(0);
let r = &mut b;

b = S(4);    // Will fail since `b` in borrowed state.

print_byte(r);
```

- Once the address of a variable is taken via `&b` or `&mut b` the variable is marked as **borrowed**.
- While borrowed, the content of the address cannot be modified anymore via original binding `b`.
- Once address taken via `&b` or `&mut b` stops being used (in terms of LOC) original binding `b` works again.

Lifetimes in Functions

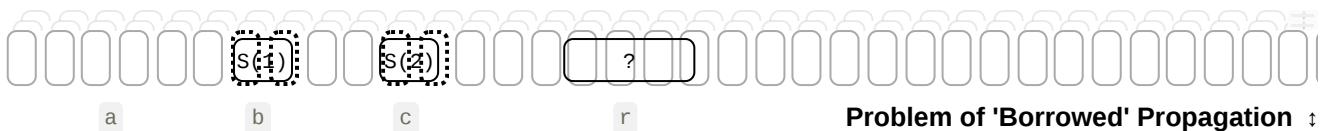


```
fn f(x: &S, y:&S) -> &u8 { ... }

let b = S(1);
let c = S(2);

let r = f(&b, &c);
```

- When calling functions that take and return references two interesting things happen:
 - The used local variables are placed in a borrowed state,
 - But it is during compilation unknown which address will be returned.



```

let b = S(1);
let c = S(2);

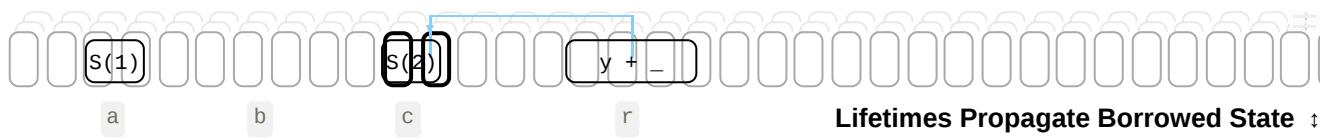
let r = f(&b, &c);

let a = b; // Are we allowed to do this?
let a = c; // Which one is _really_ borrowed?

print_byte(r);

```

- Since `f` can return only one address, not in all cases `b` and `c` need to stay locked.
- In many cases we can get quality-of-life improvements.
 - Notably, when we know one parameter *couldn't* have been used in return value anymore.



```

fn f<'b, 'c>(x: &'b S, y: &'c S) -> &'c u8 { ... }

let b = S(1);
let c = S(2);

let r = f(&b, &c); // We know returned reference is `c`-based, which must stay locked,
                   // while `b` is free to move.

let a = b;

print_byte(r);

```

- Lifetime parameters in signatures, like `'c` above, solve that problem.
- Their primary purpose is:
 - **outside the function**, to explain based on which input address an output address could be generated,
 - **within the function**, to guarantee only addresses that live at least `'c` are assigned.
- The actual lifetimes `'b`, `'c` are transparently picked by the compiler at **call site**, based on the borrowed variables the developer gave.
- They are **not** equal to the scope (which would be LOC from initialization to destruction) of `b` or `c`, but only a minimal subset of their scope called *lifetime*, that is, a minimal set of LOC based on how long `b` and `c` need to be borrowed to perform this call and use the obtained result.
- In some cases, like if `f` had `'c: 'b` instead, we still couldn't distinguish and both needed to stay locked.



```

let mut c = s(2);

let r = f(&c);
let s = r;
    // <- Not here, `s` prolongs locking of `c`.

print_byte(s);

let a = c;           // <- But here, no more use of `r` or `s`.

```

- A variable location is *unlocked* again once the last use of any reference that may point to it ends.

⋮ Examples expand by clicking.

Memory Layout

Byte representations of common types.

Basic Types

Essential types built into the core of the language.

Numeric Types REF

u8 , i8



u16 , i16



u32 , i32



u64 , i64



u128 , i128



f32



f64



usize , isize



Same as `ptr` on platform.

Unsigned Types

Type

Max Value

u8

255

Type	Max Value
u16	65_535
u32	4_294_967_295
u64	18_446_744_073_709_551_615
u128	340_282_366_920_938_463_463_374_607_431_768_211_455
usize	Depending on platform pointer size, same as u16 , u32 , or u64 .

Signed Types

Type	Max Value
i8	127
i16	32_767
i32	2_147_483_647
i64	9_223_372_036_854_775_807
i128	170_141_183_460_469_231_731_687_303_715_884_105_727
isize	Depending on platform pointer size, same as i16 , i32 , or i64 .

Type	Min Value
i8	-128
i16	-32_768
i32	-2_147_483_648
i64	-9_223_372_036_854_775_808
i128	-170_141_183_460_469_231_731_687_303_715_884_105_728
isize	Depending on platform pointer size, same as i16 , i32 , or i64 .

Float Types

Sample bit representation* for a f32 :



Explanation:

f32	S (1)	E (8)	F (23)	Value
Normalized number	±	1 to 254	any	$\pm(1.F)_2 * 2^{E-127}$
Denormalized number	±	0	non-zero	$\pm(0.F)_2 * 2^{-126}$
Zero	±	0	0	±0
Infinity	±	255	0	±∞
NaN	±	255	non-zero	NaN

Similarly, for `f64` types this would look like:

f64	S (1)	E (11)	F (52)	Value
Normalized number	\pm	1 to 2046	any	$\pm(1.F)_2 * 2^{E-1023}$
Denormalized number	\pm	0	non-zero	$\pm(0.F)_2 * 2^{-1022}$
Zero	\pm	0	0	± 0
Infinity	\pm	2047	0	$\pm\infty$
NaN	\pm	2047	non-zero	NaN

* Float types follow [IEEE 754-2008](#) and depend on platform endianness.

Casting Pitfalls

Cast¹	Gives	Note
<code>3.9_f32 as u8</code>	3	Truncates, consider <code>x.round()</code> first.
<code>314_f32 as u8</code>	255	Takes closest available number.
<code>f32::INFINITY as u8</code>	255	Same, treats <code>INFINITY</code> as <i>really</i> large number.
<code>f32::NAN as u8</code>	0	-
<code>_314 as u8</code>	58	Truncates excess bits.
<code>_200 as i8</code>	56	-
<code>_257 as i8</code>	-1	-

Arithmetical Pitfalls

Operation¹	Gives	Note
<code>200_u8 / 0_u8</code>	Compile error.	-
<code>200_u8 / _0</code> d, r	Panic.	Regular math may panic; here: division by zero.
<code>200_u8 + 200_u8</code>	Compile error.	-
<code>200_u8 + _200</code> d	Panic.	Consider <code>checked_</code> , <code>wrapping_</code> , ... instead. [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/primitive.isize.html#method.checked_add)
<code>200_u8 + _200</code> r	144	In release mode this will overflow.
<code>1_u8 / 2_u8</code>	0	Other integer division truncates.
<code>0.8_f32 + 0.1_f32</code>	0.90000004	-
<code>1.0_f32 / 0.0_f32</code>	<code>f32::INFINITY</code>	-

Operation ¹	Gives	Note
<code>0.0_f32 / 0.0_f32</code>	<code>f32::NAN</code>	-
<code>x < f32::NAN</code>	<code>false</code>	<code>NAN</code> comparisons always return false.
<code>x > f32::NAN</code>	<code>false</code>	-
<code>f32::NAN == f32::NAN</code>	<code>false</code>	-

¹ Expression `_100` means anything that might contain the value `100`, e.g., `100_i32`, but is opaque to compiler.

Debug build.

Release build.

Textual Types REF

<code>char</code>	<code>str</code>
	

Any Unicode scalar.

Basics

Type	Description
<code>char</code>	Always 4 bytes and only holds a single Unicode scalar value [🔗] (https://www.unicode.org/glossary/#unicode_scalar_value).
<code>str</code>	An <code>u8</code> -array of unknown length guaranteed to hold UTF-8 encoded code points .

Usage

Chars	Description
<code>let c = 'a';</code>	Often a <code>char</code> (unicode scalar) can coincide with your intuition of <i>character</i> .
<code>let c = '❤';</code>	It can also hold many Unicode symbols.
<code>let c = '❤';</code>	But not always. Given emoji is two <code>char</code> (see Encoding) and can't be held by <code>c</code> . ¹
<code>c = 0xffff_ffff;</code>	Also, chars are not allowed to hold arbitrary bit patterns.

¹ Fun fact, due to the `Zero-width joiner` () what the user perceives as a *character* can get even more unpredictable: 🧑 is in fact 5 chars 🧑 🧑 🧑 🧑 🧑 and rendering engines are free to either show them fused as one, or separately as three, depending on their abilities.

Strings	Description
<code>let s = "a";</code>	A <code>str</code> is usually never held directly, but as <code>&str</code> , like <code>s</code> here.
<code>let s = "❤️❤️";</code>	It can hold arbitrary text, has variable length per <code>c</code> ., and is hard to index.

Encoding

```
let s = "I ❤ Rust";
let t = "I ❤ Rust";
```

Variant	Memory Representation ²
s.as_bytes()	49 20 e2 9d a4 20 52 75 73 74 ³
s.chars()	49 00 00 00 20 00 00 00 64 27 00 00 20 00 00 00 52 00 00 00 75 00 00 00 73 00 ... ¹
t.as_bytes()	49 20 e2 9d a4 ef b8 8f 20 52 75 73 74 ⁴
t.chars()	49 00 00 00 20 00 00 00 64 27 00 00 0f fe 01 00 20 00 00 00 52 00 00 00 75 00 ... ¹

¹ Result then collected into array and transmuted to bytes.

² Values given in hex, on x86.

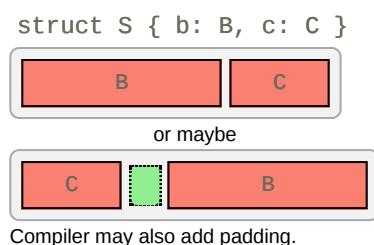
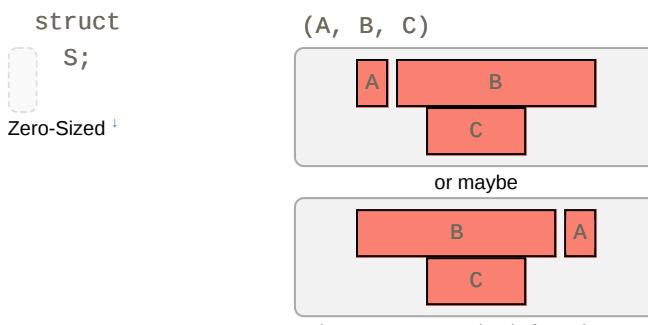
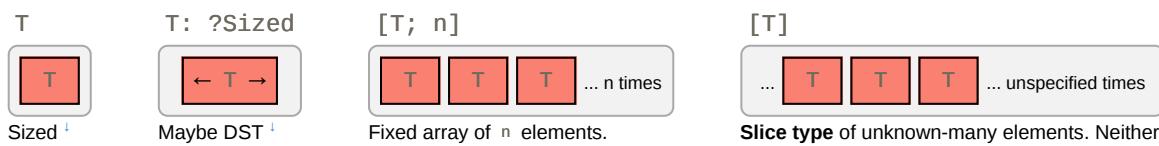
³ Notice how ❤, having [Unicode Code Point \(U+2764\)](#), is represented as **64 27 00 00** inside the `char`, but got [UTF-8 encoded to e2 9d a4](#) in the `str`.

⁴ Also observe how the emoji Red Heart ❤, is a combination of ❤ and the [U+FE0F Variation Selector](#), thus `t` has a higher char count than `s`.

💬 For what seem to be browser bugs Safari and Edge render the hearts in Footnote 3 and 4 wrong, despite being able to differentiate them correctly in `s` and `t` above.

Custom Types

Basic types definable by users. Actual [layout](#) is subject to [representation](#); padding can be present.



These **sum types** hold a value of one of their sub types:

enum E { A, B, C }

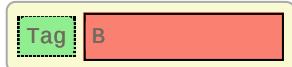


exclusive or

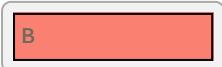
union { ... }



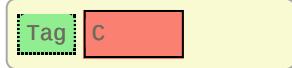
unsafe or



exclusive or



unsafe or



exclusive or



unsafe or

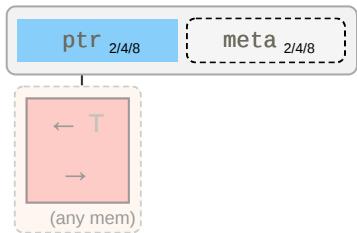
Safely holds A or B or C, also called 'tagged union', though compiler may omit tag.

Can unsafely reinterpret memory. Result might be undefined.

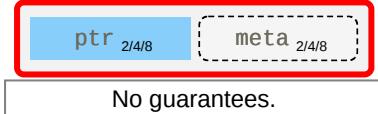
References & Pointers

References give safe access to 3rd party memory, raw pointers unsafe access. The corresponding `mut` types have an identical data layout to their immutable counterparts.

&'a T



*const T



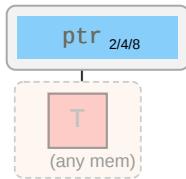
No guarantees.

Must target some valid `t` of `T`, and any such target must exist for at least `'a`.

Pointer Meta

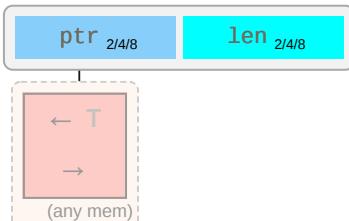
Many reference and pointer types can carry an extra field, **pointer metadata**. [STD](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/std/ptr/trait.Pointee.html#pointer-metadata>) It can be the element- or byte-length of the target, or a pointer to a *vtable*. Pointers with meta are called **fat**, otherwise **thin**.

`&'a T`



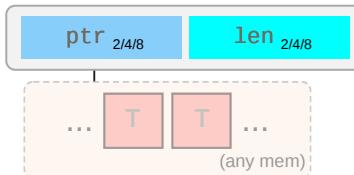
No meta for sized target.
(pointer is thin).

`&'a T`



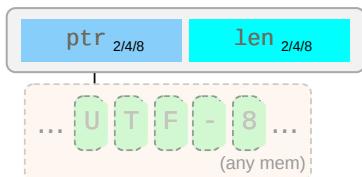
If `T` is a DST struct such as
`S { x: [u8] }` meta field `len` is
length of dyn. sized content.

`&'a [T]`



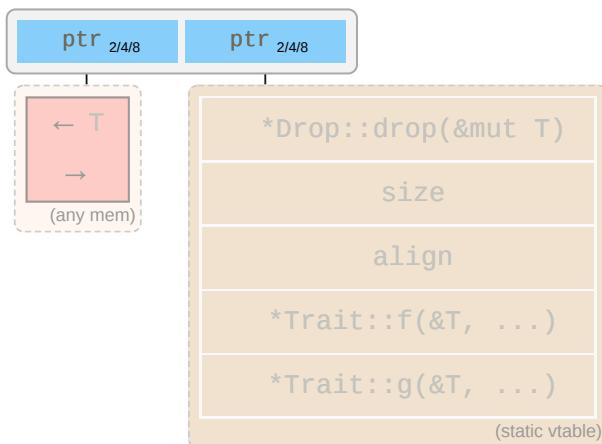
Regular slice reference (i.e., the
reference type of a slice type `[T]`)[†]
often seen as `&[T]` if `'a` elided.

`&'a str`



String slice reference (i.e., the
reference type of string type `str`),
with meta `len` being byte length.

`&'a dyn Trait`

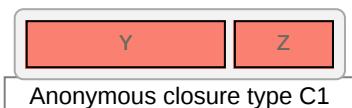


Meta points to vtable, where `*Drop::drop()`,
`*Trait::f()`, ... are pointers to their respective
impl for `T`.

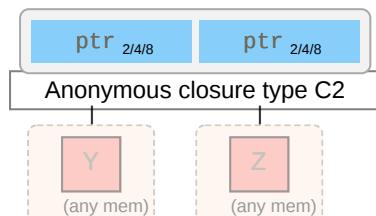
Closures

Ad-hoc functions with an automatically managed data block capturing [REF](#) environment where closure was defined. For example:

`move |x| x + y.f() + z`



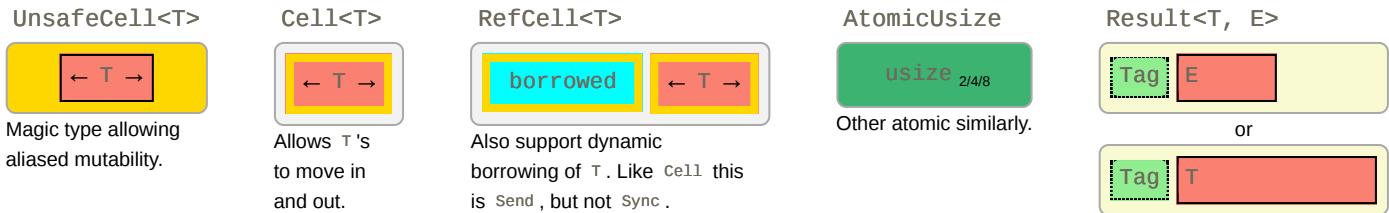
`|x| x + y.f() + z`



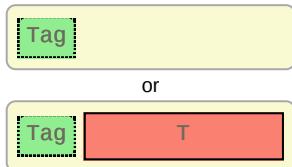
Also produces anonymous `fn` such as `f1(c1, x)` or `f2(&c2, x)`. Details depend which `FnOnce`, `FnMut`, `Fn` ... is supported, based on properties of captured types.

Standard Library Types

Rust's standard library combines the above primitive types into useful types with special semantics, e.g.:

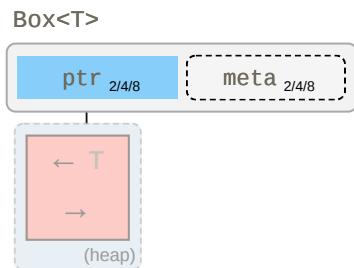


Option<T>

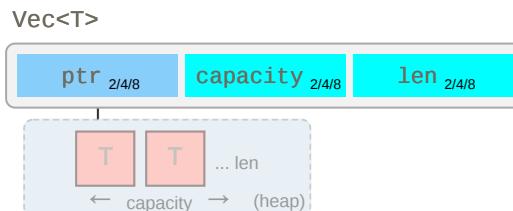


Tag may be omitted for certain `T`, e.g., `NonNull`.

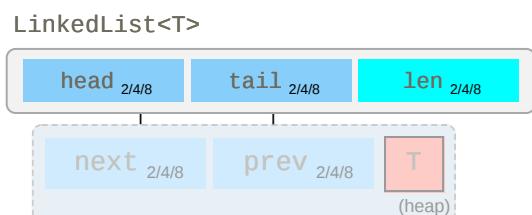
Order-Preserving Collections



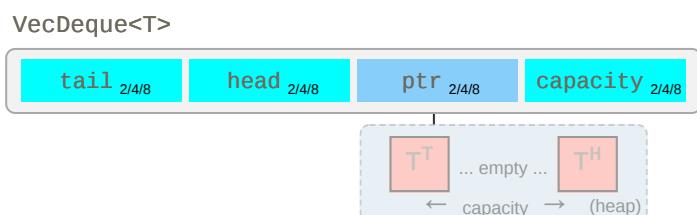
For some `T` stack proxy may carry meta¹ (e.g., `Box<[T]>`).



Regular growable array vector of single type.



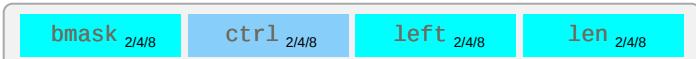
Elements `head` and `tail` both `null` or point to nodes on the heap. Each node can point to its `prev` and `next` node. Eats your cache like no tomorrow (just look at the thing!); don't use unless you evidently must. 



Index `tail` and `head` select in array-as-ringbuffer. This means content may be non-contiguous and empty in the middle, as exemplified above.

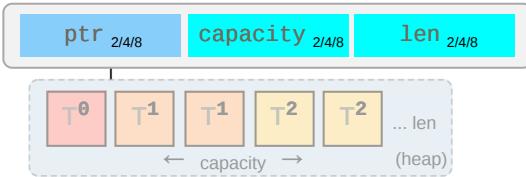
Other Collections

HashMap<K, V>



Stores keys and values on heap according to hash value, [SwissTable](#) implementation via `hashbrown`. `HashSet` identical to `HashMap`, just type `V` disappears. Heap view grossly oversimplified. 🚨

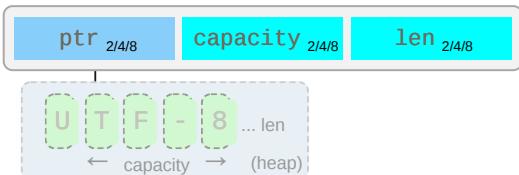
BinaryHeap<T>



Heap stored as array with 2^n elements per layer. Each `T` can have 2 children in layer below. Each `T` larger than its children.

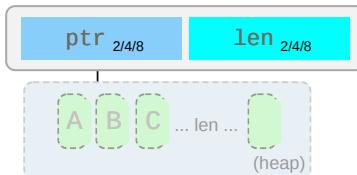
Owned Strings

String



Observe how `String` differs from `&str` and `&[char]`.

CString



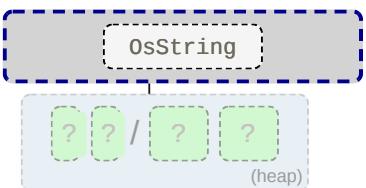
NUL-terminated but w/o NUL in middle.

OsString ?



Encapsulates how operating system represents strings (e.g., UTF-16 on Windows).

PathBuf ?

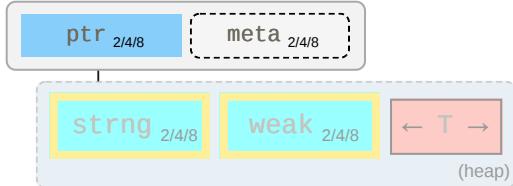


Encapsulates how operating system represents paths.

Shared Ownership

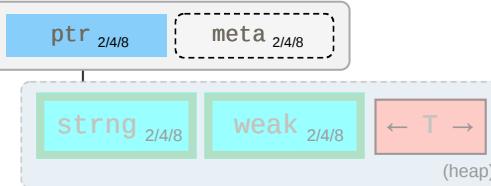
If the type does not contain a `Cell` for `T`, these are often combined with one of the `Cell` types above to allow shared de-facto mutability.

Rc<T>



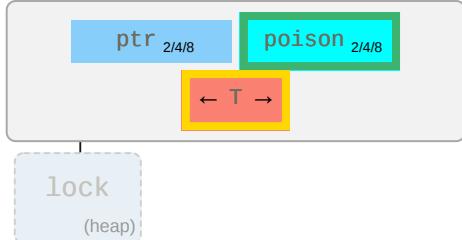
Share ownership of `T` in same thread. Needs nested `Cell` or `RefCell` to allow mutation. Is neither `Send` nor `Sync`.

Arc<T>



Same, but allow sharing between threads IF contained `T` itself is `Send` and `Sync`.

Mutex<T> / RwLock<T>



Needs to be held in `Arc` to be shared between threads, always `Send` and `Sync`. Consider using `parking_lot` instead (faster, no heap usage).

Standard Library

One-Liners

Snippets that are common, but still easy to forget. See [Rust Cookbook](#) (<https://rust-lang-nursery.github.io/rust-cookbook/>) for more.

Strings

Intent	Snippet
Concatenate strings (any <code>Display</code> that is). ¹ ²¹	<code>format!("{}{}", x, y)</code>
Append string (any <code>Display</code> to any <code>Write</code>). ²¹	<code>write!(x, "{}", y)</code>
Split by separator pattern. [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/str/pattern/trait.Pattern.html) [2] (https://stackoverflow.com/a/38138985)	<code>s.split(pattern)</code>
... with <code>&str</code>	<code>s.split("abc")</code>
... with <code>char</code>	<code>s.split('/')</code>
... with closure	<code>s.split(char::is_numeric)</code>
Split by whitespace.	<code>s.split_whitespace()</code>
Split by newlines.	<code>s.lines()</code>
Split by regular expression. ²	<code>Regex::new(r"\s")?.split("one two three")</code>

¹ Allocates; if `x` or `y` are not going to be used afterwards consider using `write!` or `std::ops::Add`.

² Requires `regex` crate.

Intent	Snippet
Create a new file	<code>File::create(PATH)?</code>
Same, via OpenOptions	<code>OpenOptions::new().create(true).write(true).truncate(true).open(PATH)?</code>

Macros

Intent	Snippet
Macro w. variable arguments	<code>macro_rules! var_args { (\$(\$args:expr),*) => {{ }} }</code>
Using <code>args</code> , e.g., calling <code>f</code> multiple times.	<code>\$(f(\$args);)*</code>

Esoterics

Intent	Snippet
Cleaner closure captures	<code>wants_closure({ let c = outer.clone(); move use_clone(c) })</code>
Fix inference in 'try' closures	<code>iter.try_for_each(x { Ok::<(), Error>((()) })?;</code>
Iterate and edit <code>&mut [T]</code> if <code>T</code> Copy.	<code>Cell::from_mut(mut_slice).as_slice_of_cells()</code>
Get subslice with length.	<code>&original_slice[offset..][..length]</code>
Canary to ensure trait <code>T</code> is object safe.	<code>const _: Option<&dyn T> = None;</code>

Thread Safety

Examples	Send *	!Send
<code>Sync</code> *	<code>Most types ... Arc<T> 1,2, Mutex<T> 2</code>	<code>MutexGuard<T> 1, RwLockReadGuard<T> 1</code>
<code>!Sync</code>	<code>Cell<T> 2, RefCell<T> 2</code>	<code>Rc<T>, &dyn Trait, *const T 3, *mut T 3</code>

* An instance `t` where `T: Send` can be moved to another thread, a `T: Sync` means `&t` can be moved to another thread.
 1 If `T` is `Sync`.
 2 If `T` is `Send`.
 3 If you need to send a raw pointer, create newtype `struct Ptr(*const u8)` and `unsafe impl Send for Ptr {}`. Just ensure you *may* send it.

Iterators

Obtaining Iterators

Basics

Assume you have a collection `c` of type `C`:

- `c.into_iter()` — Turns collection `c` into an `Iterator` [STD](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/iter/trait.Iterator.html>) `i` and **consumes*** `c`. Requires `IntoIterator` [STD](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/iter/trait.IntoIterator.html>) for `c` to be implemented. Type of item depends on what `c` was. 'Standardized' way to get Iterators.
- `c.iter()` — Courtesy method **some** collections provide, returns **borrowing** Iterator, doesn't consume `c`.
- `c.iter_mut()` — Same, but **mutably borrowing** Iterator that allow collection to be changed.

The Iterator

Once you have an `i`:

- `i.next()` — Returns `Some(x)` next element `c` provides, or `None` if we're done.

For Loops

- `for x in c {}` — Syntactic sugar, calls `c.into_iter()` and loops `i` until `None`.

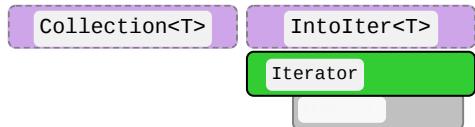
* If it looks as if it doesn't consume `c` that's because type was `Copy`. For example, if you call `(&c).into_iter()` it will invoke `.into_iter()` on `&c` (which will consume the reference and turn it into an Iterator), but `c` remains untouched.

Implementing Iterators

Basics

Let's assume you have a `struct Collection<T> {}`.

- `struct IntoIter<T> {}` — Create a struct to hold your iteration status (e.g., an index) for value iteration.
- `impl Iterator for IntoIter {}` — Implement `Iterator::next()` so it can produce elements.

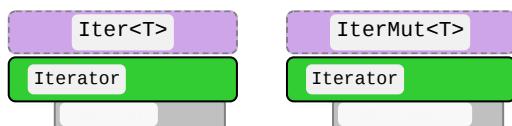


Shared & Mutable Iterators

- `struct Iter<T> {}` — Create struct holding `&Collection<T>` for shared iteration.
- `struct IterMut<T> {}` — Similar, but holding `&mut Collection<T>` for mutable iteration.
- `impl Iterator for Iter<T> {}` — Implement shared iteration.
- `impl Iterator for IterMut<T> {}` — Implement mutable iteration.

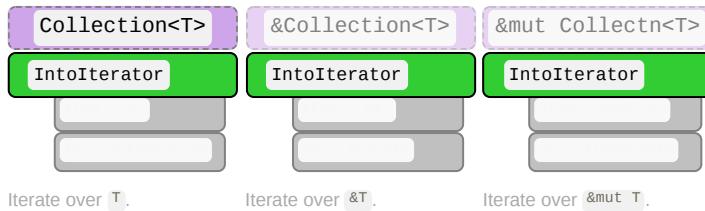
In addition, you might want to add convenience methods:

- `Collection::iter(&self) -> Iter`,
- `Collection::iter_mut(&mut self) -> IterMut`.



Making Loops Work

- `impl IntoIterator for Collection {}` — Now `for x in c {}` works.
- `impl IntoIterator for &Collection {}` — Now `for x in &c {}` works.
- `impl IntoIterator for &mut Collection {}` — Now `for x in &mut c {}` works.



Number Conversions

As-correct-as-it-currently-gets number conversions.

↓ Have / Want →	<code>u8 ... i128</code>	<code>f32 / f64</code>	String
<code>u8 ... i128</code>	<code>u8::try_from(x)? 1</code>	<code>x as f32 3</code>	<code>x.to_string()</code>
<code>f32 / f64</code>	<code>x as u8 2</code>	<code>x as f32</code>	<code>x.to_string()</code>
String	<code>x.parse::<u8>()?</code>	<code>x.parse::<f32>()?</code>	<code>x</code>

1 If type true subset `from()` works directly, e.g., `u32::from(my_u8)`.
2 Truncating (`11.9_f32` as `u8` gives `11`) and saturating (`1024_f32` as `u8` gives `255`); c. below.
3 Might misrepresent number (`u64::MAX` as `f32`) or produce `Inf` (`u128::MAX` as `f32`).

String Conversions

If you **want** a string of type ...

String

If you have <code>x</code> of type ...	Use this ...
<code>String</code>	<code>x</code>
<code>CString</code>	<code>x.into_string()?</code>
<code>OsString</code>	<code>x.to_str()?.to_string()</code>
<code>PathBuf</code>	<code>x.to_str()?.to_string()</code>
<code>Vec<u8> 1</code>	<code>String::from_utf8(x)?</code>
<code>&str</code>	<code>x.to_string() i</code>
<code>&CStr</code>	<code>x.to_str()?.to_string()</code>
<code>&OsStr</code>	<code>x.to_str()?.to_string()</code>
<code>&Path</code>	<code>x.to_str()?.to_string()</code>
<code>&[u8] 1</code>	<code>String::from_utf8_lossy(x).to_string()</code>

CString

If you have <code>x</code> of type ...	Use this ...
String	<code>CString::new(x)?</code>
CString	<code>x</code>
OsString ²	<code>CString::new(x.to_str()?)?</code>
PathBuf	<code>CString::new(x.to_str()?)?</code>
Vec<u8> ¹	<code>CString::new(x)?</code>
&str	<code>CString::new(x)?</code>
&CStr	<code>x.to_owned()</code> ⁱ
&OsStr ²	<code>CString::new(x.to_os_string().into_string()?)?</code>
&Path	<code>CString::new(x.to_str()?)?</code>
&[u8] ¹	<code>CString::new(Vec::from(x))?</code>
*mut c_char ³	<code>unsafe { CString::from_raw(x) }</code>

OsString

If you have <code>x</code> of type ...	Use this ...
String	<code>OsString::from(x)</code> ⁱ
CString	<code>OsString::from(x.to_str()?)</code>
OsString	<code>x</code>
PathBuf	<code>x.into_os_string()</code>
Vec<u8> ¹	<code>?</code>
&str	<code>OsString::from(x)</code> ⁱ
&CStr	<code>OsString::from(x.to_str()?)</code>
&OsStr	<code>OsString::from(x)</code> ⁱ
&Path	<code>x.as_os_str().to_owned()</code>
&[u8] ¹	<code>?</code>

PathBuf

If you have <code>x</code> of type ...	Use this ...
String	<code>PathBuf::from(x)</code> ⁱ
CString	<code>PathBuf::from(x.to_str()?)</code>
OsString	<code>PathBuf::from(x)</code> ⁱ
PathBuf	<code>x</code>
Vec<u8> ¹	<code>?</code>

If you have <code>x</code> of type ...	Use this ...
<code>&str</code>	<code>PathBuf::from(x)</code>
<code>&CStr</code>	<code>PathBuf::from(x.to_str()?)</code>
<code>&OsStr</code>	<code>PathBuf::from(x)</code>
<code>&Path</code>	<code>PathBuf::from(x)</code>
<code>&[u8] 1</code>	<code>?</code>

`Vec<u8>`

If you have <code>x</code> of type ...	Use this ...
<code>String</code>	<code>x.into_bytes()</code>
<code>CString</code>	<code>x.into_bytes()</code>
<code>OsString</code>	<code>?</code>
<code>PathBuf</code>	<code>?</code>
<code>Vec<u8> 1</code>	<code>x</code>
<code>&str</code>	<code>Vec::from(x.as_bytes())</code>
<code>&CStr</code>	<code>Vec::from(x.to_bytes_with_nul())</code>
<code>&OsStr</code>	<code>?</code>
<code>&Path</code>	<code>?</code>
<code>&[u8] 1</code>	<code>x.to_vec()</code>

`&str`

If you have <code>x</code> of type ...	Use this ...
<code>String</code>	<code>x.as_str()</code>
<code>CString</code>	<code>x.to_str()?</code>
<code>OsString</code>	<code>x.to_str()?</code>
<code>PathBuf</code>	<code>x.to_str()?</code>
<code>Vec<u8> 1</code>	<code>std::str::from_utf8(&x)?</code>
<code>&str</code>	<code>x</code>
<code>&CStr</code>	<code>x.to_str()?</code>
<code>&OsStr</code>	<code>x.to_str()?</code>
<code>&Path</code>	<code>x.to_str()?</code>
<code>&[u8] 1</code>	<code>std::str::from_utf8(x)?</code>

`&cstr`

If you have `x` of type ...**Use this ...**

String	<code>CString::new(x)? .as_c_str()</code>
CString	<code>x.as_c_str()</code>
OsString 2	<code>x.to_str()?</code>
PathBuf	<code>? ,4</code>
Vec<u8> 1,5	<code>CStr::from_bytes_with_nul(&x)?</code>
&str	<code>? ,4</code>
&CStr	<code>x</code>
&OsStr 2	<code>?</code>
&Path	<code>?</code>
&[u8] 1,5	<code>CStr::from_bytes_with_nul(x)?</code>
*const c_char 1	<code>unsafe { CStr::from_ptr(x) }</code>

`&OsStr`**If you have `x` of type ...****Use this ...**

String	<code>OsStr::new(&x)</code>
CString	<code>?</code>
OsString	<code>x.as_os_str()</code>
PathBuf	<code>x.as_os_str()</code>
Vec<u8> 1	<code>?</code>
&str	<code>OsStr::new(x)</code>
&CStr	<code>?</code>
&OsStr	<code>x</code>
&Path	<code>x.as_os_str()</code>
&[u8] 1	<code>?</code>

`&Path`**If you have `x` of type ...****Use this ...**

String	<code>Path::new(x) ^{r-}</code>
CString	<code>Path::new(x.to_str()?)</code>
OsString	<code>Path::new(x.to_str()?) ^{r-}</code>
PathBuf	<code>Path::new(x.to_str()?) ^{r-}</code>
Vec<u8> 1	<code>?</code>
&str	<code>Path::new(x) ^{r-}</code>
&CStr	<code>Path::new(x.to_str()?)</code>

If you have <code>x</code> of type ...	Use this ...
<code>&OsStr</code>	<code>Path::new(x)</code> ^r
<code>&Path</code>	<code>x</code>
<code>&[u8]</code> ¹	<code>?</code>
<code>&[u8]</code>	

If you have <code>x</code> of type ...	Use this ...
<code>String</code>	<code>x.as_bytes()</code>
<code>CString</code>	<code>x.as_bytes()</code>
<code>OsString</code>	<code>?</code>
<code>PathBuf</code>	<code>?</code>
<code>Vec<u8></code> ¹	<code>&x</code>
<code>&str</code>	<code>x.as_bytes()</code>
<code>&CStr</code>	<code>x.to_bytes_with_nul()</code>
<code>&OsStr</code>	<code>x.as_bytes()</code> ²
<code>&Path</code>	<code>?</code>
<code>&[u8]</code> ¹	<code>x</code>

Other

You want	And have <code>x</code>	Use this ...
<code>*const c_char</code>	<code>CString</code>	<code>x.as_ptr()</code>

¹ Short form `x.into()` possible if type can be inferred.

² Short form `x.as_ref()` possible if type can be inferred.

³ You should, or must if call is `unsafe`, ensure raw data comes with a valid representation for the string type (e.g., UTF-8 data for a `String`).

⁴ Only on some platforms `std::os::<your_os>::ffi::OsStrExt` exists with helper methods to get a raw `&[u8]` representation of the underlying `OsStr`. Use the rest of the table to go from there, e.g.:

```
use std::os::unix::ffi::OsStrExt;
let bytes: &[u8] = my_os_str.as_bytes();
CString::new(bytes)?
```

⁵ The `c_char` must have come from a previous `CString`. If it comes from FFI see `&cstr` instead.

⁶ No known shorthand as `x` will lack terminating `0x0`. Best way to probably go via `CString`.

⁷ Must ensure vector actually ends with `0x0`.

String Output

How to convert types into a `String`, or output them.

Rust has, among others, these APIs to convert types to stringified output, collectively called *format* macros:

Macro	Output	Notes
<code>format!(fmt)</code>	<code>String</code>	Bread-and-butter "to <code>String</code> " converter.
<code>print!(fmt)</code>	<code>Console</code>	Writes to standard output.
<code>println!(fmt)</code>	<code>Console</code>	Writes to standard output.
<code>eprint!(fmt)</code>	<code>Console</code>	Writes to standard error.
<code>eprintln!(fmt)</code>	<code>Console</code>	Writes to standard error.
<code>write!(dst, fmt)</code>	<code>Buffer</code>	Don't forget to also <code>use std::io::Write;</code>
<code>writeln!(dst, fmt)</code>	<code>Buffer</code>	Don't forget to also <code>use std::io::Write;</code>

Method	Notes
<code>x.to_string()</code> [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/string/trait.ToString.html)	Produces <code>String</code> , implemented for any <code>Display</code> type.

Here `fmt` is string literal such as `"hello {}"`, that specifies output (compare "Formatting" tab) and additional parameters.

Printable Types

In `format!` and friends, types convert via trait `Display` `"{}"` [STD](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/fmt/trait.Display.html>) or `Debug` {:?"} [STD](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/fmt/trait.Debug.html>) , non exhaustive list:

Type	Implements
<code>String</code>	<code>Debug, Display</code>
<code>CString</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>OsString</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>PathBuf</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>Vec<u8></code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>&str</code>	<code>Debug, Display</code>
<code>&CStr</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>&OsStr</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>&Path</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>&[u8]</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>bool</code>	<code>Debug, Display</code>
<code>char</code>	<code>Debug, Display</code>
<code>u8 ... i128</code>	<code>Debug, Display</code>

Type	Implements
f32, f64	Debug, Display
!	Debug, Display
()	Debug

In short, pretty much everything is `Debug`; more special types might need special handling or conversion ¹ to `Display`.

Formatting

Each argument designator in format macro is either empty `{}`, `{argument}`, or follows a basic [syntax](#):

```
{ [argument] ':' [[fill] align] [sign] ['#'] [width [$]] [. precision [$]] [type] }
```

Element	Meaning
argument	Number (0, 1, ...), variable ²¹ or name, ¹⁸ e.g., <code>print!("{}")</code> .
fill	The character to fill empty spaces with (e.g., 0), if width is specified.
align	Left (<), center (^), or right (>), if width is specified.
sign	Can be + for sign to always be printed.
#	Alternate formatting , e.g. prettify <code>Debug</code> ^{STD} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/fmt/trait.Debug.html) formatter ? or prefix hex with 0x.
width	Minimum width (≥ 0), padding with fill (default to space). If starts with 0, zero-padded.
precision	Decimal digits (≥ 0) for numerics, or max width for non-numerics.
\$	Interpret width or precision as argument identifier instead to allow for dynamic formatting.
type	<code>Debug</code> ^{STD} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/fmt/trait.Debug.html) (?) formatting, hex (x), binary (b), octal (o), pointer (p), exp (e) ... see more .

Format Example	Explanation
{}	Print the next argument using <code>Display</code> ^{STD} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/fmt/trait.Display.html)
{x}	Same, but use variable x from scope. ²¹
{:?}	Print the next argument using <code>Debug</code> ^{STD} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/fmt/trait.Debug.html)
{2:#?}	Pretty-print the 3 rd argument with <code>Debug</code> ^{STD} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/fmt/trait.Debug.html) formatting.
{val:^2\$}	Center the val named argument, width specified by the 3 rd argument.
{:<10.3}	Left align with width 10 and a precision of 3.
{val:#x}	Format val argument as hex, with a leading 0x (alternate format for x).

Full Example	Explanation
--------------	-------------

Full Example	Explanation
<code>println!("{}", x)</code>	Print <code>x</code> using <code>Display</code> [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/fmt/trait.Display.html) on std. out and append new line. '15 🗑
<code>println!("{}")</code>	Same, but use variable <code>x</code> from scope. '21
<code>format!("{}{:>3}{}") {b:?}")</code>	Convert <code>PI</code> with 3 digits, add space, b with <code>Debug</code> [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/fmt/trait.Debug.html), return <code>String</code> . '21

Tooling

Project Anatomy

Basic project layout, and common files and folders, as used by `cargo`. ↴

Entry	Code
<code>.cargo/</code>	Project-local cargo configuration , may contain <code>config.toml</code> . [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/cargo/reference/config.html)
<code>benches/</code>	Benchmarks for your crate, run via <code>cargo bench</code> , requires nightly by default.* 🚦
<code>examples/</code>	Examples how to use your crate, they see your crate like external user would.
<code>my_example.rs</code>	Individual examples are run like <code>cargo run --example my_example</code> .
<code>src/</code>	Actual source code for your project.
<code>main.rs</code>	Default entry point for applications, this is what <code>cargo run</code> uses.
<code>lib.rs</code>	Default entry point for libraries. This is where lookup for <code>my_crate::f()</code> starts.
<code>src/bin/</code>	Place for additional binaries, even in library projects.
<code>extra.rs</code>	Additional binary, run with <code>cargo run --bin extra</code> .
<code>tests/</code>	Integration tests go here, invoked via <code>cargo test</code> . Unit tests often stay in <code>src/</code> file.
<code>.rustfmt.toml</code>	In case you want to customize how <code>cargo fmt</code> works.
<code>.clippy.toml</code>	Special configuration for certain clippy lints , utilized via <code>cargo clippy</code>
<code>build.rs</code>	Pre-build script , [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/cargo/reference/build-scripts.html) useful when compiling C / FFI, ...
<code>Cargo.toml</code>	Main project manifest , [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/cargo/reference/manifest.html) Defines dependencies, artifacts ...
<code>Cargo.lock</code>	Dependency details for reproducible builds; add to <code>git</code> for apps, not for libs.
<code>rust-toolchain.toml</code>	Define toolchain override [🔗](https://rust-lang.github.io/rustup/overrides.html) (channel, components, targets) for this project.

* On stable consider [Criterion](#).

Minimal examples for various entry points might look like:

Applications

Libraries

```
// src/main.rs (default application entry point)

fn main() {
    println!("Hello, world!");
}
```

```
// src/lib.rs (default library entry point)

pub fn f() {}           // Is a public item in root, so it's accessible from the outside.

mod m {
    pub fn g() {} // No public path (`m` not public) from root, so `g` is not accessible from the outside of the crate.
```

Unit Tests

```
// src/my_module.rs (any file of your project)

fn f() -> u32 { 0 }

#[cfg(test)]
mod test {
    use super::f;           // Need to import items from parent module. Has access to non-public members.

    #[test]
    fn ff() {
        assert_eq!(f(), 0);
    }
}
```

Integration Tests

```
// tests/sample.rs (sample integration test)

#[test]
fn my_sample() {
    assert_eq!(my_crate::f(), 123); // Integration tests (and benchmarks) 'depend' to the crate like a 3rd party would. Hence, they only see public items.
```



Benchmarks

```
// benches/sample.rs (sample benchmark)

#![feature(test)] // #[bench] is still experimental

extern crate test; // Even in '18 this is needed ... for reasons.
                  // Normally you don't need this in '18 code.

use test::{black_box, Bencher};

#[bench]
fn my_algo(b: &mut Bencher) {
    b.iter(|| black_box(my_crate::f())); // `black_box` prevents `f` from being optimized away.
}
```

Build Scripts

```
// build.rs (sample pre-build script)

fn main() {
    // You need to rely on env. vars for target; `#[cfg(...)]` are for host.
    let target_os = env::var("CARGO_CFG_TARGET_OS");
}
```

*See [here](#) for list of environment variables set.

Proc Macros

```
// src/lib.rs (default entry point for proc macros)

extern crate proc_macro; // Apparently needed to be imported like this.

use proc_macro::TokenStream;

#[proc_macro_attribute] // Can now be used as `#[my_attribute]`
pub fn my_attribute(_attr: TokenStream, item: TokenStream) -> TokenStream {
    item
}
```

```
// Cargo.toml

[package]
name = "my_crate"
version = "0.1.0"

[lib]
proc-macro = true
```

Module trees and imports:

Module Trees

Modules [BK](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch07-02-defining-modules-to-control-scope-and-privacy.html>) [EX](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/mod.html#modules>) REF and **source files** work as follows:

- **Module tree** needs to be explicitly defined, is **not** implicitly built from **file system tree**. [🔗](<http://www.sheshbabu.com/posts/rust-module-system/>)
- **Module tree root** equals library, app, ... entry point (e.g., `lib.rs`).

Actual **module definitions** work as follows:

- A `mod m { }` defines module in-file, while `mod m;` will read `m.rs` or `m/mod.rs`.
- Path of `.rs` based on **nesting**, e.g., `mod a { mod b { mod c; } }` is either `a/b/c.rs` or `a/b/c/mod.rs`.
- Files not pathed from module tree root via some `mod m;` won't be touched by compiler! 🚫

Namespaces

Rust has three kinds of **namespaces**:

Namespace Types	Namespace Functions	Namespace Macros
<code>mod X { }</code>	<code>fn X() {}</code>	<code>macro_rules! X { ... }</code>
<code>X (crate)</code>	<code>const X: u8 = 1;</code>	...
<code>trait X { }</code>	<code>static X: u8 = 1;</code>	...
<code>enum X { }</code>
<code>union X { }</code>
<code>struct X { }</code>
	<code>← struct X; ¹ →</code>	
	<code>← struct X(); ² →</code>	

¹ Counts in *Types* and in *Functions*, defines type `X` and constant `X`.

² Counts in *Types* and in *Functions*, defines type `X` and function `X`.

- In any given scope, for example within a module, only one item per namespace can exist, e.g.,
 - `enum X { }` and `fn X() {}` can coexist

- `struct X;` and `const X` cannot coexist
- With a `use my_mod::X;` all items called `X` will be imported.

Due to naming conventions (e.g., `fn` and `mod` are lowercase by convention) and *common sense* (most developers just don't name all things `X`) you won't have to worry about these *kinds* in most cases. They can, however, be a factor when designing macros.

Cargo

Commands and tools that are good to know.

Command	Description
<code>cargo init</code>	Create a new project for the latest edition.
<code>cargo build</code>	Build the project in debug mode (<code>--release</code> for all optimization).
<code>cargo check</code>	Check if project would compile (much faster).
<code>cargo test</code>	Run tests for the project.
<code>cargo doc --open</code>	Locally generate documentation for your code and dependencies.
<code>cargo run</code>	Run your project, if a binary is produced (main.rs).
<code>cargo run --bin b</code>	Run binary <code>b</code> . Unifies features with other dependents (can be confusing).
<code>cargo run -p w</code>	Run main of sub-workspace <code>w</code> . Treats features more as you would expect.
<code>cargo ... --timings</code>	Show what crates caused your build to take so long, highly useful. 🔥
<code>cargo tree</code>	Show dependency graph.
<code>cargo +{nightly, stable} ...</code>	Use given toolchain for command, e.g., for 'nightly only' tools.
<code>cargo +nightly ...</code>	Some nightly-only commands (substitute <code>...</code> with command below)
<code>rustc -- -Zunpretty=expanded</code>	Show expanded macros. 🚨
<code>rustup doc</code>	Open offline Rust documentation (incl. the books), good on a plane!

Here `cargo build` means you can either type `cargo build` or just `cargo b`; and `--release` means it can be replaced with `-r`.

These are optional `rustup` components. Install them with `rustup component add [tool]`.

Tool	Description
<code>cargo clippy</code>	Additional (lints) catching common API misuses and unidiomatic code. [🔗](https://github.com/rust-lang/rust-clippy)
<code>cargo fmt</code>	Automatic code formatter (<code>rustup component add rustfmt</code>). [🔗](https://github.com/rust-lang/rustfmt)

A large number of additional cargo plugins [can be found here](#).

Cross Compilation

- ➊ Check [target is supported](#).
- ➋ Install target via `rustup target install X`.
- ➌ Install native toolchain (required to *link*, depends on target).

Get from target vendor (Google, Apple, ...), might not be available on all hosts (e.g., no iOS toolchain on Windows).

Some toolchains require additional build steps (e.g., Android's `make-standalone-toolchain.sh`).

- Update `~/.cargo/config.toml` like this:

```
[target.aarch64-linux-android]
linker = "[PATH_TO_TOOLCHAIN]/aarch64-linux-android/bin/aarch64-linux-android-clang"
```

or

```
[target.aarch64-linux-android]
linker = "C:/[PATH_TO_TOOLCHAIN]/prebuilt/windows-x86_64/bin/aarch64-linux-android21-clang.cmd"
```

- Set **environment variables** (optional, wait until compiler complains before setting):

```
set CC=C:\[PATH_TO_TOOLCHAIN]\prebuilt\windows-x86_64\bin\`aarch64-linux-android21-clang.cmd
set CXX=C:\[PATH_TO_TOOLCHAIN]\prebuilt\windows-x86_64\bin\`aarch64-linux-android21-clang.cmd
set AR=C:\[PATH_TO_TOOLCHAIN]\prebuilt\windows-x86_64\bin\`aarch64-linux-android-ar.exe
...
```

Whether you set them depends on how compiler complains, not necessarily all are needed.

Some platforms / configurations can be **extremely sensitive** how paths are specified (e.g., `\` vs `/`) and quoted.

- ✓ Compile with `cargo build --target=x`

Tooling Directives

Special tokens embedded in source code used by tooling or preprocessing.

Macros

Inside a **declarative** [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-06-macros.html#declarative-macros-with-macro_rules-for-general-metaprogramming) **macro by example** [BK](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-06-macros.html>) [EX](https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/macros.html#macro_rules) REF macro_rules! implementation these work:

Within Macros	Explanation
<code>\$x:ty</code>	Macro capture (here a type).
<code>\$x:item</code>	An item, like a function, struct, module, etc.
<code>\$x:block</code>	A block <code>{}</code> of statements or expressions, e.g., <code>{ let x = 5; }</code>
<code>\$x:stmt</code>	A statement, e.g., <code>let x = 1 + 1;</code> , <code>String::new()</code> or <code>vec![]</code> ;
<code>\$x:expr</code>	An expression, e.g., <code>x</code> , <code>1 + 1</code> , <code>String::new()</code> or <code>vec![]</code>
<code>\$x:pat</code>	A pattern, e.g., <code>Some(t)</code> , <code>(17, 'a')</code> or <code>_</code> .
<code>\$x:ty</code>	A type, e.g., <code>String</code> , <code>usize</code> or <code>Vec<u8></code> .
<code>\$x:ident</code>	An identifier, for example in <code>let x = 0;</code> the identifier is <code>x</code> .
<code>\$x:path</code>	A path (e.g. <code>foo</code> , <code>::std::mem::replace</code> , <code>transmute::<_, int></code>).

Within Macros	Explanation
\$x:literal	A literal (e.g. <code>3</code> , <code>"foo"</code> , <code>b"bar"</code> , etc.).
\$x:lifetime	A lifetime (e.g. <code>'a</code> , <code>'static</code> , etc.).
\$x:meta	A meta item; the things that go inside <code>#[...]</code> and <code>#! [...]</code> attributes.
\$x:vis	A visibility modifier; <code>pub</code> , <code>pub(crate)</code> , etc.
\$x:tt	A single token tree, see here for more details.
\$crate	Special hygiene variable, crate where macros is defined. ?

Documentation

Inside a **doc comment** [BK](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch14-02-publishing-to-crates-io.html#making-useful-documentation-comments>) [EX](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/rust-by-example/meta/doc.html#documentation>) [REF](#) these work:

Within Doc Comments	Explanation
``` ... ```	Include a <b>doc test</b> (doc code running on <code>cargo test</code> ).
```x, Y ...```	Same, and include optional configurations; with <code>x</code> , <code>Y</code> being ...
rust	Make it explicit test is written in Rust; implied by Rust tooling.
-	Compile test. Run test. Fail if panic. Default behavior .
should_panic	Compile test. Run test. Execution should panic. If not, fail test.
no_run	Compile test. Fail test if code can't be compiled, Don't run test.
compile_fail	Compile test but fail test if code <i>can</i> be compiled.
ignore	Do not compile. Do not run. Prefer option above instead.
edition2018	Execute code as Rust '18; default is '15.
#	Hide line from documentation (<code>``` # use x::hidden; ```</code>).
[`S`]	Create a link to struct, enum, trait, function, ... <code>S</code> .
[`S`](crate::S)	Paths can also be used, in the form of markdown links.

`#![globals]`

Attributes affecting the whole crate or app:

Opt-Out's	On	Explanation
<code>#![no_std]</code>	C	Don't (automatically) import <code>std</code> [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/) ; use <code>core</code> [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/core/) instead. REF
<code>#![no_implicit_prelude]</code>	CM	Don't add <code>prelude</code> [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/prelude/index.html), need to manually import <code>None</code> , <code>Vec</code> , ... REF
<code>#![no_main]</code>	C	Don't emit <code>main()</code> in apps if you do that yourself. REF

Opt-In's	On	Explanation
----------	----	-------------

Opt-In's	On	Explanation
<code>#![feature(a, b, c)]</code>	C	Rely on features that may never get stabilized, c. Unstable Book . 
Builds	On	Explanation
<code>#![windows_subsystem = "x"]</code>	C	On Windows, make a <code>console</code> or <code>windows</code> app. REF
<code>#![crate_name = "x"]</code>	C	Specify current crate name, e.g., when not using <code>cargo</code> .? REF
<code>#![crate_type = "bin"]</code>	C	Specify current crate type (<code>bin</code> , <code>lib</code> , <code>dylib</code> , <code>cdylib</code> , ...). REF
<code>#![recursion_limit = "123"]</code>	C	Set <i>compile-time</i> recursion limit for deref, macros, ... REF
<code>#![type_length_limit = "456"]</code>	C	Limits maximum number of type substitutions. REF

Handlers	On	Explanation
<code>#[panic_handler]</code>	F	Make some <code>fn f(&PanicInfo) -> !</code> app's panic handler . REF
<code>#[global_allocator]</code>	S	Make static item impl. <code>GlobalAlloc</code> ^{STD} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/alloc/alloc/trait.GlobalAlloc.html) global allocator . REF

`#[code]`

Attributes primarily governing emitted code:

Developer UX	On	Explanation
<code>#[non_exhaustive]</code>	T	Future-proof <code>struct</code> or <code>enum</code> ; hint it may grow in future. REF
<code>#[path = "x.rs"]</code>	M	Get module from non-standard file. REF

Codegen	On	Explanation
<code>#[inline]</code>	F	Nicely suggest compiler should inline function at call sites. REF
<code>#[inline(always)]</code>	F	Emphatically threaten compiler to inline call, or else. REF
<code>#[inline(never)]</code>	F	Instruct compiler to feel disappointed if it still inlines the function. REF
<code>#[cold]</code>	F	Hint that function probably isn't going to be called. REF
<code>#[target_feature(enable="x")]</code>	F	Enable CPU feature (e.g., <code>avx2</code>) for code of <code>unsafe fn</code> . REF
<code>#[track_caller]</code>	F	Allows <code>fn</code> to find <code>caller</code> ^{STD} (https://doc.rust-lang.org/core/panic/struct.Location.html#method.caller) for better panic messages. REF
<code>#[repr(X)]</code>	T	Use another representation instead of the default <code>rust</code> REF one:
<code>#[repr(C)]</code>	T	Use a C-compatible (f. FFI), predictable (f. <code>transmute</code>) layout. REF
<code>#[repr(C, u8)]</code>	enum	Give <code>enum</code> discriminant the specified type. REF
<code>#[repr(transparent)]</code>	T	Give single-element type same layout as contained field. REF
<code>#[repr(packed(1))]</code>	T	Lower alignment of struct and contained fields, mildly UB prone. REF

Codegen	On	Explanation
<code>#[repr(align(8))]</code>	T	Raise alignment of struct to given value, e.g., for SIMD types. REF

¹ Some representation modifiers can be combined, e.g., `#[repr(C, packed(1))]`.

Linking	On	Explanation
<code>#[no_mangle]</code>	*	Use item name directly as symbol name, instead of mangling. REF
<code>#[no_link]</code>	X	Don't link <code>extern crate</code> when only wanting macros. REF
<code>#[link(name="x", kind="y")]</code>	X	Native lib to link against when looking up symbol. REF
<code>#[link_name = "foo"]</code>	F	Name of symbol to search for resolving <code>extern fn</code> . REF
<code>#[link_section = ".sample"]</code>	FS	Section name of object file where item should be placed. REF
<code>#[export_name = "foo"]</code>	FS	Export a <code>fn</code> or <code>static</code> under a different name. REF
<code>#[used]</code>	S	Don't optimize away <code>static</code> variable despite it looking unused. REF

`#[quality]`

Attributes used by Rust tools to improve code quality:

Code Patterns	On	Explanation
<code>#[allow(X)]</code>	*	Instruct <code>rustc</code> / <code>clippy</code> to ... ignore class X of possible issues. REF
<code>#[warn(X)]</code> ¹	*	... emit a warning, mixes well with <code>clippy</code> lints. 🔥 REF
<code>#[deny(X)]</code> ¹	*	... fail compilation. REF
<code>#[forbid(X)]</code> ¹	*	... fail compilation and prevent subsequent <code>allow</code> overrides. REF
<code>#[deprecated = "msg"]</code>	*	Let your users know you made a design mistake. REF
<code>#[must_use = "msg"]</code>	FTX	Makes compiler check return value is processed by caller. 🔥 REF

¹ There is some debate which one is the best to ensure high quality crates. Actively maintained multi-dev crates probably benefit from more aggressive `deny` or `forbid` lints; less-regularly updated ones probably more from conservative use of `warn` (as future compiler or `clippy` updates may suddenly break otherwise working code with minor issues).

Tests	On	Explanation
<code>#[test]</code>	F	Marks the function as a test, run with <code>cargo test</code> . 🔥 REF
<code>#[ignore = "msg"]</code>	F	Compiles but does not execute some <code>#[test]</code> for now. REF
<code>#[should_panic]</code>	F	Test must <code>panic!()</code> to actually succeed. REF
<code>#[bench]</code>	F	Mark function in <code>bench/</code> as benchmark for <code>cargo bench</code> . 🚦 REF

Formatting	On	Explanation
<code>#[rustfmt::skip]</code>	*	Prevent <code>cargo fmt</code> from cleaning up item. [🔗](https://github.com/rust-lang/rustfmt)
<code>#![rustfmt::skip::macros(x)]</code>	CM	... from cleaning up macro x. [🔗](https://github.com/rust-lang/rustfmt)

Formatting	On	Explanation
<pre>#![[rustfmt::skip::attributes(x)]]</pre>	CM	... from cleaning up attribute <code>x</code> . [🔗](https://github.com/rust-lang/rustfmt)
Documentation	On	Explanation
<pre>#[doc = "Explanation"]</pre>	*	Same as adding a <code>///</code> doc comment. [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/rustdoc/the-doc-attribute.html)
<pre>#[doc(alias = "other")]</pre>	*	Provide another name users can search for in the docs. [🔗](https://github.com/rust-lang/rust/issues/50146)
<pre>#[doc(hidden)]</pre>	*	Prevent item from showing up in docs. [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/rustdoc/write-documentation/the-doc-attribute.html#hidden)
<pre>#! [doc(html_favicon_url = "")]</pre>	C	Sets the <code>favicon</code> for the docs. [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/rustdoc/write-documentation/the-doc-attribute.html#html_favicon_url)
<pre>#! [doc(html_logo_url = "")]</pre>	C	The logo used in the docs. [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/rustdoc/write-documentation/the-doc-attribute.html#html_logo_url)
<pre>#! [doc(html_playground_url = "")]</pre>	C	Generates <code>Run</code> buttons and uses given service. [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/rustdoc/write-documentation/the-doc-attribute.html#html_playground_url)
<pre>#! [doc(html_root_url = "")]</pre>	C	Base URL for links to external crates. [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/rustdoc/write-documentation/the-doc-attribute.html#html_root_url)
<pre>#! [doc(html_no_source)]</pre>	C	Prevents source from being included in docs. [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/rustdoc/write-documentation/the-doc-attribute.html#html_no_source)

`#[macros]`

Attributes related to the creation and use of macros:

Macros By Example	On	Explanation
<pre>#[macro_export]</pre>	!	Export <code>macro_rules!</code> as <code>pub</code> on crate level REF
<pre>#[macro_use]</pre>	MX	Let macros persist past modules; or import from <code>extern crate</code> . REF
Proc Macros	On	Explanation
<pre>#[proc_macro]</pre>	F	Mark <code>fn</code> as function-like procedural macro callable as <code>m!()</code> . REF
<pre>#[proc_macro_derive(Foo)]</pre>	F	Mark <code>fn</code> as derive macro which can <code>#[derive(Foo)]</code> . REF
<pre>#[proc_macro_attribute]</pre>	F	Mark <code>fn</code> as attribute macro which can understand new <code>#[x]</code> . REF

Derives	On	Explanation
<pre>#[derive(X)]</pre>	T	Let some proc macro provide a goodish <code>impl</code> of <code>trait X</code> . 🔥 REF

```
#[cfg]
```

Attributes governing conditional compilation:

Config Attributes	On	Explanation
<code>#[cfg(X)]</code>	*	Include item if configuration <code>X</code> holds. REF
<code>#[cfg(all(X, Y, Z))]</code>	*	Include item if all options hold. REF
<code>#[cfg(any(X, Y, Z))]</code>	*	Include item if at least one option holds. REF
<code>#[cfg(not(X))]</code>	*	Include item if <code>X</code> does not hold. REF
<code>#[cfg_attr(X, foo = "msg")]</code>	*	Apply <code>#[foo = "msg"]</code> if configuration <code>X</code> holds. REF

⚠ Note, options can generally be set multiple times, i.e., the same key can show up with multiple values. One can expect `#[cfg(target_feature = "avx")]` and `#[cfg(target_feature = "avx2")]` to be true at the same time.

Known Options	On	Explanation
<code>#[cfg(target_arch = "x86_64")]</code>	*	The CPU architecture crate is compiled for. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_feature = "avx")]</code>	*	Whether a particular class of instructions is available. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_os = "macos")]</code>	*	Operating system your code will run on. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_family = "unix")]</code>	*	Family operating system belongs to. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_env = "msvc")]</code>	*	How DLLs and functions are interfaced with on OS. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_endian = "little")]</code>	*	Main reason your cool new zero-cost protocol fails. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_pointer_width = "64")]</code>	*	How many bits pointers, <code>usize</code> and CPU words have. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_vendor = "apple")]</code>	*	Manufacturer of target. REF
<code>#[cfg(debug_assertions)]</code>	*	Whether <code>debug_assert!()</code> and friends would panic. REF
<code>#[cfg(panic = "unwind")]</code>	*	Whether <code>unwind</code> or <code>abort</code> will happen on panic. ?
<code>#[cfg(proc_macro)]</code>	*	Wheter crate compiled as proc macro. REF
<code>#[cfg(test)]</code>	*	Whether compiled with <code>cargo test</code> . 🔥 REF
<code>#[cfg(feature = "serde")]</code>	*	When your crate was compiled with feature <code>serde</code> . 🔥 REF

```
build.rs
```

Environment variables and outputs related to the pre-build script.

Input Environment	Explanation [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/cargo/reference/environment-variables.html)
<code>CARGO_FEATURE_X</code>	Environment variable set for each feature <code>X</code> activated.
<code>CARGO_FEATURE_SERDE</code>	If feature <code>serde</code> were enabled.
<code>CARGO_FEATURE_SOME_FEATURE</code>	If feature <code>some-feature</code> were enabled; dash <code>-</code> converted to <code>_</code> .

Input Environment	Explanation [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/cargo/reference/environment-variables.html)
CARGO_CFG_X	Exposes cfg's; joins mult. opts. by <code>,</code> and converts <code>-</code> to <code>_</code> . If <code>target_os</code> were set to <code>macos</code> .
CARGO_CFG_TARGET_OS=macos	If <code>target_feature</code> were set to <code>avx</code> and <code>avx2</code> .
CARGO_CFG_TARGET_FEATURE=avx,avx2	Where output should be placed.
OUT_DIR	Target triple being compiled for.
TARGET	Host triple (running this build script).
HOST	Can be <code>debug</code> or <code>release</code> .
PROFILE	
Available in <code>build.rs</code> via <code>env::var()?</code> . List not exhaustive.	
Output String	Explanation [🔗](https://doc.rust-lang.org/cargo/reference/build-scripts.html)
cargo:rerun-if-changed=PATH	(Only) run this <code>build.rs</code> again if <code>PATH</code> changed.
cargo:rerun-if-env-changed=VAR	(Only) run this <code>build.rs</code> again if environment <code>VAR</code> changed.
cargo:rustc-link-lib=[KIND=]NAME	Link native library as if via <code>-l</code> option.
cargo:rustc-link-search=[KIND=]PATH	Search path for native library as if via <code>-L</code> option.
cargo:rustc-flags=FLAGS	Add special flags to compiler. ?
cargo:rustc-cfg=KEY[="VALUE"]	Emit given <code>cfg</code> option to be used for later compilation.
cargo:rustc-env=VAR=VALUE	Emit var accessible via <code>env!()</code> in crate during compilation.
cargo:rustc-cdylib-link-arg=FLAG	When building a <code>cdylib</code> , pass linker flag.
cargo:warning=MESSAGE	Emit compiler warning.
Emitted from <code>build.rs</code> via <code>println!()</code> . List not exhaustive.	
For the <code>On</code> column in attributes: C means on crate level (usually given as <code>#![my_attr]</code> in the top level file). M means on modules. F means on functions. S means on static. T means on types. X means something special. ! means on macros. * means on almost any item.	

Working with Types

Types, Traits, Generics

Allowing users to *bring their own types* and avoid code duplication.

Types



- Set of values with given semantics, layout, ...

Type	Values
u8	{ 0 <u>u8</u> , 1 <u>u8</u> , ..., 255 <u>u8</u> }
char	{ 'a', 'b', ..., '🦀' }
struct S(u8, char)	{ (0 <u>u8</u> , 'a'), ... (255 <u>u8</u> , '🦀') }

Sample types and sample values.

Type Equivalence and Conversions



- It may be obvious but `u8`, `&u8`, `&mut u8`, are entirely different from each other
- Any `t: T` only accepts values from exactly `T`, e.g.,
 - `f(0_u8)` can't be called with `f(&0_u8)`,
 - `f(&mut my_u8)` can't be called with `f(&my_u8)`,
 - `f(0_u8)` can't be called with `f(0_i8)`.

Yes, `0 != 0` (in a mathematical sense) when it comes to types! In a language sense, the operation `==(0_u8, 0_u16)` just isn't defined to prevent happy little accidents.

Type	Values
u8	{ 0 <u>u8</u> , 1 <u>u8</u> , ..., 255 <u>u8</u> }
u16	{ 0 <u>u16</u> , 1 <u>u16</u> , ..., 65_535 <u>u16</u> }
&u8	{ 0xffaa <u>&u8</u> , 0xffbb <u>&u8</u> , ... }
&mut u8	{ 0xffaa <u>&mut u8</u> , 0xffbb <u>&mut u8</u> , ... }

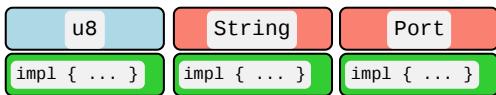
How values differ between types.

- However, Rust might sometimes help to **convert between types**¹
 - **casts** manually convert values of types, `0_i8` as `u8`
 - **coercions** ¹ automatically convert types if safe², `let x: &u8 = &mut 0_u8;`

¹ Casts and coercions convert values from one set (e.g., `u8`) to another (e.g., `u16`), possibly adding CPU instructions to do so; and in such differ from **subtyping**, which would imply type and subtype are part of the same set (e.g., `u8` being subtype of `u16` and `0_u8` being the same as `0_u16`) where such a conversion would be purely a compile time check. Rust does not use subtyping for regular types (and `0_u8` does differ from `0_u16`) but sort-of for lifetimes. [🔗](https://featherweightmusings.blogspot.com/2014/03/subtyping-and-coercion-in-rust.html)

² Safety here is not just physical concept (e.g., `&u8` can't be coerced to `&u128`), but also whether 'history has shown that such a conversion would lead to programming errors'.

Implementations — `impl S { }`



```
impl Port {
    fn f() { ... }
}
```

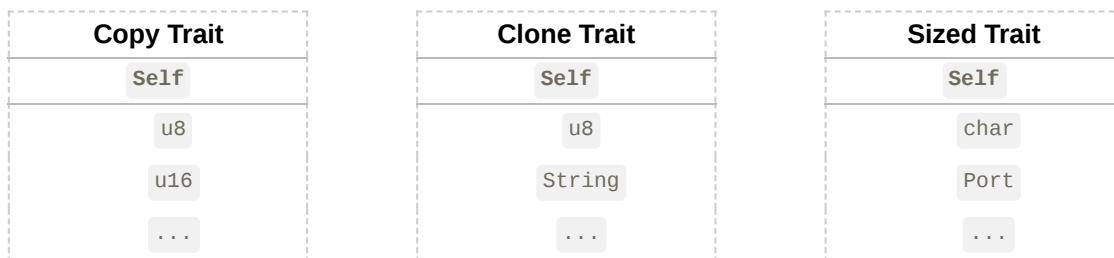
- Types usually come with implementation, e.g., `impl Port {}`, behavior *related* to type:
 - **associated functions** `Port::new(80)`
 - **methods** `port.close()`

What's considered *related* is more philosophical than technical, nothing (except good taste) would prevent a `u8::play_sound()` from happening.

Traits — `trait T { }`



- **Traits** ...
 - are way to "abstract" behavior,
 - trait author declares semantically *this trait means X*,
 - other can implement ("subscribe to") that behavior for their type.
- Think about trait as "membership list" for types:



Traits as membership tables, `Self` refers to the type included.

- **Whoever is part of that membership list will adhere to behavior of list.**
- Traits can also include associated methods, functions, ...

```
trait ShowHex {
    // Must be implemented according to documentation.
    fn as_hex() -> String;

    // Provided by trait author.
    fn print_hex() {}
}
```

`Copy`

```
trait Copy { }
```

- Traits without methods often called **marker traits**.
- `Copy` is example marker trait, meaning *memory may be copied bitwise*.

Sized

- Some traits entirely outside explicit control
- `Sized` provided by compiler for types with *known size*; either this is, or isn't

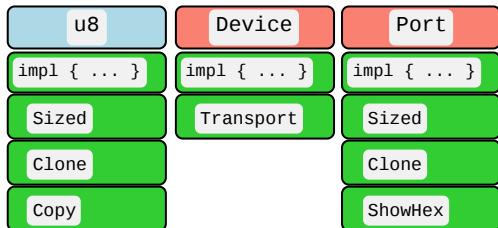
Implementing Traits for Types — `impl T for S { }`

```
impl ShowHex for Port { ... }
```

- Traits are implemented for types 'at some point'.
- Implementation `impl A for B` add type `B` to the trait membership list:



- Visually, you can think of the type getting a "badge" for its membership:



Traits vs. Interfaces

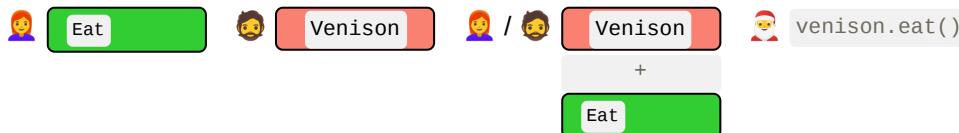


Interfaces

- In **Java**, Alice creates interface `Eat`.
- When Bob authors `Venison`, he must decide if `Venison` implements `Eat` or not.
- In other words, all membership must be exhaustively declared during type definition.
- When using `Venison`, Santa can make use of behavior provided by `Eat`:

```
// Santa imports `Venison` to create it, can `eat()` if he wants.
import food.Venison;

new Venison("rudolph").eat();
```



Traits

- In Rust, Alice creates trait Eat.
- Bob creates type Venison and decides not to implement Eat (he might not even know about Eat).
- Someone* later decides adding Eat to Venison would be a really good idea.
- When using Venison Santa must import Eat separately:

```
// Santa needs to import `Venison` to create it, and import `Eat` for trait method.
use food::Venison;
use tasks::Eat;

// Ho ho ho
Venison::new("rudolph").eat();
```

* To prevent two persons from implementing Eat differently Rust limits that choice to either Alice or Bob; that is, an `impl Eat for Venison` may only happen in the crate of Venison or in the crate of Eat. For details see coherence. ?

Generics

Type Constructors — Vec<>



- `Vec<u8>` is type "vector of bytes"; `Vec<char>` is type "vector of chars", but what is `Vec<>`?

Construct	Values
<code>Vec<u8></code>	<code>{ [], [1], [1, 2, 3], ... }</code>
<code>Vec<char></code>	<code>{ [], ['a'], ['x', 'y', 'z'], ... }</code>
<code>Vec<></code>	-

Types vs type constructors.



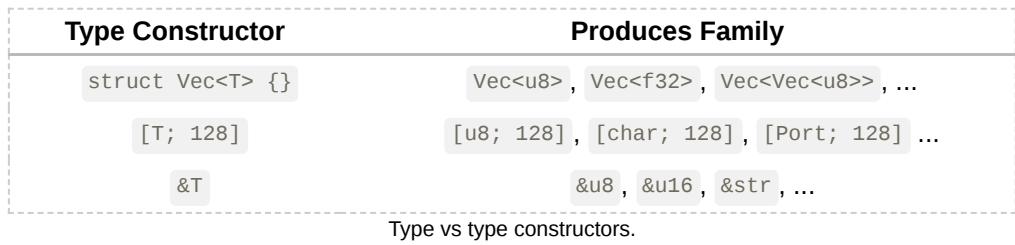
- `Vec<>` is no type, does not occupy memory, can't even be translated to code.
- `Vec<>` is **type constructor**, a "template" or "recipe to create types"
 - allows 3rd party to construct concrete type via parameter,
 - only then would this `Vec<UserType>` become real type itself.

Generic Parameters — <T>



- Parameter for `Vec<>` often named `T` therefore `Vec<T>`.

- `T` "variable name for type" for user to plug in something specific, `Vec<f32>`, `S<u8>`, ...



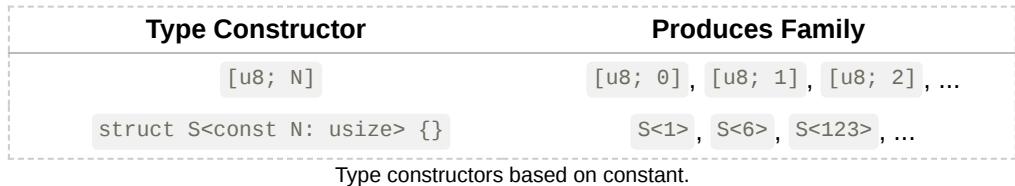
```
// S<> is type constructor with parameter T; user can supply any concrete type for T.
struct S<T> {
    x: T
}

// Within 'concrete' code an existing type must be given for T.
fn f() {
    let x: S<f32> = S::new(0_f32);
}
```

Const Generics — `[T; N]` and `S<const N: usize>`

`[T; n]` `S<const N>`

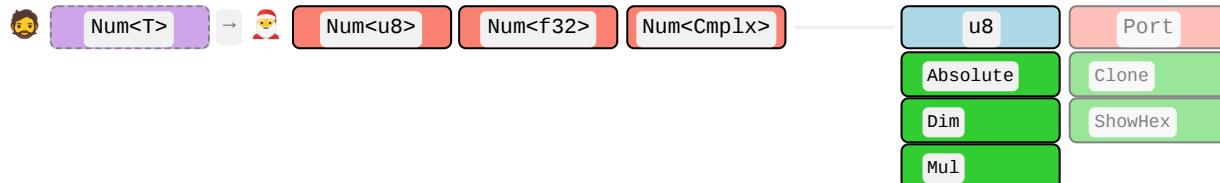
- Some type constructors not only accept specific type, but also **specific constant**.
- `[T; n]` constructs array type holding `T` type `n` times.
- For custom types declared as `MyArray<T, const N: usize>`.



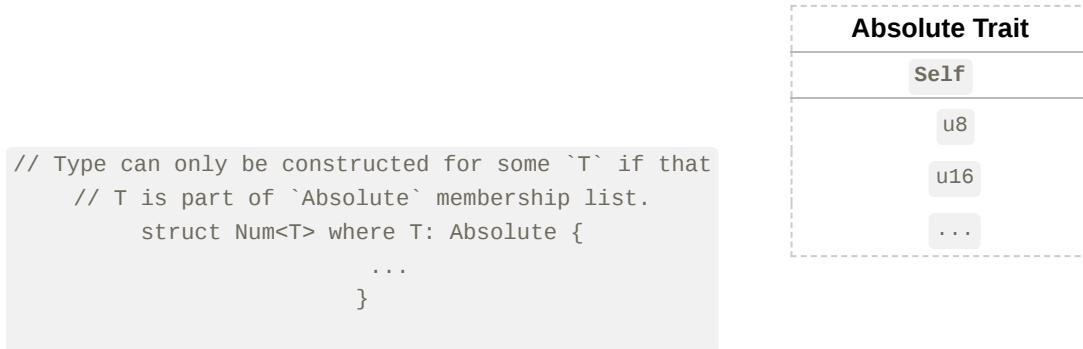
```
let x: [u8; 4]; // "array of 4 bytes"
let y: [f32; 16]; // "array of 16 floats"

// `MyArray` is type constructor requiring concrete type `T` and
// concrete usize `N` to construct specific type.
struct MyArray<T, const N: usize> {
    data: [T; N],
}
```

Bounds (Simple) — `where T: X`

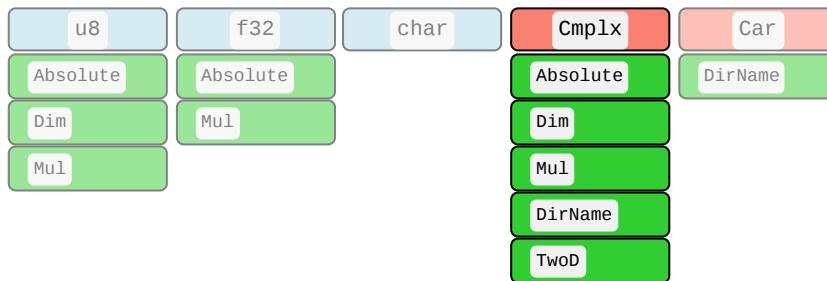


- If `T` can be any type, how can we *reason* about (write code) for such a `Num<T>`?
- Parameter **bounds**:
 - limit what types (**trait bound**) or values (**const bound**?) allowed,
 - we now can make use of these limits!
- Trait bounds act as "membership check":



We add bounds to the struct here. In practice it's nicer add bounds to the respective impl blocks instead, see later this section.

Bounds (Compound) — `where T: X + Y`



```
struct S<T>
where
    T: Absolute + Dim + Mul + DirName + TwoD
{ ... }
```

- Long trait bounds can look intimidating.
- In practice, each `+ X` addition to a bound merely cuts down space of eligible types.

Implementing Families — `impl<T>`

When we write:

```
impl<T> S<T> where T: Absolute + Dim + Mul {
    fn f(&self, x: T) { ... };
}
```

It can be read as:

- here is an implementation recipe for any type `T` (the `impl <T>` part),
- where that type must be member of the `Absolute + Dim + Mul` traits,
- you may add an implementation block to `S<T>`,
- containing the methods ...

You can think of such `impl<T> ... {}` code as **abstractly implementing a family of behaviors**. Most notably, they allow 3rd parties to transparently materialize implementations similarly to how type constructors materialize types:

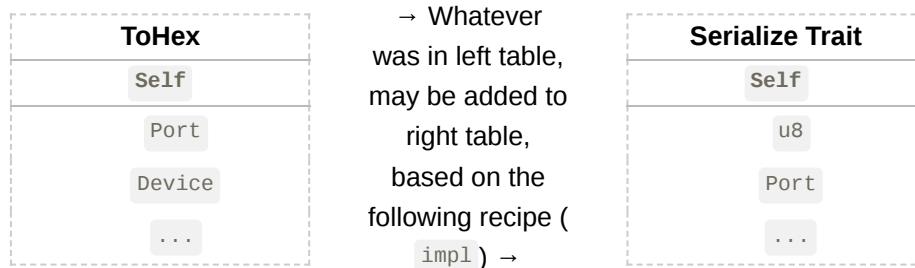
```
// If compiler encounters this, it will
// - check `0` and `x` fulfill the membership requirements of `T`
// - create two new version of `f`, one for `char`, another one for `u32`.
// - based on "family implementation" provided
s.f(0_u32);
s.f('x');
```

Blanket Implementations — `impl<T> X for T { ... }`

Can also write "family implementations" so they apply trait to many types:

```
// Also implements Serialize for any type if that type already implements ToHex
impl<T> Serialize for T where T: ToHex { ... }
```

These are called **blanket implementations**.

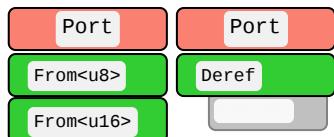


They can be neat way to give foreign types functionality in a modular way if they just implement another interface.

Advanced Concepts

Trait Parameters — `Trait<In> { type Out; }`

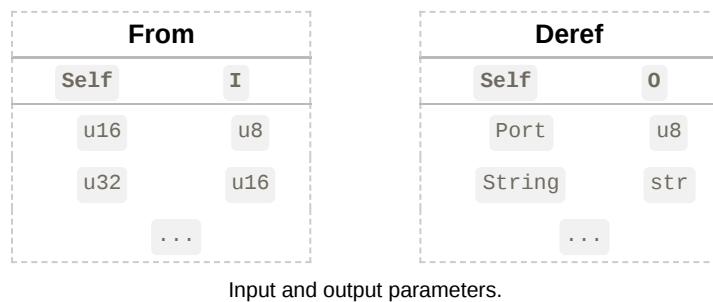
Notice how some traits can be "attached" multiple times, but others just once?



Why is that?

- Traits themselves can be generic over two **kinds of parameters**:
 - `trait From<I> {}`
 - `trait Deref { type O; }`
- Remember we said traits are "membership lists" for types and called the list `Self`?
- Turns out, parameters `I` (for **input**) and `O` (for **output**) are just more *columns* to that trait's list:

```
impl From<u8> for u16 {}
impl From<u16> for u32 {}
impl Deref for Port { type O = u8; }
impl Deref for String { type O = str; }
```



Now here's the twist,

- any output **O** parameters must be uniquely determined by input parameters **I**,
- (in the same way as a relation $X \rightarrow Y$ would represent a function),
- **Self** counts as an input.

A more complex example:

```
trait Complex<I1, I2> {
    type O1;
    type O2;
}
```

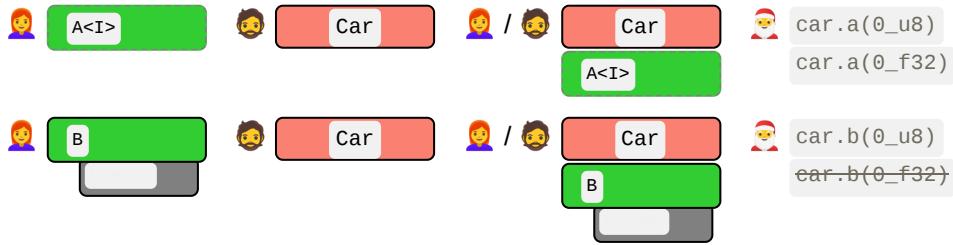
- this creates a relation relation of types named **Complex**,
- with 3 inputs (**Self** is always one) and 2 outputs, and it holds $(\text{Self}, \text{I1}, \text{I2}) \Rightarrow (\text{O1}, \text{O2})$

The diagram shows a table for the **Complex** trait with five rows of data. The columns are labeled **Self [I]**, **I1**, **I2**, **O1**, and **O2**.

Self [I]	I1	I2	O1	O2
Player	u8	char	f32	f32
EvilMonster	u16	str	u8	u8
EvilMonster	u16	String	u8	u8
NiceMonster	u16	String	u8	u8
NiceMonster	u16	String	u8	u16

Various trait implementations. The last one is not valid as $(\text{NiceMonster}, \text{u16}, \text{String})$ has already uniquely determined the outputs.

Trait Authoring Considerations (Abstract)



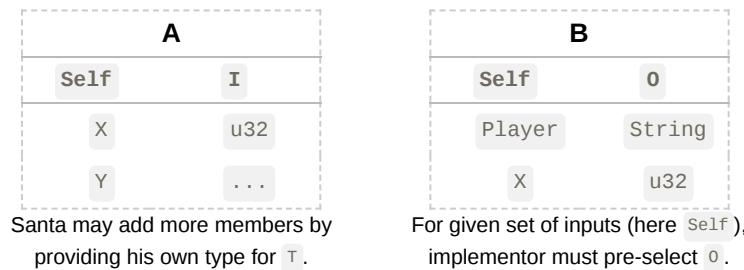
- Parameter choice (input vs. output) also determines who may be allowed to add members:
 - `I` parameters allow "families of implementations" be forwarded to user (Santa),
 - `O` parameters must be determined by trait implementor (Alice or Bob).

```
trait A<I> { }
trait B { type O; }

// Implementor adds (X, u32) to A.
impl A<u32> for X { }

// Implementor adds family impl. (X, ...) to A, user can materialize.
impl<T> A<T> for Y { }

// Implementor must decide specific entry (X, 0) added to B.
impl B for X { type O = u32; }
```



Trait Authoring Considerations (Example)



Choice of parameters goes along with purpose trait has to fill.

No Additional Parameters

```
trait Query {
    fn search(&self, needle: &str);
}

impl Query for PostgreSQL { ... }
impl Query for Sled { ... }

postgres.search("SELECT ...");
```



Trait author assumes:

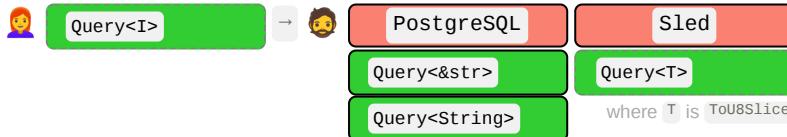
- neither implementor nor user need to customize API.
-

Input Parameters

```
trait Query<I> {
    fn search(&self, needle: I);
}

impl Query<&str> for PostgreSQL { ... }
impl Query<String> for PostgreSQL { ... }
impl<T> Query<T> for Sled where T: ToU8Slice { ... }

postgres.search("SELECT ...");
postgres.search(input.to_string());
sled.search(file);
```



Trait author assumes:

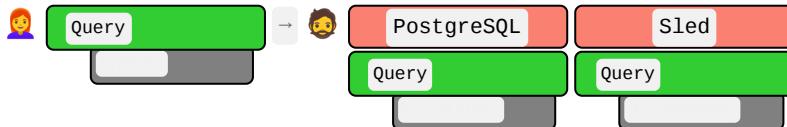
- implementor would customize API in multiple ways for same `Self` type,
 - users may want ability to decide for which `I`-types behavior should be possible.
-

Output Parameters

```
trait Query {
    type O;
    fn search(&self, needle: Self::O);
}

impl Query for PostgreSQL { type O = String; ... }
impl Query for Sled { type O = Vec<u8>; ... }

postgres.search("SELECT ...".to_string());
sled.search(vec![0, 1, 2, 4]);
```



Trait author assumes:

- implementor would customize API for `Self` type (but in only one way),
- users do not need, or should not have, ability to influence customization for specific `Self`.

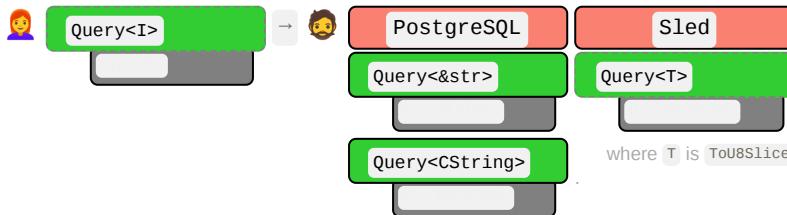
As you can see here, the term **input** or **output** does **not** (necessarily) have anything to do with whether `I` or `O` are inputs or outputs to an actual function!

Multiple In- and Output Parameters

```
trait Query<I> {
    type O;
    fn search(&self, needle: I) -> Self::O;
}

impl Query<&str> for PostgreSQL { type O = String; ... }
impl Query<CString> for PostgreSQL { type O = CString; ... }
impl<T> Query<T> for Sled where T: ToU8Slice { type O = Vec<u8>; ... }

postgres.search("SELECT ...").to_uppercase();
sled.search(&[1, 2, 3, 4]).pop();
```



Like examples above, in particular trait author assumes:

- users may want ability to decide for which `I`-types ability should be possible,
- for given inputs, implementor should determine resulting output type.

Dynamic / Zero Sized Types



- A type `T` is `Sized` [STD](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/marker/trait.Sized.html>) if at compile time it is known how many bytes it occupies, `u8` and `&[u8]` are, `[u8]` isn't.
- Being `Sized` means `impl Sized for T {}` holds. Happens automatically and cannot be user impl'ed.

- Types not `Sized` are called **dynamically sized types** [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch19-04-advanced-types.html#dynamically-sized-types-and-the-sized-trait) [NOM](https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/exotic-sizes.html#dynamically-sized-types-dsts) REF (DSTs), sometimes **unsized**.
- Types without data are called **zero sized types** [NOM](https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/exotic-sizes.html#zero-sized-types-zsts) (ZSTs), do not occupy space.

Example	Explanation
<code>struct A { x: u8 }</code>	Type <code>A</code> is sized, i.e., <code>impl Sized for A</code> holds, this is a 'regular' type.
<code>struct B { x: [u8] }</code>	Since <code>[u8]</code> is a DST, <code>B</code> in turn becomes DST, i.e., does not <code>impl Sized</code> .
<code>struct C<T> { x: T }</code>	Type params have implicit <code>T: Sized</code> bound, e.g., <code>C<A></code> is valid, <code>C</code> is not.
<code>struct D<T: ?Sized> { x: T }</code>	Using <code>?Sized</code> REF allows opt-out of that bound, i.e., <code>D</code> is also valid.
<code>struct E;</code>	Type <code>E</code> is zero-sized (and also sized) and will not consume memory.
<code>trait F { fn f(&self); }</code>	Traits do not have an implicit <code>Sized</code> bound, i.e., <code>impl F for B {}</code> is valid.
<code>trait F: Sized {}</code>	Traits can however opt into <code>Sized</code> via supertraits. [†]
<code>trait G { fn g(self); }</code>	For <code>Self</code> -like params DST <code>impl</code> may still fail as params can't go on stack.

?Sized



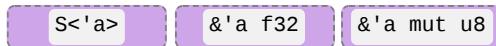
```
struct S<T> { ... }
```

- `T` can be any concrete type.
- However, there exists invisible default bound `T: Sized`, so `S<str>` is not possible out of box.
- Instead we have to add `T : ?Sized` to opt-out of that bound:

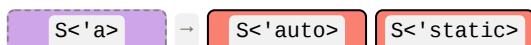


```
struct S<T> where T: ?Sized { ... }
```

Generics and Lifetimes — <'a>



- Lifetimes act* like type parameters:
 - user must provide specific `'a` to instantiate type (compiler will help within methods),
 - as `Vec<f32>` and `Vec<u8>` are different types, so are `S<'p>` and `S<'q>`,
 - meaning you can't just assign value of type `S<'a>` to variable expecting `S<'b>` (exception: "subtype" relationship for lifetimes, e.g. `'a` outliving `'b`).



- `'static` is only nameable instance of the *typespace* lifetimes.

```
// `'a is free parameter here (user can pass any specific lifetime)
struct S<'a> {
    x: &'a u32
}

// In non-generic code, 'static is the only nameable lifetime we can explicitly put in here.
let a: S<'static>;

// Alternatively, in non-generic code we can (often must) omit 'a and have Rust determine
// the right value for 'a automatically.
let b: S;
```

* There are subtle differences, for example you can create an explicit instance `0` of a type `u32`, but with the exception of `'static` you can't really create a lifetime, e.g., "lines 80 - 100", the compiler will do that for you. [🔗](https://medium.com/nearprotocol/understanding-rust-lifetimes-e813bcd405fa)

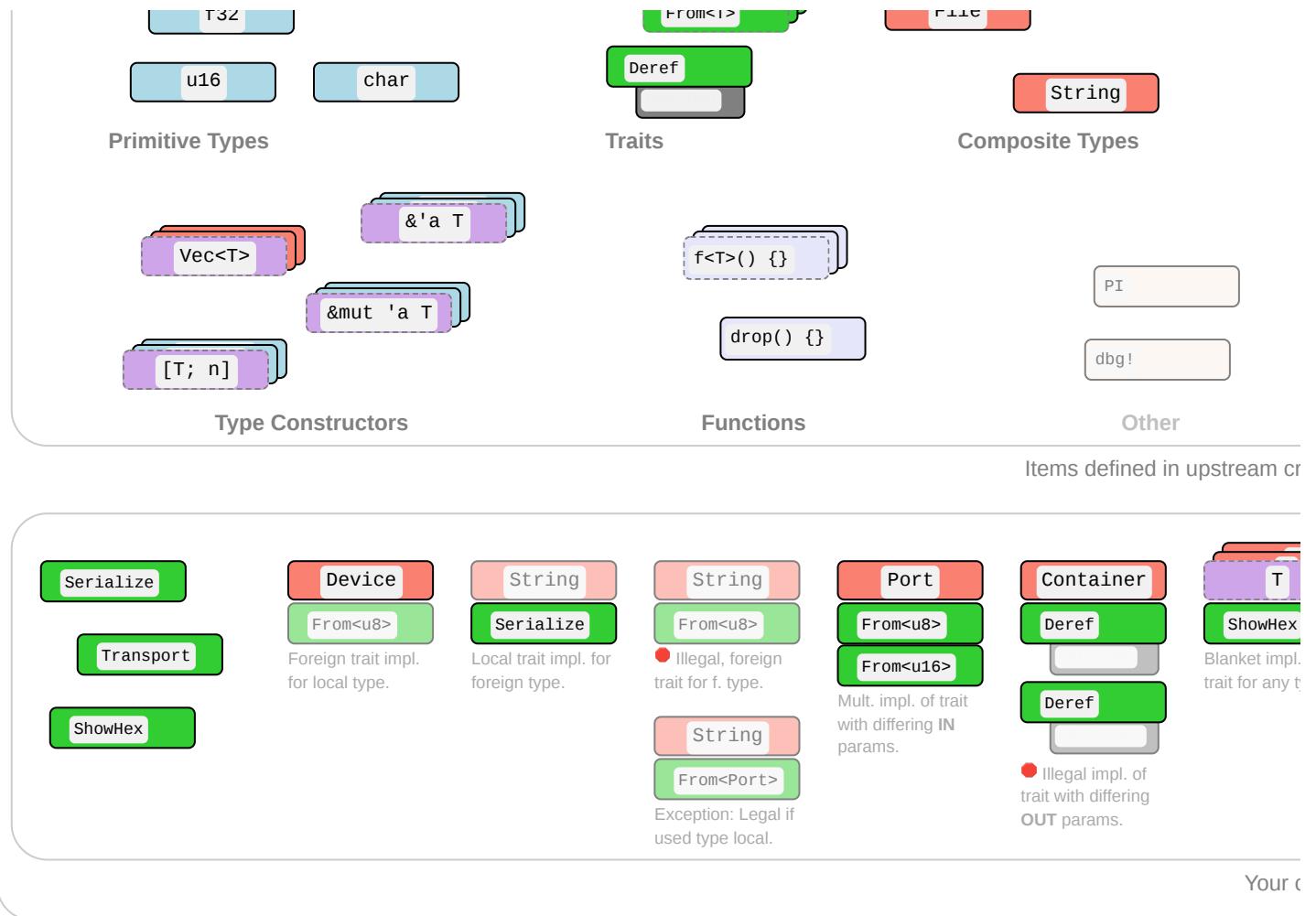
Note to self and TODO: that analogy seems somewhat flawed, as if `S<'a>` is to `S<'static>` like `S<T>` is to `S<u32>`, then `'static` would be a *type*; but then what's the value of that type?

Examples expand by clicking.

Type Zoo

A visual overview of types and traits in crates.





A walk through the jungle of types, traits, and implementations that (might possibly) exist in your application.



Type Conversions

How to get `B` when you have `A`?

Intro

```
fn f(x: A) -> B {
    // How can you obtain B from A?
}
```

Method	Explanation
Identity	Trivial case, <code>B</code> is exactly <code>A</code> .
Computation	Create and manipulate instance of <code>B</code> by writing code transforming data.
Casts	On-demand conversion between types where caution is advised.
Coercions	Automatic conversion within ' <i>weakening ruleset</i> '. ¹
Subtyping	Automatic conversion within ' <i>same-layout-different-lifetimes ruleset</i> '. ¹

¹ While both convert `A` to `B`, **coercions** generally link to an *unrelated* `B` (a type "one could reasonably expect to have different methods"), while **subtyping** links to a `B` differing only in lifetimes.

Computation (Traits)

```
fn f(x: A) -> B {
    x.into()
}
```

Bread and butter way to get `B` from `A`. Some traits provide canonical, user-computable type relations:

Trait	Example	Trait implies ...
<code>impl From<A> for B {}</code>	<code>a.into()</code>	<i>Obvious</i> , always-valid relation.
<code>impl TryFrom<A> for B {}</code>	<code>a.try_into()?</code>	<i>Obvious</i> , sometimes-valid relation.
<code>impl Deref for A {}</code>	<code>*a</code>	<code>A</code> is smart pointer carrying <code>B</code> ; also enables coercions.
<code>impl AsRef for A {}</code>	<code>a.as_ref()</code>	<code>A</code> can be viewed as <code>B</code> .
<code>impl AsMut for A {}</code>	<code>a.as_mut()</code>	<code>A</code> can be mutably viewed as <code>B</code> .
<code>impl Borrow for A {}</code>	<code>a.borrow()</code>	<code>A</code> has borrowed analog <code>B</code> (behaving same under <code>Eq</code> , ...).
<code>impl ToOwned for A { ... }</code>	<code>a.to_owned()</code>	<code>A</code> has owned analog <code>B</code> .

Casts

```
fn f(x: A) -> B {
    x as B
}
```

Convert types with keyword `as` if conversion *relatively obvious* but **might cause issues**. [NOM](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/casts.html>)

A	B	Example	Explanation
<code>Ptr</code>	<code>Ptr</code>	<code>device_ptr as *const u8</code>	If <code>*A</code> , <code>*B</code> are <code>Sized</code> .
<code>Ptr</code>	<code>Integer</code>	<code>device_ptr as usize</code>	
<code>Integer</code>	<code>Ptr</code>	<code>my_usize as *const Device</code>	
<code>Number</code>	<code>Number</code>	<code>my_u8 as u16</code>	Often surprising behavior. [†]
<code>enum w/o fields</code>	<code>Integer</code>	<code>E::A as u8</code>	
<code>bool</code>	<code>Integer</code>	<code>true as u8</code>	
<code>char</code>	<code>Integer</code>	<code>'A' as u8</code>	
<code>&[T; N]</code>	<code>*const T</code>	<code>my_ref as *const u8</code>	
<code>fn(...)</code>	<code>Ptr</code>	<code>f as *const u8</code>	If <code>Ptr</code> is <code>Sized</code> .

A	B	Example	Explanation
fn(...)	Integer	f as usize	

Where `Ptr`, `Integer`, `Number` are just used for brevity and actually mean:

- `Ptr` `any *const T` or `*mut T`;
- `Integer` `any countable u8 ... i128`;
- `Number` `any Integer, f32, f64`.

Opinion 🤔 — Casts, esp. `Number` - `Number`, can easily go wrong. If you are concerned with correctness, consider more explicit methods instead.

Coercions

```
fn f(x: A) -> B {
    x
}
```

Automatically **weaken** type `A` to `B`; types can be *substantially*¹ different. [NOM](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/coercions.html>)

A	B	Explanation
<code>&mut T</code>	<code>&T</code>	Pointer weakening.
<code>&mut T</code>	<code>*mut T</code>	-
<code>&T</code>	<code>*const T</code>	-
<code>*mut T</code>	<code>*const T</code>	-
<code>&T</code>	<code>&U</code>	Deref , if <code>impl Deref<Target=U> for T</code> .
<code>T</code>	<code>U</code>	Unsizing , if <code>impl CoerceUnsized<U> for T</code> . ² ↗
<code>T</code>	<code>V</code>	Transitivity , if <code>T</code> coerces to <code>U</code> and <code>U</code> to <code>V</code> .
<code> x x + x</code>	<code>fn(u8) -> u8</code>	Non-capturing closure , to equivalent <code>fn</code> pointer.

¹ Substantially meaning one can regularly expect a coercion result `B` to be *an entirely different type* (i.e., have entirely different methods) than the original type `A`.

² Does not quite work in example above as unsized can't be on stack; imagine `f(x: &A) -> &B` instead. Unsizing works by default for:

- `[T; n]` to `[T]`
- `T` to `dyn Trait` if `impl Trait for T {}`.
- `Foo<..., T, ...>` to `Foo<..., U, ...>` under arcane [🔗](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/coercions.html>) circumstances.

Subtyping

```
fn f(x: A) -> B {
    x
}
```

Automatically converts `A` to `B` for types **only differing in lifetimes** [NOM](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/subtyping.html>) - subtyping **examples**:

A (subtype)	B (supertype)	Explanation
<code>&' static u8</code>	<code>&'a u8</code>	Valid, <i>forever-pointer</i> is also <i>transient-pointer</i> .
<code>&'a u8</code>	<code>&' static u8</code>	🔴 Invalid, transient should not be forever.
<code>&'a &'b u8</code>	<code>&'a &'b u8</code>	Valid, same thing. But now things get interesting. Read on.
<code>&'a &'static u8</code>	<code>&'a &'b u8</code>	Valid, <code>&'static u8</code> is also <code>&'b u8</code> ; covariant inside <code>&</code> .
<code>&'a mut &'static u8</code>	<code>&'a mut &'b u8</code>	🔴 Invalid and surprising; invariant inside <code>&mut</code> .
<code>Box<&'static u8></code>	<code>Box<&'a u8></code>	Valid, <code>Box</code> with forever is also box with transient; covariant.
<code>Box<&'a u8></code>	<code>Box<&'static u8></code>	🔴 Invalid, <code>Box</code> with transient may not be with forever.
<code>Box<&'a mut u8></code>	<code>Box<&'a u8></code>	🔴⚡ Invalid, see table below, <code>&mut u8</code> never was a <code>&u8</code> .
<code>Cell<&'static u8></code>	<code>Cell<&'a u8></code>	🔴 Invalid, <code>Cell</code> are never something else; invariant.
<code>fn(&'static u8)</code>	<code>fn(&'a u8)</code>	🔴 If <code>fn</code> needs forever it may choke on transients; contravar.
<code>fn(&'a u8)</code>	<code>fn(&'static u8)</code>	But sth. that eats transients can be(!) sth. that eats forevers.
<code>for<'r> fn(&'r u8)</code>	<code>fn(&'a u8)</code>	Higher-ranked type <code>for<'r> fn(&'r u8)</code> is also <code>fn(&'a u8)</code> .

In contrast, these are **not** examples of subtyping:

A	B	Explanation
<code>u16</code>	<code>u8</code>	🔴 Obviously invalid; <code>u16</code> should never automatically be <code>u8</code> .
<code>u8</code>	<code>u16</code>	🔴 Invalid by design; types w. different data still never subtype even if they <i>could</i> .
<code>&'a mut u8</code>	<code>&'a u8</code>	🔴 Trojan horse, not subtyping; but coercion (still works, just not subtyping).

Variance

```
fn f(x: A) -> B {
    x
}
```

Automatically converts `A` to `B` for types **only differing in lifetimes** [NOM](<https://doc.rust-lang.org/nightly/nomicon/subtyping.html>) - subtyping **variance rules**:

- A longer lifetime `'a` that outlives a shorter `'b` is a subtype of `'b`.
- Implies `'static` is subtype of all other lifetimes `'a`.
- Whether types with parameters (e.g., `&'a T`) are subtypes of each other the following variance table is used:

Construct ¹	<code>'a</code>	<code>T</code>	<code>U</code>
<code>&'a T</code>	covariant	covariant	
<code>&'a mut T</code>	covariant	invariant	
<code>Box<T></code>		covariant	
<code>Cell<T></code>		invariant	
<code>fn(T) -> U</code>		contravariant	covariant
<code>*const T</code>		covariant	
<code>*mut T</code>		invariant	

Covariant means if `A` is subtype of `B`, then `T[A]` is subtype of `T[B]`.

Contravariant means if `A` is subtype of `B`, then `T[B]` is subtype of `T[A]`.

Invariant means even if `A` is subtype of `B`, neither `T[A]` nor `T[B]` will be subtype of the other.

¹ Compounds like `struct S<T> {}` obtain variance through their used fields, usually becoming invariant if multiple variances are mixed.

 **In other words**, 'regular' types are never subtypes of each other (e.g., `u8` is not subtype of `u16`), and a `Box<u32>` would never be sub- or supertype of anything. However, generally a `Box<A>`, can be subtype of `Box` (via covariance) if `A` is a subtype of `B`, which can only happen if `A` and `B` are 'sort of the same type that only differed in lifetimes', e.g., `A` being `&'static u32` and `B` being `&'a u32`.

Coding Guides

Idiomatic Rust

If you are used to Java or C, consider these.

Idiom	Code
Think in Expressions	<pre>y = if x { a } else { b }; y = loop { break 5 }; fn f() -> u32 { 0 }</pre>
Think in Iterators	<pre>(1..10).map(f).collect() names.iter().filter(x x.starts_with("A"))</pre>
Handle Absence with ?	<pre>y = try_something()?; get_option()?.run()</pre>

Idiom	Code
Use Strong Types	<pre>enum E { Invalid, Valid { ... } } over ERROR_INVALID = -1 enum E { Visible, Hidden } over visible: bool struct Charge(f32) over f32</pre>
Provide Builders	<pre>Car::new("Model T").hp(20).build();</pre>
Don't Panic	Panics are <i>not</i> exceptions, they may <code>abort()</code> entire process! Only raise <code>panic!</code> if impossible to handle error, better return <code>Option</code> or <code>Result</code> .
Split Implementations	Generic types <code>S<T></code> can have a separate <code>impl</code> per <code>T</code> . Rust doesn't have OO, but with separate <code>impl</code> you can get specialization.
Unsafe	Avoid <code>unsafe {}</code> , often safer, faster solution without it. Exception: FFI.
Implement Traits	<code>#[derive(Debug, Copy, ...)]</code> and custom <code>impl</code> where needed.
Tooling	With <code>clippy</code> you can improve your code quality. Formatting with <code>rustfmt</code> helps others to read your code. Add unit tests [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch11-01-writing-tests.html) (<code>#[test]</code>) to ensure your code works. Add doc tests [BK](https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch14-02-publishing-to-crates-io.html) (<code>``` my_api::f() ```</code>) to ensure docs match code.
Documentation	Annotate your APIs with doc comments that can show up on docs.rs . Don't forget to include a summary sentence and the Examples heading. If applicable: Panics, Errors, Safety, Abort and Undefined Behavior .

🔥 We **highly** recommend you also follow the [API Guidelines \(Checklist\)](#) for any shared project! 🔥

Async-Await 101

If you are familiar with `async / await` in C# or TypeScript, here are some things to keep in mind:

Basics

Construct	Explanation
<code>async</code>	Anything declared <code>async</code> always returns an <code>impl Future<Output=_></code> . [STD] (https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/future/trait.Future.html)
<code>async fn f() {}</code>	Function <code>f</code> returns an <code>impl Future<Output=()></code> .
<code>async fn f() -> S {}</code>	Function <code>f</code> returns an <code>impl Future<Output=S></code> .
<code>async { x }</code>	Transforms <code>{ x }</code> into an <code>impl Future<Output=x></code> .
<code>let sm = f();</code>	Calling <code>f()</code> that is <code>async</code> will not execute <code>f</code> , but produce state machine <code>sm</code> . ^{1 2}
<code>sm = async { g() };</code>	Likewise, does not execute the <code>{ g() }</code> block; produces state machine.
<code>runtime.block_on(sm);</code>	Outside an <code>async {}</code> , schedules <code>sm</code> to actually run. Would execute <code>g()</code> . ^{3 4}

Construct	Explanation
<code>sm.await</code>	Inside an <code>async {}</code> , run <code>sm</code> until complete. Yield to runtime if <code>sm</code> not ready.
¹	Technically <code>async</code> transforms following code into anonymous, compiler-generated state machine type; <code>f()</code> instantiates that machine.
²	The state machine always <code>impl Future</code> , possibly <code>Send</code> & co, depending on types used inside <code>async</code> .
³	State machine driven by worker thread invoking <code>Future::poll()</code> via runtime directly, or parent <code>.await</code> indirectly.
⁴	Rust doesn't come with runtime, need external crate instead, e.g., <code>tokio</code> . Also, more helpers in <code>futures</code> crate.

Execution Flow

At each `x.await`, state machine passes control to subordinate state machine `x`. At some point a low-level state machine invoked via `.await` might not be ready. In that case worker thread returns all the way up to runtime so it can drive another Future. Some time later the runtime:

- **might** resume execution. It usually does, unless `sm` / `Future` dropped.
- **might** resume with the previous worker **or another** worker thread (depends on runtime).

Simplified diagram for code written inside an `async` block :

```

consecutive_code();           consecutive_code();           consecutive_code();
START -----> x.await -----> y.await -----> READY
// ^           ^           ^
// Invoked via runtime |   |
// or an external .await |   This might resume on another thread (next best available),
//                         |   or NOT AT ALL if Future was dropped.
//                         |
//                         Execute `x`. If ready: just continue execution; if not, return
//                         this thread to runtime.

```

Caveats

With the execution flow in mind, some considerations when writing code inside an `async` construct:

Constructs ¹	Explanation
<code>sleep_or_block();</code>	Definitely bad ● , never halt current thread, clogs executor.
<code>set_TL(a); x.await; TL();</code>	Definitely bad ● , <code>await</code> may return from other thread, <code>thread local</code> invalid.
<code>s.no(); x.await; s.go();</code>	Maybe bad ● , <code>await</code> will <code>not return</code> if <code>Future</code> dropped while waiting. ²
<code>Rc::new(); x.await; rc();</code>	Non- <code>Send</code> types prevent <code>impl Future</code> from being <code>Send</code> ; less compatible.

¹ Here we assume `s` is any non-local that could temporarily be put into an invalid state; `TL` is any thread local storage, and that the `async {}` containing the code is written without assuming executor specifics.

² Since `Drop` is run in any case when `Future` is dropped, consider using drop guard that cleans up / fixes application state if it has to be left in bad condition across `.await` points.

Closures in APIs

There is a subtrait relationship `Fn : FnMut : FnOnce`. That means a closure that implements `Fn` [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ops/trait.Fn.html) also implements `FnMut` and `FnOnce`. Likewise a closure that implements `FnMut` [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ops/trait.FnMut.html) also implements `FnOnce`. [STD](https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ops/trait.FnOnce.html)

From a call site perspective that means:

Signature	Function <code>g</code> can call ...	Function <code>g</code> accepts ...
<code>g<F: FnOnce()>(f: F)</code>	... <code>f()</code> once.	<code>Fn</code> , <code>FnMut</code> , <code>FnOnce</code>
<code>g<F: FnMut()>(mut f: F)</code>	... <code>f()</code> multiple times.	<code>Fn</code> , <code>FnMut</code>
<code>g<F: Fn()>(f: F)</code>	... <code>f()</code> multiple times.	<code>Fn</code>

Notice how asking for a `Fn` closure as a function is most restrictive for the caller; but having a `Fn` closure as a caller is most compatible with any function.

From the perspective of someone defining a closure:

Closure	Implements*	Comment
<code> { moved_s; }</code>	<code>FnOnce</code>	Caller must give up ownership of <code>moved_s</code> .
<code> { &mut s; }</code>	<code>FnOnce</code> , <code>FnMut</code>	Allows <code>g()</code> to change caller's local state <code>s</code> .
<code> { &s; }</code>	<code>FnOnce</code> , <code>FnMut</code> , <code>Fn</code>	May not mutate state; but can share and reuse <code>s</code> .

* Rust prefers capturing by reference (resulting in the most "compatible" `Fn` closures from a caller perspective), but can be forced to capture its environment by copy or move via the `move || {}` syntax.

That gives the following advantages and disadvantages:

Requiring	Advantage	Disadvantage
<code>F: FnOnce</code>	Easy to satisfy as caller.	Single use only, <code>g()</code> may call <code>f()</code> just once.
<code>F: FnMut</code>	Allows <code>g()</code> to change caller state.	Caller may not reuse captures during <code>g()</code> .
<code>F: Fn</code>	Many can exist at same time.	Hardest to produce for caller.

Unsafe, Unsound, Undefined

Unsafe leads to unsound. Unsound leads to undefined. Undefined leads to the dark side of the force.

Safe Code

Safe Code

- Safe has narrow meaning in Rust, vaguely 'the *intrinsic* prevention of undefined behavior (UB)'.
- Intrinsic means the language won't allow you to use *itself* to cause UB.
- Making an airplane crash or deleting your database is not UB, therefore 'safe' from Rust's perspective.
- Writing to `/proc/[pid]/mem` to self-modify your code is also 'safe', resulting UB not caused *intrinsically*.

```
let y = x + x; // Safe Rust only guarantees the execution of this code is consistent with
print(y);      // 'specification' (long story ...). It does not guarantee that y is 2x
               // (X::add might be implemented badly) nor that y is printed (Y::fmt may panic).
```

Unsafe Code

Unsafe Code

- Code marked `unsafe` has special permissions, e.g., to deref raw pointers, or invoke other `unsafe` functions.
 - Along come special **promises the author *must uphold to the compiler***, and the compiler *will* trust you.
 - By itself `unsafe` code is not bad, but dangerous, and needed for FFI or exotic data structures.

```
// `x` must always point to race-free, valid, aligned, initialized u8 memory.
unsafe fn unsafe_f(x: *mut u8) {
    my_native_lib(x);
}
```

Undefined Behavior

Undefined Behavior (UB)

- As mentioned, `unsafe` code implies **special promises** to the compiler (it wouldn't need be `unsafe` otherwise).
 - Failure to uphold any promise makes compiler produce fallacious code, execution of which leads to UB.
 - After triggering undefined behavior *anything* can happen. Insidiously, the effects may be 1) subtle, 2) manifest far away from the site of violation or 3) be visible only under certain conditions.
 - A seemingly *working* program (incl. any number of unit tests) is no proof UB code might not fail on a whim.
 - Code with UB is objectively dangerous, invalid and should never exist.

```
if maybe_true() {
    let r: &u8 = unsafe { &*ptr::null() }; // Once this runs, ENTIRE app is undefined. Even if
} else { // line seemingly didn't do anything, app might now run
    println!("the spanish inquisition"); // both paths, corrupt database, or anything else.
}
```

Unsound Code

Unsound Code

- Any safe Rust that could (even only theoretically) produce UB for any user input is always **unsafe**.
 - As is `unsafe` code that may invoke UB on its own accord by violating above-mentioned promises.
 - Unsound code is a stability and security risk, and violates basic assumption many Rust users have.

Responsible use of Unsafe 🤔

- Do not use `unsafe` unless you absolutely have to.
- Follow the [Nomicon](#), [Unsafe Guidelines](#), **always** uphold **all** safety invariants, and **never** invoke [UB](#).
- Minimize the use of `unsafe` and encapsulate it in small, sound modules that are easy to review.
- Never create unsound abstractions; if you can't encapsulate `unsafe` properly, don't do it.
- Each `unsafe` unit should be accompanied by plain-text reasoning outlining its safety.

Adversarial Code

Adversarial code is *safe* code that compiles but does not follow API *expectations*, and might interfere with your own (safety) guarantees.

You author	User code may possibly ...
<code>fn g<F: Fn()>(f: F) { ... }</code>	Unexpectedly panic.
<code>struct S<X: T> { ... }</code>	Implement <code>T</code> badly, e.g., misuse <code>Deref</code> , ...
<code>macro_rules! m { ... }</code>	Do all of the above; call site can have <i>weird</i> scope.
Risk Pattern	Description
<code>#[repr(packed)]</code>	Packed alignment can make reference <code>&s.x</code> invalid.
<code>impl std::ops::... for S {}</code>	Any trait <code>impl</code> , esp. <code>std::ops</code> may be broken. In particular ...
<code>impl Deref for S {}</code>	May randomly <code>Deref</code> , e.g., <code>s.x != s.x</code> , or panic.
<code>impl PartialEq for S {}</code>	May violate equality rules; panic.
<code>impl Eq for S {}</code>	May cause <code>s != s</code> ; panic; must not use <code>s</code> in <code>HashMap</code> & co.
<code>impl Hash for S {}</code>	May violate hashing rules; panic; must not use <code>s</code> in <code>HashMap</code> & co.
<code>impl Ord for S {}</code>	May violate ordering rules; panic; must not use <code>s</code> in <code>BTreeMap</code> & co.
<code>impl Index for S {}</code>	May randomly index, e.g. <code>s[x] != s[x]</code> , or panic.
<code>impl Drop for S {}</code>	May run code or panic end of scope <code>{}</code> , during assignment <code>s = new_s</code> .
<code>panic!()</code>	User code can panic <i>any</i> time, doing abort, or unwind.
<code>catch_unwind(s.f(panicky))</code>	Also, caller might force observation of broken state in <code>s</code> .
<code>let ... = f();</code>	Variable name affects order of <code>Drop</code> execution. ¹ 🍒

¹ Notably, when you rename a variable from `x` to `y` you will also change the `Drop` behavior of whatever was assigned to that variable. A variable named `x` will have `Drop::drop()` executed at the end of scope, a variable named `y` will have it executed immediately on assignment!

Implications

- Generic code **cannot be safe if safety depends on type cooperation** w.r.t. most (`std::`) traits.
- If type cooperation is needed you must use `unsafe` traits (prob. implement your own).
- You must consider random code execution at unexpected places (e.g., re-assignments, scope end).
- You may still be observable after a worst-case panic.

As a corollary, safe-but-deadly code (e.g., `airplane_speed<T>()`) should probably also follow these guides.

API Stability

When updating an API, these changes can break client code. [RFC](#) Major changes (🔴) are **definitely breaking**, while minor changes (🟡) **might be breaking**:

Crates

- Making a crate that previously compiled for *stable* require *nightly*.
- Altering use of Cargo features (e.g., adding or removing features).

Modules

- Renaming / moving / removing any public items.
- Adding new public items, as this might break code that does `use your_crate::*`.

Structs

- Adding private field when all current fields public.
- Adding public field when no private field exists.
- Adding or removing private fields when at least one already exists (before and after the change).
- Going from a tuple struct with all private fields (with at least one field) to a normal struct, or vice versa.

Enums

- Adding new variants; can be mitigated with early `#[non_exhaustive]` [REF](#)
- Adding new fields to a variant.

Traits

- Adding a non-defaulted item, breaks all existing `impl T for S {}`.
- Any non-trivial change to item signatures, will affect either consumers or implementors.
- Adding a defaulted item; might cause dispatch ambiguity with other existing trait.
- Adding a defaulted type parameter.

Traits

- Implementing any "fundamental" trait, as *not* implementing a fundamental trait already was a promise.
- Implementing any non-fundamental trait; might also cause dispatch ambiguity.

Inherent Implementations

- Adding any inherent items; might cause clients to prefer that over trait fn and produce compile error.

Signatures in Type Definitions

- Tightening bounds (e.g., `<T>` to `<T: Clone>`).
- Loosening bounds.
- Adding defaulted type parameters.
- Generalizing to generics.

Signatures in Functions

- Adding / removing arguments.
- Introducing a new type parameter.
- Generalizing to generics.

Behavioral Changes

- / ● *Changing semantics might not cause compiler errors, but might make clients do wrong thing.*

