**Intro to Rust Lang** 

**Ownership Revisited** 

#### **Ownership Revisited**

Today, we'll provide another way of thinking about ownership:

- Not just avoiding compile errors, but uncovering:
  - How the borrow checker works
  - The purpose of the borrow checker
- How do we write safer code by working with the borrow checker?

#### The Rules

At the beginning of this course, we learned two sets of rules...

- Ownership rules
- Borrowing rules

#### Rules of Ownership

- Each value in Rust has an owner
- A value can only have one owner at a time
- When the owner goes out of scope, the value will be dropped

#### **Rules of Borrowing**

- At any given time, you may have either
  - One mutable (exclusive) reference to data
  - Any number of immutable (shared) references to the same data
- There can never be dangling references

#### The Catch

Getting code to compile is one thing. Understanding why is another...

- Sometimes we follow the rules blindly
  - When we break the rules, we may not fully understand why it is a problem in the first place
- The compiler can be overly cautious
  - Rejects code that seems safe
  - Makes us prove safety, even when we "know" it's safe

#### **Today's Objective**

Today we're going to address these questions:

- How do ownership rules prevent memory safety issues?
- What makes the borrow checker reject seemingly safe code?

# **Defining Safety**

What is safety?

• Safety is the absence of *undefined behavior* 

#### **Defining Unsafe**

However, undefined behavior / unsafety can mean many things.



• Definition in the Rust Reference is much longer...

# **Defining Unsafe**

Simplification for today: **Unsafety** ⇒ **Invalid Memory Access** 

#### **Unsafety** ⇒ **Invalid Memory Access**

Memory access can be unsafe if we access memory that is:

- Deallocated
  - Ownership rules prevent this
- Overwritten by "someone else"
  - Borrowing rules prevent this

#### **Unsafety** ⇒ **Invalid Memory Access**

Memory access can be unsafe if we access deallocated or overwritten memory.

- Immutable global variables are trivially safe
  - o static variables are read-only and valid for program's lifetime
- Today, we'll focus on *local* variables

#### **Local Variables**

Local variables live in a function's stack frame.

#### The stack frame:

- Contains everything needed for the function to run
- Is allocated on function call
- Is deallocated on function return

# The Stack: Local Variables

Here is a representation of main 's stack frame.

```
fn main() {
    let x = 1;
}
```

# The Stack: Local Variables

Now we call my\_function, constructing its stack frame.

```
fn main() {
    let x = 1;
    my_function(x);
}

fn my_function(arg: i32) {
    let y = 2;
    let z = 3;
}
```

# The Heap

What if instead of an integer on the stack (x = 1)...

```
fn main() {
    let x = 1;
    my_function(x);
}
```

We have a 15 GB array?

```
fn main() {
   let beef =
       [0xDEADBEEF; HUGE_NUMBER];
   my_function(beef);
}
```

• 15 GB = your Google Drive storage alt text

```
fn my_function(arg: [u32; HUGE_NUMBER]) {
    <-- snip -->
}
```

When we call my\_function , we need to:

- Allocate enough space in the stack frame
- Copy all 15 GB of
   0xDEADBEEF 's...

Imagine being required to recreate beef on every single stack frame.

```
let beef = [0xDEADBEEF; 2_000_000_000];
my_function(beef);
```

Unsustainable!

#### **Motivating the Heap**

We probably want to keep our beef array around for longer than a single function call.

- We can say that it is long-lived data
- We want other functions to use this array, instead of just a single stack frame
- How do we persist this data across function calls?

#### The Stack?

Instead of storing our array buffer on the stack...

# The Heap

Instead of storing our array buffer on the stack...

Let's put it on the **heap!** 

# The Heap

- If the data lives in the heap...
- The **pointer** lives on the stack

# Box<T>

The simplest form of heap allocation is Box<T>.

Moving a value from stack to heap:

```
let val: u8 = 5;
let boxed: Box<u8> = Box::new(val);
```

- Can access value by dereferencing box as \*boxed
- Value is automatically dropped when boxed goes out of scope

#### Box<T>

Let's put our beef array in a Box:

```
fn main() {
    let beef = Box::new([0xDEADBEEF; HUGE_NUMBER]);
    my_function(beef);
}
fn my_function(arg: Box<[u32]>) {
    <-- snip -->
}
```

- In reality, this allocates beef on the stack and then copies it to the heap
  - Use Vec<T> and convert to a boxed slice instead!

### The Heap

When we call my\_function, we can copy the *pointer* into arg!

```
let beef =
    Box::new([0xDEADBEEF; HUGE_NUMBER]);
my_function(beef);
```

#### The Heap

Before: 15 GB per array

After: 15 GB + 8 bytes per pointer

```
let beef =
    Box::new([0xDEADBEEF; HUGE_NUMBER]);

my_function(beef);
```

#### Recap: Stack vs. Heap

#### Variable placement:

- Stack-allocated: Data lives on the stack
- Heap-allocated: Data lives on the heap, the pointer on stack

# Recap: Stack vs. Heap

Comparison	Stack	Heap
Manages	Scalar data + Pointers	Dynamically-sized / long-lived data
Allocated on	Function call	Programmer request
Deallocated on	Function return	???

Recall that accessing **deallocated** memory is unsafe.

When is memory deallocated?

- Stack: deallocated when the function returns
  - ∨alid, unless dangling pointer
    - We'll discuss more in the upcoming Lifetimes lecture...
- Heap: deallocated when ???
  - 0
  - How can we be confident that heap memory is deallocated safely?

Recall the behavior of local variables on the stack:

- Local variable lives in the function's stack frame
- Allocated on function call
- Deallocated on function return
  - Sound familiar?

What if we say that data is "owned" by the stack frame?

- One stack frame (owner) per variable
- Data is dropped on function return
- Very similar to our previous model of ownership!

#### **Rules of Ownership**

Under this alternate ownership model, owners are stack frames:

- Each value in Rust has an owner
  - Owner is the stack frame
- A value can have only one owner at a time
  - Variables can only be in one stack frame
- When the owner goes out of scope, the value will be dropped
  - When the function returns, the stack frame is cleaned up!

#### **Ownership of Closures**

Let's re-examine **closures** again using this new ownership model:

- What does the move keyword really do?
- Why are captured values dropped when they are?

### **Ownership of Closures**

When is my\_str dropped? Who has ownership of it?

```
let my_str = String::from("x");
let take_and_give_back = move || { my_str };
assert_eq!(take_and_give_back(), "x");
```

- In take\_and\_give\_back, my\_str is dropped the first time the closure is called
  - Can only be called once

#### **Closure Internals**

When we create a closure...

```
let do_nothing_closure = |_x| {};
```

Think of it as a struct with an associated function:

```
impl Closure {
    // vvvvv Notice the immutable reference to `self`!
    pub fn call(&self, _x: &str) -> () {}
}
```

#### **Closure Internals**

The move keyword tells the closure to take ownership of values from its environment.

```
let take_and_give_back = move || { my_str };
// The `move` keyword tells compiler to put `my_str` in this `Closure`.
struct Closure {
   my_str: String,
impl Closure {
   // vvvv Notice the owned `self` type!
   pub fn call(self) -> String {
       return self.my_str;
```

#### **Closure Internals**

Then our code is equivalent to

- What happens when we call on the Closure?
  - Think about the stack frames

```
First, my_str is moved into our Closure.
```

```
let my_str = String::from("x");
let take_and_give_back =
   Closure { my_str };
```

Next, we call our closure, which gives ownership of my\_str to

Closure::call 's stack frame.

```
let my_str = String::from("x");
let take_and_give_back =
    Closure { my_str };
let my_returned_str =
    take_and_give_back.call();
```

```
Closure::call gives ownership back to main 's stack frame...
```

```
pub fn call(self) -> String {
    // Gives ownership back!
    return self.my_str;
}
```

- Closure 's my\_str is invalidated
- my\_str is moved out of Closure 's "body"
  - This is why it can only be called once!

### **Recap: Closure Internals**

- New way of thinking about ownership
  - Owners are stack frames
- A closure is really a function that stores ("captures") values in a struct
  - Ways to capture values:
    - Taking ownership: Store the value in the struct, via move keyword
    - Borrowing: Store a reference to the value in the struct

# **Motivating Borrowing Rules**

Recall that accessing **overwritten** memory is unsafe.

### **Vector Pop**

Suppose we want to write this code.

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &v[3]; // Get a reference to the last element
v.pop(); // Remove the last element in `v`
println!("{}", x); // What is `x`?
```

What do you think the compiler will say?

### **Vector Pop**

- x is invalid! &v [3] could now be any value ⇒ undefined behavior
- We cannot mutate a value that someone else is borrowing

#### **Vector Push**

What if instead of removing the last element, we *add* an element to the end?

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &v[3]; // Get a reference to the last element
v.push(5); // Instead of popping, let's push!
println!("{}", x); // What is `x`?
```

Surely nothing will happen to x this time?

#### **Vector Push**

Why isn't this okay???

### **Vector Layout**

Recall that vectors are dynamic arrays.

 This is technically a String, but recall that String is implemented with a Vec<u8>

## **Mutating Vectors**

- What if pushing 5 onto v triggers a resize?
- Resizing means:
  - Allocate new memory for v
  - Copy data to new location
  - Deallocate old memory location
- x would no longer point to valid memory!

### **Mutating Vectors**

Even though this error may seem unreasonable, the borrow checker is actually preventing you from making a hard-to-find mistake!

#### We Know Better...

What if you knew that this push doesn't resize?

- You as the programmer have vetted the implementation of push
- You can *guarantee* that resizing only happens with more elements

### Sneak Peek: unsafe

You can use an unsafe block to tell the compiler that you know better.

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = unsafe { v.as_ptr().add(3) }; // Get a raw pointer to the last element
v.push(5);
let x = unsafe { *x }; // Dereference the raw pointer
println!("{}", x);
```

- Think of unsafe blocks as "trust me bro" blocks
- We will talk about unsafe in a few weeks!

# unsafe vs. Borrow Checking

You should never resort to using unsafe just to get past the borrow checker.

- unsafe should be used sparingly and intentionally
- You must understand why you need to bypass the borrow checker
- Therefore, you *must* understand the borrow checker!

#### The Borrow Checker

The Borrow Checker prevents you from writing unsafe code.

This leads to some questions:

- How do I know if my program is unsafe?
  - How did the borrow checker conclude this?
- How can I tell if my program is safe even if the borrow checker rejects it?

### **Unveiling the Borrow Checker**

- "His blade works so smoothly that the ox does not feel it." The Dextrous Butcher
- Understand the borrow checker, and you'll speak its language fluently:
  - "My program is unsafe, and here's how I'll fix it"
  - And occasionally...
    - "My program is actually safe, let me tell you why"

# **Permissions**

### **Permissions of Places**

Denote the left side of assignments as **places**.

```
let x = &v[3];
// ^ place
```

• The borrow checker checks the permissions of **places** 

#### **Permissions of Places**

#### Places include:

- Variables, like a
- Dereferences of places, like \*a
- Array accesses of places, like a [0]
- Fields of places, like a.0, a.field
- Any combination of the above, like \*a.x[i].y

#### **Permissions of Variables**

When declared, a variable has the permissions:

- Read: can be copied
- Write: can be mutated (if declared with mut )
- Own: can be moved or dropped

#### **References and Permissions**

- Variables have the permissions Read (R), Write (W), and Own (O)
- Using references can temporarily remove these permissions

Let's revisit our vector pop example.

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
```

Place	R	W	0
V	?	?	?

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
```

Place	R	W	0
V	?	?	?

We declare v, giving it:

- ?
- ?

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
```

Place	R	W	0
V	+R	?	+0

We declare v, giving it:

- R, O due to variable declaration
- ?

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
```

Place	R	W	0
V	+R	+W	+0

We declare v, giving it:

- R, O due to variable declaration
- W because mut

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &v[3];
```

Place	R	W	0
V	R	W	0
X	?	-	?

When we create a reference x to v, we:

• ?

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &v[3];
```

Place	R	W	0
V	R	W	0
X	+R	-	+0

When we create a reference x to v, we:

- Give x R, O due to variable declaration
  - o x 's permissions are for the *reference*, not the data it is referring to

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &v[3];
```

Place	R	W	0
V	R	W?	0?
X	R	_	0

This move changes v:

- ?
- ?

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &v[3]; // v loses W
```

Place	R	W	0
V	R	W?	-
X	R	_	0

This move changes v:

- Removes W
- ?

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &v[3]; // <- v loses W, 0</pre>
```

Place	R	W	0
V	R	-	_
X	R	_	0

This move changes v:

- Removes W
- Removes O

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &v[3];
println!("{}", *x);
```

Place	R	W	0
V	R	-	_
X	R	_	0
*X	R	_	_

We can access our reference x by dereferencing it as \*x.

- \*x 's permissions are different from x 's!
- Can only dereference if \*x has R permissions
- \*x can only have R if v has R

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &v[3];
```

Place	R	W	0
V	R	_	_
X	R	-	0
*X	R	_	_

We can no longer mutate  $\,v\,$ , since we created a reference  $\,x\,$  to it.

When does v regain W, O?

- Case 1: All references become unused
- Case 2: Mutate v before any reference is used
  - Revokes permissions of references

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &v[3]; // <- v loses W, 0
v.pop(); // <- v regains W, 0</pre>
```

Place	R	W	0
V	R	+W	+0
X	R	-	-
*X	_	-	_

This v.pop() is safe (Case 1).

- v requests W while all references are unused (Case 1)
  - o v regains W, O, revokes permissions of all references
  - x loses O, \*x loses R

However, we cannot access \*x anymore, as its permissions have been revoked.

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &v[3];
v.pop(); // Revokes permissions!

// THIS DOES NOT COMPILE!!!
println!("{}", *x); // Requires R on *x
```

Place	R	W	0
V	R	W	0
X	R	_	_
*X	_	_	_

This code causes an error because we don't have permissions on \*x

### Recap: Immutable References

- Declaring a variable v gives it R, O permissions, W if mut
- Creating an immutable reference x to v
  - Gives x R, O permissions
  - Removes v 's W, O permissions
- Permissions are restored when either:
  - References become unused
  - We mutate v before any reference is used

#### **Mutable References**

- x and \*x have different permissions
  - Notice how revoking permissions removes R from \*x , but keeps R on x
  - We can create as many references as we want...
    - We just can't access them without the correct permissions
- Mutable references further illustrate this

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &v[3];
```

Place	R	W	0
V	R	-	-
X	R	-	0
*X	R	-	_

Recall that when we create an immutable reference x = &v[3]:

- v loses W and O permissions
- \*x only has R permissions

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &mut v[3];
//
```

Place	R	W	0
V	R?	-	_
X	R	_	0
*X	R	-?	_

However, when x is a mutable reference:

- ?
- ?

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &mut v[3];
//
```

Place	R	W	0
V	_	-	_
X	R	_	0
*X	R	-?	-

However, when x is a mutable reference:

- v loses all permissions, including R
- ?

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &mut v[3];
//
```

Place	R	W	0
V	_	-	_
X	R	-	0
*X	R	W	-

However, when x is a mutable reference:

- v loses all permissions, including R
- \*x (not x) gains W permissions

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let x = &mut v[3];
//
```

Place	R	W	0
V	_	-	_
X	R	-	0
*X	R	W	_

- v loses all permissions, including R
  - Prevents creation of other references (both mutable and immutable)
  - Avoids simultaneous aliasing and mutation
- \*x (not x) gains W permission
  - We can write to the data, but we can't reassign x

### Recap: Mutable References

An immutable reference x of v:

- Removes W and O permissions for v
- \*x can only take R if v has R

A mutable reference x to v:

- Removes all permissions for v (including R)
  - Prevents creation of any other references
- \*x (not x) gains W permission

# Soundness vs. Completeness

Suppose we have a vector of numbers:

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
```

We want to take this number 2 ...

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
//
```

We want to take this number 2 ...and add it to the number in the first index.

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
//
```

Here is a seemingly reasonable solution:

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let slot1 = &mut v[0];
let slot2 = &v[1];
*slot1 += *slot2;
```

Let's break down the permissions

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let slot1 = &mut v[0];
let slot2 = &v[1];
*slot1 += *slot2;
```

Place	R	W	0
V	_	_	_
*slot1	R	W	_

Recall when we create a mutable reference slot1 = &mut v[0]:

- v loses all permissions
- \*slot1 gains W, R permissions

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let slot1 = &mut v[0];
let slot2 = &v[1];
*slot1 += *slot2;
```

Place	R	W	0
V	_	_	-
*slot1	R	W	_
*slot2	_	-	_

Next, let's look at whether our references are accessed safely:

- Mutating \*slot1 requires R, W
  - We have both
- Reading \*slot2 requires R
  - We don't have R X

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let slot1 = &mut v[0];
let slot2 = &v[1];
*slot1 += *slot2;
```

Place	R	W	0
V	_	_	_
*slot1	R	W	_
*slot2	_	-	_

Reading \*slot2 requires R.

- \*slot2 can only take R if v has R
- v "gave" R to \*slot1!

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
let slot1 = &mut v[0];
let slot2 = &v[1];
*slot1 += *slot2;
```

Place	R	W	0
V	_	-	-
*slot1	R	W	_
*slot2	_	-	_

**Issue:** Single place v represents *all* elements in the vector.

- Borrow checker does not see each index as a different place
- Borrow checker can't know that this code is safe
  - But we (as humans) do!

Solution 1: No References.

```
let mut v = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
v[0] += v[1];
println!("{:?}", v);
```

- This works because we mutate only v [0]
  - Program evaluation is right to left

Solution 2: Drop into unsafe.

split\_at\_mut uses unsafe under the hood:

```
let mut v = [1, 0, 3, 0, 5, 6];
let (left, right) = v.split_at_mut(2);
assert_eq!(left, [1, 0]);
assert_eq!(right, [3, 0, 5, 6]);
```

- Divides a mutable slice into two mutable slices at index mid
  - o left contains [0, mid)
  - right contains [mid, len)
- We will talk about this in a few weeks!

### Recap

- Ownership rules prevent access to deallocated memory
  - Think of owners as stack frames
- Borrow checker checks permissions of places
  - References temporarily remove permissions
- Sometimes, borrow checker can't know your program is safe
  - If you conclude it's safe after reasoning about stack frames and RWO permissions...
    - Consider using unsafe

## **Next Lecture: Lifetimes**

• Thanks for coming!