

MyRs Cheat Sheet 😊

Quick Reference — Draft v1.0 (November 9, 2025)

This template sets up a compact, two-column A4 layout. Listings are configured for small print and good readability.

1 Cargo Quick Commands

- `cargo new myproj` – Create new binary project
- `cargo new -lib mylib` – Create new library crate
- `cargo new -bin myproj` – Create new binary project
- `cargo add <crate>` – Add dependency
- `cargo add -dev <crate>` – Add dev-dependency
- `cargo check` – Check code without building
- `cargo clippy` – Lint code
- `cargo doc -open` – Generate and open docs
- `cargo run` – Build and run
- `cargo run -quiet` – Quiet run
- `cargo build -release` – Optimized build
- `cargo build -quiet` – Quiet build
- `cargo clean` – Remove build artifacts
- `cargo bench` – Run benchmarks
- `cargo test` – Run tests
- `cargo fmt` – Format code

2 Hello, world! (Rust)

Create and compile with bash:

```
# Create file
touch main.rs
```

Rust code:

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

```
# Compile with rustc
rustc main.rs
```

```
# Run the binary
./main
```

2.1 File Naming Convention

- ✓ `hello_world.rs` – Correct: snake_case
- ✗ `helloworld.rs` – Wrong: no separator

3 Variables and Types

```
fn main() {

    // Scalar types:

    let decimal: i32 = 98_222;    // Integer
    let hex: i32 = 0xff;          // Hexadecimal
    let octal: i32 = 0o77;        // Octal
    let binary: i32 = 0b1111_0000; // Binary
    let byte: u8 = b'A';          // Byte (u8)
    let character: char = 'R';    // Character
    %let hugging_face: char = ''; // Unicode character

    //Compound types:

    let tuple: (i32, f64, u8) = (500, 6.4, 1);
    let (a, b, c) = tuple;
    let array: [i32; 4] = [1, 2, 3, 4];
    let first = array[0];

    // Constants:
    const MAX_POINTS: u32 = 100_000;

}
```

3.1 Integer Types Overview

- **Fixed-size types:** `u8/i8`, `u16/i16`, `u32/i32`, `u64/i64`, `u128/i128`
- **Pointer-sized types:**
 - `usize`: Unsigned, size depends on architecture (4 bytes on 32-bit, 8 bytes on 64-bit)
 - `isize`: Signed, same size rules as `usize`
- **Use cases:**
 - Use `usize/isize` for indexing collections and representing memory sizes
 - Use fixed-size types (`u32/i32`, `u64/i64`) for precise control over value ranges
 - `u64` is always 8 bytes, similar to `usize` on 64-bit systems

3.2 Mutability

```
fn main() {
    let x = 5;    // immutable variable by default
    println!("Initial x: {}", x); // 5
    // x = x + 1; // error: cannot assign twice to immutable variable

    let mut x = 5; // mutable variable
    println!("Initial x: {}", x); // 5
    x = x + 1;     // modify x
    println!("Modified x: {}", x); // 6
}
```

3.3 Shadowing

```
fn main() {
    let x = 5;
    let x = x + 1; // shadows previous x
    {
        let x = x * 2; // shadows again in inner scope
        println!("Inner x: {}", x); // 12
    }
    println!("Outer x: {}", x); // 6
}
```

3.3.1 Shadowing vs Mutability

```
fn main() {
    // using mutability
    let mut x = 5;
    x = x + 1; // modify x
    println!("Mutable x: {}", x); // 6
    // using shadowing
    let x = 5;
    let x = x + 1; // shadow previous x
    println!("Shadowed x: {}", x); // 6
}
```

4 Macros

4.1 Declarative Macros

```
macro_rules! greet {
    ($name:expr) => {
        println!("Hello, {}!", $name);
    };
}

fn main() {
    greet!("Alice"); // Hello, Alice!
    greet!("Bob");   // Hello, Bob!
}
```

4.2 Procedural Macros

Procedural macros work on the abstract syntax tree (AST) of Rust code.

Types:

- **Derive macros:** `#[derive(MyTrait)]`
- **Attribute macros:** `#[my_attribute]`
- **Function-like macros:** `my_macro!(input)`

Example: Custom Derive Macro

```
// In Cargo.toml:
// [lib]
// proc-macro = true

use proc_macro::TokenStream;
use quote::quote;
use syn::{parse_macro_input, DeriveInput};

#[proc_macro_derive(HelloMacro)]
pub fn hello_macro_derive(input: TokenStream) -> TokenStream {
    let ast = parse_macro_input!(input as DeriveInput);
    let name = &ast.ident;

    let gen = quote! {
        impl HelloMacro for #name {
            fn hello_macro() {
                println!("Hello from {}!", stringify!({#name}));
            }
        }
    };
    gen.into()
}
```

Usage:

```
trait HelloMacro {
    fn hello_macro();
}

#[derive(HelloMacro)]
struct Pancakes;

fn main() {
    Pancakes::hello_macro(); // Hello from Pancakes!
}
```

5 Control Flow

```
fn main() {
    let number = 6;
    if number % 2 == 0 {
        println!("{}", number);
    } else {
        println!("{}", number);
    }
}
```

5.1 Combining Conditions

```
fn main() {
    let number = 6;
    if number > 0 && number % 2 == 0 {
        println!("{}", number);
    } else if number > 0 && number % 2 != 0 {
        println!("{}", number);
    } else {
        println!("{}", number);
    }
}
```

OR || operator

```
fn main() {
    let number = 6;
    if number > 0 || number % 2 == 0 {
        println!("{}", number);
    } else if number > 0 || number % 2 != 0 {
        println!("{}", number);
    } else {
        println!("{}", number);
    }
}
```

5.2 Basic Loop

```
fn main() {
    let mut count = 0;
    loop {
        count += 1;
        if count == 5 {
            break;
        }
        println!("Count: {}", count);
    }
}
```

5.2.1 Loop Labels

```
fn main() {
    let mut count = 0;
    'outer: loop {
        count += 1;
        let mut inner_count = 0;
        loop {
            inner_count += 1;
            if inner_count == 3 {
                break 'outer; // breaks the outer loop
            }
            println!("Inner Count: {}", inner_count);
        }
        println!("Count: {}", count);
    }
}
```

6 For and While

```
fn main() {
    let numbers = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50];
    for n in numbers.iter() {
        println!("Number: {}", n);
    }
}
```

```
fn main() {
    let mut count = 0;
    while count < 5 {
        println!("Count: {}", count);
        count += 1;
    }
}
```

6.1 Range in For Loop

```
fn main() {
    for i in 1..=5 { // inclusive range
        println!("i: {}", i);
    }
}
```

6.2 Break and Continue

```
fn main() {
    for i in 1..10 {
        if i % 2 == 0 {
            continue; // skip even numbers
        }
        if i > 7 {
            break; // exit loop if i > 7
        }
        println!("Odd i: {}", i);
    }
}
```

7 Pattern Matching

```
fn main() {
    let number = 3;
    match number {
        1 => println!("One"),
        2 => println!("Two"),
        3 | 4 | 5 => println!("Three, Four, or Five"),
        _ => println!("Something else"),
    }
}
```

Or | operator

```
fn main() {
    let x = 2;
    match x {
        1 | 3 | 5 => println!("Odd"),
        2 | 4 => println!("Even"),
        _ => println!("Something else"),
    }
}
```

Matching Ranges

```
fn main() {
    let x = 5;
    match x {
        1..=5 => println!("In range 1 to 5"),
        _ => println!("Out of range"),
    }
}
```

Ignoring Values with _

```
fn main() {
    let point = (3, 5);
    match point {
        (x, _) => println!("x is {}, y is ignored", x),
    }
}
```

8 Functions

```
fn greet(name: &str) {
    println!("Hello, {}!", name);
}

fn main() {
    greet("Alice");
    greet("Bob");
}
```

8.1 Functions with Return Values

```
fn add(a: i32, b: i32) -> i32 {
    a + b
}

fn main() {
    let sum = add(5, 10);
    println!("Sum: {}", sum);
}
```

9 Statements and Expressions

```
fn main() {
    let x = 5; // statement
    let y = {
        let z = 10; // statement
        z + 5 // expression
    }; // expression

    println!("x: {}, y: {}", x, y);
}
```

If as an Expression

```
fn main() {
    let condition = true;
    let number = if condition { 5 } else { 10 }; // if expression
    println!("The number is: {}", number);
}
```

match as an Expression

```
fn main() {
    let number = 3;
    let result = match number {
        1 => "One",
        2 => "Two",
        3 => "Three",
        _ => "Something else",
    }; // match expression
    println!("The result is: {}", result);
}
```

10 Ownership and Borrowing

```
fn main() {
    let s1 = String::from("hello"); // s1 owns the string
    let s2 = s1; // ownership moved to s2
    // println!("{}", s1); // error: s1 is no longer valid

    let s3 = String::from("world");
    let s4 = &s3; // borrow s3
    println!("s3: {}, s4: {}", s3, s4); // both valid
} // s3 and s4 go out of scope here
```

10.1 Stack and Heap

- **Stack:** Fast, fixed-size data. FiFo structure.
- **Heap:** Dynamic-size data. Slower access due to indirection.

```
fn main() {
    let x = 5; // stored on stack
    let s1 = String::from("hello"); // stored on heap
    let s2 = s1; // ownership moved to s2
    // println!("{}", s1); // error: s1 is no longer valid
    println!("x: {}, s2: {}", x, s2);
} // x and s2 go out of scope here and memory is freed
```

10.2 String Type

String Literals: immutable, fixed-size, stored on stack, example:

```
let s: &str = "Hello, world!"; // string slice (immutable)
```

String Type: mutable, growable, stored on heap, example:

```
let mut s = String::from("Hello"); // String type (mutable)
```

10.3 Ownership and Scope

```
fn main() {
    {
        let s = String::from("hello"); // s is valid here
        println!("{}", s);
    } // s goes out of scope and memory is freed here
}
```

10.4 Move

moving with integers:

```
fn main() {
    let x = 5;
    let y = x; // x is moved to y - Copy trait for integers
    // println!("{}", x); // error: x is no longer valid
    println!("{}", y);
}
```

moving with String:

```
fn main() {
    let s1 = String::from("hello");
    let s2 = s1; // s1 is moved to s2 - ownership transferred
    // println!("{}", s1); // error: s1 is no longer valid
    println!("{}", s2);
}
```

Notes: When you create a String, the actual string struct itself is stored on the stack, but the contents (the characters) are stored on the heap. When you move a String, you are transferring ownership of the heap data to the new variable. **Shallow Copy** means copying only the pointer to the data, not the data itself. In Rust, moving a String is like a shallow copy because the ownership of the heap data is transferred to the new variable, and the original variable can no longer access it.

10.5 Copy vs Clone

| Copy | Clone |
|--|---|
| The bits are copied exactly (shallow copy) | The actual data on the heap is duplicated (deep copy) |
| Only types that do not manage heap-allocated memory can implement Copy | Necessary for types that manage resources that need to be separately owned, like String |

Example:

```
fn main() {
    // Copy trait (implicit)
    let x = 5;
    let y = x; // x is copied to y
    println!("x: {}, y: {}", x, y); // both valid

    // Clone trait (explicit)
    let s1 = String::from("hello");
    let s2 = s1.clone(); // explicit clone
    println!("s1: {}, s2: {}", s1, s2); // both valid
}
```

10.6 Passing Ownership to Functions

```
fn takes_ownership(s: String) {
    println!("{}", s);
} // s goes out of scope and memory is freed here

fn main() {
    let s = String::from("hello");
    takes_ownership(s); // ownership moved to function
    // println!("{}", s); // error: s is no longer valid
}
```

10.7 Returning Ownership from Functions

```
fn gives_ownership() -> String {
    let s = String::from("hello");
    s // ownership moved to caller
}

fn takes_and_gives_back(s: String) -> String {
    s // ownership moved back to caller
}

fn main() {
    let s = gives_ownership(); // ownership moved to s
    println!("{}", s);
}
```

10.8 References and Borrowing

- **Pointer:** A variable that stores the memory address of another variable.
- **Reference:** Acts like a pointer to the value it references, but it is guaranteed to always be valid and cannot be null. References are created using the `&` symbol.
 - **Immutable references:** `&T` allows you to borrow a value without taking ownership and modifying it.
 - **Mutable references:** `&mut T` allows you to borrow a value and modify it. We can have only one mutable reference to a particular piece of data in a particular scope.

10.9 Rules of References

At any given time,

- you can have either one mutable reference
- or any number of immutable references.

Single Mutable Reference Allowed:

```
fn main() {
    let mut s = String::from("hello");
    let r1 = &mut s; // first mutable reference
    // let r2 = &mut s; // error: second mutable reference not allowed
    r1.push_str(", world");
    println!("{}", r1);

    // let r2 = &mut s; // error: second mutable reference not allowed
}
```

10.10 The Slice Type

- Allows to reference parts of a collection without copying data.
- Slices are references with bound checking, ensuring memory outside the slice is not accessed.

```
fn main() {
    let s = String::from("hello world");
    let hello = &s[0..5]; // slice for "hello"
    let world = &s[6..11]; // slice for "world"
    println!("{}", hello, world);
}
```

Rules for Slices

- Slice must always point to a valid data.
- One mutable slice or any number of immutable slices allowed at a time.

- Combining mutable and immutable slices is not allowed until all references go out of scope.

11 Collections

11.1 Structs

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

fn main() {
    let user1 = User {
        email: String::from("user1@example.com"),
        username: String::from("user1"),
        sign_in_count: 1,
        active: true,
    };
    println!("Username: {}", user1.username);
}
```

11.1.1 Debug Trait

```
#[derive(Debug)]
struct User {
    username: String,
    email: String,
    sign_in_count: u64,
    active: bool,
}

fn main() {
    let user1 = User {
        email: String::from("user1@example.com"),
        username: String::from("user1"),
        sign_in_count: 1,
        active: true,
    };
    println!("User1: {:?}", user1);
}
```

11.1.2 Methods

```
struct Rectangle {
    width: u32,
    height: u32,
}

impl Rectangle {
    fn area(&self) -> u32 {
        self.width * self.height
    }
}

fn main() {
    let rect = Rectangle { width: 10, height: 5 };
    println!("Area: {}", rect.area());
}
```

11.1.3 Mutable Methods

Mutable methods are similar to regular methods, but they take a mutable reference to self (`&mut self`) instead of an immutable reference (`&self`). This allows the method to modify the instance it is called on.

```
struct Counter {
    count: u32,
}

impl Counter {
    fn new() -> Self {
        Counter { count: 0 }
    }

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

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

fn main() {
    let mut counter = Counter::new();
    counter.increment();
    println!("Count: {}", counter.get_count());
}
```

11.2 Enums

An enum is like a list of possible values. Each value in the enum is called a variant.

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

fn main() {
    let msg = Message::Write(String::from("Hello"));
    match msg {
        Message::Quit => println!("Quit message"),
        Message::Move { x, y } => println!("Move to ({}, {})", x, y),
        Message::Write(text) => println!("Write message: {}", text),
        Message::ChangeColor(r, g, b) => println!("Change color to RGB({}, {}, {})", r, g, b),
    }
}
```

11.2.1 Option<T>

- Represents an optional value: every `Option` is either `Some(value)` and contains a value, or `None`, and does not.
- Used to handle cases where a value may be absent without using null.
- Helps avoid runtime errors related to null references.

```
fn main() {
    let some_number: Option<i32> = Some(5);
    let no_number: Option<i32> = None;
}
```

11.2.2 Result<T, E>

- Represents either success (`Ok(value)`) or failure (`Err(error)`).
- Used for error handling in Rust.

```
fn divide(dividend: f64, divisor: f64) -> Result<f64, String> {
    if divisor == 0.0 {
        Err(String::from("Division by zero"))
    } else {
        Ok(dividend / divisor)
    }
}

fn main() {
    match divide(10.0, 2.0) {
        Ok(result) => println!("Result: {}", result),
        Err(e) => println!("Error: {}", e),
    }
}
```

12 Vectors

```
fn main() {
    let numbers = vec![1, 2, 3, 4, 5];
    for n in &numbers { println!("{}", n); }

    match numbers.get(10) {
        Some(x) => println!("found: {}", x),
        None => println!("none"),
    }

    // Accessing elements directly
    let first = numbers[0];
    println!("First element: {}", first);
    let second = &numbers[1];
    println!("Second element: {}", second);

    // Accessing elements safely
    if let Some(value) = numbers.get(2) {
        println!("Element at index 2: {}", value);
    } else {
        println!("No element at index 2");
    }

    // Adding elements
    numbers.push(6);

    // Removing elements
    let last = numbers.pop();

    // Inserting elements
    numbers.insert(2, 1); // insert 1 at index 2

    // Removing elements by index
    numbers.remove(3); // remove element at index 3

    // iterating with indices
    for (index, value) in numbers.iter().enumerate() {
        println!("Index: {}, Value: {}", index, value);
    }
}
```

Notes:

- Vectors are heap-allocated, growable arrays.
- Use `vec![]` macro to create vectors.
- Use `push` to add elements, `pop` to remove the last element.
- Access elements using indexing or `get` method for safe access.
- `iter` method returns an iterator over references to the elements of the vector.
- `iter_mut` method returns an iterator that allows modifying each element.
- `into_iter` method consumes the vector and returns an iterator that yields owned elements
- `enumerate` method returns an iterator that yields pairs of index and reference to the element.

12.1 Common Vector Methods

- `len()` - Returns the number of elements in the vector.
- `is_empty()` - Checks if the vector is empty.
- `clear()` - Removes all elements from the vector.
- `remove(index)` - Removes the element at the specified index.
- `contains(&value)` - Checks if the vector contains a specific value.
- `sort()` - Sorts the elements of the vector in ascending order.
- `reverse()` - Reverses the order of elements in the vector.
- `extend(iterable)` - Extends the vector by appending elements from an iterable.

13 Creating Custom Error Types

```
use std::fmt;

#[derive(Debug)]
enum MyError {
    NotFound,
    InvalidInput,
    ConnectionError,
}

impl fmt::Display for MyError {
    fn fmt(&self, f: &mut fmt::Formatter) -> fmt::Result {
        match self {
            MyError::NotFound => write!(f, "Resource not found"),
            MyError::InvalidInput => write!(f, "Invalid input provided"),
            MyError::ConnectionError => write!(f, "Connection error occurred"),
        }
    }
}
```

14 Logging

The 'log' crate provides a lightweight logging facade. To use it:

```
use log::{info, warn, error, debug};

fn main() {
    env_logger::init();
    info!("Starting application");
    warn!("Low disk space");
    error!("Failed to connect to database");
    debug!("Debugging information");
}
```

The slog crate is another popular logging library that provides more features and flexibility.

```
use slog::{Drain, Logger, o, info};
use slog_async;
use slog_term;

fn main() {
    let decorator = slog_term::TermDecorator::new().build();
    let drain = slog_term::CompactFormat::new(decorator).build().fuse();
    let drain = slog_async::Async::new(drain).build().fuse();
    let log = Logger::root(drain, o!());

    info!(log, "Application started");
}
```

15 Generics

15.1 Generic functions

```
fn first_element<T>(list: &[T]) -> Option<&T> {
    if list.is_empty() {
        None
    } else {
        Some(&list[0])
    }
}

fn main() {
    let numbers = vec![1, 2, 3];
    let words = vec!["hello", "world"];

    if let Some(first_num) = first_element(&numbers) {
        println!("First number: {}", first_num);
    }

    if let Some(first_word) = first_element(&words) {
        println!("First word: {}", first_word);
    }
}
```

15.2 Generic structs

```
struct Point<T> {
    x: T,
    y: T,
    z: i32,
}

impl<T> Point<T> {
    fn new(x: T, y: T, z: i32) -> Self {
        Point { x, y, z }
    }
}

fn main() {
    let int_point = Point::new(1, 2, 3);
    let float_point = Point::new(1.0, 2.0, 3.0);

    println!("Integer Point: ({}, {}, {})", int_point.x, int_point.y, int_point.z);
    println!("Float Point: ({}, {}, {})", float_point.x, float_point.y, float_point.z);
}
```

15.3 Generic Enums

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

fn main() {
    let some_number = Option::Some(5);
    let no_number: Option<i32> = Option::None;

    match some_number {
        Option::Some(value) => println!("Got a number: {}", value),
        Option::None => println!("No number"),
    }

    match no_number {
        Option::Some(value) => println!("Got a number: {}", value),
        Option::None => println!("No number"),
    }
}
```

15.4 Notes:

- Using generics doesn't slow down your code. The compiler generates optimized versions for each type used.
- Monomorphization is the process of generating specific implementations for each type used with generics.
- Monomorphization happens at compile time, so there is no runtime overhead.

16 Traits

- Traits define shared behavior across types.
- A trait is like a contract that types can implement.
- Traits enable polymorphism and code reuse.

16.1 Defining and Implementing Traits

```
pub trait Summary {
    fn summarize(&self) -> String {
        String::from("Read more...") // default implementation
    }
}

struct NewsArticle {
    headline: String,
    location: String,
    content: String,
}

impl Summary for NewsArticle {
    fn summarize(&self) -> String {
        format!("{:} - {}", self.headline, self.location)
    }
}

struct Tweet {
    username: String,
    content: String,
    reply: bool,
    retweet: bool,
}

impl Summary for Tweet {
    fn summarize(&self) -> String {
        format!("{:} {:?}", self.username, self.content)
    }
}

fn main() {
    let article = NewsArticle {
        headline: String::from("Rust is awesome!"),
        location: String::from("Internet"),
        content: String::from("Rust is a systems programming language..."),
    };
    let tweet = Tweet {
        username: String::from("user123"),
        content: String::from("Hello, world!"),
        reply: false,
        retweet: false,
    };
    println!("Article Summary: {}", article.summarize());
    println!("Tweet Summary: {}", tweet.summarize());
}
```

16.1.1 Polymorphism

A function that accepts any type implementing a trait. Using traits as function parameters:

```
fn notify(item: &impl Summary) {
    println!("Breaking news! {}", item.summarize());
}

fn main() {
    let article = NewsArticle {
        headline: String::from("Rust is awesome!"),
        location: String::from("Internet"),
        content: String::from("Rust is a systems programming language..."),
    };
    let tweet = Tweet {
        username: String::from("user123"),
        content: String::from("Hello, world!"),
        reply: false,
        retweet: false,
    };
    notify(&article);
    notify(&tweet);
}
```

16.1.2 Trait Bounds and Generics

Using trait bounds in generic functions:

```
fn notify<T: Summary>(item: &T) {
    println!("Breaking news! {}", item.summarize());
}
```

17 Lifetimes

Lifetimes manage how long references are valid to prevent dangling references.

- Ensure references do not outlive the data they point to.
- Specified using apostrophes (e.g., 'a).
- Prevents references from pointing to invalid data.

```
fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {
    if x.len() > y.len() {
        x
    } else {
        y
    }
}

fn main() {
    let string1 = String::from("long string");
    let string2 = "short";

    let result = longest(string1.as_str(), string2);
    println!("The longest string is {}", result);
}
```

17.1 Lifetime Annotations in Structs

```
struct ImportantExcerpt<'a> {
    part: &'a str,
}

fn main() {
    let novel = String::from("Call me Ishmael. Some years ago...");
    let first_sentence = novel.split('.').next().expect("Could not find a '.'");
    let excerpt = ImportantExcerpt { part: first_sentence };
    println!("Excerpt: {}", excerpt.part);
}
```

17.1.1 Lifetime Elision

Rust applies three rules to infer lifetimes when they are not explicitly annotated:

- Each parameter that is a reference gets its own lifetime parameter.
- If there is exactly one input lifetime parameter, that lifetime is assigned to all output reference parameters.
- If there are multiple input lifetime parameters, but one of them is **&self** or **&mut self**, the lifetime of **self** is assigned to all output reference parameters.

```
fn first_word(s: &str) -> &str {
    let bytes = s.as_bytes();

    for (i, &item) in bytes.iter().enumerate() {
        if item == b' ' {
            return &s[0..i];
        }
    }

    &s[..]
}
```

17.1.2 Static Lifetimes

Static lifetimes are the longest possible lifetimes in Rust. They last for the entire duration of the program. They are stored in the binary's read-only memory.

```
fn main() {

    // A string literal has a 'static lifetime
    let s: &'static str = "I have a static lifetime.";

    // Global variable with 'static lifetime
    static GLOBAL_VAR: &str = "I am a global variable with a static lifetime.";
}
```

18 Smart Pointers

Smart pointers are data structures that not only act like a pointer but also have additional metadata and capabilities.

Single ownership with `Box<T>`:

```
fn main() {
    let b = Box::new(5);
    println!("b = {}", b);
}
```

Shared ownership with `Rc<T>`:

```
use std::rc::Rc;

fn main() {
    let a = Rc::new(5);
    let b = Rc::clone(&a);
    println!("a = {}, b = {}", a, b);
}
```