CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Ownership, References, and Lifetimes in Rust

Rust: GC-less Memory Management, Safely

- Rust's heap memory managed without GC
- Type checking ensures no dangling pointers or buffer overflows
 - unsafe idioms are disallowed
- Key features that ensure safety: ownership and lifetimes
 - Data has a single owner. Immutable aliases OK, but mutation only via owner or single mutable reference
 - How long data is alive is determined by a lifetime

Memory: the Stack and the Heap

- The stack
 - constant-time, automatic (de)allocation
 - Data size and lifetime must be known at compile-time
 - Function parameters and locals of known (constant) size

The heap

- Dynamically sized data, with non-fixed lifetime
 - Slightly slower to access than stack; i.e., via a pointer
- GC: automatic deallocation, adds space/time overhead
- Manual deallocation (C/C++): low overhead, but non-trivial opportunity for devastating bugs
 - Dangling pointers, double free instances of memory corruption

Memory: the Stack and the Heap

```
// C
                                            stack
char *p = malloc(10)
free(p);
// Java
 String p = new String("rust");
p = null;//GC will collect later
                                            heap
```

p is deleted from stack when the function terminates

Memory: the Stack and the Heap

```
stack
// Rust
let p = String::from("hello");
  Deleted when the owner p
  is out of scope.

    No manual free, no GC
```

p is deleted from stack when the function terminates

heap

Rules of Ownership

- 1. Each value in Rust has a variable that's its owner
- 2. There can only be one owner at a time
- 3. When the owner goes out of scope, the value will be dropped (freed)

```
{ let mut s = String::from("hello"); //s is the owner
  s.push_str(", world!");
  println!("{}", s);
} //s's data is freed by calling s.drop()
```

string: Dynamically sized, mutable data

Assignment Transfers Ownership

By default, an assignment moves data

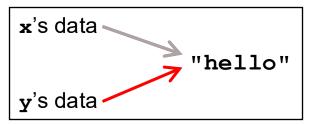
```
let x = String::from("hello");
let y = x; //x moved to y
```

A move leaves only one owner: y

```
println!("{}, world!", y); //ok
println!("{}, world!", x); //fails
```

Why? Both x and y may point to the same underlying data

Move prevents double free, or use-after-free



Copy Trait

- Primitives do not transfer ownership on assignment
 - i32, char, bool, f32, tuples of these types, etc.

```
let x = 5;
let y = x;
println!("{} = 5!", y); //ok
println!("{} = 5!", x); //ok
```

- Why? These derive the Copy trait
 - Doing so says that an assignment copies the entire object

Traits

- A Trait is a way of saying that a type has a particular property
 - Copy: objects with this trait do not transfer ownership on assignment
 - instead, assignment copies all of the object data
- Another way of using traits: to indicate functions that a type is must implement (more later)
 - Like Java interfaces
 - Example: Deref built-in trait indicates that an object can be dereferenced via * op; compiler calls object's deref() method

Use clone() to make explicit copies

- Objects may be explicitly cloned
 - Avoids loss of ownership, but at the cost of a copy

```
let x = String::from("hello");
let y = x.clone(); //x ownership not moved
println!("{}, world!", y); //ok
println!("{}, world!", x); //ok
```

Ownership Transfer in Function Calls

- On a call, ownership passes from:
 - argument to called function's parameter
 - returned value to caller's receiver

References and Borrowing

- Create an alias by making a reference
 - An explicit, non-owning pointer to the original value
 - Called borrowing. Done with & operator
- References are immutable by default (can override)

```
fn main() {
  let s1 = String::from("hello");
  let len = calc_len(&s1); //lends reference
  println!("the length of '{}' is {}",s1,len);
  }
  fn calc_len(s: &String) -> usize {
   s.push_str("hi"); //fails! refs are immutable
   s.len() // s dropped; but not its referent
}
```

Quiz 1: Owner of str's data at HERE?

```
fn foo(str:String) -> usize {
  let x = str;
  let y = &x;
  let w = &y;
  // HERE
}
```

```
A. x
```

B. y

C. z

D. w

```
let w = &y vs. let w = y;
```

There are a few other types I'd consider "primitive":

- Immutable references (&T)
- Mutable references (&mut T)
- Raw pointers (*const T / *mut T)

Immutable references always implement Copy, mutable references never implement Copy, and raw pointers always implement Copy:

Quiz 1: Owner of str's data at HERE?

```
fn foo(str:String) -> usize {
  let x = str;
  let y = &x;
  let w = &y;
  // HERE
}
```

A. x

B. y

C. z

D. w

Rules of References

- 1. At any given time, you can have either but not both of
 - One mutable reference
 - Any number of immutable references
- 2. References must always be valid (pointed-to value not dropped)

Borrowing and Mutation

- Make immutable references to mutable values
 - Shares read-only access through owner and borrowed references
 - Same for immutable values
 - Mutation disallowed on original value until borrowed reference(s) dropped

```
{ let mut s1 = String::from("hello");
    { let s2 = &s1;
        println!("String is {} and {}",s1,s2); //ok
        s1.push_str(" world!"); //disallowed
    } //drops s2
    s1.push_str(" world!"); //ok
    println!("String is {}",s1);}//prints updated s1
```

Mutable references

- To permit mutation via a reference, use &mut
 - Instead of just &
 - But only OK for mutable variables

```
let mut s1 = String::from("hello");
{ let s2 = &s1;
    s2.push_str(" there");//disallowed; s2 immut
} //s2 dropped
let s3 = &mut s1; //ok since s1 mutable
s3.push_str(" there"); //ok since s3 mutable
println!("String is {}",s3); //ok
```

Quiz 2: What does this evaluate to?

- A. "Hello!"
- B. "Hello! World!"
- C. Error
- D. "Hello!World!"

Quiz 2: What does this evaluate to?

- A. "Hello!"
- B. "Hello! World!"
- C. Error; s2 is not mut
- D. "Hello!World!"

Quiz 3: What is printed?

```
fn foo(s: &mut String) -> usize{
    s.push_str("Bob");
    s.len()
}
fn main() {
    let mut s1 = String::from("Alice");
    println!("{}",foo(&mut s1))
}
```

- A. 0
- B. 8
- C. Error
- D. 5

Quiz 3: What is printed?

```
fn foo(s: &mut String) -> usize{
    s.push_str("Bob");
    s.len()
}
fn main() {
    let mut s1 = String::from("Alice");
    println!("{}",foo(&mut s1))
}
```

- A. 0
- **B.** 8
- C. Error
- D. 5

Ownership and Mutable References

- Can make only one mutable reference
- Doing so blocks use of the original
 - Restored when reference is dropped

```
let mut s1 = String::from("hello");
{ let s2 = &mut s1; //ok
    let s3 = &mut s1; //fails: second borrow
    s1.bush_str(" there"); //fails: second borrow
} //s2 dropped; s1 is first-class owner again
s1.push_str(" there"); //ok
println!("String is {}",s1); //ok
But: see
implicit borrow
```

(self is a reference)

Update: Non Lexical Lifetimes (NLL)

- Rust has been updated to support lifetimes that end before the surrounding scope:
 - http://blog.pnkfx.org/blog/2019/06/26/breaking-news-non-lexicallifetimes-arrives-for-everyone/

```
let mut s1 = String::from("hello");
{ let s2 = &mut s1; //ignored - never used
  let s3 = &mut s1; //ignored - never used
  s1.push_str(" there"); //OK!
  s2.push_str(" there"); //fails - 2 mutable refs
} //s2 dropped; s1 is first-class owner again
s1.push_str(" there"); //ok
println!("String is {}",s1); //ok
```

The * Operator

 Given a value of type T& (or T&mut) use the * operator to read or write its underlying contents

```
let mut x = 2;
let mut y = 3;
let mut r = &mut x;
*r = 4;
r = &mut y;
*r = 5;
```

– Note two uses of mut for r, with different meanings!

Immutable and Mutable References

- Cannot make a mutable reference if immutable references exist
 - Holders of an immutable reference assume the object will not change!

```
let mut s1 = String::from("hello");
{ let s2 = &s1; //ok: s2 is immutable
  let s3 = &s1; //ok: multiple imm. refs allowed
  let s4 = &mut s1; //fails: imm ref already
} //s2-s4 dropped; s1 is owner again
s1.push_str(" there"); //ok
println!("String is {}",s1); //ok
```

Aside: Generics and Polymorphism

- Rust has support like that of Java and OCaml
 - Example: The std library defines Vec<T> where T can be instantiated with a variety of types
 - Vec<char> is a vector of characters
 - Vec<&str> is a vector of string slices
- You can define polymorphic functions, too

```
- Rust:
- Java:
- Ocaml:

fn id<T>(x:T) -> T { x }

static <T> T id(T x) { return x; }

let id x = x
```

More later...

Lifetimes: Avoiding Dangling References

- References must always be to valid memory
 - Not to memory that has been dropped

```
fn main() {
  let ref_invalid = dangle();
  println!("what will happen ... {}",ref_invalid);
}
fn dangle() -> &String {
  let s1 = String::from("hello");
  &s1
} // bad! s1's value has been dropped
```

- Rust will disallow this using a concept called lifetimes
 - A lifetime is a type-level parameter that names the scope in which the data is valid

Lifetimes: OK Usage

Lifetime corresponds with scope

```
let r = 5;
{
    let x = &r;
    println!("r: {}",r); //ok
}
OK:
    x ← r and 'b ≤ 'a
```

- Variable x in scope while r is
 - A lifetime is a type variable that identifies a scope
 - r's lifetime 'a exceeds x's lifetime 'b

Lifetimes: Preventing Dangling Refs

Slightly changing the example

```
let r; // deferred init
{
  let x = 5;
  r = &x;
}
println!("r: {}",r); //fails
}
r's lifetime 'a

Not OK:
r ← x but 'a ≰ 'b
```

- Variable x goes out of scope while r still exists
 - r's lifetime 'a exceeds x's lifetime 'b so not safe to assign x to r

Quiz 4: What is printed?

- A. dog
- B. hi
- C. Error y is immutable
- D. Error y dropped while still borrowed

Quiz 4: What is printed?

- A. dog
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Lifetimes and Functions

- Lifetime of a reference not always explicit
 - E.g., when passed as an argument to a function

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

– What could go wrong here?

```
{ let x = String::from("hi");
 let z;
 { let y = String::from("there");
  z = longest(&x,&y); //will be &y
 } //drop y, and thereby z
 println!("z = {}",z);//yikes!
}
```

String slice (more later)

Lifetime Parameters

- Each reference to a value of type t has a lifetime parameter
 - &t (and &mut t) lifetime is implicit
 - & 'a t (and & 'a mut t) lifetime 'a is explicit
- Where do the lifetime names come from?
 - When left implicit, they are generated by the compiler
 - Global variables have lifetime 'static
- Lifetimes can also be generic

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

 Thus: x and y must have the same lifetime, and the returned reference shares it

Lifetimes FAQ

- When do we use explicit lifetimes?
 - When more than one var/type needs the same lifetime (like the longest function)

- How do I tell the compiler exactly which lines of code lifetime 'a covers?
 - You can't. The compiler will (always) figure it out

Lifetimes FAQ

- How does lifetime subsumption work?
 - If lifetime 'a is longer than 'b, we can use 'a where 'b is expected; can require this with 'b: 'a.
 - Permits us to call longest(&x, &y) when x and y have different lifetimes, but one outlives the other
 - Just like subtyping/subsumption in OO programming
- Can we use lifetimes in data definitions?
 - Yes; we will see this later when we define structs,
 enums, etc.

Recap: Rules of References

- 1. At any given time, you can have either but not both of
 - One mutable reference
 - Any number of immutable references
- 2. References must always be valid
 - A reference must never outlive its referent