CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Box Smart Pointer, Trait Objects, Interior Mutability

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Box<T> Smart Pointers

- **Box<T>** values point to heap-allocated data
 - The Box<T> value (the pointer) is on the stack, while its pointedto T value is allocated on the heap
 - Has **Deref** trait can be treated like a reference
 - More later
 - Has Drop trait will drop its data when it dies
- Uses?
 - Reduce copying (via an ownership move)
 - Create dynamically sized objects
 - Particularly useful for recursive types

Example: Linked List

- Naïve attempt doesn't work
 - Compiler complains that it can't know the size of List
 - The Cons case is "inlined" into the enum

```
enum List {
   Nil,
   Cons(i32,List)
}
```

- Since a List is recursive, it could be basically any size
- Use a **Box** to add an indirection
 - Now the size is fixed
 - i32 + size of pointer
 - Nil tag smaller

```
enum List {
   Nil,
   Cons(i32,Box<List>)
}
```

Creating a LinkedList

```
enum List {
 Nil,
  Cons(i32,Box<List>)
}
use List::{Cons, Nil};
fn main() {
  let list = Cons(1,
    Box::new(Cons(2,
      Box::new(Nil)));
  ... // data dropped at end of scope
```

Deref Trait

- If x is an int then &x is a &{ int }
 - Can use * operator to dereference it, extracting the underlying value
 - *(&x) == x
- Can use * on Box<T> types
 - Deref trait requires deref (&self) -> &T method
 - So that *x translates to * (x.deref())
- deref returns type &T and not T so as not to relinquish ownership from inside the Box type

Deref Coercion

- The Rust compiler automatically inserts one or more calls to x.deref() to get the right type
 - When &T required but value x : U provided, where U implements
 Deref trait
 - In particular, at function and method calls
- Also a DerefMut trait, for when object is mutable
 - **Deref** coercion works with this too (see Rust book)

Example

```
fn hello(x:&str) {
    println!("hello {}",x);
}
fn main() {
    let m = Box::new(String::from("Rust"));
    hello(&m); //same as hello(&(*m)[..]);
}
```

- &m should have type &str to pass it to hello
- So, compiler calls m.deref() to get &String, and then deref() again to get &str

Drop Trait

- Provides the method fn drop(&mut self)
 - Called when the value implementing the trait goes out of scope
 - Should be used to free the underlying resources, e.g., heap memory
- May not call drop method manually
 - Would lead to a double free when Rust calls the method again at the end of a scope
 - Can call **std::mem::drop** function in some circumstances

Size Matters

• Recall Summarizable

```
pub trait Summarizable {
  fn summary(&self) -> String {
    String::from("none")
  }
}
```

- impl Summarizable for i32 {...}
- Let's make a general summary-printing function
- First attempt: fn print_summary(s: Summarizable) {...}
 - This means the caller *moves* (or copies, if s is Copy) the argument to the function when calling it (s is not a reference)
 - This means the *data* in the argument needs to be moved/copied
 - How many bytes long is the data? Don't know; won't work

Still Not Right

• Recall Summarizable

```
pub trait Summarizable {
   fn summary(&self) -> String {
     String::from("none")
   }
}
```

```
impl Summarizable for i32 {...}
```

• Second attempt, also wrong:

```
fn print_summary(s: &Summarizable) {
   print!("{}", s.summary());
}
```

- There are lots of implementations of summary
- Which one should be invoked?

What's Missing: Receiver Type

• This code was OK; why?

let x:i32 = 42;

x.summarize();

 The compiler knows which summarize to call, since it knows x:i32

Dynamic Dispatch

```
fn print_summary(s: &Summarizable) {
    print!("{}", s.summary());
}
```

- Object oriented languages, like Java, accept code like the above because they have dynamic dispatch
 - The correct method is determined at run time
- To implement dispatch in Rust, we use trait objects
- A trait object pairs data with runtime type information
 Think: (42, "I am an i32!")

Trait Objects

• Use type dyn Summarizable, wrapped in a Box

```
fn print_summarizable(s: Box<dyn Summarizable>) {
    println!("{}", s.summary());
}
```

• Callers simply use Box to put the data on the heap

```
pub fn main() {
    let b = Box::new(42);
    print_summarizable(b);
}
```

Why the Box?

 Could we do this instead? fn print_s(s: dyn Summarizable) { println!("{}", s.summary()); • Error! 17 | fn print s(s: dyn Summarizable) { ^ doesn't have a size known at compile-time = help: the trait `Sized` is not implemented for `(dyn Summarizable + 'static) ` help: function arguments must have a statically known size, borrowed types always have a known size

Lesson: dyn Summarizable has different sizes; Box<T> has one

Box and Size

- Box<i32> is a pointer to a heap-allocated i32
- Box<dyn Summarizable> is a fat pointer to a heapallocated Summarizable
 - That is: (type information, pointer to data on the heap)

```
struct Enormous { // 512 bytes (4 * 128)
    a: [i32; 128],
}
impl Summarizable for Enormous {...}
println!("{}", std::mem::size_of::<Enormous>());
println!("{}", std::mem::size_of::<Box<Enormous>());
println!("{}", std::mem::size_of::<Box<Summarizable>>());
println!("{}", std::mem::size_of::<Box<dyn Summarizable>>());
16
```

Box: a Kind of Smart Pointer

- A smart pointer is a reference plus metadata, to provide additional capabilities
 - Originated in C++
 - Examples seen so far: String, Vec<T>, Box<T>
- Usually implemented as structs
 - Which must implement the **Deref** and **Drop** traits
- New ones we will see: Cell<T>, Rc<T>, Ref<T>, ...
- Check out *The Rustonomicon* for how to implement your own smart pointers!
 - <u>https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/nomicon/</u>



- Use Box<T> to heap-allocate data, and reduce copying (via an ownership move)
 - Useful for non cyclic, immutable data structures
- Use trait objects, of type Box<dyn Trait>, to implement dynamic dispatch
 - For any trait type *Trait*
 - Box lets you use *fat pointers* for dyn trait objects, to provide runtime type information to enable dynamic dispatch
 - If you try to pass traits without Box, you may get errors about
 Sized because the compiler doesn't know how big things are

INTERIOR MUTABILITY

Rust Ownership and Mutation

- Recall Rust ownership rules
 - Each value in Rust has a variable that's called its *owner*; there can be only one
 - When the owner goes out of scope, the value will be dropped
- Recall Rust mutability rules
 - Mutation can occur only through mutable variables (e.g., the owner) or references
 - Rust permits only one borrowed mutable reference (and no immutable ones at the same time)

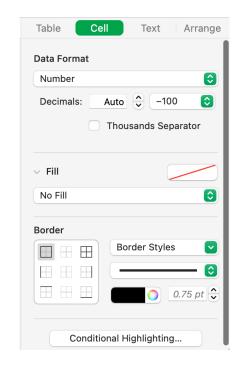
But: Having both mutation and sharing is useful

• Example: a simple spreadsheet

struct CellStyle { fontSize: f64 }
struct Cell { style: CellStyle }
struct Table { cells: [Cell; 128] }

- So: a Table owns its Cells

- But: a format inspector needs to read and write the cell data
 - Ensuring only one borrowed mutable reference would be awkward
 - Easier if the inspector has its own reference



Another Example

- Suppose you have a multiplayer chess game
 - Local data structures record the board state
 - Maybe the board is owned by the window that contains it
- What happens when a new move comes in from the network?
 That's handled by a different software component, not the window
- Simplest design is to have multiple (mutable) references to the board
 But Rust doesn't allow that

Relaxing Rust's Restrictions

- Architecturally, designating one owner that all accesses must go through can be awkward
 - We might end up wanting shared mutable access to the owner!
- Rust provides APIs by which you can get around the compilerenforced restrictions against multiple mutable references
 - Use reference counting to manage lifetimes safely
 - Track borrows at run-time to overcome limited compiler analysis
 - Discipline is called interior mutability
 - But: extra checks at space and time overhead; some previous compiletime failures now occur at run-time

Multiple Pointers to a Value

- What's wrong with this code?
 fn main() {
 let a = Cons(5,
 Box::new(Cons(10,
 Box::new(Nil))));
 let b = Cons(3, Box::new(a));
 let c = Cons(4, Box::new(a));//fails
 }
 - Box::new takes ownership of its argument, so the second
 Box::new (a) call fails since a is no longer the owner
- How to allow something like this code?
 - Problem: Managing lifetime

enum List { Nil, Cons(i32,Box<List>)

- Benefit of ownership: compiler knows when to free memory
 {
 let nil_box = Box::new(List::Nil);
 // free memory HERE (nil_box is going out of scope)
 }
- Suppose **Box** *didn't* own its data:

```
let nil_box = Box::new(List::Nil);
let one_list = List::Cons(1, nil_box);
{
    let two_list = List::Cons(2, nil_box);
    // two_list is going out of scope; free nil_box too?
}
```

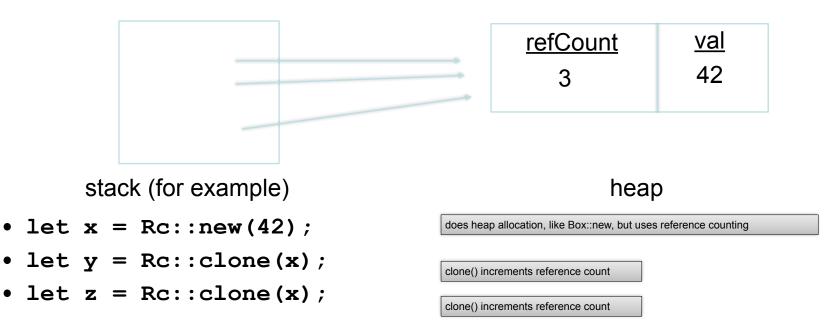
• (Box does own its data so the above pattern is not allowed.)

Rc<T>: Multiple Owners, Dynamically

- This is a *smart pointer* that associates a counter with the underlying reference
- Calling clone copies the pointer, not the pointed-to data, and bumps the counter by one
 - By convention, call Rc::clone(&a) rather than a.clone(), as a visual marker for future performance debugging
 - In general, calls to x.clone() are possible issues
- Calling **drop** reduces the counter by one
- When the counter hits zero, the data is freed

Rc::clone "Shares" Ownership

• Rc associates a refCount with the value



Lists with Sharing

```
enum List {
 Nil,
  Cons(i32, Rc<List>)
}
use List::{Cons, Nil};
fn main() {
  let a = Rc::new(Cons(5,
    Rc::new(Cons(10,
      Rc::new(Nil))));
  let b = Cons(3, Rc::clone(&a));
  let c = Cons(4, Rc::clone(&a));//ok
```

Reference Counting: Summary

- To create: let r = Rc::new(...);
- To copy a pointer: let s = Rc::clone(&r);

Increments the reference count

- To move a reference: let t = s;
 - Does not increment reference count; s no longer the owner
- To free is automatic: drop is called when variables go out of scope, reducing the count; freed when 0
- See docs:
 - <u>https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch15-04-rc.html</u>
 - <u>https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/rc/index.html</u>

```
fn print refcount(r: Rc<i32>) {
    println!("{}", Rc::strong count(&r));
 }
 fn main() {
     let forty_two = Rc::new(42);
    print_refcount(forty_two);
     {
         let v = Rc::clone(&forty_two);
        print refcount(v); // What does this print?
     }
 }
A. 0
B. 1
C. 2
D. This code doesn't compile
```

```
fn print refcount(r: Rc<i32>) {
              println!("{}", Rc::strong count(&r));
          }
          fn main() {
              let forty two = Rc::new(42);
              print refcount(forty two);
                  let v = Rc::clone(&forty two);
                 print refcount(v); // What does this print?
error[E0382]: borrow of moved value: `forty two`
  --> src/main.rs:11:27
8
        let forty two = Rc::new(42);
             ----- move occurs because `forty two` has type `Rc<i32>`, which does not
implement the `Copy` trait
9
        print refcount(forty two);
                        ----- value moved here
10
11 |
            let v = Rc::clone(&forty two);
                               ^^^^^ value borrowed here after move
```

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```
fn print refcount(r: &Rc<i32>) {
    println!("{}", Rc::strong count(r));
 }
 fn main() {
     let forty_two = Rc::new(42);
     {
         let v = Rc::clone(&forty two);
     }
    print refcount(&forty two); // What does this print?
 }
A. 0
B. 1
C. 2
D. This code doesn't compile
```

```
fn print refcount(r: &Rc<i32>) {
    println!("{}", Rc::strong count(r));
 }
 fn main() {
     let forty two = Rc::new(42);
     {
         let v = Rc::clone(&forty two);
     }
    print_refcount(&forty_two); // What does this print?
 }
A. 0
            v went out of scope, so the reference count is 1 (once again).
B. 1
C. 2
D. This code doesn't compile
```

Risks of Reference Counts

- Cyclic data is problematic
 - Suppose the arrows are Rc references



- Reference counts are always positive; will never be deallocated!
- Can fix by using *weak references* (see docs)
 - App must be prepared for referent to be revoked
 - These are not required for the assignment

Rc References: Mutation?

• Attempt 1:

```
let mut b = Rc::new(42);
*b = 43;
```

```
warning: variable does not need to be mutable
 --> src/main.rs:4:9
        let mut b = Rc::new(42);
4
            _ _ _ ^
            help: remove this `mut`
  = note: `#[warn(unused_mut)]` on by default
error[E0594]: cannot assign to data in an `Rc`
--> src/main.rs:5:5
5
        *b = 43;
        ^^^^^ cannot assign
  = help: trait `DerefMut` is required to modify through a dereference,
but it is not implemented for `Rc<i32>`
```

Rc References: No Mutation!

= help: trait `DerefMut` is required to modify through a dereference, but it is not implemented for `Rc<i32>`

Rc only allows *immutable* contents

```
let mut b = Rc::new(42);
b = Rc::new(43); // fresh heap alloc
```

mut b means that I can reassign b, but not the object it references!

But: Cells are Mutable

• Cell<T>: like Box<T> but with mutable contents

pub fn set(&self, val: T)

- moves the data in
- pub fn get(&self) -> T
 - copies the data out
- pub fn take(&self) -> T
 - moves the data out, leaving Default::default()
- pub fn get_mut(&mut self) -> &mut T
 - requires a &mut self

Cell example (from Rust book)

```
use std::cell::Cell;
struct SomeStruct {
    regular field: u8,
    special field: Cell<u8>,
}
let my struct = SomeStruct {
    regular field: 0,
    special field: Cell::new(1),
};
let new value = 100;
// ERROR: `my struct` is immutable
// my struct.regular field = new value;
// WORKS: although `my struct` is immutable, `special field` is a `Cell`,
// which can always be mutated
my struct.special field.set(new value);
assert eq!(my struct.special field.get(), new value);
```

Cell Limitations

- Cell is great if
 - you can copy the contents in and out
 - and you have mutable references to the cell whenever you want to modify the cell's contents
 - and you can reason statically about lifetimes
- But what if you can't or don't?
 - e.g., you want to access contents of cell without copying it out (maybe it's a struct that's not Copy)
- Enter: RefCell

RefCell<T>

pub const fn new(value: T) -> RefCell<T>

• Looks similar...

pub fn borrow(&self) -> Ref<'_, T>

- This is a *dynamic* borrow
- "The borrow lasts until the returned Ref exits scope. Multiple immutable borrows can be taken out at the same time...Panics if the value is currently mutably borrowed."

pub fn borrow_mut(&self) -> RefMut<'_, T>

- Note &self, not &mut self!
- "The borrow lasts until the returned **RefMut** or all **RefMuts** derived from it exit scope. The value cannot be borrowed while this borrow is active."

Ref and **RefMut** are only for use with **RefCell**

Ref<T> vs. &T

- Both **Ref<T>**, returned by **borrow***, and **&T**, implement **Deref**
 - · Code that uses them will be similar

&T

```
let x = 42;
let r = &x;
assert_eq!(*r, 42);
```

Ref<T>

```
let cell = RefCell::new(42);
let cell_ref : Ref<i32> = cell.borrow();
assert_eq!(*cell_ref, 42);
```

Static vs. Dynamic Borrow Tracking

- &T and &mut T: static (compile-time) tracked of borrows
- RefCell<T>::borrow*: dynamic (run-time) tracked of borrows
 pub fn borrow(&self) -> Ref<'_, T>
 pub fn borrow_mut(&self) -> RefMut<'_, T>
 - Ref<'_, T>, RefMut<'_, T> implement dynamic tracking
 - of outstanding, borrowed references
 - If borrow_mut() with an outstanding Ref, panic!
- Static tracking is better if you can make it work
 - no run time overhead; earlier bug detection

How Does Dynamic Borrowing Work?

- Each RefCell has a *borrow count* to track outstanding RefS and RefMuts for that RefCell
 - **RefCell borrow** and **borrow_mut** increment the count
 - When a **Ref** (or **RefMut**) goes out of scope, Rust calls **drop()**, which decrements the borrow count

```
use std::cell::RefCell;
let c = RefCell::new(5); // imm_count=0
let m = c.borrow(); // imm_count=1
let b = c.borrow mut(); // panic!
```

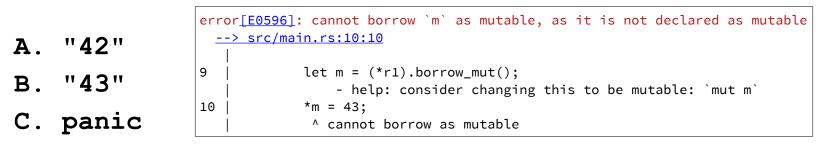
Shared Mutable Data

- Use Rc<RefCell<T>>
 - The **RefCell** permits mutating **T** (at risk of run-time borrow errors)
 - Rc permits sharing, e.g., within a data structure
- Rc<RefCell<u32>> has two counts:
 - Reference count for **Rc** (should this **RefCell** be deallocated?)
 - Incremented via Rc::clone()
 - Dynamic version of lifetime
 - Borrow count for **RefCell** (are **borrow()**, **borrow_mut()** safe?)
 - Incremented via RefCell borrow and borrow_mut
 - Dynamic version of borrow checking

```
let r1 = Rc::new(RefCell::new(42));
let r2 = r1.clone();
let m = (*r1).borrow_mut();
*m = 43;
println!("{:?}", *r2.borrow());
```

- A. "42"
- B. "43"
- C. panic
- D. Compiler error

```
let r1 = Rc::new(RefCell::new(42));
let r2 = r1.clone();
let m = (*r1).borrow_mut();
*m = 43;
println!("{:?}", *r2.borrow());
```



D. Compiler error

```
let r1 = Rc::new(RefCell::new(42));
let r2 = r1.clone();
let m = (*r1).borrow_mut();
*m = 43;
println!("{:?}", *r2.borrow());
```

borrow_mut() returns a DerefMut
DerefMut:
 pub fn deref_mut(&mut self) -> &mut Self::Target

To mutate the referenced value, we need a mutable DerefMut

```
let r1 = Rc::new(RefCell::new(42));
let r2 = r1.clone();
let mut m = (*r1).borrow_mut();
*m = 43;
println!("{:?}", *r2.borrow());
```

- A. "42"
- B. "43"
- C. panic
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```
let r1 = Rc::new(RefCell::new(42));
let r2 = r1.clone();
let mut m = (*r1).borrow mut();
*m = 43;
println!("{:?}", *r2.borrow());
A. "42"
B. "43"
C. panic
D. Compiler error
```

m's mutable borrow of the RefCell is still outstanding when borrow() is invoked.

```
let r1 = Rc::new(RefCell::new(42));
let r2 = r1.clone();
{
   let mut m = (*r1).borrow mut();
   *m = 43;
}
println!("{:?}", *r2.borrow());
A. "42"
B. "43"
C. panic
```

```
let r1 = Rc::new(RefCell::new(42));
let r2 = r1.clone();
{
   let mut m = (*r1).borrow mut();
   *m = 43;
}
println!("{:?}", *r2.borrow());
A. "42"
```

```
B. "43"
```

C. panic

Summary

- From the book [1]:
 - Rc<T> enables multiple owners of the same data; Box<T> and RefCell<T> have single owners.
 - Box<T> allows immutable or mutable borrows checked at compile time; Rc<T> allows only immutable borrows checked at compile time; RefCell<T> allows immutable or mutable borrows checked at runtime.
 - Because RefCell<T> allows mutable borrows checked at runtime, you can mutate the value inside the RefCell<T> even when the RefCell<T> is immutable.

[1] <u>https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/ch15-05-interior-mutability.html</u> Additional examples: https://doc.rust-lang.org/rust-by-example/std/rc.html

A Quick Summary

- **&mut**: use when you only need one mutable reference
- Rc: reference-counted, shared reference to the heap
- **RefCell**/**Cell**: mutable contents *even when immutable*
 - Borrowing via a special Ref value, which ensures that Rust's borrow checking rules are followed *dynamically*
 - Combine with **Rc** for shared mutability
- Ref/RefMut: only used for accessing RefCell.

Conclusions

- Ideally, design Rust programs so each value has one owner
 - But that's not always possible
 - Even when it is, those designs may have other costs
- When necessary, use Rc, RefCell to relax Rust's static constraints
 - Part of a programming discipline called interior mutability.
 - With great power comes great responsibility!