

Structs

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Structs

A **struct**, or structure, is a custom data type that lets us name and package together multiple related values that make up a meaningful group.

- it is like an object's data attributes (OOP).
- Very similar to tuples.
 - Unlike tuples, we can name each piece of data.
 - Unlike tuples, we can define functions of struct.

To define a struct, we enter the keyword **struct** and name the entire struct.

- Then, inside curly brackets, define the names and types of the pieces of data.
 - which we call fields.

We create an **instance** of a struct by specifying concrete values for each of the fields.

To get a specific value from a struct, we can use **dot** notation.

- **To able to change a field of the struct, the entire instance must be mutable.**

Code

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

```
fn main() {  
    code1();  
  
    let email = String::from("anemail@example.com");  
    let username = String::from("anotheruser");  
    code2(email, username);  
}
```

we can construct a new instance of the struct as the last expression in the function body to implicitly return that new instance.



```
fn code1() {  
    let mut user1 = User {  
        email: String::from("someone@example.com"),  
        username: String::from("someusername123"),  
        active: true,  
        sign_in_count: 1,  
    };  
  
    user1.email =  
String::from("anotheremail@example.com");  
}
```

```
fn code2(email: String, username: String) -> User {  
    User {  
        email,  
        username,  
        active: true,  
        sign_in_count: 1,  
    }  
}
```

Creating Instances From Other Instances

```
fn code3(user1: User) {  
    let user2 = User {  
        email: String::from("another@example.com"),  
        username: String::from("anotherusername567"),  
        active: user1.active,  
        sign_in_count: user1.sign_in_count,  
    };  
    println!("{:#?}", user2);  
}
```

```
fn code3(user1: User) {  
    let user2 = User {  
        email: String::from("another@example.com"),  
        username: String::from("anotherusername567"),  
        ..user1  
    };  
    println!("{:#?}", user2);  
}
```

Tuple alike Struct

Define structs that look similar to tuples, called *tuple structs*.

- They are useful when we want to
 - give the whole tuple a name
 - make the tuple be a different type from other tuples
 - naming each field as in a regular struct would be verbose or redundant.

```
struct Color(i32, i32, i32);
struct Point(i32, i32, i32);

fn code4() {
    let black = Color(0, 0, 0);
    let origin = Point(0, 0, 0);
}
```

A function that takes a parameter of type `Color` cannot take a `Point` as an argument, even though both types are made up of three `i32` values.

- we can use a `.` followed by the index to access an individual value.

Ownership of Struct Data

In all example, we have use String type in the field.

- Because, we want instances of the struct to own all of its data and for that data to be valid for as long as the entire struct is valid.

It's possible for structs to store references to data owned by something else.

- but to do so requires the use of lifetimes.

Lifetimes ensure that the data referenced by a struct is valid for as long as the struct is.

```
struct UserSTR {  
    username: &str,  
    email: &str,  
    sign_in_count: u64,  
    active: bool,  
}
```

```
fn code5() {  
    let user1 = User {  
        email: "someone@example.com",  
        username: "someusername123",  
        active: true,  
        sign_in_count: 1,  
    };  
}
```

Debug Structs

We can print an instance of any Struct while we're debugging our program and see the values for all its fields.

- Rust does include functionality to print out debugging information, but we have to explicitly opt in to make that functionality available.
- For Struct debug, add the annotation `#[derive(Debug)]` just before the **struct** definition.
- In `println!()`, use either `{:?}` or `{:#?}` to print formatted **struct** instance.

```
#[derive(Debug)]
struct Rectangle {
    width: u32,
    height: u32,
}
```

```
fn code6() {
    let rect1 = Rectangle {
        width: 30,
        height: 50,
    };

    println!("rect1 is {:#?}", rect1);
}
```

Method Vs Function

Methods are similar to functions:

- they're declared with the `fn` keyword and their name, they can have parameters and a return value.
- they contain code that is run when they're called.

However, methods are different from functions:

- they're defined within the context of a `struct` (or an enum or a trait object).
- their first parameter is always `self`, which represents the instance of the struct the method is being called on.

We create a `block of code` using `impl` to define methods for a `struct`.

- Struct name following `impl` keyword.
- Anywhere in the source.
- Any number of time in the source.

Use of Methods

```
#[derive(Debug)]  
struct Rectangle {  
    width: u32,  
    height: u32,  
}
```

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

```
fn code7() {  
    let rect1 = Rectangle {  
        width: 30,  
        height: 50,  
    };  
  
    println!(  
        "The area of the rectangle is {} square pixels.",  
        rect1.area()  
    );  
}
```

We use `&self` instead of `rectangle: &Rectangle`.

- because Rust knows the type of `self` is `Rectangle`.
 - due to the method's being inside the `impl Rectangle` context.
- Methods can take ownership of `self`, borrow `self` immutably (in this example), or borrow `self` mutably.

Self: Best Practices

&self

- We don't want to transfer ownership of the instance.
- We don't require to modify the instance of itself.

&mut self

- We don't want to transfer ownership of the instance.
- We do require to modify the instance of itself.

self

- Stands for transfer of the ownership of the instance to the method.
 - Unlikely to ever need it.
 - Second transfer of ownership will be required to keep it alive.

Automatic Referencing and Dereferencing

In C and C++, two different operators are used for calling methods. We use:

- `.` if we're calling a method on the object directly
- `->` if we're calling the method on a pointer to the object and need to dereference the pointer first.

When we call a method with `object.something()`, Rust automatically adds in `&`, `&mut`, or `*` so object matches the signature of the method.

`p1.distance(&p2);` equivalence to `(&p1).distance(&p2);`

Instance as Parameter

We can send more than one parameter to the method besides the self.

- It includes another instance of the struct.

```
impl Rectangle {  
    fn can_hold(&self, other: &Rectangle) -> bool {  
        self.area() > other.area()  
    }  
}
```

```
fn code8() {  
    let rect1 = Rectangle {  
        width: 30,  
        height: 50,  
    };  
    let rect2 = Rectangle {  
        width: 10,  
        height: 40,  
    };  
  
    println!("Can rect1 hold rect2? {}", rect1.can_hold(&rect2));  
}
```

Associate Functions

Associated functions are function not method although they are defined within an **impl** block.

- Difference: They don't take **self** as parameter.
- They act similar to constructor of C++ class.
 - So, it will return the instance of the struct.

Remember, we have used **String::from("TEXT")** to create instance of **String** type. **From("TEXT")** is an associate function of the **Struct String**.

- To call this associated function, we use the **::** syntax with the struct name.

```
impl Rectangle {  
    fn square(size: u32) -> Rectangle {  
        Rectangle {  
            width: size,  
            height: size,  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
fn code9() {  
    let sq = Rectangle::square(3);  
    let area = sq.area();  
    println!("Rectangle area: {}", area);  
}
```

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