



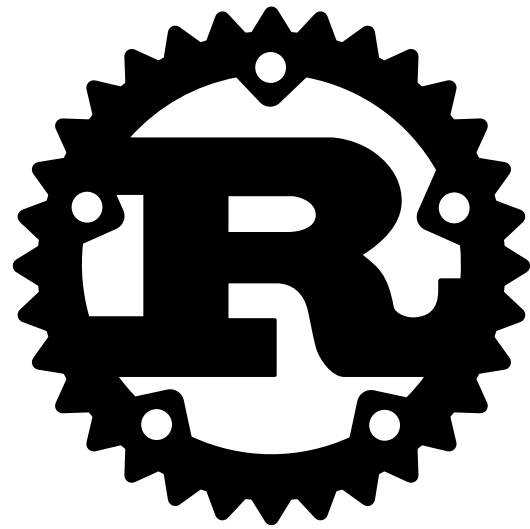
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Advanced Programming

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Rust

Part 1

*Most contents are from **Tour of Rust** <https://tourofrust.com/>*



The Basics of Rust



Variables

- The **let** keyword.
- Data type

```
fn main() {  
    // rust infers the type of x  
    let x = 13;  
    println!("{}", x);  
  
    // rust can also be explicit about the type  
    let x: f64 = 3.14159;  
    println!("{}", x);  
  
    // rust can also declare and initialize later, but this is rarely done  
    let x;  
    x = 0;  
    println!("{}", x);  
}
```



Variables

- **mutable** - the compiler will allow the variable to be written to and read from.
- **immutable** - the compiler will only allow the variable to be read from.

```
fn main() {  
    let mut x = 42;  
    println!("{}", x);  
    x = 13;  
    println!("{}", x);  
}
```



Variable Shadowing

- **variable shadowing** allows you to reuse a variable name in the same scope to bind new values or even change types, while maintaining memory safety guarantees.

```
let x = 5;  
let x = x * 2;  
let x = "hello"; // New String type shadows previous integer
```

```
let y = 10;  
{  
  let y = y * 2; // Inner scope shadowing  
}
```

```
// Shadowing (type change allowed)  
let data = 42;  
let data = data.to_string(); // i32 → String
```

```
// Mutation (type must match)  
let mut value = 42;  
value = 100; // Valid  
value = "text"; // Compile error
```



- ```
fn main() {
 let x = 12; // by default this is i32
 let a = 12u8;
 let b = 4.3; // by default this is f64
 let c = 4.3f32;
 let d = 'r'; // unicode character
 let ferris = '🦀'; // also a unicode character
 let bv = true;
 let t = (13, false);
 let sentence = "hello world!";
 println!(
 "{} {} {} {} {} {} {} {} {} {}"
 x, a, b, c, d, ferris, bv, t.0, t.1, sentence
);
}
```



# Basic Type Conversion

- Rust requires explicitness when it comes to numeric types.

```
fn main() {
 let a = 13u8;
 let b = 7u32;
 let c = a as u32 + b;
 println!("{}", c);

 let t = true;
 println!("{}", t as u8);
}
```





# Constants

- Unlike variables, constants must always have explicit types.
- Constant names are always in SCREAMING\_SNAKE\_CASE.

```
const PI: f32 = 3.14159;
```

```
fn main() {
 const EULER: f32 = 2.71828;
 println!(
 "PI is approximately {} and Euler's number is approximately {}",
 PI, EULER
);
}
```



# Arrays

- An *array* is a **fixed length collection** of data elements all of the same type.

```
fn main() {
 let nums: [i32; 3] = [1, 2, 3];
 println!("{:?}", nums);
 println!("{}", nums[1]);
}
```



# Functions

- If you just want to return an expression, you can drop the `return` keyword and the semicolon at the end, as we did in the *subtract* function.
- Function names are always in `snake_case`.

```
fn add(x: i32, y: i32) -> i32 {
 return x + y;
}
```

```
fn subtract(x: i32, y: i32) -> i32 {
 x - y
}
```

```
fn main() {
 println!("42 + 13 = {}", add(42, 13));
 println!("42 - 13 = {}", subtract(42, 13));
}
```



# Functions: Multiple Return Values

- Functions can return multiple values by returning a **tuple** of values.
- Tuple elements can be referenced by their index number.

```
fn swap(x: i32, y: i32) -> (i32, i32) {
 return (y, x);
}
```

```
fn main() {
 // return a tuple of return values
 let result = swap(123, 321);
 println!("{}", result.0, result.1);

 // destructure the tuple into two variables names
 let (a, b) = swap(result.0, result.1);
 println!("{}", a, b);
}
```



# Functions: Returning Nothing

- If no return type is specified for a function, it returns an empty tuple.

```
fn make_nothing() -> () {
 return ();
}
// the return type is implied as ()
fn make_nothing2() {
 // this function will return () if nothing is specified to return
}
fn main() {
 let a = make_nothing();
 let b = make_nothing2();
 // Printing a debug string for a and b
 // Because it's hard to print nothingness
 println!("The value of a: {:?}", a);
 println!("The value of b: {:?}", b);
}
```



# Basic Control Flow



# if / else

- Conditions don't have parentheses! Did we ever really need them? Our logic now looks nice and clean.
- All your usual relational and logical operators still work: `==`, `!=`, `<`, `>`, `<=`, `>=`, `!`, `||`, `&&`.

```
fn main() {
 let x = 42;
 if x < 42 {
 println!("less than 42");
 } else if x == 42 {
 println!("is 42");
 } else {
 println!("greater than 42");
 }
}
```



# loop

- infinite loop
- break will escape a loop when you are ready.

```
fn main() {
 let mut x = 0;
 loop {
 x += 1;
 if x == 42 {
 break;
 }
 }
 println!("{}", x);
}
```





# while

- while lets you easily add a condition to a loop.
- If the condition evaluates to false, the loop will exit.

```
fn main() {
 let mut x = 0;
 while x != 42 {
 x += 1;
 }
 println!("x is {}", x);
}
```



# for

- Rust's `for` loop is a powerful upgrade. It iterates over values from any expression that evaluates into an iterator.
- An iterator is an object that you can ask the question "What's the next item you have?" until there are no more items.

```
fn main() {
 for x in 0..5 {
 println!("{}", x);
 }

 for x in 0..=5 {
 println!("{}", x);
 }
}
```



# match

- match is exhaustive so all cases must be handled.
- Similar to switch-case in C/C++.

```
fn main() {
 let x = 42;
 match x {
 0 => {
 println!("found zero");
 }
 // we can match against multiple values
 1 | 2 => {
 println!("found 1 or 2!");
 }
 // we can match against ranges
 3..=9 => {
 println!("found a number 3 to 9 inclusively");
 }
 // we can bind the matched number to a variable
 matched_num @ 10..=100 => {
 println!("found {} number between 10 to 100!", matched_num);
 }
 // this is the default match that must exist if not all cases are handled
 _ => {
 println!("found something else!");
 }
 }
}
```



# Returning Values From loop

- loop can break to return a value.
- The returned value follows the keyword `break`.

```
fn main() {
 let mut x = 0;
 let v = loop {
 x += 1;
 if x == 13 {
 break "found the 13";
 }
 };
 println!("from loop: {}", v);
}
```



# Returning Values From Block Expressions

- if, match, functions, and scope blocks all have a unique way of returning values in Rust.
- If the last statement in an if, match, function, or scope block is an expression without a `;`, Rust will return it as a value from the block. This is a great way to create concise logic that returns a value that can be put into a new variable.
- Notice that it also allows an if statement to operate like a concise ternary expression.



```
fn example() -> i32 {
 let x = 42;
 // Rust's ternary expression
 let v = if x < 42 { -1 } else { 1 };
 println!("from if: {}", v);

 let food = "hamburger";
 let result = match food {
 "hotdog" => "is hotdog",
 // notice the braces are optional when its just a single return expression
 _ => "is not hotdog",
 };
 println!("identifying food: {}", result);

 let v = {
 // This scope block lets us get a result without polluting function scope
 let a = 1;
 let b = 2;
 a + b
 };
 println!("from block: {}", v);

 // The idiomatic way to return a value in rust from a function at the end
 v + 4
}

fn main() {
 println!("from function: {}", example());
}
```



# Basic Data Structure Types



# Structures

- A struct is a collection of fields, **not functions**.
- A *field* is simply a data value associated with a data structure. Its value can be of a primitive type or a data structure.

```
struct SeaCreature {
 // String is a struct
 animal_type: String,
 name: String,
 arms: i32,
 legs: i32,
 weapon: String,
}
```





# Calling Methods (more details next week)

- Unlike **functions**, **methods** are functions associated with a specific data type.
- **static methods** — methods that belong to a type itself are called using the `::` operator.
- **instance methods** — methods that belong to an instance of a type are called using the `.` operator.

```
fn main() {
 // Using a static method to create an instance of String
 let s = String::from("Hello world!");
 // Using a method on the instance
 println!("{}", s.len());
}
```



# Memory

- **data memory** - For data that is fixed in size and **static** (i.e. always available through life of program), such as the text in your program (e.g. "Hello World!").
- **stack memory** - For data that is declared as variables within a function.
- **heap memory** - For data that is created while the application is running. Data in this region may be added, moved, removed, resized, etc.



# Creating Data In Memory

- When we **instantiate** a **struct** in our code our program creates the associated field data side by side in memory.

```
fn main() {
 // SeaCreature's data is on stack
 let ferris = SeaCreature {
 // String struct is also on stack,
 // but holds a reference to data on heap
 animal_type: String::from("crab"),
 name: String::from("Ferris"),
 arms: 2,
 legs: 4,
 weapon: String::from("claw"),
 };
 println!(
 "{} is a {}. They have {} arms, {} legs, and a {} weapon",
 ferris.name, ferris.animal_type, ferris.arms, ferris.legs, ferris.weapon
);
}
```



# Tuple-like Structs

```
struct Location(i32, i32);

fn main() {
 // This is still a struct on a stack
 let loc = Location(42, 32);
 println!("{}", {}, loc.0, loc.1);
}
```



# Unit-like Structs

- Structs do not have to have any fields at all.

```
struct Marker;
```

```
fn main() {
 let _m = Marker;
}
```



# Enumerations

- Enumerations allow you to create a new type that can have a value of several tagged elements using the `enum` keyword.
- `match` helps ensure exhaustive handling of all possible enum values making it a powerful tool in ensuring quality code.

```
enum Species {
 Crab,
 Octopus,
 Fish,
 Clam
}

fn main() {
 let ferris = SeaCreature {
 species: Species::Crab,
 name: String::from("Ferris"),
 arms: 2,
 legs: 4,
 weapon: String::from("claw"),
 };

 match ferris.species {
 Species::Crab => println!("{}", ferris.name),
 Species::Octopus => println!("{}", ferris.name),
 Species::Fish => println!("{}", ferris.name),
 Species::Clam => println!("{}", ferris.name),
 }
}
```

```
struct SeaCreature {
 species: Species,
 name: String,
 arms: i32,
 legs: i32,
 weapon: String,
}
```



# Generic Types



# Generic Types

- Generic types allow us to partially define a struct or enum, enabling a compiler to create a fully defined version at compile-time based off our code usage.

```
// A partially defined struct type
struct BagOfHolding<T> {
 item: T,
}

fn main() {
 // Note: by using generic types here, we create compile-time created types.
 // Turbofish lets us be explicit.
 let i32_bag = BagOfHolding::<i32> { item: 42 };
 let bool_bag = BagOfHolding::<bool> { item: true };

 // Rust can infer types for generics too!
 let float_bag = BagOfHolding { item: 3.14 };

 // Note: never put a bag of holding in a bag of holding in real life
 let bag_in_bag = BagOfHolding {
 item: BagOfHolding { item: "boom!" },
 };

 println!(
 "{} {} {} {}",
 i32_bag.item, bool_bag.item, float_bag.item, bag_in_bag.item.item
);
}
```





# Vectors

- The struct `Vec`.
- The macro `vec!` .

```
fn main() {
 // We can be explicit with type
 let mut i32_vec = Vec::<i32>::new(); // turbofish <3
 i32_vec.push(1);
 i32_vec.push(2);
 i32_vec.push(3);

 // But look how clever Rust is about determining the type automatically
 let mut float_vec = Vec::new();
 float_vec.push(1.3);
 float_vec.push(2.3);
 float_vec.push(3.4);

 // That's a beautiful macro!
 let string_vec = vec![String::from("Hello"), String::from("World")];

 for word in string_vec.iter() {
 println!("{}", word);
 }
}
```



# Generic Functions

// A generic function that returns the larger of two values

```
fn largest<T>(a: T, b: T) -> T
```

```
where
```

```
 T: PartialOrd, // Constraint: T must be comparable
```

```
{
```

```
 if a > b { a } else { b }
```

```
}
```

```
fn main() {
```

```
 println!("{}", largest(3,6));
```

```
 println!("{}", largest(3.3,6.6));
```

```
 println!("{}", largest::<f32>(3.33,6.66));
```

```
}
```