# hhu,



# Rust Crash Course Part1

### Agenda



- Basic syntax
- The borrow checker
- Slides from Rohan Kumar, Rahul Kumar, and Edward Zeng
  - Used in the course CS 162: Operating Systems and Systems Programming, Prof. John Kubiatowicz at Berkely University, USA

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# Why Rust



- Memory safe!
- Fast executables
- Fewer runtime bugs

## Defining variables

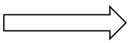


The compiler will try to guess the type

```
let x: i32 = 2;
let x = 2;
```

Variables are immutable by default

```
// This won't compile
let x = 2;
x = 2;
```



```
// This is 0K
let mut x = 2;
x = 2;
```

#### References



- Rust references are like pointers in C, but are:
  - Always valid (no pointers to freed memory)
  - Never null
- The Rust compiler checks these properties at compile time
- Reference with &, dereference with \*

```
let x = 2;
let ptr = &x;
assert_eq!(*ptr, 2);
```

#### Mutable References



- By default, references are immutable.
- This won't work:

```
let mut x = 2;
let ptr = &x;
*ptr = 3; // Cannot mutate through an immutable reference
```

If you want to modify a variable through a pointer, you must have a mutable reference

```
let mut x = 2;
let ptr = &mut x;
*ptr = 3; // This is OK
```

#### Mutable References



To obtain a mutable reference, the variable itself must be mutable:

```
let x = 2;
let ptr = &mut x; // Cannot mutably reference an immutable variable
```

Obtaining a reference in Rust is called borrowing.

### Primitive types



- Signed integers: i8, i16, i32, i64, i128, isize
- Unsigned integers: u8, u16, u32, u64, u128, usize
- Floating point: f32, f64
- Boolean: boolean
- Character: char (use single quotes, e.g. 'a')

#### Compound types



#### Tuples:

```
// The type annotation is unnecessary
let my_tuple: (i32, char, bool) = (162, 'X', true);
```

#### Arrays:

```
// Arrays have a fixed size, as indicated in the (optional) type annotation let nums: [i32, 5] = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]; let second = nums[1];
```

#### Structs:

```
struct Coordinate {
    x: i32,
    y: i32,
}
let point = Coordinate { x: 5, y: 3, };
```

#### **Functions**



A function that squares the input:

```
fn square(x: i32) -> i32 {
   return x * x;
}
```

Equivalent to:

```
fn square(x: i32) -> i32 {
    x * x
}
```

If a function does not return a value, just omit the return type:

```
fn add_one(x: &mut i32) {
   *x += 1;
}
```

#### Hello World!



A function that prints a string:

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

- println! is a macro. The latter always have the excalamtion mark as suffix.
- The compiler expands macros during compilation and macros will be replaced by "regular" Rust source code.

#### If statements

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Rust has conditional if statements. No parentheses for the boolean expressions!

```
let x = 4;
if x > 5 {
    println!("Greater than 5");
} else if x > 3 {
    println!("Greater than 3");
} else {
    println!("x was not big enough");
}
```

#### If statements



All expressions can evalute to a value.

```
let x = 4;
let message = if x > 5 {
    "Greater than 5"
} else if x > 3 {
    "Greater than 3"
} else {
    "x was not big enough"
};
println!("{}", message)
```

#### Loops



```
loop {
   println!("stuck in a loop");
}
```

Use break to exit

```
loop {
   break;
}
```

Loop expressions can evalute to a value, just like any other expression:

```
let mut count = 0;
let three = loop {
   count += 1;
   if count >= 3 {
      break count;
   }
}.
```

# While loops



Rust while loops are fairly straightforward:

```
let mut count = 5;
while count > 0 {
   count -= 1;
}
```

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### For loops



For loop can iterate over a collection

```
let nums = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4];
for n in nums {
    println!("{}", n);
}
// Prints 0 1 2 3 4
```

Range notion:

```
for n in 0..5 {
    println!("{}", n);
}
// Prints 0 1 2 3 4
```

#### Enums



Useful when a type should have only a few possible values

```
enum Coin {
   Head,
   Tail,
}
let a = Coin::Head;
let b = Coin::Tail;
```

Each value in an enum is called a variant.

#### Enums

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Enums can also store data!

```
enum OperatingSystem {
    Mac,
    Windows,
    Linux,
    Other(String),
}

let a = OperatingSystem::Linux;
let b = OperatingSystem::Other("Redox OS");
```

### Matching



- Rust match expressions are like C switch statements. However, they must always be exhaustive.
- What is wrong here?

```
let num = 162;

match num {
    160 => println!(160);
    161 => println!(161);
    168 => println!(168);
}
```

The match is not exhaustive! What if num was 164 or 10?

## Matching



This is valid:

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```
let num = 162;

match num {
    160 => println!(160);
    161 => println!(161);
    168 => println!(168);
    => println!("another case");
}
```

- The underscore matches anything that was not already matched.
- Each pattern in the match statement is called a match arm.

## Matching



Matching is very useful in combination with enums. Match expressions can also evaluate to a value (just like any other expression).

```
enum OperatingSystem {
  Mac,
  Windows,
  Linux,
  Other(String),
fn os name(os: OperatingSystem) -> String {
  match os {
     Mac => "mac".to_string(),
     Windows => "windows".to string(),
     Linux => "linuxc".to string(),
     0ther(s) => s.
```

### impl blocks

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Suppose we have the following struct definition:

```
struct Vector {
    x: f64,
    y: f64,
}
```

We might want to add 2 Vectors elementwise. Here is one way to do that:

```
fn add(v1: Vector, v2: Vector) -> Vector {
    x: v1.x + v2.x,
    y: v1.y + v2.y,
}
```

#### impl blocks

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We can also do the same thing using impl blocks, wich define methods related to a struct (or enum).

```
impl Vector {
    fn add(&self, other: Vector) -> Self {
        x: self.x + other.x,
        y: self.y + other.y,
    }
}
let sum = v1.add(&v2);

// Can also be called like this
let sum = Vector::add(&v1, &v2);
```

Self is a shorthand for the type of the impl block (in this case, Vector).

## Arguments to impl block functions



First argument is &self: the compiler will immutably borrow the object

```
let v1 = ...;
v1.add(&v2)
```

Is approximately equivalent to

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```
let v1 = ...;
let reference = &v1;
Vector::add(reference, &v2);
```

## Arguments to impl block functions



Now first argument is &mut self: the compiler will mutably borrow the object

```
impl Vector {
    fn double(&mut self) {
        self.x *= 2;
        self.y *= 2;
    }
}
```

```
let mut v1 = ...;
v1.double();
```

Is approximately equivalent to

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```
let mut v1 = ...;
let reference = &mut v1;
Vector::double(reference);
```

#### The Borrow Checker



A very important concept

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At the beginning sometimes difficult

## Why have a borrow checker?



- We are trying to solve the problem of when to allocate and deallocate memory
- In C, you have to do this manually using malloc and free.
- In Java, a garbage collector runs periodically to free objects that are no longer usable
- In Rust, the borrow checker automatically determines when a value is unusable, and inserts code to free it at that point

Automatic memory management without the overhead of garbage collection!
 (Sometimes also called compile-time garbage collection)

#### Borrow checker

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- The borrow checker is what makes Rust very different from other languages
- The borrow checker verifies a set of rules at compile time. It does the magic of making sure your references are always valid.
- The borrow checker rules can initially seem mysterious. But they become easier with practice.

We'll incrementally build up some of the basic borrow checking rules.

#### Basic rules



- Here's one set of borrow checking rules:
- Every value has one and only one owner
- When a value's owner goes out of scope, the value is dropped (= freed)
- To manually drop a value v early, call drop(v)
- Is it possible to drop a value late?
- No. A value is dropped when it goes out of scope. You can modify your code so that the scope is larger, but you cannot call drop(v) if v is not in scope.

## Scopes



Scopes are enclosed in curly braces:

```
fn do_stuff() {
    let a = String::from("hello");
    {
       let b = String::from("goodbye");
       // Can access a and b
       // ...
       // b goes out of scope and is dropped
    }
    // Cannot access b here: it is out of scope
    // a is dropped at the end of the function
}
```

Functions, loops, if statements etc. have their own scope. You can also create nested scopes using curly braces.

#### Moves



- Every value has one owner. Sometimes that owner can change. This is called a move
- Assignment moves values.
- This is invalid:

```
let s1 = String::from("my string");
let s2 = s1; // Ownership of the string moves from s1 to s2.

// s1 no longer owns the string, so we can't access data via s1.
println!("{}", s1); // This is an error; data has been moved out of s1.
```

This is fine:

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```
let s1 = String::from("my string");
let s2 = s1; // Ownership of the string moves from s1 to s2.
println!("{}", s2); // This is okay; s2 owns the string now.
```

## Cloning



If you need multiple variables to own data, you can clone a value:

```
let s1 = String::from("my string");
let s2 = s1.clone(); // s2 is a clone of s1
println!("{}", s2); // This is okay; s2 owns its data.
println!("{}", s1); // This is okay; s1 also owns its data.
```

- Note that cloning is usually expensive. In this case, we are allocating memory for a string twice.
- In the previous examples, we only allocated space for the string once.
- Cloned values are completely independent of the value they were cloned from. If s1 is modified, code using s2 will not see those changes.

## Copy



- There is one case in which a move behaves like a clone: when the type is Copy.
- Copy is a trait (ie. interface) that indicates that a value is copied whenever it is used.
- For example, integers are Copy:

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

■ This is fine because the value in x (5) is copied, not moved. So x and y both own their values and can be accessed.

## Copy



- In general, types that require heap allocations are not Copy.
- Copy: integers, floats, booleans, chars, immutable references, and compound types containing only Copy types.
- Not Copy: Strings, Vectors, mutable references, and compound types containing at least one non-Copy type.

## **Deriving Copy**



Consider the following struct:

```
struct Person {
   id: u64,
   age: u32,
}
```

Is it Copy?

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- No. But shouldn't it be Copy, since it only contains Copy types?
- We must explicitly tell the Rust compiler we wish to make it Copy

Copy is used implicitly

Clone is used explicitly

```
#[derive(Copy)]
struct Person {
   id: u64,
   age: u32,
}
```

Can also make structs cloneable by adding #[derive(Clone)].

#### More moves

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Passing a value to a function moves the value:

```
fn main() {
    let s = String::from("hello");
    do_stuff(s);
    // s no longer accessible; it was moved into do_stuff
}
fn do_stuff(s: String) {
    // do stuff with s
}
```

## More moves (2)



Returning a value from a function moves the value to the caller:

```
fn main() {
   let s = get_string();
   // We can now use s, which owns the string
}
fn get_string() -> String {
   String::from("hello")
}
```

## Aliasing or mutability



- You can have aliasing **or** mutability, but not both.
- Aliasing: x is aliased: multiple variables can read (not modify) the variable

```
let x = 162;
let p1 = &x;
let p2 = p1;
```

x is mutable; p1 can modify the contents of x

```
let mut x = 162;
let p1 = \&mut x;
```

This is forbidden:

```
let mut x = 162;
let p1 = \&mut x;
let p2 = \&mut x;
```

### No dangling pointers



- Rust ensures that you don't create dangling references at compile time.
- This code won't compile:

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```
fn get_string() -> &String {
    let s = String::from("hi");
    &s
}
// s is dropped at the end of this function,
// so &s would be a dangling pointer.
// The Rust compiler won't allow this.
```

Key point: a reference can never outlive the value it points to!

## Summary of borrowing rules



- References are always valid and non-null.
- Every value has one owner.
- Values are freed when their owner goes out of scope.
- Assignment moves values (unless the value is Copy).
- Values that allocate memory on the heap are usually not Copy.
- You can have one mutable reference, or multiple immutable references. But not both.

A reference can never outlive its value.