

Embedded Rust Workshop (Day 1)

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Rust tools

1. `rustup` : The Rust Toolchain Installer. This installs all the required Rust tools.
2. `cargo` : The official package manager of Rust. It downloads your dependencies, compiles your packages , makes distributable binaries and also uploads them to crates.io, the official Rust package registry.
3. `rustc` : The Rust compiler.

Creating a new project in Rust

To create a new Rust project we use the below command

```
cargo new <project_name>

#OR

cargo new --bin <project_name>
```

Here `--bin` makes sure that the new project created is a program and not a library.

■ The project directory structure - 1

Once you have run the command `cargo new`, you will get a project directory with the following structure :

```
├── .
├── Cargo.lock
├── Cargo.toml
└── src
    └── main.rs
```

■ Cargo.toml

This is the file containing all the metadata of the project. It contains stuff like the Project Name, Rust version used, Project Dependencies etc. Here is a barebones `Cargo.toml`

```
[package]
name = "project_name"    # The name of your crate/project
version = "0.1.0"        # The current version of your project (semver
format)
edition = "2021"         # Rust edition (2015, 2018, or 2021 are valid)

[dependencies]
# This section is where you list external crates your project depends on.
# Format: crate_name = "version"
```

■ The project directory structure - 2

■ `src.main.rs`

This is the main file where we write our Rust programs. `cargo` generates a default `Hello, World` program as shown below. If you are using `presenterm` to present this file, press `CTRL + E` to execute the code.

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

————— [finished] —————

```
Hello, world!
```

■ The project directory structure - 3

■ Building the code

To build the code, run the below command in your project's root directory, the executable binary (ELF for Linux and EXE for Windows) will be available in the `target/debug` directory) :

```
cargo build
```

■ Running the code

To run the Rust code, run the below command in your project's root directory :

```
cargo run
```

This command first builds the code and then runs it. So `cargo build` is optional.

To optimize the binary, we use the `--release` flag since by default Rust builds for debugging which increases the binary size.

```
cargo run --release
```

■ Hello, world! program breakdown

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

————— [finished] —————

```
Hello, world!
```

■ `fn main() { ... }`

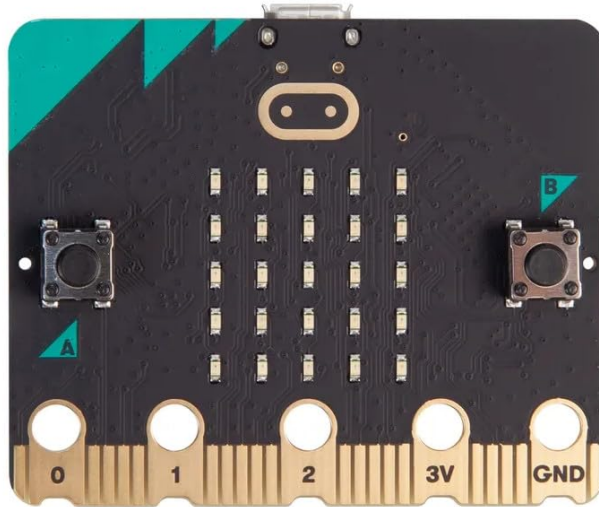
1. `fn` -> Keyword for defining a function in Rust
2. `main` -> The entry point of a Rust program. All the program's logic will be written inside the `main` function. This is similar to `int main()` in C/C++.

■ `println!("Hello, world!");`

`println!` is a macro which prints output to terminal with a newline `\n` at the end. To print the output without the newline use the `print!` macro instead.

Note the Semicolon (`;`) at the end. This indicates the end of the line.

1. BBC Microbit V2



■ Variables in Rust

To define a variable in Rust, we use the `let` keyword.

■ Immutable variables

This is the default type of variables in Rust. Here the value cannot be modified or changed.

■ Mutable Variables

The value of this variable can be modified or changed. To define a mutable variable, we use the `mut` keyword.

```
fn main() {  
    let x = 45;          // Immutable variable  
    let mut y = 56;      // Mutable variable  
    println!("Immutable variable : {x}");  
    println!("Mutable Variable : {y}");  
    y *= 2;  
    print!("Modified value : {y}");  
}
```

[finished]

```
Immutable variable : 45  
Mutable Variable : 56  
Modified value : 112
```


■ Data types in Rust - 1

■ Integers

Integers in Rust are scalar types that represent whole numbers, available in both signed (iN) and unsigned (uN) forms with fixed bit-widths (8, 16, 32, 64, 128, or pointer-sized).

■ Signed integers

Type	Size
i8	8 bits
i16	16 bits
i32	32 bits
i64	64 bits
i128	128 bits
isize	Pointer-sized (Depends on architecture)

■ Unsigned Integers

Type	Size
u8	8 bits
u16	16 bits
u32	32 bits
u64	64 bits
u128	128 bits
usize	Pointer-sized (Depends on architecture)

■ Floating point

Floating point numbers are basically decimal numbers

■ Float types

Type	Size
f32	32 bits
f64	64 bits

■ Boolean (`bool`)

Boolean can have only 2 values `true` and `false`

■ Character (`char`)

This has a size of 4 bytes and is used to represent a single Unicode Scalar value.

■ Program that prints all datatypes

```
fn main() {  
    let a: i16 = -25;      // 16-bit signed integer  
    let b: u32 = 45;       // 16-bit unsigned integer  
    let c: f32 = 256.32;   // 32-bit Floating point value  
    let d: char = 'c';     // Character  
    let e: bool = true;    // Boolean  
  
    println!("16-bit signed Integer : {}", a);  
    println!("16-bit unsigned Integer : {}", b);  
    println!("32-bit Floating point value : {}", c);  
    println!("Character : {}", d);  
    println!("Boolean value : {}", e);  
}
```

————— [finished] —————

```
16-bit signed Integer : -25  
16-bit unsigned Integer : 45  
32-bit Floating point value : 256.32  
Character : c  
Boolean value : true
```

■ Strings in Rust

In Rust (Or any language for that matter), a string is a collection of characters.

■ String types

1. `String` -> An owned, growable, heap-allocated UTF-8 string.
2. `&str` (**String Slice**) -> A borrowed view of `String`, often used for String literals.

```
fn main() {  
    let slice: &str = "Hello";  
    println!("slice: {}", slice);  
    let mut owned: String = String::from("Hello");  
    owned.push_str(", world!"); // we can modify it  
    println!("owned: {}", owned);  
    let borrowed: &str = &owned;  
    println!("borrowed from String: {}", borrowed);  
}
```

[finished]

```
slice: Hello  
owned: Hello, world!  
borrowed from String: Hello, world!
```

■ Specify datatype of a number

```
fn main() {  
    let x = 3u8 - 2u8;    // Specifying datatype as u8  
    let y = 4i8 - 10i8;   // Specifying datatype as i8  
  
    println!("{x}");  
    println!("{y}");  
}
```

————— [finished] —————

```
1  
-6
```

■ Type casting

This is used to change from one datatype to another.

Type casting uses the `as` keyword.

```
fn main() {  
    let x = 4u32 - 3i16 as u32;  
  
    println!("{x}");  
}
```

[finished]

1

Control Flow in Rust

1. `if-else` -> Conditional branching based on a boolean expression
2. `if let` -> Pattern-matching shorthand for `if` with a single pattern
3. `match` -> Exhaustive branching based on patterns.
4. `loop` -> Infinite loop that runs unless explicitly broken.
5. `while` -> Loop that runs until the given condition becomes false.
6. `while let` -> Loop that run until a given pattern matches.
7. `for` -> Iterate over the elements of an iterator.
8. `break` -> Exits a loop
9. `continue` -> Skips to the next loop iteration.
10. `return` -> Exits a function and returns a value.

■ if-else statements

These are used to evaluate a condition and returns one of two or more values depending on whether the condition is `true` or `false`

■ Example

```
fn main(){  
  let b = 0.5;  
  if b > 0.1 {  
    println!("{b} > 0.1");  
  } else {  
    println!("{b} < 0.1");  
  }  
}
```

————— [finished] —————

```
0.5 > 0.1
```


■ if-let statement

This statement runs a code if a value matches a single pattern.

▒ Example

```
fn main() {  
    let opt = Some(10);  
    if let Some(val) = opt {  
        println!("val is {}", val);  
    }  
}
```

————— [finished] —————

```
val is 10
```

■ match statement

Performs branching by matching patterns exhaustively. Similar to `switch-case` of C/C++.

```
fn main() {  
    let num = 2;  
    match num {  
        1 => println!("One"),  
        2 => println!("Two"),  
        _ => println!("Something Else : {}", num)  
    }  
}
```

————— [finished] —————

Two

■ loop statement

Creates an infinite loop until explicitly broken.

```
fn main() {  
    let mut count = 0;  
    loop {  
        count += 1;  
        if count == 3 {  
            println!("Breaking at count = {count}");  
            break;  
        }  
    }  
}
```

————— [finished] —————

Breaking at count = 3

■ while statement

Loops as long a given statement is `true`

```
fn main() {  
    let mut n = 3;  
    while n > 0 {  
        println!("n : {n}");  
        n -= 1;  
    }  
}
```

————— [finished] —————

```
n : 3  
n : 2  
n : 1
```

■ while let statement

Loops until the given value matches a pattern.

```
fn main() {  
    let mut opt = Some(3);  
    while let Some(val) = opt {  
        println!("{val}");  
        opt = if val > 1 {  
            Some(val - 1)  
        } else {  
            None  
        };  
    }  
}
```

————— [finished] —————

```
3  
2  
1
```

■ for loop

Iterates over the items in an iterator

```
fn main() {  
    for i in 1..=4{ // Also includes 4 as part of the for loop  
        println!("{i}");  
    }  
}
```

[finished]

```
1  
2  
3  
4
```

■ break statement

Exits a loop immediately

```
fn main() {  
    for i in 1.. {    // Iterates from 1 to infinity  
        if i == 3 {  
            break;  
        }  
        println!("{i}");  
    }  
}
```

[finished]

```
1  
2
```

■ continue statement

Skips the rest of the current loop iteration

```
fn main() {  
    for i in 1..5 {  
        if i == 3 {  
            continue;  
        }  
        println!("{i}");  
    }  
}
```

————— [finished] —————

```
1  
2  
4
```


■ return statement

Exits a function and returns a value

Two ways to return a value from a function

■ Using return statement

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

fn main() {
    let n: i32 = square(4);
    println!("Square of 4 is : {n}");
}
```

————— [finished] —————

Square of 4 is : 16

■ Without using return statement

```
fn square(x: i32) -> i32 {
    x * x          // There is no semicolon
    (;) here
}

fn main() {
    let val: i32 = square(4);
    println!("Square of 4 is : {val}");
}
```

————— [finished] —————

Square of 4 is : 16

■ Functions in Rust

Functions are reusable blocks of code that may or may not return a value.

```
fn ret_val(x: i32) -> f64 {    // Return f64
    x as f64                // Change i32 to f64 and return it
}

fn print_smth() {
    println!("Function call");    //This function doesn't return anything
}

fn main() {
    print_smth();
    let num: i32 = 89;
    let ret_num: f64 = ret_val(num);
    println!("Returned value : {ret_num}");
}
```

[finished]

```
Function call
Returned value : 89
```

■ Memory in Rust

Memory in Rust is managed through ownership, borrowing, and lifetimes, ensuring safety without a garbage collector.

■ Example

```
fn main() {  
    let s1 = String::from("Hello"); // allocated on the heap  
    let s2 = &s1;                    // borrowed reference (no copy)  
    println!("s1: {}, s2: {}", s1, s2);  
} // memory for `s1` is automatically freed here
```

[finished]

```
s1: Hello, s2: Hello
```

References vs Pointers in Rust

Feature	References (&T, &mut T)	Raw Pointers (*const T, *mut T)
Safety	Always safe	Unsafe, can cause undefined behaviour
Nullability	Cannot be NULL	Can be NULL (NULL Pointers)
Dereferencing	Safe, no <code>unsafe</code> block required	Requires <code>unsafe</code> block
Lifetimes	Must follow lifetime rules	No lifetime checks
Mutability	<code>&T</code> is immutable, <code>&mut T</code> is mutable	<code>*const T</code> is immutable, <code>*mut T</code> is mutable
Ownership	Enforces (No dangling, aliasing)	Not enforced (May cause dangling pointers)
Usage	Everyday Rust code (Safe borrowing)	Low level memory manipulation

References vs Pointers in Rust (Example Code)

References (Safe)

```
fn main() {  
    let x = 42;  
    let r: &i32 = &x;    // reference to  
x (safe)  
    println!("Reference points to: {}",  
r);  
}
```

———— [finished] ————

Reference points to: 42

Pointers (Unsafe)

```
fn main() {  
    let x = 42;  
    let p: *const i32 = &x;    // raw  
pointer to x  
  
    unsafe {  
        println!("Raw pointer points to:  
{}, *p); // dereference requires unsafe  
    }  
}
```

———— [finished] ————

Raw pointer points to: 42

■ Print memory address of a reference

The below program prints the memory address of a value's reference

```
fn main() {  
    let x: i32 = 57;  
    println!("Value: {x}");  
    println!("Memory location: {:p}", &x);  
}
```

————— [finished] —————

```
Value: 57  
Memory location: 0x7ffd272e8cec
```

■ Borrowing in Rust

Borrowing in Rust means accessing data through references (& or &mut) without taking ownership.

▣ Example

```
fn main() {  
    let s = String::from("Hello");  
  
    // Immutable borrow  
    let r1 = &s;  
    println!("Immutable borrow: {}", r1);  
  
    // Mutable borrow  
    let mut s2 = String::from("World");  
    let r2 = &mut s2;  
    r2.push_str("!");  
    println!("Mutable borrow: {}", r2);  
}
```

[finished]

```
Immutable borrow: Hello  
Mutable borrow: World!
```

Borrow Error

Here's an example that shows how the borrow checker prevents unsafe aliasing:

```
fn main() {
    let mut s = String::from("Rust");

    let r1 = &s;      // immutable borrow
    let r2 = &s;      // another immutable borrow
    let r3 = &mut s;  // X mutable borrow while immutable borrows exist

    println!("{}", r1, r2, r3);
}
```

————— [finished with error] —————

```
error[E0502]: cannot borrow `s` as mutable because it is also borrowed as
immutable
--> /tmp/.presenterm0ixq4i/snippet.rs:6:14
4 |     let r1 = &s;      // immutable borrow
  |               -- immutable borrow occurs here
5 |     let r2 = &s;      // another immutable borrow
6 |     let r3 = &mut s;  // X mutable borrow while immutable borrows exist
  |               ^^^^^^ mutable borrow occurs here
7 |
8 |     println!("{}", r1, r2, r3);
  |               -- immutable borrow later used here
```



```
fn main() {  
    let mut s = String::from("Rust");  
  
    let r1 = &s;  
    let r2 = &s;  
    println!("{}", {}, r1, r2); // immutable borrows used here  
  
    let r3 = &mut s; // mutable borrow is fine now  
    r3.push_str("acean!");  
    println!("{}", r3);  
}
```

[finished]

Rust, Rust
Rustacean!