

Lecture 7: Rust Type System

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Outline

1. Type System
2. Basic Types in Rust
3. Advanced Types in Rust

1. Type System

Type System



- Primitive types: basic types supported by the compiler
 - scalar types: integer, char, bool, float...
 - compound types: array, tuple
- Composite types: struct/union/enumerate

Type System

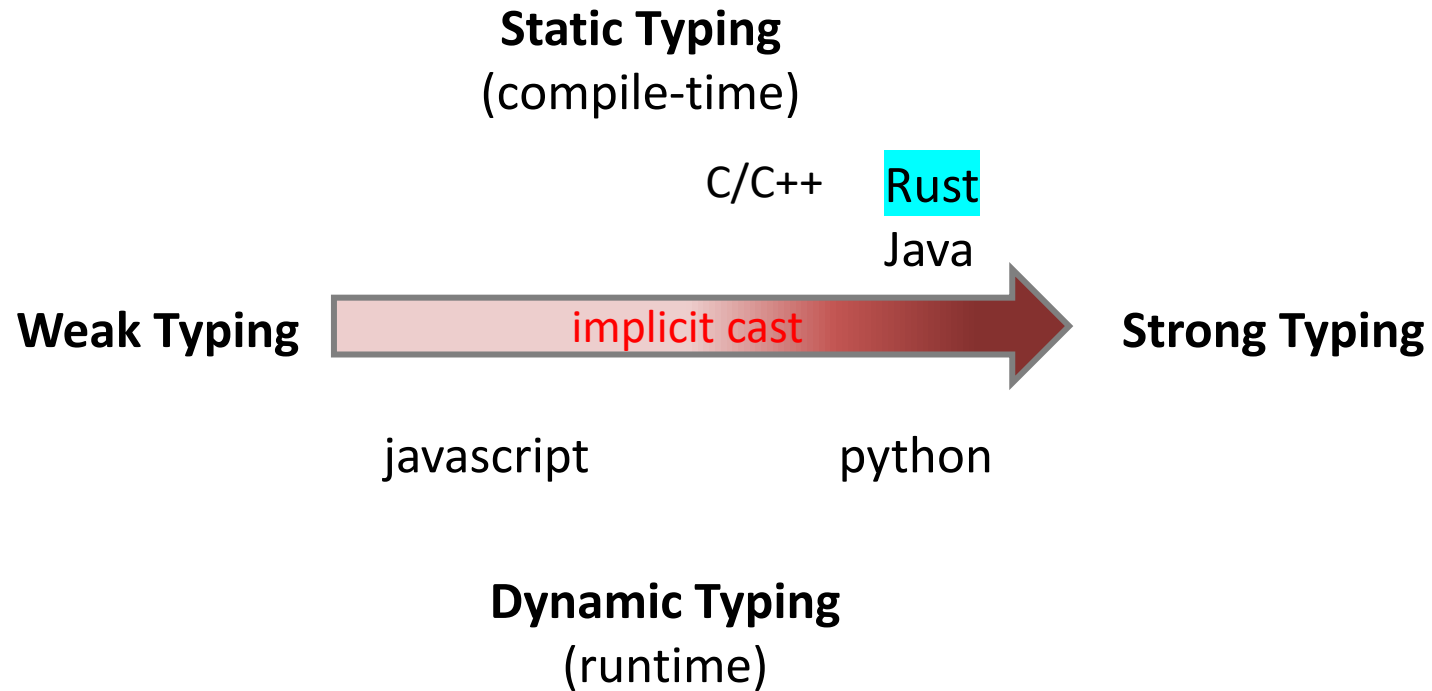


- Rules of typable code
 - operators have requirements on operand type
 - functions have requirements on the type of arguments and return values
- How to determine whether types are equivalent?
 - same name or same structure?

Objective of Type System Design

- Type safety
 - a well-typed program should not introduce undefined behaviors
 - basic requirement for achieving memory safety
- Expressiveness or usability
 - operator overloading
 - allow implicit type cast (coercion): may undermine type safety

Taxonomy of Type Systems



2. Basic Types in Rust

Primitive Types

- Scalar types: literals (prefix + value + type)
 - 0xabcd_u32
 - 12i8 (no prefix)
 - 0b01110000 (no type: need type inference)
 - 1 (only value)
- Compound types:
 - array
 - tuple

Type Conversion: Integer

- Unsigned integers

- Extend: short => long
- Truncate: long => short
 - not saturated

```
assert_eq!(1u8 as u32, 1u32);  
assert_eq!(257u32 as u8, 1u8);
```

- Signed integers

- Extend: short => long
- Truncate: long => short

```
assert_eq!(1i8 as i32, 1i32);  
assert_eq!(257i32 as i8, 1i8);
```

- Unsigned <=> Signed

- Bit reinterpretation (transmute)

```
assert_eq!(255u8 as i32, 255i32);  
assert_eq!(256u32 as i8, 0i8);  
assert_eq!(255u8 as i8, -1);  
assert_eq!(-1i8 as u8, 255u8);
```

Type Conversion: Bool

- Bool to integer: extend
- Integer to bool: not allowed, why?

```
assert_eq!(true as u8, 1u8);  
assert_eq!(1u8 as bool, true);
```

```
error[E0054]: cannot cast `u8` as `bool`  
help: compare with zero instead  
      | assert_eq!(1_u8 != 0, true);
```

Integer <=> Float

- Integer => float: pick the nearest floating-point numbers

```
assert_eq!(u32::MAX, 4294967295);  
println!("{:.0}", u32::MAX as f32); // 4294967296  
println!("{:.0}", 4294967301u64 as f32); // 4294967296
```

- Float => integer: if the number exceeds the target type's range
 - Saturated casting

```
assert_eq!(1000.0_f32 as u8, 255);  
assert_eq!(-1000.0_f32 as u8, 0);
```

- Modular casting

```
//LLVM fptoui/fptosi may incur undefined behavior  
assert_eq!(unsafe{1000.0_f32.to_int_unchecked::<u8>()}, 232);  
assert_eq!(unsafe{(-1000.0_f32).to_int_unchecked::<u8>()}, 24);
```

Transmute

- Reinterpret the memory of one type as another type
 - Transmute to bool

```
assert_eq!(unsafe {transmute::<u8, bool>(1)}, true);  
assert_eq!(unsafe {transmute::<u8, bool>(2)}, false);
```

- Transmute floating-point numbers to integers

```
let a = 1.1f32;  
//00111111100011001100110011001101 in IEEE-754 format  
let b = unsafe {std::mem::transmute::<f32, i32>(a)};  
assert_eq!(b, 1066192077);
```

Integer Overflow

- Compiler check: only for very simple cases
- Run-time check
 - enabled by default in debug mode
 - not enabled in release mode

```
let x = std::i32::MAX + 7;
```

→ Compiling error

```
let mut x = 1;  
for _i in 1..10000 {  
    x += x;  
}
```

→ Runtime error in debug mode

Analyse the mir to see what happens

```
bb5: {  
    _8 = copy ((_5 as Some).0: i32);  
    _9 = copy _1;  
    _10 = AddWithOverflow(copy _1, copy _9);  
    assert(!move (_10.1: bool), "attempt to compute `{}` + `{}`, which would overflow", copy _1, move _9)  
}
```

Array

- A collection of values of the same type in a contiguous memory.
- The memory is allocated on stack.
- The memory must be initialized when created.

```
let a = [0; 5];  
let b: [i32; 5] = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5];  
println!("{}", {}, {}, {}, a[5], a.len(), mem::size_of_val(&a));
```



Runtime error: out-of-bound

Vec (not primitive type)

- A collection of values of the same type on heap
- The size can be dynamically adjusted

```
let mut a = vec![1, 2, 3, 4, 5];  
a.push(6);  
println!("{:?}", a); // [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]  
a.pop();  
println!("{:?}", a); // [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```


Slice

- Slices are similar to arrays, but their length is unknown at compile time (dynamically sized type)
- Two fields: a length field, and a pointer to data

```
fn foo(s:&[i32], x:usize) {  
    println!("{}", {}, {}, {}", s[x], s.len(), mem::size_of_val(s));  
}  
  
fn main(){  
    let a: [i32; 5] = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5];  
    foo(&a[1..5], 2); // the third element of the slice is 4  
}
```

The Problem of Slice

```
struct Slice<'a, T> {  
    ptr: *const T,  
    len: usize,  
}
```

Slice is unbound to the lifetime of borrowing

```
let s;  
{  
    let mut v = [1, 2, 3];  
    s = &mut v;  
}  
s[1] = 0;
```

s could live out the lifespan of v;
dangling pointer!!!

PhantomData To Rescue

- A special marker type that consumes no space
- Simulate a field for lifetime inference
- Common patterns for raw pointers that own an allocation

```
struct Slice<'a, T> {  
    ptr: *const T,  
    len: usize,  
    _marker: PhantomData<&'a T>,  
}
```

Similar Issues for Vec

```
struct Vec<T> {  
    data: *const T,  
    len: usize,  
    cap: usize,  
    _marker: marker::PhantomData<T>,  
}
```

Raw pointer does not own T

T will not be reclaimed automatically

Own T via PhantomData

Tuple

- A collection of values of different types.
- An anonymous struct without named fields.

```
fn reverse(pair: (i32, bool)) -> (bool, i32) {  
    let (a, b) = pair;  
    (b,a)  
}  
fn main(){  
    let t = (1, true);  
    let r = reverse(t);  
    println!("{}", r.0, r.1);  
    let tot = ((1u8, 2u16, 2u32), (4u64, -1i8), -2i16);  
    println!("{:?}", tot);  
}
```



tuple of tuples

Struct

- Struct has a name, named fields, and methods.
- Objects can be initialized via struct literals or constructors.

```
#[derive(Debug)]
struct List {
    val: u64,
    next: Option<Box<List>>,
}
impl List {
    fn new(v: u64) -> Self {
        List { val: v, next: None }
    }
    fn append(&mut self, v: u64) { ... }
}

let l1 = List{ val:1, next:None };
let mut l2 = List::new(1);
l2.append(2);
println!("{:?}", l1);
println!("{:?}", l2);
```

← struct definition

← implementation

← employ the literal constructor

← call the constructor

Enum Type

- An enumerate type has one or several different variants.
 - such as `Option<T>` and `Result <T, E>`
- Unwrap the object of an enumerate type via match-case.
 - `_=>` means match the rest patterns
 - `()`, do nothing

```
enum Option<T> {  
    None,  
    Some(T),  
}
```

```
match a {  
    Some(ref value) => (),  
    _ => (),  
}
```

```
enum Result<T, E> {  
    Ok(T),  
    Err(E),  
}
```

```
match r {  
    Ok(v) => (),  
    Err(e) => (),  
}
```

Layout of Types: Alignment + Size + Padding

- Alignment is always a power of 2. $\forall x \in \mathbb{N}, align = 2^x$
- The address of a type should be a multiple of its alignment.

$$\&T \% align = 0$$

- Size: The size of a value is the offset in bytes between successive elements in an array with that item type including padding.

```
struct MyStruct {  
    a: u16,  
    b: u8  
} // alignment: 2
```



```
mem::size_of::<MyStruct>(); //? 3 or 4
```


3. Advanced Types in Rust

Generic Type

- Defining functions, structs, and enums with type parameters.
- Enables code reuse while maintaining type safety.
- To achieve parameter polymorphism (similar as C++ template).
- When used, generic types are monomorphized to concrete types.

Functions with Type Parameters

- Use <T:Bound> to declare the generic types to be used.
- All types satisfying the trait bound are valid.

```
fn larger<T:cmp::PartialOrd>(a:T, b:T) -> T {  
    if(a > b) {  
        return a;  
    }  
    return b;  
}
```

```
fn main(){  
    assert!(larger(100, 200) == 200);  
    assert!(larger('a', 'b') == 'b');  
    //assert!(larger('a', 100) == 100);  
}
```

← T is i32

← T is char

↑
Is T char or i32? compilation error!!!

Monomorphization

0000000000001fb0 <_ZN11genericfunc4main17hfd44a73acdc5c880E>:

1fb0: push %rax

1fb1: mov \$0x64,%edi

1fb6: mov \$0xc8,%esi

1fbb: callq 1e30 <_ZN11genericfunc6larger17h937a6d14a36a7b9cE>

1fc0: mov %eax,0x4(%rsp)

1fc4: mov 0x4(%rsp),%eax

1fc8: cmp \$0xc8,%eax

1fcd: sete %cl

1fd0: xor \$0xff,%cl

1fd3: test \$0x1,%cl

1fd6: jne 1fec <_ZN11genericfunc4main17hfd44a73acdc5c880E+0x3c>

1fd8: mov \$0x61,%edi

1fdd: mov \$0x62,%esi

1fe2: callq 1ef0 <_ZN11genericfunc6larger17hfeeca0519db784d8E>

1fe7: mov %eax,(%rsp)

1fea: jmp 2006 <_ZN11genericfunc4main17hfd44a73acdc5c880E+0x56>

...

Structs with Type Parameters

- Monomorphized to concrete types when instantiated
- Declare the trait bound with method implementations

```
struct List<T> {  
    val: T,  
    next: Option<Box<List<T>>>,  
}  
impl<T> List<T> {  
    fn new(v: T) -> Self {  
        List { val: T, next: None }  
    }  
    fn append(&mut self, v: T) { ... }  
}
```

Trait

- A trait contains shared behaviours among multiple types.
- Traits are not types because traits cannot have fields.
- Some people may call it objective Rust.
 - Traits can be inherited.
 - Traits may have default implementations which can be overloaded.

```
trait Person {  
    fn speak(&self);  
    fn eat(&self);  
}
```

← A trait can have multiple methods

```
trait Kid: Person {  
    fn play(&self);  
}
```

← Kid inherits from Person

```
trait Adult: Person {  
    fn work(&self);  
}
```

← Adult inherits from Person

Common Usage of Traits in Rust

- Primitive Traits
 - Comparison: Eq/PartialEq/Ord/PartialOrd.
 - Print: Display/Debug
 - Duplication: Copy/Clone
 - Concurrency: Send/Sync
- Implement Traits for struct:
 - Automatically derive if all fields implement the trait via `#[derive]`.
 - Manual implementation

```
#[derive(Copy)]  
#[derive(Debug, Clone)]  
struct List<T> {  
    val: T,  
    next: Option<Box<List<T>>>,  
}
```

← Not allowed, why?

Manual Implementation

```
struct List<T> {  
    val: T,  
    next: Option<Box<List<T>>>,  
}  
  
impl<T: fmt::Display> fmt::Display for List<T> {  
    fn fmt(&self, f: &mut fmt::Formatter<'_>) -> fmt::Result {  
        write!(f, "{}", self.val)?;  
        if let Some(ref next) = self.next {  
            write!(f, " -> {}", next)?;  
        }  
        Ok(())  
    }  
}
```

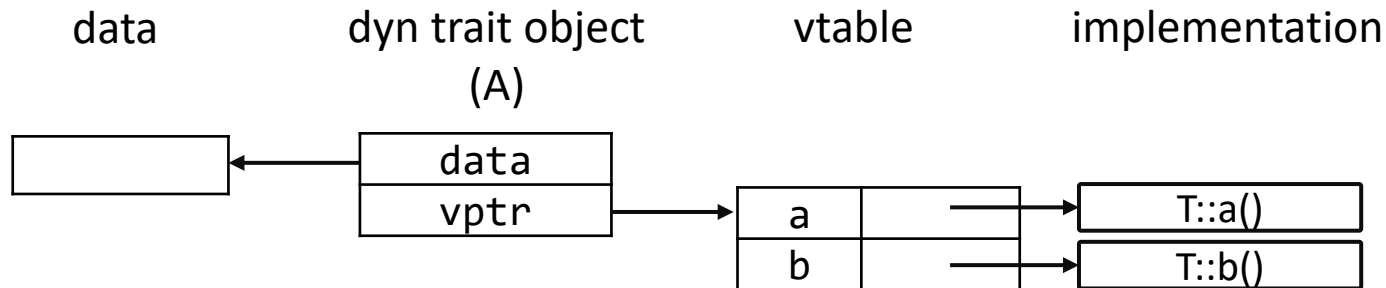

Dynamic Trait

- Any type that implements the trait.
- To achieve dynamic dispatch, similar to C++ virtual functions.

```
trait A {  
    fn a(&self) { println!("default A"); }  
}  
struct S { }  
struct T { }  
  
impl A for S { }  
impl A for T { fn a(&self) { println!("new A"); } }  
  
fn makeacall(dyna: &dyn A){  
    dyna.a();  
}  
  
fn main() {  
    makeacall(&S {}); // default A  
    makeacall(&T {}); // new A  
}
```

Mechanism of Dynamic Trait

- Based on vtable



```
trait B : A{  
    fn a(&self) { println!("sub b"); }  
    fn b(&self) { println!("sub b"); }  
}  
struct S { }  
struct T { }  
  
impl A for S { }  
impl B for T { }  
  
fn makeacall(dyna: &dyn A){ dyna.a(); }
```

Trait vs Subtype

- Liskov substitution principle: when requiring a specific type, any of its subtype can be used
- Subtypes are partial order relationships:
 - $X \leq Y$: X is a subtype of Y
 - Self-reflective: $X \leq X$
 - Communicative: $X \leq Y, Y \leq Z \implies X \leq Z$;
- Upcast: If $X > Y$, cast Y to X
 - Generally safe, allowed by default (C++)
- Downcast: If $X > Y$, cast X to Y
 - May incur undefined behaviors, should be checked

Traits are not Subtypes

- Traits could have partial order, *e.g.*, $B:A \Rightarrow B < A$
- But traits are not types, so B is not a subtype of A
- Subtype in Rust: lifetime
 - If the lifespan $s > t$, s is a subtype of t

```
struct S { }  
struct T { }  
trait A { }  
trait B:A { }  
impl A for S { }  
impl B for T { }  
fn makeacall(s: &S){ }
```

← T implements more traits than S

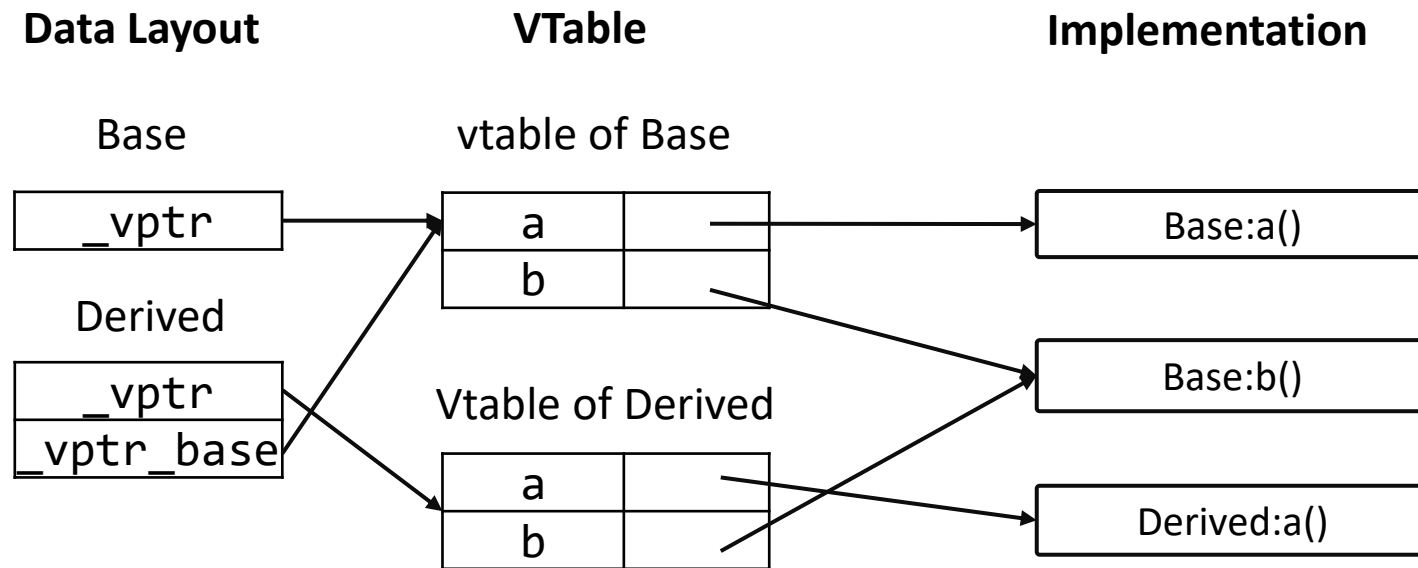
```
fn main() {  
    let t = T {};  
    makeacall(&t);  
}
```

← Invalid: T is not a subtype of S



Comparison with C++ Vtable

- C++ classes can be upcasted
- Trait cannot be upcasted



Covariance

- Covariance: if $t1$ is a subtype of $t2$, $g(t1)$ is a subtype $g(t2)$
 - e.g., $i32$ is a subtype of T , $[i32]$ is a subtype of $[T]$
- Other relationships
 - Contravariant: e.g., $F(T)$ is a subtype of $F(i32)$
 - Invariant: no relationship

```
fn longer<'a, T>(a: &'a [T], b: &'a [T]) -> &'a [T] {  
    if a.len() > b.len() {  
        return a;  
    }  
    return b;  
}  
  
fn main(){  
    let a: [i32; 5] = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5];  
    let b: [i32; 6] = [0; 6];  
    longer(&a,&b);  
}
```

In-Class Practice

- Extend your binary search tree to support generic parameters
- Implement traits for your binary search tree
 - PartialEq
 - PartialOrd
 - Debug
 - Display
 - Clone
- Design and implement a new trait Count for the tree, that outputs the number of nodes.