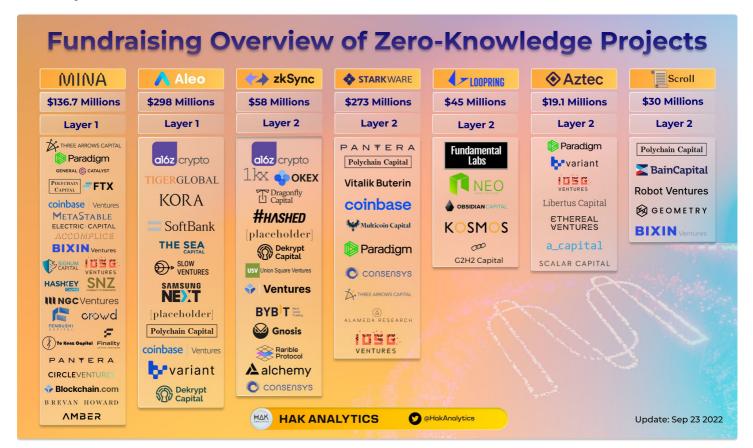
Lesson 4

Cairo / Starknet Introduction

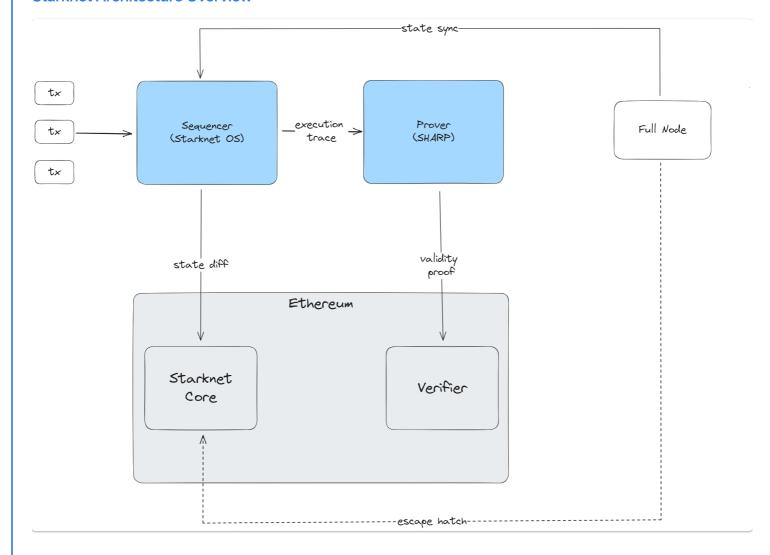


Starknet

"Starknet is a permissionless decentralised ZK-Rollup. It operates as an L2 network over Ethereum, enabling any dApp to achieve unlimited scale for its computation – without compromising Ethereum's composability and security."



See <u>ecosystem</u>



Starknet Components

- 1. Prover: A separate process (either an online service or internal to the node) that receives the execution trace from the Sequencer and generates STARK proofs to be verified. The Prover submits the STARK proof to the verifier that registers the fact on L1.
- 2. StarkNet OS: Updates the L2 state of the system based on transactions that are received as inputs. Effectively facilitates the execution of the (Cairo-based) StarkNet contracts. The OS is Cairo-based and is essentially the program whose output is proven and verified using the STARK-proof system. Specific system operations and functionality available for StarkNet contracts are available as calls made to the OS.

- 3. StarkNet State: The state is composed of contracts' code and contracts' storage.
- 4. StarkNet L1 Core Contract: This L1 contract defines the state of the system by storing the commitment to the L2 state. The contract also stores the StarkNet OS program hash – effectively defining the version of StarkNet the network is running.

The committed state on the L1 core contract acts as provides as the consensus mechanism of StarkNet, i.e., the system is secured by the L1 Ethereum consensus. In addition to maintaining the state, the StarkNet L1 Core Contract is the main hub of operations for StarkNet on L1.

Specifically:

- It stores the list of allowed verifiers (contracts) that can verify state update transactions
- It facilitates L1 ↔ L2 interaction
- 5. Starknet Full Nodes: Can get the current state of the network from the sequencer. If the connection between the Sequencer and the Full Node fails for some reason, you can recreate the L2 current state by indexing date from the Starknet L1 Core Contract independently

Safe Intermediate Representation (Sierra)

A new intermediate level representation

Transactions should always be provable, even when a transaction fails

Asserts are converted to if statements, if it returns false we don't do any modifications to storage

Contracts will count gas

Still needs to be low level enough to be efficient

So the process would be

Cairo Smart Contract => Sierra => Cairo Assembly => Validity Proof

Sierra bytecode

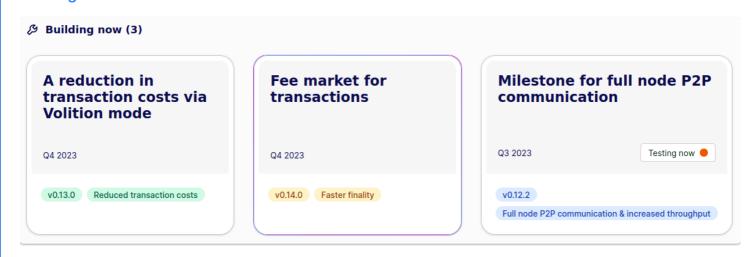
- cannot fail
- counts gas
- compiles to Cairo with virtually no overhead



Starknet's current roadmap:

Starknet Roadmap

Building now



Upcoming



Cairo Versions



We are entering a transition period, and will be teaching Cairo 2.0

Environment	Starknet version	Sierra version
Mainnet	0.12.2	1.3.0
Goerli Testnet 1	0.12.2	1.3.0
Goerli Testnet 2	0.12.2	1.3.0

As of September 4th, 23 Starknet v0.12.2 is live on Mainnet See Release notes

v0.12.2 changes (September 4th 23):

- Enabling P2P Authentication: An additional endpoint in the sequencer gateway to provide a signature on the state diff commitment and block hash.
- Resolving Mismatches in Queries: An extension to the get_state_update endpoint in the sequencer gateway that returns both the pending state diff and the pending block together.
- Increased maximum Cairo steps per transaction from 1 million to 3 million.

v0.12.1 changes (August 7th, 23):

- Mempool Validation.
- Inclusion of Failed Transactions.
- Keccak builtin.

v0.12 changes (July 12th, 23):

- Use the rust blockifier and LambdaClass's Cairo VM to accelerate the sequencer's time to handle transactions.
- Support version 2.0.0 of the Cairo compiler.
- Replace the PENDING status of transactions to ACCEPTED_ON_L2 - once a transaction is in that status it means that it will be included in a block, this applies to transactions - blocks still have the PENDING status.
- Add an experimental get_block_hash syscall.
- Change HTTP error code from 500 to 400 on API error

Starknet Open-Source Stack

Category	Project	Entity	Status	Open-Source
Full Node	Pathfinder	Equilibrium	In production	Yes
	Juno	Nethermind	In production	Yes
	Papyrus	StarkWare	Soon in production	Yes
	Deoxys	KasarLabs	In development	Yes
Execution Engine	Blockifier	StarkWare	In production	Yes
	starknet_in_rust	LambdaClass	Soon in production	Yes
Sequencer	SW Sequencer	StarkWare	In production	Yes
	Madara	Community	In development	Yes
	LC Sequencer	LambdaClass	In development	Yes
Prover	Stone	StarkWare	In production	Yes
	Platinum	LambdaClass	In development	Yes
	Sandstorm	Andrew Milson	In development	Yes

Some articles about version 2.0

Extropy Starknet v0.12 Quantum Leap

Starkware - Quantum Leap

Starknet Forum - <u>Syntax Proposal</u>

Starknet Resources

Starknet Documentation

Starknet Book

Cairo Resources

Cairo Book

Cairo by example

Starknet by example

Introduction to Rust

Core Features

- Memory safety without garbage collection
- Concurrency without data races
- Abstraction without overhead

Variables

Variable bindings are immutable by default, but this can be overridden using the mut modifier

```
let x = 1;
let mut y = 1;
```

Types

Data Types -Rust book

The Rust compiler can infer the types that you are using, given the information you already gave it.

Scalar Types

A *scalar* type represents a single value. Rust has four primary scalar types:

- integers
- floating-point numbers
- booleans
- characters

Integers

For example

```
u8, i32, u64
```

Floating point

Rust also has two primitive types for floating-point numbers, which are numbers with decimal points. Rust's floating-point types are f32 and f64, which are 32 bits and 64 bits in size, respectively.

The default type is f64 because on modern CPUs it's roughly the same speed as f32 but is capable of more precision. All floating-point types are signed.

boolean

The boolean type or bool is a primitive data type that can take on one of two values, called true and false. (size of 1 byte)

char

char in Rust is a unique integral value representing a Unicode Scalar value

Note that unlike C, C++ this cannot be treated as a numeric type.

Other scalar types

usize

usize is pointer-sized, thus its actual size depends on the architecture your are compiling your program for As an example, on a 32 bit x86 computer, usize = u32, while on x86_64 computers, usize = u64.

usize gives you the guarantee to be always big enough to hold any pointer or any offset in a data structure, while u32 can be too small on some architectures.

Rust states the size of a type is not stable in cross compilations except for primitive types.

Compound Types

Compound types can group multiple values into one type.

- tuples
- arrays
- struct

Tuples

Example

```
fn main() {
    let x: (i32, f64, u8) = (500, 6.4, 1);

let five_hundred = x.0;

let six_point_four = x.1;

let one = x.2;
}
```

Struct

```
struct User {
    name : String,
    age: u32,
    email: String,
}
```

Collections

Vectors

```
let names = vec!["Bob", "Frank", "Ferris"];
```

We will cover these in more detail later

Strings

Based on UTF-8 - Unicode Transformation Format

Two string types:

- &str a view of a sequence of UTF8 encoded dynamic bytes, stored in binary, stack or heap. Size is unknown and it points to the first byte of the string
- String: growable, mutable, owned, UTF-8 encoded string. Always allocated on the heap. Includes capacity i.e. memory allocated for this string.

A String literal is a string slice stored in the application binary (i.e. there at compile time).

String vs str

String - heap allocated, growable UTF-8&str - reference to UTF-8 string slice (could be heap, stack ...)

String vs &str - StackOverflow
Rust overview - presentation
Let's Get Rusty - Strings

Arrays

Rust book definition of an array:

"An array is a collection of objects of the same type T, stored in contiguous memory. Arrays are created using brackets [], and their length, which is known at compile time, is part of their type signature [T; length]."

Array features:

- An array declaration allocates sequential memory blocks.
- Arrays are static. This means that an array once initialized cannot be resized.
- Each memory block represents an array element.
- Array elements are identified by a unique integer called the subscript/ index of the element.
- Populating the array elements is known as array initialization.
- Array element values can be updated or modified but cannot be deleted.

Array declarations

```
//Syntax1: No type definition
let variable_name = [value1, value2, value3];
let arr = [1,2,3,4,5];

//Syntax2: Data type and size specified
let variable_name: [dataType; size] =
[value1, value2, value3];
let arr: [i32;5] = [1,2,3,4,5];
```

```
//Syntax3: Default valued array
let variable_name:[dataType;size] =
[default_value_for_elements,size];

let arr:[i32;3] = [0;3];

// Mutable array
let mut arr_mut:[i32;5] = [1,2,3,4,5];

// Immutable array
let arr_immut:[i32;5] = [1,2,3,4,5];
```

Rust book definition of a slice:

Slices are similar to arrays, but their length is not known at compile time. Instead, a slice is a two-word object, the first word is a pointer to the data, and the second word is the length of the slice. The word size is the same as usize, determined by the processor architecture eg 64 bits on an x86-64.

<u>Arrays - TutorialsPoint</u> <u>Arrays and Slices - RustBook</u>

Numeric Literals

The compiler can usually infer the type of an integer literal, but you can add a suffix to specify it, e.g.

42u8

It usually defaults to 132 if there is a choice of the type.

Hexadecimal, octal and binary literals are denoted by prefixes

```
0x, 0o, and 0b respectively
```

To make your code more readable you can use underscores with numeric literals

e.g.

```
1_234_567_890
```

language-rust

ASCII code literals

Byte literals can be used to specify ASCII codes e.g.

b'C'

Conversion between types

Rust is unlike many languages in that it rarely performs implicit conversion between numeric types, if you need to do that, it has to be done explicitly.

To perform casts between types you use the as keyword For example

```
let a = 12;
let b = a as usize;
```

Enums

See docs

Use the keyword enum

```
enum Fruit {
    Apple,
    Orange,
    Grape,
}
```

You can then reference the enum with for example

Fruit::Orange

Functions

Functions are declared with the fn keyword, and follow familiar syntax for the parameters and function body.

```
fn my_func(a: u32) -> bool {
    if a == 0 {
        return false;
    }
    a == 7
}
```

As you can see the final line in the function acts as a return from the function

Typically the return keyword is used where we are leaving the function before the end.

Loops

Range:

inclusive start, exclusive end

```
for n in 1..101 {}
```

• inclusive end, inclusive end

```
for n in 1..=101 {}
```

inclusive end, inclusive end, every 2nd value

```
for n in (1..=101).step_by(2){}
```

We have already seen for loops to loop over a range, other ways to loop include

loop - to loop until we hit a breakwhile which allows an ending condition to be specifiedSee Rust book for examples.

Control Flow

If expressions

See Docs

The if keyword is followed by a condition, which *must* evaluate to bool, note that Rust does not automatically convert numerics to bool.

```
if x < 4 {
          println!("lower");
} else {
          println!("higher");
}</pre>
```

Note that 'if' is an expression rather than a statement, and as such can return a value to a 'let' statement, such as

```
fn main() {
    let condition = true;
    let number = if condition { 5 } else { 6 };

    println!("The value of number is: {}", number);
}
```

Note that the possible values of number here need to be of the same type.

We also have else if and else as we do in other languages.

Printing

```
println!("Hello, world!");
```

```
println!("{:?} tokens", 19);
```

Option

We may need to handle situations where a statement or function doesn't return us the value we are expecting, for this we can use Option.

Option is an enum defined in the standard library.

The Option<T> enum has two variants:

- None, to indicate failure or lack of value, and
- Some(value), a tuple struct that wraps a value with type T.

It is useful in avoiding inadvertently handling null values.

Another useful enum is Result

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

Matching

A powerful and flexible way to handle different conditions is via the match keyword

This is more flexible than an if expression in that the condition does not have to be a boolean, and pattern matching is possible.

Match Syntax

```
match VALUE {
    PATTERN => EXPRESSION,
    PATTERN => EXPRESSION,
    PATTERN => EXPRESSION,
}
```

Match Example

```
enum Coin {
    Penny,
    Nickel,
    Dime,
    Quarter,
}

fn value_in_cents(coin: Coin) -> u8 {
    match coin {
        Coin::Penny => 1,
        Coin::Nickel => 5,
        Coin::Dime => 10,
        Coin::Quarter => 25,
    }
}
```

The keyword match is followed by an expression, in this case coin

The value of this is matched against the 'arms' in the expression.

Each arm is made of a pattern and some code

If the value matches the pattern, then the code is executed,
each arm is an expression, so the return value of the whole
match expression, is the value of the code in the arm that
matched.

```
fn main() {
    fn plus_one(x: Option<i32>) -> Option<i32> {
        match x {
            None => None,
            Some(i) => Some(i + 1),
        }
    }
    let five = Some(5);
    let six = plus_one(five);
    let none = plus_one(None);
}
```

Installing Rust

The easiest way is via rustup See Docs

Mac / Linux

```
curl --proto '=https' --tlsv1.2 https://sh.rustup.rs
-sSf | sh
```

Windows

See details here

download and run rustup-init.exe.

Other methods

Cargo

See the docs

Cargo is the rust package manager, it will

- download and manage your dependencies,
- compile and build your code
- make distributable packages and upload them to public registries.

Some common cargo commands are (see all commands with --list):

build, b Compile the current package

check, c Analyse the current package and report

errors, but don't build

object files

clean Remove the target directory

doc, d Build this package's and its dependencies'

documentation

new Create a new cargo package

init Create a new cargo package in an existing

directory

add Add dependencies to a manifest file

run, r Run a binary or example of the local

package

test, t Run the tests

bench Run the benchmarks

update Update dependencies listed in Cargo.lock

search Search registry for crates

publish Package and upload this package to the

registry

install Install a Rust binary. Default location is
\$HOME/.cargo/bin
uninstall Uninstall a Rust binary

See cargo help for more information on a specific command.

Useful Resources

<u>Rustlings</u>

Rust by **example**

Rust Lang **Docs**

Rust <u>Playground</u>

Rust Forum

Rust <u>Discord</u>