

Basic Programming Concepts

Performant Software Systems with Rust — Lecture 3

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Teaching style in this course — examples and demos

Mutable and immutable variables

Variables are immutable by default — you are allowed to **bind** a value to an immutable variable only once

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let _immutable = 1;  
3     let mut mutable = 1;  
4  
5     println!("Before mutation: {}", mutable);  
6  
7     mutable += 1; // Okay to modify  
8  
9     println!("After mutation: {}", mutable);  
10  
11    // Error! Cannot assign a new value to an immutable  
12    // variable  
13    _immutable += 1;  
14 }
```

```
error[E0384]: cannot assign twice to immutable variable `_immutable`
--> main.rs:13:5
|
2 |     let _immutable = 1;
|         ----- first assignment to `'_immutable`
...
13|     _immutable += 1;
|     ^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^ cannot assign twice to immutable variable
|
help: consider making this binding mutable
|
2 |     let mut _immutable = 1;
|         ++

error: aborting due to 1 previous error

For more information about this error, try `rustc --explain E0384`.
```

Constants

- Naming convention: all upper case with underscores
- `const`: a constant value that can be completely computed at compile time
 - any code that refers to them is replaced with the constant's computed value at compile time
 - Just a convenient name for a particular value
- `static`: global variable (may only be modified with `unsafe`)
- Both constants and globals need explicit type annotation

Contants

```
1 // Globals are declared outside all other scopes
2 static LANGUAGE: &str = "Rust";
3 const THRESHOLD: i32 = 10;
4
5 fn main() {
6     println!("This is {}", LANGUAGE);
7     println!("The threshold is {}", THRESHOLD);
8
9     THRESHOLD = 5; // Error! Cannot modify a `const`!
10    LANGUAGE = "Go"; // or a `static`!
11 }
```

Demo: Constants and Globals

Scope and Shadowing

- Scope
 - Variable bindings are constrained to live in a **block**
 - A **block** is a collection of statements enclosed by braces { }
- Shadowing
 - Okay to declare a new variable with the same name as a previous variable

Shadowing in the Guessing Game

```
1 let mut guess = String::new();
2
3 io::stdin()
4     .read_line(&mut guess)
5     .expect("Failed to read line");
6
7 let guess: u32 = guess.trim().parse().expect("Enter a number: ");
```

Rust is a **statically typed** language — the compiler must know the types of all variables at **compile-time**

Why is Rust designed as a statically typed language?

Before we talk about the benefits of static types, let's take a look at why Javascript and Python use dynamic types

Rust vs. Javascript

Rust

```
1 fn add(x: i32, y: i32) → i32 {  
2     x + y  
3 }
```

Javascript

```
1 function add(a, b) {  
2     return a + b;  
3 }
```

But what if we wish to add two **floating-point** numbers?

**But what are the benefits of static types,
then?**

Rust vs. Python — Rust

```
1 fn get_length(s: &str) → usize {  
2     s.len()  
3 }  
4  
5 fn main() {  
6     let len = get_length(10);  
7 }
```

```
error[E0308]: mismatched types  
--> main.rs:6:26  
|  
6 |     let len = get_length(10);  
|             ----- ^ expected `&str`, found integer  
|             |  
|             arguments to this function are incorrect  
|  
note: function defined here  
--> main.rs:1:4  
|  
1 | fn get_length(s: &str) -> usize {  
|     ^^^^^^^^^^ -----  
  
error: aborting due to 1 previous error  
  
For more information about this error, try `rustc --explain E0308`.
```

Rust vs. Python — Python

```
1 def get_length(s) {  
2     return len(s)  
3 }  
4  
5 print(get_length(10))
```

```
1 # Runtime error!  
2 TypeError: object of type 'int' has no len()
```

Run-time errors → compile-time errors

**But can't run-time errors be easily caught
and fixed in Python?**

Rust vs. Javascript — Javascript

```
1 function add(a, b) {  
2     return a + b;  
3 }  
4  
5 let result = add(5, "10");  
6 console.log("Result: " + result);
```

```
1 # Logical error!  
2 510
```

Logical errors → compile-time errors

Static types and **Rust's strict compiler**
make it much easier to catch all kinds of
errors!

Scalar Data Types

Integer Types

Length	Signed	Unsigned
--------	--------	----------

32-bit	i32	u32
arch-dep	isize	usize

arch-dep	isize	usize
----------	-------	-------

Floating-Point Types

Length	Type
32-bit	f32
64-bit	f64

Numeric Operations

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let sum = 5 + 10;  
3     let difference = 95.5 - 4.3;  
4     let product = 4 * 30;  
5     let quotient = 56.7 / 32.2;  
6  
7     // integer division truncates toward zero to the nearest integer  
8     let truncated = -5 / 3; // Results in -1  
9  
10    // remainder  
11    let remainder = 43 % 5;  
12 }
```

The Boolean Type

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let t = true; // with type inference  
3     let f: bool = false; // with explicit type annotation  
4 }
```

The Character Type

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let c = 'z'; // with type inference  
3     let z: char = 'Z'; // with explicit type annotation  
4     let hugging_face = '\ud83d\udcbb'; // emojis and CJK characters  
5 }
```

Compound Data Types

The Tuple Type

- Groups together some values with a variety of types
- Once declared, cannot grow or shrink in size
- Useful when a function needs to return multiple values

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let tup: (i32, f64, u8) = (500, 6.4, 1);  
3 }  
4  
5 fn calculate_area_perimeter(x: i32, y: i32) → (i32, i32) {  
6     // calculate the area and perimeter of rectangle  
7     let area = x * y;  
8     let perimeter = 2 * (x + y);  
9     (area, perimeter)  
10 }
```

Using Pattern Matching to Destructure Tuples

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let tup = (500, 6.4, 1); // with type inference  
3     let (x, y, z) = tup;  
4  
5     println!("The value of y is: {}", y);  
6 }
```

Accessing Elements of a Tuple

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let x: (i32, f64, u8) = (500, 6.4, 1);  
3  
4     let five_hundred = x.0;  
5     let six_point_four = x.1;  
6     let one = x.2;  
7 }
```

The Unit Type: The Tuple Without Any Values

- The value and its type are both `()`
- Empty value and empty type
- Returned by expressions and functions if they do not return any other value

The Array Type

- Arrays have a fixed length
- Space for data in arrays are allocated on the stack
- Use **vectors** if you wish to grow or shrink in size

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let a = [1, 2, 3, 4]; // with type inference  
3     let a: [i32; 4] = [1, 2, 3, 4]; // with explicit type annotation  
4     let a = [3; 5]; // [initial value; length]  
5     let first_element = a[0]; // accessing an element in the array  
6 }
```

**What if you try to access an element outside
the bounds of an array?**

**Rust will panic, but only at run-time,
because the compiler can't possibly know
the value used to index the array!**

Functions

- We have seen them before already
- No restrictions on the order of function definitions
- The return type is declared after → (the unit type () is the default)
- The last expression in the function is the return value

Functions

```
1 // Function that returns a boolean value
2 fn is_divisible_by(lhs: u32, rhs: u32) → bool {
3     // Corner case, early return
4     if rhs == 0 {
5         return false;
6     }
7
8     // Expression as the return value
9     // The `return` keyword is not necessary here
10    lhs % rhs == 0
11 }
```

Control Flow — if Expressions

- Same as C but no need for parentheses
- Just like any expression, it evaluates to a value

Control Flow — if Expressions

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let n = 5;  
3  
4     if n < 0 {  
5         print!("{} is negative", n);  
6     } else if n > 0 {  
7         print!("{} is positive", n);  
8     } else {  
9         print!("{} is zero", n);  
10    }
```

```
1 let big_n =
2     if n < 10 && n > -10 {
3         println!("", and is a small number, increase ten-fold");
4
5         // This expression returns an `i32`
6         10 * n
7     } else {
8         println!("", and is a big number, halve the number");
9
10        // This expression must return an `i32` as well
11        n / 2 // Try suppressing this expression with a semicolon
12    }; // Don't forget to put a semicolon here
13
14    println!("{} → {}", n, big_n);
15 }
```

Repetition with Loops — loop

A `loop` loop can return a value with the `break` keyword

```
1 fn main() {
2     let mut counter = 0;
3
4     let result = loop {
5         counter += 1;
6
7         if counter == 10 {
8             break counter * 2;
9         }
10    };
11
12    println!("The result is {result}");
13 }
```

Repetition with Loops — `while`

A `while` loop is just like C, minus the parentheses

```
1 fn main() {
2     let mut number = 3;
3
4     while number != 0 {
5         println!("{}number} ");
6
7         number -= 1;
8     }
9
10    println!("Liftoff!");
11 }
```

Repetition with Loops — `for`

- **Concise** — typically used to iterate through a collection
- **Safer** than iterating using an index — most often used

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let a = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50];  
3  
4     for element in a {  
5         println!("the value is: {element}");  
6     }  
7  
8     for number in (1..4).rev() {  
9         println!("{}");  
10    }  
11  
12    println!("Liftoff!");  
13 }
```

Required Additional Reading

The Rust Programming Language, Chapter 3