

# 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

# Constants

```
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	<code>i32</code>	<code>u32</code>
arch-dep	<code>isize</code>	<code>usize</code>



# 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 = '🤗'; // 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  $\rightarrow$  (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!("{number}");  
10    }  
11  
12    println!("Liftoff!");  
13 }
```

# Required Additional Reading

The Rust Programming Language, Chapter 3