

# Structs and Enums

**Performant Software Systems with Rust — Lecture 5**

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# Structs

- Just like `struct` in C or `class` in Python
- Like tuples, pieces of a `struct` can be different types
- Unlike tuples, in a `struct` each piece of data has a name
  - called **fields**

```
1 struct User {  
2     active: bool,  
3     username: String,  
4     email: String,  
5     sign_in_count: u64,  
6 }
```

# Network Simulator: A Real-World Example

```
1 // simple time type
2 pub type Time = f64;
3
4 pub struct Packet {
5     /// the time when the packet is sent to the next switch
6     pub time: Time,
7     /// the time when the packet is originally generated
8     pub creation_time: Time,
9     /// the size of the packet in bytes
10    pub size: usize,
11    /// a unique identifier
12    pub packet_id: usize,
13    /// the flow identifier that the packet belongs to
14    pub flow_id: usize
15 }
```

# Creating Instances of Structs

```
1 fn main() {
2     let user1 = User {
3         active: true,
4         username: String::from("someusername123"),
5         email: String::from("someone@example.com"),
6         sign_in_count: 1,
7     };
8 }
```

# Using the Dot Notation to Access Specific Values

```
1 fn main() {
2     let user1 = User {
3         active: true,
4         username: String::from("username"),
5         email: String::from("email@example.com"),
6         sign_in_count: 1,
7     };
8
9     user1.email = String::from("another_email@example.com");
10 }
```

# Live Demo

# Using the Dot Notation to Access Specific Values

```
1 fn main() {
2     let mut user1 = User {
3         active: true,
4         username: String::from("username"),
5         email: String::from("email@example.com"),
6         sign_in_count: 1,
7     };
8
9     user1.email = String::from("another_email@example.com");
10 }
```

# Can We Use References for Struct Data?

```
1 struct User {  
2     active: bool,  
3     username: &str,  
4     email: &str,  
5     sign_in_count: u64,  
6 }  
7  
8 fn main() {  
9     let user1 = User {  
10         active: true,  
11         username: "username",  
12         email: "email@example.com",  
13         sign_in_count: 1,  
14     };  
15 }
```

# Live Demo

# Returning an Instance in a Function

```
1 fn build_user(email: String, username: String) → User {  
2     User {  
3         active: true,  
4         username: username,  
5         email: email,  
6         sign_in_count: 1,  
7     }  
8 }
```

# Using the Field Init Shorthand

```
1 fn build_user(email: String, username: String) → User {  
2     User {  
3         active: true,  
4         username, //: username,  
5         email, // : email,  
6         sign_in_count: 1,  
7     }  
8 }
```

# Struct Update Syntax

```
1 let user2 = User {  
2     active: user1.active,  
3     username: user1.username,  
4     email: String::from("another@example.com"),  
5     sign_in_count: user1.sign_in_count,  
6 };
```

```
1 let user2 = User {  
2     email: String::from("another@example.com"),  
3     ..user1 // must come last  
4 };
```

Can we still use `user1` after this?

# Tuple Structs

```
1 struct Color(i32, i32, i32);
2 struct Point(i32, i32, i32);
3
4 fn main() {
5     let black = Color(0, 0, 0);
6     let origin = Point(0, 0, 0);
7 }
```

What's the difference between **tuple structs** and **tuples**?

# Unit-Like Structs

```
1 struct AlwaysEqual;  
2  
3 fn main() {  
4     let subject = AlwaysEqual;  
5 }
```

Why do we need **unit-like structs**?

# Can We Print an Instance of a Struct?

```
1 struct Rectangle {  
2     width: u32,  
3     height: u32,  
4 }  
5  
6 fn main() {  
7     let rect1 = Rectangle {  
8         width: 30,  
9         height: 50,  
10    };  
11  
12     println!("rect1 is {}", rect1);  
13 }
```

# Live Demo

# #[derive(Debug)]

```
1 #[derive(Debug)]
2 struct Rectangle {
3     width: u32,
4     height: u32,
5 }
6
7 fn main() {
8     let rect1 = Rectangle {
9         width: 30,
10        height: 50,
11    };
12
13     println!("rect1 is {:?}", rect1); // or {:#?}
14 }
```

# Refactoring fn area()

Rather than

```
1 fn area(width: u32, height: u32) → u32 {  
2     width * height  
3 }
```

# Refactoring fn area()

It's much better to write

```
1 #[derive(Debug)]
2 struct Rectangle {
3     width: u32,
4     height: u32,
5 }
6
7 fn area(rectangle: &Rectangle) → u32 {
8     rectangle.width * rectangle.height
9 }
10
11 fn main() {
12     let rect1 = Rectangle {
13         width: 30,
14         height: 50,
15     };
16
17     println!(
18         "The area of the rectangle is {} square pixels"
19     );
20 }
```

**Live Demo**

# Methods

- Just like functions, except defined within the context of a struct
  - or an enum or a **trait object**, to be discussed later
- The first parameter is always **self**
  - which represents the instance of the struct the method is being called on
- Can give the same name as one of the struct's fields
  - likely these are **getters**

# Back to Rectangle

```
1 #[derive(Debug)]
2 struct Rectangle {
3     width: u32,
4     height: u32,
5 }
6
7 impl Rectangle {
8     fn area(&self) → u32 { // short for self: &Self
9         self.width * self.height
10    }
11 }
12
13 fn main() {
14     let rect1 = Rectangle {
15         width: 30,
16         height: 50,
17     };
18 }
```

# Where's the → operator?

- The following are the same in Rust:

```
1 p1.distance(&p2);  
2 (&p1).distance(&p2); // equivalent to → in C
```

- automatic referencing and dereferencing

# Multiple `impl` Blocks Are Fine

```
1 impl Rectangle {
2     fn area(&self)  $\rightarrow$  u32 {
3         self.width * self.height
4     }
5 }
6
7 impl Rectangle {
8     fn can_hold(&self, other: &Rectangle)  $\rightarrow$  bool {
9         self.width > other.width  $\&&$  self.height > other.height
10    }
11 }
```

# Associated Functions

- Associated functions don't have `self` as their first parameter, and are not **methods**
- Often used for constructors

```
1 impl Rectangle {  
2     fn square(size: u32) -> Self {  
3         Self {  
4             width: size,  
5             height: size,  
6         }  
7     }  
8 }  
9  
10 let sq = Rectangle::square(3); // use the :: syntax to call
```

# Enums

- Enums allow you to define a type by enumerating its possible variants
- Its value is **one** of a possible set of values
  - **Rectangle** is one of a set of possible shapes that also includes **Circle** and **Triangle**

```
1 enum IpAddrKind {  
2     V4,  
3     V6,  
4 }
```

# Network Simulator: Real-World Examples

```
1 pub enum FlowType {  
2     PacketDistribution,  
3     TCP,  
4 }
```

# Creating Instances of Enum Variants

```
1 let four = IpAddrKind::V4;
2 let six = IpAddrKind::V6;
3
4 fn route(ip_kind: IpAddrKind) {}
5
6 route(IpAddrKind::V4);
7 route(IpAddrKind::V6);
```

# But What about IP Address Data?

```
1 enum IpAddrKind {  
2     V4,  
3     V6,  
4 }  
5  
6 struct IpAddr {  
7     kind: IpAddrKind,  
8     address: String,  
9 }  
10  
11 let home = IpAddr {  
12     kind: IpAddrKind::V4,  
13     address: String::from("127.0.0.1"),  
14 };  
15  
16 let loopback = IpAddr {  
17     kind: IpAddrKind::V6,  
18     address: String::from("::1")
```

# There Is a Better Way

- We can put data directly into each enum variant!
- name of each enum variant becomes a function that constructs an instance of the enum

```
1 enum IpAddr {  
2     V4(String),  
3     V6(String),  
4 }  
5  
6 let home = IpAddr::V4(String::from("127.0.0.1"));  
7 let loopback = IpAddr::V6(String::from("::1"));
```

You can put any kind of data inside an enum variant: strings, numeric types, or structs

You can even include another enum!

# Another Example of Data in Enum Variants

```
1 enum Message {  
2     Quit, // no data associated with this variant  
3     Move { x: i32, y: i32 }, // named fields, like a struct  
4     Write(String),  
5     ChangeColor(i32, i32, i32), // like a tuple struct  
6 }
```

# Why Are Enums Better Than Using Structs?

```
1 struct QuitMessage; // unit struct
2 struct MoveMessage {
3     x: i32,
4     y: i32,
5 }
6 struct WriteMessage(String); // tuple struct
7 struct ChangeColorMessage(i32, i32, i32); // tuple struct
```

# Even Better Way of Defining IP Addresses

```
1 enum IpAddr {  
2     V4(u8, u8, u8, u8),  
3     V6(String),  
4 }  
5  
6 let home = IpAddr::V4(127, 0, 0, 1);  
7 let loopback = IpAddr::V6(String::from("::1"));
```

# How the Rust Standard Library Did it

```
1 struct Ipv4Addr {  
2     // --snip--  
3 }  
4  
5 struct Ipv6Addr {  
6     // --snip--  
7 }  
8  
9 enum IpAddr {  
10    V4(Ipv4Addr),  
11    V6(Ipv6Addr),  
12 }
```

# Simulator: Real-World Example

```
1 #[derive(Debug)]
2 pub enum Routing {
3     ShortestPath(ShortestPath),
4     PathFromConfig(PathFromConfig),
5 }
6
7 #[derive(Debug)]
8 pub struct ShortestPath {
9     graph: UnGraph<usize, ()>,
10 }
11
12 #[derive(Debug)]
13 pub struct PathFromConfig {
14     pub path: Vec<NodeIndex>,
15 }
```

# We can define methods on enums, too

```
1 impl Message {  
2     fn call(&self) {  
3         // method body would be defined here  
4     }  
5 }  
6  
7 let m = Message::Write(String::from("hello"));  
8 m.call();
```

# The Option Enum

- Option: a value can be something or nothing
- Looks like null in other programming languages
  - where variables can always be in one of two states: null (or nil) or non-null

# Null References: The **Billion Dollar** **Mistake**

— Tony Hoare (of the **Hoare Semantics** fame), 2009

I call it my **billion-dollar mistake**. At that time, I was designing the first comprehensive type system for references in an object-oriented language. My goal was to ensure that all use of references should be absolutely safe, with **checking performed automatically by the compiler**. But I couldn't resist the temptation to put in a null reference, simply because it was so easy to implement. This has led to innumerable errors, vulnerabilities, and system crashes, which have probably caused a billion dollars of pain and damage in the last forty years.

# The Rust Way of Handling Values that Are Absent

```
1 enum Option<T> {
2     None,
3     Some(T),
4 }
```

# `<T>` is generic type parameter, which will be introduced later

- `<T>` means that the `Some` variant of the `Option` enum can hold one piece of data of any concrete type
- and each concrete type that gets used in place of `T` makes `Option<T>` type a different type

```
1 enum Option<T> {  
2     None,  
3     Some(T),  
4 }
```

# Different Option Types

```
1 let some_number = Some(5);
2 let some_char = Some('e');
3
4 // type inference is not possible, need explicit type annotation
5 let absent_number: Option<i32> = None;
```

So why is having Option<T> any better than having null?

`Option<T>` and `T` (where `T` can be any type) are different types, the compiler won't let us use an `Option<T>` value as if it were definitely a valid value

```
1 let x: i8 = 5;
2 let y: Option<i8> = Some(5);
3
4 let sum = x + y; // compile-time error!
```

you have to convert an `Option<T>` to a `T` before you can perform `T` operations with it!

## Live Demo

This idea eliminates the **risk** of  
incorrectly assuming a non-**null**  
**value**

To have a value that can possibly be  
**null**, you must explicitly **opt in** by  
making the type of that value  
`Option<T>`, and to explicitly handle the  
case when the value is **null**

How do we get the T value out of a  
Some variant when you have a value of  
type Option<T>?

Read the documentation 😊

# Seriously — Use `match` Expressions on Enums

```
1 enum Coin {  
2     Penny,  
3     Nickel,  
4     Dime,  
5     Quarter,  
6 }  
7  
8 fn value_in_cents(coin: Coin) → u8 {  
9     match coin {  
10         Coin::Penny ⇒ 1,  
11         Coin::Nickel ⇒ 5,  
12         Coin::Dime ⇒ 10,  
13         Coin::Quarter ⇒ 25,  
14     }  
15 }
```

# Pattern Matching: `if` vs. `match`

- Conditions in `if` expressions must evaluate a `bool` value
- In `match`, any type is fine

# Patterns That Bind to Values

```
1 #[derive(Debug)]  
2 enum UsState {  
3     Alabama,  
4     Alaska,  
5 }  
6  
7 enum Coin {  
8     Penny,  
9     Nickel,  
10    Dime,  
11    Quarter(UsState),  
12 }
```

# Patterns That Bind to Values

```
1 fn value_in_cents(coin: Coin) → u8 {
2     match coin {
3         Coin::Penny ⇒ 1,
4         Coin::Nickel ⇒ 5,
5         Coin::Dime ⇒ 10,
6         Coin::Quarter(state) ⇒ {
7             println!("State quarter from {state:?}!");
8             25
9         }
10    }
11 }
12
13 fn main() {
14     let coin = Coin::Quarter(UsState::Alaska);
15     println!("Value in cents: {}", value_in_cents(coin));
16 }
```

State quarter from Alaska!

Value in cents: 25

()

# This Is All We Need for Matching with Option<T>

```
1 fn plus_one(x: Option<i32>) → Option<i32> {
2     match x {
3         None ⇒ None,
4         Some(i) ⇒ Some(i + 1),
5     }
6 }
7
8 let five = Some(5);
9 let six = plus_one(five);
10 let none = plus_one(None);
```

[Live Demo](#)

# Matches Are Exhaustive

```
1 fn plus_one(x: Option<i32>) → Option<i32> {
2     match x {
3         Some(i) => Some(i + 1),
4     }
5 }
```

## Compile-Time Error —

```
1 error[E0004]: non-exhaustive patterns: `None` not covered
```

# Catch-all Patterns

```
1 match coin {  
2     Coin::Quarter(state) => {  
3         println!("State quarter from {state:?}!");  
4         25  
5     }  
6     other_coin => panic!("Not a quarter"),  
7 };
```

# The \_ Placeholder

```
1 match coin {  
2     Coin::Quarter(state) => {  
3         println!("State quarter from {state:?}!");  
4         25  
5     }  
6     _ => (), // the underscore is a catch-all pattern  
7 };
```

## Live Demo

# Concise Control Flow with if let

Rather than

```
1 let config_max = Some(3u8); // an Option<u8> type
2
3 match config_max {
4     Some(max) => println!("The maximum is configured to be {max}"),
5     _ => (),
6 }
```

We can use if let

```
1 if let Some(max) = config_max {
2     println!("The maximum is configured to be {max}");
3 }
```

# The Power of Enums

If debugging is the process of **removing** software bugs,  
then programming must be the process of **putting them  
in.**

— **Edsger W. Dijkstra** (1930 – 2002)

```
1 struct Point { // structs are `product` types
2     x: u32,
3     y: u32,
4 }
```

```
1 enum WebEvent { // enums are `sum` types
2     Click(Point),
3     PageLoad,
4     PageUnload,
5     KeyPress(char),
6     Paste(String),
7 }
```

```
1 struct ChristmasTree {  
2     alive: bool,  
3     growing: bool,  
4 }
```

```
1 enum ChristmasTree {  
2     Alive { growing: bool },  
3     Dead,  
4 }
```

```
1 let tree = ChristmasTree::Alive{ growing: true };
2 match tree {
3     ChristmasTree::Alive{ .. } => println!("Alive.")
4 }
```

```
1 error[E0004]: non-exhaustive patterns: `ChristmasTree::Dead` not
2 covered
3 → src/main.rs:8:11
4 |
5 8 |     match tree {
6 |         ^^^^^ pattern `ChristmasTree::Dead` not covered
7 |
8 note: `ChristmasTree` defined here
9 → src/main.rs:2:10
10 |
11 2 |     enum ChristmasTree {
12 |         ^^^^^^^^^^^^^^
13 3 |         Alive { growing: bool },
14 4 |         Dead,
15 |         ---- not covered
16 = note: the matched value is of type `ChristmasTree`
17 help: ensure that all possible cases are being handled by adding a
18 match arm with a wildcard pattern or an explicit pattern as shown
```

The problem with **object-oriented** languages is they've got all this implicit environment that they carry around with them. You wanted a banana but what you got was a gorilla holding the banana and the entire jungle.

— **Joe Armstrong**, creator of Erlang

# Is Rust **object-oriented**?

# Characteristics of Object-Oriented Languages

- Objects contain data and behaviour (Design Patterns, Gang of Four, 1994)
  - Rust is object-oriented using this definition, as structs and enums have data, and `impl` blocks provide methods (behaviour)
- Encapsulation that hides implementation details
  - Rust is object-oriented since fields within a struct are **private**, access methods (**getters**) are used

# Characteristics of Object-Oriented Languages

- **Inheritance** — an object can inherit elements from its parent object's definition
  - Rust is **not** object-oriented if **inheritance** is required
  - If you just need to reuse code, you can do this in a limited way using **trait** method implementations
    - But you don't get to inherit data using **trait**, and that's excellent!

# Characteristics of Object-Oriented Languages

- **Polymorphism** — you can substitute multiple objects of different types at runtime if they share certain characteristics
  - Where a child type can be used in the same places as the parent type

- Rust uses **generic types** instead to abstract over different types
- Rust also implements **bounded parametric polymorphism**, which uses **trait objects** and **trait bounds** to impose constraints on what these types must provide
  - We will discuss them later in the course

# Required Additional Reading

The Rust Programming Language, Chapter 5, 6, and 18.1