RUSTikales Rust for beginners

- 1. Recap
- 2. Basic Types

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- 3. Variables

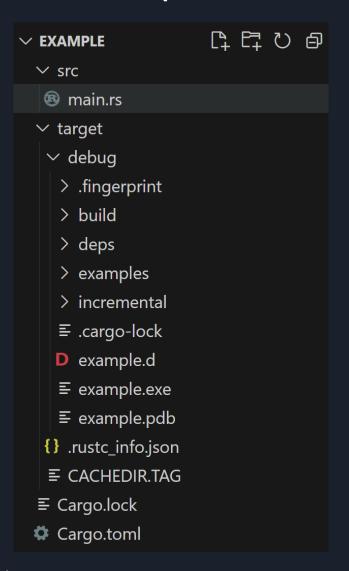
- Setup of tools required to start writing Rust code
 - Rust toolchain
 - IDE
 - rust-analyzer

- Setup of tools required to start writing Rust code
- rustc → Rust Compiler
 - The heart of the language
 - Turns your source code (e.g. main.rs) into an executable

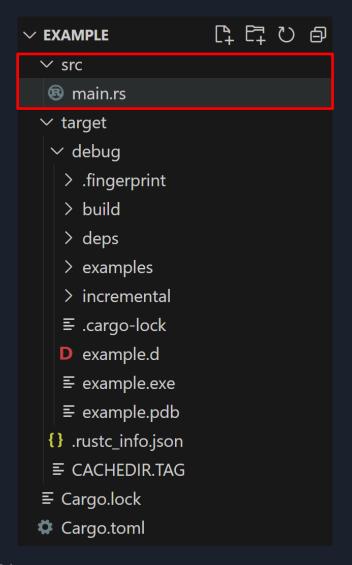
- Setup of tools required to start writing Rust code
- rustc → Rust Compiler
- cargo → Package Manager
 - Manages packages (crates), like third-party libraries
 - Many utility functions such as cargo run or cargo new
 - Overkill for 99% of the things we're doing, but extremely useful in general

- Setup of tools required to start writing Rust code
- rustc → Rust Compiler
- cargo → Package Manager
- rustup → Toolchain Manager
 - Rust comes in different versions: stable, beta, nightly
 - Allows us to update the version of the Compiler, or switch to different toolchains (e.g. for cross-compilation)

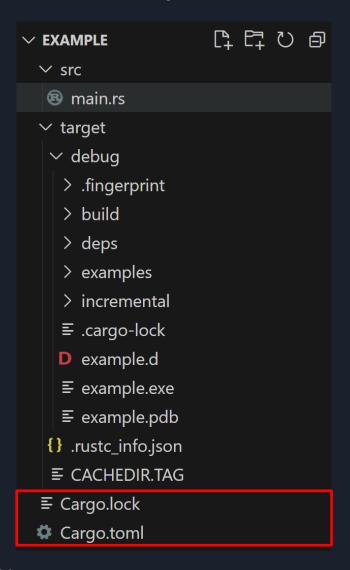
- Setup of tools required to start writing Rust code
- rustc → Rust Compiler
- cargo → Package Manager
- rustup → Toolchain Manager
- cargo new <name> creates a new package in the directory <name>
 - Unless specified otherwise, it's a binary (application) package → Executable
 - We can then open that directory in an IDE and start programming



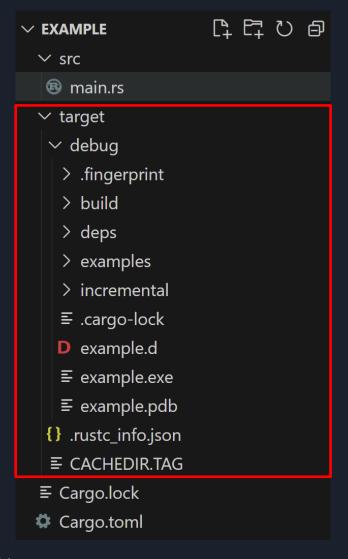
cargo new example creates this folder structure



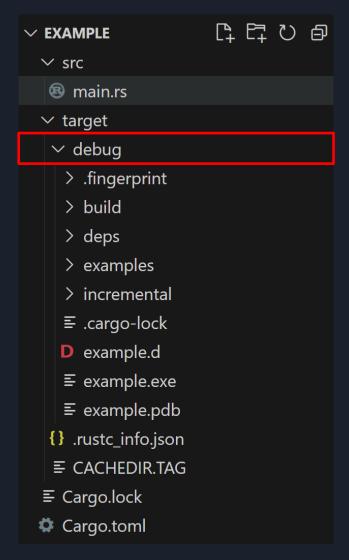
- cargo new example creates this folder structure
- We will spend most of our time in here
 - main.rs is where we write code



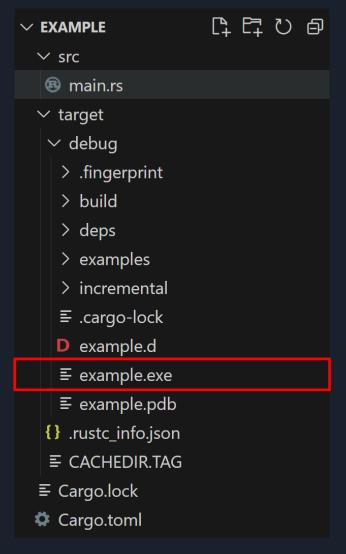
- cargo new example creates this folder structure
- main.rs is where we write code
- We can ignore Cargo.lock and Cargo.toml for now
 - Needed for package dependencies



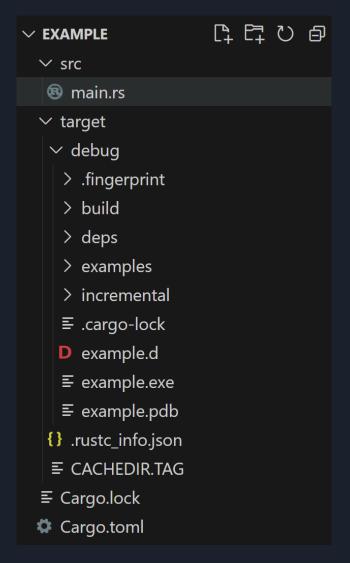
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- cargo moves the output to the target directory
- cargo build creates a debug build
- cargo build --release creates a release build
 - all optimizations enabled



- cargo new example creates this folder structure
- main.rs is where we write code
- We can ignore Cargo.lock and Cargo.toml for now
- cargo moves the output to the target directory
- cargo build creates a debug build
- cargo build --release creates a release build
- you can find the executable here



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- main.rs is where we write code
- We can ignore Cargo.lock and Cargo.toml for now
- cargo moves the output to the target directory
- cargo build creates a debug build
- cargo build --release creates a release build
- cargo run [--release] builds the project and runs it

- Rust is a statically typed language
 - Every variable and every value has exactly one type
 - Type must be known at compile time
 - You can't change that type

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 - Assigning an i32 to an u64
 - Passing an i32 where a u32 was expected
 - Inserting an u8 into an array of f32

```
let mut <u>a</u>: [f32; 2] = [0.0; 2];

a[0] = 5u8;

expected due to the type of this binding
```

error[E0308]: mismatched types

- Rust is a statically typed language
- The compiler statically type checks your code
- Very useful, because we can easily reason about our code, and prevent many bugs
 - Types are always known, and not changeable
 - Contrast to variables in dynamic languages
 - Assign any value to any variable at any point
 - Hope it doesn't crash at runtime

Rust has many different types

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 - Integer → whole numbers, signed or unsigned
 - Floating Point → fractions, big numbers
 - boolean → either true or false
 - character → Unicode → abcäøóáßð [©]

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 - Scalar types → Represent single values
 - Compound types → Combinations of types
 - array → Fixed length collection of values of the same type
 - tuple → Fixed length collection of values of (possibly) different types
 - struct → User-defined collections of values

- Rust has many different types
- Today we will only look at integers, other types will be introduced later

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 - Number indicates size in bits

- Rust has many different types
- Rust has clear names for integer types
 - Letter indicates signed or unsigned
 - Number indicates size in bits
 - u8 is an unsigned 8bit integer
 - i32 is a signed 32bit integer
 - u16 is an unsigned 16bit integer

- Rust has many different types
- Rust has clear names for integer types
- The bitsize shows how big a number can be
 - More bits, bigger numbers
 - 32bits can store numbers as big as 2³²-1 = 4.294.967.295
 - Bigger numbers require more space in memory

- Rust has many different types
- Rust has clear names for integer types
- The bitsize shows how big a number can be
- signed means the number can be negative
 - one bit needed to specify the sign, so the number range is smaller
 - i32 can not represent 4.294.967.295
 - i32 can represent -420

- Rust has many different types
- Rust has clear names for integer types
- The bitsize shows how big a number can be
- signed means the number can be negative

Туре	Meaning	Min Value	Max Value
i8	signed 8bit	-(2^7) = -128	2^7-1 = 127
u8	unsigned 8bit	0	2^8-1 = 255
i16	signed 16bit	-(2^15) = -32768	2^15-1 = 32767
u16	unsigned 16bit	0	2^16-1 = 65535

The pattern repeats up to i128 and u128, doubling the amount of bits every time

- Rust also has types isize and usize
 - Target machine dependent size
 - 64bit machine → 64bit wide
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 - Target machine dependent size
 - 64bit machine → 64bit wide
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 - Does anyone know why? 3/3
 - Used for indexing, sizes, offsets
 - Everything involving memory and pointer arithmetics
 - 32bit systems can't make use of 64bit memory addresses → Must be flexible

- Rust also has types isize and usize
 - Target machine dependent size
 - 64bit machine → 64bit wide
 - 32bit machine → 32bit wide
- If you want to index into an array or vector, your index needs to be of type usize

- Variables are a very fundamental part in programming
 - They allow us to store values in memory for later use

- Variables are a very fundamental part in programming
- Variables are declared using the keyword let

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```
fn main() {
   let a: i8 = -128;
   let b: u8 = 14;
   let c = 20;
   let mut d = 129;
}
```

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fn main() {
   let a: i8 = -128;
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Declarations always follow the same rule:

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Declarations always follow the same rule: let [mut]

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    let c = 20;
    let mut d = 129;
}
```

Declarations always follow the same rule: let [mut] name

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```
fn main() {
   let a: i8 = -128;
   let b: u8 = 14;
   let c = 20;
   let mut d = 129;
}
```

Declarations always follow the same rule: let [mut] name [:Type]

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fn main() {
   let a: i8 = -128;
   let b: u8 = 14;
   let c = 20;
   let mut d = 129;
}
```

Declarations always follow the same rule:

let [mut] name [:Type] = Expression;

- Variables are a very fundamental part in programming
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```
fn main() {
   let a: i8 = -128;

   let b: u8 = 14;

   let c = 20;

   let mut d = 129;
}
```

```
Declarations always follow the same rule:

let [mut] name [:Type] = Expression;

→ mut indicates the mutability of a variable
```

- Variables are a very fundamental part in programming
- Variables are declared using the keyword let

```
fn main() {
       let a: i8 = -128; → mut indicates the mutability of a variable

→ Type Inference infers the type based on the context in which the variable is
       let b: u8 = 14;
       let c = 20;
       let mut d = 129;
```

Declarations always follow the same rule:

let [mut] name [:Type] = Expression;

- used

- Variables are a very fundamental part in programming
- Variables are declared using the keyword let

```
fn main() {
    let a: i8 = -128;
    let b: u8 = 14;
    let c = 20;
    let mut d = 129;
}
```

This code snippet creates four variables

Name	Mutable	Type	Value
а	no	i8	-128
b	no	u8	14
С	no	i32 (inferred)	20
d	yes	i32 (inferred)	129

- Variables are a very fundamental part in programming
- Variables are declared using the keyword let
- Using the keyword mut, we can make our variables mutable

```
fn main() {
    let a: i8 = -128;
    a = 20;
    let mut d: i32 = 129;
    d = 50;
}
```

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- Variables are declared using the keyword let
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```
fn main() {
    let a: i8 = -128;
    a = 20;
    let mut d: i32 = 129;
    d = 50;
}
Mutable, we can re-assign to the variable
```

- Variables are a very fundamental part in programming
- Variables are declared using the keyword let
- Using the keyword mut, we can make our variables mutable

```
fn main() {
    let a: i8 = -128;
    a = 20;
    let mut d: i32 = 129;
    d = 50; rust-analyzer shows us inferred types
}
```

- Variables are a very fundamental part in programming
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 - Why does Rust have that system? What do we gain from making variables [im]mutable?

- Variables are a very fundamental part in programming
- Variables are declared using the keyword let
- Using the keyword mut, we can make our variables mutable
 - Why does Rust have that system? What do we gain from making variables [im]mutable?
 - Easier to reason your code, make it explicit what you're expecting to change
 - Very useful when we get to references and the borrow checker
 - Prevents a lot of bugs and oversights
 - TLDR: More control over what is happening

- Variables are a very fundamental part in programming
- Variables are declared using the keyword let
- Using the keyword mut, we can make our variables mutable
- When we assign values to variables, two things can happen:
 - The value is copied
 - The value is moved
 - Will be covered when we talk about Ownership

- Understanding how a computer executes code helps with writing better programs
 - We'll skip over all technical details, and how the source code turns into machine code

- Understanding how a computer executes code helps with writing better programs
- Computers process instructions sequentially, one after the other
 - Fetch → Decode → Execute

- Understanding how a computer executes code helps with writing better programs
- Computers process instructions sequentially, one after the other
- On a high level, we specify what these instructions should be
 - All the fancy steps in the middle just turn human-readable into machine-executable

```
fn main() {
    let a: i32 = 69;
    let b: i32 = 420;
    let c: i32 = a * 1000 + b;
    println!("{}", c);
}
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    let a: i32 = 69;
    let b: i32 = 420;
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    let a: i32 = 69;
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- First, store 69 in a
- 2. Then, store 420 in b

```
fn main() {
    let a: i32 = 69;
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    let c: i32 = a * 1000 + b;
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}
```

- 1. First, store 69 in a
- 2. Then, store 420 in b
- 3. Read a, multiply its value by 1000

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fn main() {
    let a: i32 = 69;
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    let c: i32 = a * 1000 + b;
    println!("{}", c);
}
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- 1. First, store 69 in a
- 2. Then, store 420 in b
- 3. Read a, multiply its value by 1000
- 4. Read b, add its value to the result of step 3

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fn main() {
    let a: i32 = 69;
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    let c: i32 = a * 1000 + b;
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}
```

- 1. First, store 69 in a
- 2. Then, store 420 in b
- 3. Read a, multiply its value by 1000
- 4. Read b, add its value to the result of step 3
- 5. Store the result of step 4 in c

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    let a: i32 = 69;
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- 1. First, store 69 in a
- 2. Then, store 420 in b
- 3. Read a, multiply its value by 1000
- 4. Read b, add its value to the result of step 3
- 5. Store the result of step 4 in c
- 6. Read c, print its value to the console

- Understanding how a computer executes code helps with writing better programs
- Computers process instructions sequentially, one after the other
- On a high level, we specify what these instructions should be
- A memory table can help understand what the computer does

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fn main() {
    let a: i32 = 69;
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Variable	Туре	Value
а	i32	???
b	i32	???
С	i32	???
temp*	i32	???

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С	i32	???
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```
fn main() {
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Variable	Туре	Value
а	i32	69
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С	i32	69.000+420=69.420
temp*	i32	69.000

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fn main() {
    let a: i32 = 69;
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```

Variable	Туре	Value
а	i32	69
b	i32	420
С	i32	69.420
temp*	i32	69.000

Running 69420

- Understanding how a computer executes code helps with writing better programs
- Computers process instructions sequentially, one after the other
- On a high level, we specify what these instructions should be
- A memory table can help understand what the computer does
 - very helpful to create one for exercises that compile
 - go step by step through the program, do you get the same output as the computer?

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 - if something doesn't make sense to you, that's usually where the bug is

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 - in theory → How computers work, how programming languages work
 - in practice → What I want my computer to do, and when, and how

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- Programming involves a lot of logic and reasoning
 - in theory → How computers work, how programming languages work
 - in practice → What I want my computer to do, and when, and how
- Better programming skills → Better logical thinking and reasoning skills, and vice versa

– Time for exercises!

```
fn main() {
    let a: i32 = 0;
    let b: i32 = 0;
    let c: u32 = 0;
    let d: i32 = a + b;
    let e: i32 = b + c;
    let f: u32 = (b as u32) + c;
    println!("{}", f);
```

fn main() { let a: i32 = 0;let b: i32 = 0; let c: u32 = 0; let d: i32 = a + b; let e: i32 = b + c; let f: u32 = (b as u32) + c;println!("{}", f);

Does this code compile? If yes, what does it print?

```
Does this code compile?
fn main() {
                                                        If yes, what does it print?
       let a: i32 = 0;
       let b: i32 = 0;
       let c: u32 = 0;
                                                        Nope, you can't add i32 and u32:^)
       let d: i32 = a + b;
       let e: i32 = b + c;
                                                       error[E0308]: mismatched types
                                                        --> src\main.rs:6:22
                                                             let e: i32 = b + c;
       let f: u32 = (b as u32) + c;
                                                                         ^ expected `i32`, found `u32`
                                                       error[E0277]: cannot add 'u32' to 'i32'
       println!("{}", f);
                                                        --> src\main.rs:6:20
                                                             let e: i32 = b + c;
                                                                       ^ no implementation for `i32 + u32`
```

```
fn main() {
    let a = 0;
    let b: i32 = a;
    let arr: [i32; 2] = [a, b];
    let d = a as usize;
    let e = arr[d];
    println!("{}", e);
```

```
fn main() {
    let a = 0;
    let b: i32 = a;
    let arr: [i32; 2] = [a, b];
    let d = a as usize;
    let e = arr[d];
    println!("{}", e);
```

Does this code compile? What type does a have? What type does d have? What type does e have?

```
fn main() {
   let a = 0;
   let b: i32 = a;
   let d = a as usize;
   let e = arr[d];
   println!("{}", e);
```

Does this code compile? What type does a have? What type does d have? What type does e have?

The compiler was able to figure out the types for all variables!

```
fn main() {
                                                            Does this code compile?
                                                            What type does a have?
                                                            What type does d have?
        let a: i32 = 0;
                                                            What type does e have?
        let b: i32 = a;
        let arr: [i32; 2] = [a, b];
                                                            It does compile!
                                                            The compiler was able to figure out the types
        let d: usize = a as usize;
                                                            for all variables!
                                                            Variable a is of type i32
        let e: i32 = arr[d];
                                                            → used in the context of b
                                                            Variable d is of type usize
                                                            → Read a, take its value, interpret as usize
        println!("{}", e);
                                                            Variable e is of type i32
                                                            → Arrays will be covered next time, but all
                                                            elements of arr are of type i32
```

4. Next time

- Arrays
- Vectors