

Rust Workshop

Day 3

Recap of Day 2

Structs

```
1 struct Person {
2     name: String,
3     age: u8,
4 }
5 fn main() {
6     let person = Person {
7         name: String::from("John"),
8         age: 35,
9     };
10    println!("Person's name: {}", person.name);
11 }
12 struct NonZeroByte(u8);
13 struct OnePossibleValue;
```

Methods

```
1  impl Rectangle {
2      fn area(&self) -> u32 {
3          self.width * self.height
4      }
5      fn new_square(size: u32) -> Self {
6          Self {
7              width: size,
8              height: size,
9          }
10     }
11 }
12 fn main() {
13     let area = rect.area();
14     let square = Rectangle::new_square(size);
15 }
```

Enums

```
1  enum Message {  
2      Quit,  
3      Move { x: i32, y: i32 },  
4      Write(String),  
5      ChangeColor(u8, u8, u8),  
6  }  
7  enum Option<T> {  
8      None,  
9      Some(T),  
10 }
```

Pattern Matching

```
1  match msg {
2      Message::Quit => println!("bye bye!"),
3      Message::Write(text) => println!("{}", text),
4      Message::Move { x, y } => set_position(x, y),
5      _ => {},
6  }
7  if let Some(num) = option_of_num {
8      println!("number detected: {}", num);
9  }
10 while let Some(num) = vec_of_nums.pop() {
11     println!("removed from vec: {}", num);
12 }
```

Project Organization

The *crate* is the unit of compilation, `main.rs` or `lib.rs` the *root* of the crate.

Above the crate: `Cargo.toml` defines a *package* for the build system (`cargo`).

Inside the crate: Code is structured in a *tree* of *modules*.

Modules & Visibility

```
1 pub fn carrot() {}
2 fruits::orange()           // relative
3 crate::garden::fruits::orange() // absolute
4 super::garden::fruits::orange() // backwards
5 use std::collections::HashMap;
6 let m: HashMap; // type is now in scope
7 use std::collections::*;
```


Error Handling

```
1  enum AreaError {
2      BadSeparator,
3      BadInteger(String),
4  }
5  fn calculate_area(input: &str) -> Result<usize, AreaError> {
6      let (left, right) = match input.split_once('x') {
7          Some(t) => t,
8          None => return Err(AreaError::BadSeparator),
9      };
10     Ok(parse_int(left)? * parse_int(right?))
11 }
12 fn main() {
13     match calculate_area(input) {
14         Ok(area) => println!("the area is: {}", area),
15         Err(AreaError::BadSeparator) => try_different_separator(),
16         _ => give_up(),
17     }
18 }
```

Advanced Features

book chapters 10 & 13

- generics
- traits
- lifetimes
- closures
- iterators

Generics

book chapter 10.1

```
1 let num: i32 = Some(42).unwrap();  
2 let s: &str = Some("hello").unwrap();
```

Can we write `unwrap` ourselves?

The Problem: Duplication

```
1  fn my_unwrap_i32(maybe_int: Option<i32>) -> i32 {  
2      maybe_int.unwrap()  
3  }  
4  
5  fn my_unwrap_i64(maybe_int: Option<i64>) -> i64 {  
6      maybe_int.unwrap()  
7  }
```

`void *`



we don't do that here

The Solution: Generics

```
1 fn my_unwrap<T>(maybe_int: Option<T>) -> T {  
2     maybe_int.unwrap()  
3 }  
4  
5 // compiler copies my_unwrap for each type  
6 my_unwrap(Some(42_i32));  
7 my_unwrap(Some(42_i64));
```

Generics in Structs

```
1 struct Point<T> {  
2     x: T,  
3     y: T,  
4 }  
5  
6 fn main() {  
7     let integer = Point { x: 5, y: 10 };  
8     let float = Point { x: 1.0, y: 4.0 };  
9     let mix = Point { x: 1.0, y: 10 };  
10    //           ^^  
11    // mismatched types: expected float  
12 }
```


Multiple Generic Type Parameters

```
1 struct Point<T, U> {  
2     x: T,  
3     y: U,  
4 }  
5  
6 fn main() {  
7     let mix = Point { x: 1.0, y: 10 };  
8     // inferred type: Point<f64, i32>  
9 }
```

Generics in Enums

```
1  enum Result<T, E> {  
2      Ok(T),  
3      Err(E),  
4  }
```

Generics in Methods

```
1 struct Point<T> {  
2     x: T,  
3     y: T,  
4 }  
5  
6 impl<T> Point<T> {  
7     fn x(&self) -> &T {  
8         &self.x  
9     }  
10 }
```

Performance?

Generics are resolved at compile time.

Generic code is essentially copy-pasted for every type parameter.

There is zero runtime cost to using generics.

(comparable to C++ templates)

Traits

book chapter 10.2

What are Traits?

German: Eigenschaft, Merkmal

Traits fulfill the same purpose as interfaces in other languages.

They enable polymorphism by specifying shared behavior.

(Rust does not have OOP-style class inheritance.)

Problem: T is useless

```
1  fn find_largest<T>(list: &[T]) -> &T {  
2      let mut largest = &list[0];  
3  
4      for item in list {  
5          if item > largest {  
6              largest = item;  
7          }  
8      }  
9  
10     largest  
11 }
```

compiler says:

binary operation > cannot be applied to type &T

Define Shared Behavior

```
1 trait Comparable {  
2     fn is_greater_than(&self, other: &Self) -> bool;  
3 }
```


Implementation for Concrete Types

```
1  impl Comparable for i32 {  
2      fn is_greater_than(&self, other: &Self) -> bool {  
3          self > other  
4      }  
5  }  
6  impl Comparable for i64 {  
7      fn is_greater_than(&self, other: &Self) -> bool {  
8          self > other  
9      }  
10 }
```

Constrain Generic Type Parameters

```
1  fn find_largest<T: Comparable>(list: &[T]) -> &T {  
2      let mut largest = &list[0];  
3  
4      for item in list {  
5          if item.is_greater_than(largest) {  
6              largest = item;  
7          }  
8      }  
9  
10     largest  
11 }
```

Default Implementations

```
1 trait Comparable {  
2     fn is_greater_than(&self, other: &Self) -> bool;  
3  
4     fn is_less_than_or_equal(&self, other: &Self) -> bool {  
5         !self.is_greater_than(other)  
6     }  
7 }
```

Multiple Trait Bounds

```
1 fn find_largest<T: Comparable + Debug>(list: &[T]) -> &T {  
2     // ...  
3     println!("found {largest:?}!");  
4     largest  
5 }
```

Where Clauses

```
1 // hard to read
2 fn some_function<T: Display + Clone, U: Clone + Debug>(t: &T, u: &U) -> i32 {
3
4 // much better
5 fn some_function<T, U>(t: &T, u: &U) -> i32
6 where
7     T: Display + Clone,
8     U: Clone + Debug,
9 {
```

Blanket Implementations

```
1  trait ToAngryString {  
2      fn to_angry_string(&self) -> String;  
3  }  
4  
5  impl<T: ToString> ToAngryString for T {  
6      fn to_angry_string(&self) -> String {  
7          self.to_string().to_uppercase()  
8      }  
9  }
```

Useful Traits

`Debug` string-representation for debugging

`Clone` & `Copy` can be copied (cheaply)

`Default` has default value (zero, empty string)

`PartialEq` & `Eq` can check for equality (`==` , `!=`)

`PartialOrd` & `Ord` can be ordered (`<` , `>` etc.)

`Hash` can compute hash (for `HashMap` etc.)

not derivable: `Display` , `From` & `TryFrom`

Lifetimes

book chapter 10.3

Reminder:

Rust forbids invalid references

```
1  fn main() {  
2      let r;                                // -----+-- 'a  
3                                          //      |  
4      {                                    //      |  
5          let x = 5;                       // -+-- 'b  |  
6          r = &x;                           //  |      |  
7      }                                    // -+      |  
8                                          //      |  
9      println!("r: {}", r);                //      |  
10 }                                         // -----+
```

Problem: Returning References

```
1 fn longest(x: &str, y: &str) -> &str {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

compiler says:

missing lifetime specifier:
this function's return type contains a borrowed value,
but the signature does not say whether it is borrowed from `x` or `y`

Solution: Lifetime Annotations

```
1 fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

Lifetime Annotations

```
1 fn longest<‘a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

There is some lifetime `'a`.

Lifetime Annotations

```
1 fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

x lives at least for 'a .

Lifetime Annotations

```
1 fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

y lives at least for 'a .

Lifetime Annotations

```
1 fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

The returned reference lives at least for 'a .

Lifetime Annotations

```
1 fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x  
4     } else {  
5         y  
6     }  
7 }
```

In essence:

The lifetime of the returned reference
is the shorter one of `x` and `y`'s lifetimes.

Limitations

```
1 fn longest<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &'a str) -> &'a str {/**/}
2
3 fn main() {
4     let long;
5     let x = String::from("loooooong string");
6     {
7         let y = String::from("short str");
8         long = longest(&x, &y);
9     }
10    println!("The longest string is: {}", long);
11 }
```

compiler says:

y does not live long enough

...but we know this would be OK at runtime.

Alternatively...

```
1 fn maybe_strip_prefix<'a>(x: &'a str, y: &str) -> &'a str {  
2     x.strip_prefix(y).unwrap_or(x)  
3 }
```

The lifetime of `y` has no relation to the lifetime of the return value.

LT Annotations in Structs

```
1 struct StoringBorrowedData<'number, 'text> {  
2     n: &'number i32,  
3     s: &'text str,  
4 }
```

Lifetime Elision Rules

(slightly simplified)

★ For a single parameter, its lifetime is assigned to all outputs.

```
1 fn foo(single_arg: &str) -> &str {}  
2 // is the same as  
3 fn foo<'a>(single_arg: &'a str) -> &'a str {}
```

★ For methods, the lifetime of `self` is assigned to all outputs.

```
1 impl Whatever {  
2     fn foo(&self, second_arg: &str) -> &str {}  
3     // is the same as  
4     fn foo<'a>(&'a self, second_arg: &str) -> &'a str {}  
5 }
```

The 'static' Lifetime

```
1  static GREETING: &'static str = "hello world";
2
3  fn main() {
4      let greeting: &'static str = "hello world";
5
6      let answer: &'static i32;
7      {
8          let heap_alloc = Box::new(42);
9          answer = Box::leak(heap_alloc); // explicit memory-leak
10     }
11     println!("answer: {}", answer);
12 }
```

Rust Easy Mode™

premature optimization is the root of all evil

```
1 fn longest(x: &String, y: &String) -> String {  
2     if x.len() > y.len() {  
3         x.clone()  
4     } else {  
5         y.clone()  
6     }  
7 }
```

Clone is your friend!

Closures

book chapter 13.1

What is a Closure?

Closures are inspired by functional programming, where anonymous functions are often created at runtime and passed around as arguments to and return values from other functions.

They are sometimes called *lambdas* by other languages.

Unlike functions, closures can capture values from the scope in which they're defined.

Basic Syntax

```
1  fn main() {  
2      fn multiply(x: i32, y: i32) -> i32 { x * y }  
3      let multiply = |x: i32, y: i32| -> i32 { x * y };  
4      let multiply = |x: i32, y: i32|      { x * y };  
5      let multiply = |x      , y      |      { x * y };  
6      let multiply = |x      , y      |      x * y ;  
7  
8      // most concise:  
9      let multiply = |x, y| x * y;  
10 }
```

Closures as Arguments

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let x = 3;  
3  
4     let mut nums = vec![1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10];  
5  
6     nums.retain(|elem| elem % x == 0);  
7  
8     println!("remaining: {:?}", nums); // [3, 6, 9]  
9 }
```

Mutating the Environment

```
1  fn main() {  
2      let mut nums = vec![1, 2, 3];  
3  
4      let mut push_seven = || nums.push(7);  
5  
6      for _ in 0..10 {  
7          push_seven();  
8      }  
9  
10     println!("nums: {:?}", nums);  
11 }
```

Forcing a Move

actually a copy in this case

```
1 fn main() {  
2     let x_squared;  
3     {  
4         let x = 3;  
5         x_squared = || x * x; // `x` does not live long enough  
6         x_squared = move || x * x; // ✓  
7     }  
8     println!("{}", x_squared());  
9 }
```

The Fn -Traits

You won't have to use these traits directly,
but you might see them in documentation and error messages.

Trait	Informal Meaning	Connection to Ownership Rules
<code>FnOnce</code>	can be called only once	moves captured value out of closure
<code>FnMut</code>	can be called many times but not shared	mutates captured value
<code>Fn</code>	can be called and shared without restriction	captures only immutable references

Fn-Trait Example

```
1 // Signature of `std::vec::Vec::retain`  
2 // (T is the type of the elements of the vector)  
3 //  
4 pub fn retain<F>(&mut self, f: F)  
5 where  
6     F: FnMut(&T) -> bool,
```

`retain` must call the function `f` multiple times (once per element).

Therefore, the trait bound `FnOnce` would *not* be enough.

There is no reason to restrict mutation in `f`, so `FnMut` is the best choice.

`Fn` would be unnecessarily restrictive.

Iterators

book chapter 13.2

Processing a Series of Items

```
1 trait Iterator {  
2     type Item; // associated type (new syntax)  
3     fn next(&mut self) -> Option<Self::Item>;  
4 }
```

For a type to be an iterator, it needs to...

- define the type of the items it iterates over.
- provide a method to get the next item in the series.

Using an Iterator

demo

Many Ways to Iterate

```
1 let nums = vec![1, 2, 3];
2
3 // take ownership of items, destroy collection.
4 let iter = nums.into_iter();
5 for elem in nums {}
6
7 // iterate over immutable references, leave collection intact.
8 let iter = nums.iter();
9 let iter = (&nums).into_iter();
10 for elem in nums.iter() {}
11 for elem in &nums {}
12
13 // iterate over mutable references, modify collection.
14 let iter = nums.iter_mut();
15 let iter = (&mut nums).into_iter();
16 for elem in nums.iter_mut() {}
17 for elem in &mut nums {}
```

Interlude: Turbofish

check out <https://turbo.fish> – it's fun

```
1 fn main() {
2     println!("{}", "00123".parse().unwrap()); // ✗
3     // type annotations needed
4     // consider specifying the generic argument: `::<F>`
5
6     println!("{}", "00123".parse::i32().unwrap());
7
8     // why the double colon? why not this:
9     println!("{}", "00123".parse<i32>().unwrap());
10    // => syntax ambiguity with comparison operators `\_(\_)/`
11 }
12
13 // for reference, from the standard library:
14 impl str {
15     fn parse<F: FromStr>(&self) -> Result<F, <F as FromStr>::Err>;
16 }
```

Iterator Adapters

demo

Performance?

Iterators and their adapters are heavily optimized.
Sometimes, they are even faster than hand-coded loops.

Rule of Thumb:




Do not pick one over the other based on performance speculations.
If performance really matters, you need to benchmark.

What I left out from the book

- Things that are easy to pick up along the way.
(counter example: turbo fish `::<>` is impossible to google)
- Topics you're unlikely to run into at the start of your Rust journey.
(smart pointers, interior mutability, dynamic dispatch,
concurrency (`Send` , `Sync`), `unsafe` Rust, macros...)

You should still read the book at your own pace if you're serious about learning Rust!

Outlook

Day 4	The Rust Ecosystem 	libraries, documentation, tools, news, CI/CD
Day 5	Shippable Projects 	CLI tools, web APIs, python modules, WASM apps
Day 6	Wrap-Up 	finish projects, questions, feedback, self-congratulation

Performance Challenge

- 3 exercises to maximize performance, a new one unlocks every Friday.
- A benchmark determines the 3 winners who will receive a prize each.
- The deadline for all 3 submissions is the 3rd of April.



challenge.buenzli.dev

Hint for Practice Session

```
1 // a test that ensures an expected panic occurs
2 #[test]
3 #[should_panic]
4 fn expected_panic_occurs() {
5     let v = vec![1, 2, 3];
6     v[10];
7 }
```

Practice

`rust-exercises/day_3/README.md`

Please suggest improvements
for next week!



Check the readme of your repository for the form link.