# Introduction to the Rust programming Language



Following along The Rust Book from the official source

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For: IFT-769 (Theoritical concepts CS)

# Project overview - Going through "The Rust Programming Language"

The Rust Programming Language by Steve Klabnik and Carol Nichols



#### **Book overview:**

- Official guide to the Rust programming language
- Covers the basics (syntax, types, functions) + toolchain
- Advanced and Rust-specific features:
  - Ownership, borrowing, lifetimes
  - Unique error handling
  - Concurrency

### **Theoretical concepts** - Key topics covered

- 1. Common Programming Concepts (variables, types, control flow)
- 2. Understanding Ownership (memory management)
- 3. Structs, Enums and Pattern Matching
- 4. Containers/Collections
- 5. Error Handling
- 6. Generics, Traits and Lifetimes
- 7. OO features
- 8. Smart pointers and Concurrency

Klabnik, Steve, and Carol Nichols. The Rust Programming Language. 2nd ed., No Starch Press.

## **Rust Overview**

Written by **Graydon Hoare in 2006**, Rust is a systems programming language focused on safety, speed, and concurrency. Backed by **Mozilla** and now the Rust Foundation.

<u>Currently known projects</u>

TODO

**Predicted use cases** 

TODO

Rust Programming Language. 2024. Official Website



#### PROS:

- Memory safety: No null pointers, dangling pointers, or buffer overflows
- Error handling: With the Result and Option types
- Concurrency: Safe and efficient with the ownership system
- **Performance**: Comparable to C/C++ with zero-cost abstractions
- **Ecosystem**: Growing with a strong community and package manager (**Cargo**)
- Helpful compiler: Provides detailed error messages and warnings

#### CONS:

- Learning curve: Ownership, borrowing, and lifetimes can be challenging
- **Tooling and prevalence**: Not as mature as other languages (C/C++, Python, etc.)
- **Syntax**: Can be verbose and complex compared to other languages

# Installation and setup

#### **Installation**:

1. Install Rust using rustup (Rust toolchain installer)

#### <u>Included toolchain</u>:

- rustc : Rust compiler
- rustup: Rust toolchain manager
- rustfmt: Rust code formatter
- cargo: Rust package manager and build tool

#### Package and library management

- Crates are Rust packages that can be shared and reused
- Managed with **Cargo**, the Rust package manager



## Development environment - Toolchain overview

#### **Env setup and features:**

- Easy install: curl --proto '=https' --tlsv1.2 -sSf https://sh.rustup.rs | sh
- Rustup for managing toolchains: rustup update
- Included formatter: rustfmt --check src/main.rs (dry-run mode)
- Cargo for building and managing projects: cargo new project\_name
- Quality of life with rust-analyzer: LSP, build/debug IDE support etc.



## Development environment - Cargo features

#### **Useful Cargo commands when building a project:**

- cargo build or cargo run to compile and run the project. Use --release
   flag for compilation with optimizations inside target/release/
- cargo check: Check the project for errors without building
- cargo doc: Generate documentation for the project
- cargo clean: Remove build artifacts
- cargo update: Update dependencies
- cargo fmt: Format the code according to the Rust style guidelines
- cargo test: Run tests in the project

# Practical project #0 - Guessing game

Great way to introduce to the development environment and basic concepts of Rust:

- Common programming concepts (types, funcs, control flow)
- Use of another crate (rand) inside the project
- I/O, String manipulation, error handling
- Compiler warnings and error messages
- rust-analyzer compiler FE for IDE support

Klabnik, Steve, and Carol Nichols. The Rust Programming Language. 2nd ed., No Starch Press.

# Demo Time!

Simple guessing game CLI app 🞲 (Basics and dev environment features)



## **Demo reminders** - P#0 (Guessing game)

- Result type with .expect() for error handling
- cargo doc --open to generate and view documentation
- cargo fmt to format the code
- Type annotations and let for variable declaration



## Variables and mutability

Variables are immutable by default

Constants are always immutable within the scope

```
const MAX_POINTS: u32 = 100_000;
```



# Statically typed + type inference

rust-analyzer provides type hints and suggestions

```
let secret_num = rand::thread_rng().gen_range(1..101); // Will infer i32 type
```

#### Explicit type annotations can or must be used

```
let mut num: String = String::new(); // Can be annotated or inferred
num = "42".to string();
let guess = guess.trim().parse().expect("Please enter a number"); // Wont Compile
let guess: u32 = guess.trim().parse().expect("Please enter a number"); // Will compile
```

# Data types - Scalars

| Data type | Size       | Specifity               |
|-----------|------------|-------------------------|
| int       | 8-128 bits | signed/unsigned         |
| float     | 32/64 bits | simple/double precision |
| char      | 4 bytes    | unicode                 |
| bool      | 1 byte     | true/false              |

# **Data types** - Compound

#### **Elements** Example Data type Size Access tuple fixed mixed types (1, "hello", 3.14) tuple.0 fixed same type [1, 2, 3, 4, 5] array array[0] dynamic same type vec![1, 2, 3, 4, 5] vec[0] vec

Access safety with runtime bounds checking. If using <code>array[10]</code> will panic at runtime instead of *undefined behavior like in C/C++* 

# Functions - main

Functions are defined with the fn keyword. All programs start with a main function

```
fn main() {
    println!("Hello, world!");
    say_hello_back();
}
fn say_hello_back() {
    println!("Hello back!");
}
```



# Functions - Parameters and return

#### Function signatures and use:

- Parameters must have type annotations
- Return type must be specified with ->
- Functions can return multiple values with tuples

```
fn main() {
    let num_sum = add(5, 10);
    println!("The sum is: {}", num_sum);
fn add(x: i32, y: i32) -> i32 {
    x + y
```

# **Statements**

- let is a statement, and x + y is an expression.
- Compared to C/C++, var assignment is an expression in Rust and does not return a value
- Statements must end with a semicolon ;



### **Expressions**

- Expressions **evaluate** to a value (*func calls, operations, blocks*)
- No ; at the end of expressions
- Blocks {} are expressions and can be used to create new scopes + return values

```
fn main() {
    let x = 5; // whole line is statement, 5 is expression
    let y = {
        let x = 3;
        x + 1
    }; // an expression
    println!("The value of y is: {}", y); // Prints 4!
}
```



## Control Flow - Conditionals

**if/else**: (Only takes boolean expressions)

```
// Classic if/else if/else
let mut condition = false;
if number < 5 {</pre>
    println!("Too small!");
} else if number > 5 {
    println!("Too big!");
} else {
    println!("Just right!");
    condition = true;
// Assignement with if/else
let result = if condition { 5 } else { 6 };
```

# 0 0

## **Control Flow** - Loops overview

3 types of loops in Rust: loop, while and for

- loop: Infinite loop until break or return
- while: Loop while condition is true
- for: Loop over an iterator

```
// Conditional loop
let mut counter = 0;
while counter < 10 {
    println!("counter = {counter}");
    counter += 1;
}</pre>
```



### **Control Flow** - Loop labels

**Loop labels** can be used to distinguish nested loops (*break* and *continue*)

```
fn main() {
    let mut count = 0;
    'counting_up: loop { // Label the outer loop
        println!("count = {count}");
        let mut remaining = 10;
        loop {
            println!("remaining = {remaining}");
            if remaining == 9 {
                break;
            if count == 2 {
                break 'counting_up; // Break the outer loop
            remaining -= 1;
        count += 1;
    println!("End count = {count}");
```



## Control Flow - Collection with for

No need for manual indexing, for loops iterate over collections

```
let collection = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50];
for element in collection {
    println!("The value is: {element}");
};
```

**Ranges**, use the ... operator

```
for number in 1..4 {
    println!("The value is: {number}");
```



# Ownership - Overview

**Ownership** is a key feature of Rust regarding the management of stack (*static, compile-time known, LIFO*) and heap memory (*allocated at runtime, dynamic, FIFO*).

It ensures memory safety without garbage collection.

#### The 3 rules of ownership:

- 1. Each value in Rust has a variable that's its owner
- 2. There can only be one owner at a time
- 3. When the owner goes out of scope, the value will be dropped



# Ownership - String Type vs. literals

```
let s1: &str = "hello"; // string literal, immutable
{
    // s1 is still valid
    let mut s2 = String::from("hello"); // allocated on the heap
    s2.push_str(", world!"); // Mutable
} // calls drop(), s2 goes out of scope its memory is freed
```

- String literals hardcoded into binary. Immutable and fast.
- **String** type is allocated on the heap and is mutable. Memory freed when out of scope. Similar to smart pointers in C++.



# Ownership - Move

```
// MOVE
let s1 = String::from("hello");
let s2 = s1; // s1 is moved to s2
println!("{s1}"); // ERROR! s1 is no longer valid

// DEEP COPY
let s3 = s2.clone(); // deep copy
println!("{s2}"); // s2 is still valid
```

No *double free* or *dangling pointers* with the **move** operation (first 3 lines of code).



# Ownership - Copy

Types that implement the copy trait are copied instead of moved. Stack-only data types (i.e. integers, booleans, char etc.) for speed and efficiency.

```
let x = 5;
let y = x; // x is copied to y
println!("{x}"); // x is still valid. Same as x.clone() but no needed
```



## **Taking ownership** - Functions

```
fn main() {
   let s = String::from("hello"); // s comes into scope
                                // s's value moves into the function...
   takes_ownership(s);
   let x = 5;
                                // x comes into scope
                                // but i32 is Copy, so x available afterward
   fn takes_ownership(some_string: String) { // some_string comes into scope
   println!("{some_string}");
} // `some_string` goes out of scope, `drop` is called and memory is freed
fn makes_copy(some_integer: i32) { // some_integer comes into scope
   println!("{some_integer}");
} // `some_integer` goes out of scope, nothing happens.
```



## Transfer Ownership - Function return and scope

A bit tedious, but ownership can be transferred back to the calling function with the return value.

```
fn main() {
    let s1 = gives_ownership();  // `gives_ownership` moves its return val into s1
    let s2 = String::from("hello");  // s2 comes into scope
    let s3 = takes_and_gives_back(s2); // s2 is moved into `takes_and_gives_back` becomes invalid
                                       // `takes and gives back` returns a new String that into s3
fn gives_ownership() -> String {
                                           // `gives_ownership` move return val into the
                                            // function that calls it
    let some_string = String::from("yours"); // some_string comes into scope
                                            // some_string is returned moves out of calling func
    some string
// This function takes a String and returns one
fn takes_and_gives_back(a_string: String) -> String { // a_string comes into scope
    a string // a string is returned and moves out to the calling function
```



## References and Borrowing - Overview

Kind of like passing by reference in C/C++ but with some key differences:

- References are immutable by default
- Borrowing allows multiple references to the same data
- Mutable references are exclusive and have strict rules.

References are created with the & symbol, and borrowing is done with &mut for mutable references (see next slide).



# References and Borrowing - Simple borrowing example



### Mutable references - General case

Borrowed references are not mutable by default. To allow mutation, use &mut

```
// let s = String::from("hello"); // WOULD NOT COMPILE!
let mut s = String::from("hello");
change(&mut s);

fn change(some_string: &mut String) {
    some_string.push_str(", world");
}
```



### Mutable references - Data races safety

#### Compile time checks for mutable refs

**NO** multiple mutable references to the same data

```
let mut s = String::from("hello");
let r1 = &mut s;
let r2 = &mut s; // ERROR! r1 is still active
println!("{}, {}", r1, r2);
```

**NO** mutable references while immutable references are active



### Mutable references - Data races safety (2/2)

Use of scopes to limit mutable references

```
let mut s = String::from("hello");
{
    let r1 = &mut s;
} // r1 goes out of scope, allowing a new mutable reference
let r2 = &mut s; // OK!
```

PReference's scope ends after the last usage of the reference.

```
let mut s = String::from("hello");

let r1 = &s; // no problem
  let r2 = &s; // no problem
  println!("{r1} and {r2}");
  // variables r1 and r2 will not be used after this point

let r3 = &mut s; // no problem because r1/r2 are no longer valid
  println!("{r3}");
```



# Reference caution - Fixing a state management problem

Tedious or even problematic when working on a reference

```
let mut s = String::from("hello world");
let word_index = first_word(&s); // word_index will get the value 5

s.clear(); // empties the String, making it equal to ""
// `word_index` still has the value 5 here, but no more string tied because s is invalid println!("the first word is: {s[..word_index]}"); // ERROR! s is empty
```

```
fn first_word(s: &String) -> usize {
    let bytes = s.as_bytes();
    for (i, &item) in bytes.iter().enumerate() {
        if item == b' ' {
            return i;
        }
    }
    s.len()
}
// Imagine implementing second_word() and managing state...
```

# String Slice Type - A kind of reference

**Slices** are references to a contiguous sequence of elements in a collection. They are a reference to a part of a string or array.

```
let s = String::from("hello world");
let hello = &s[0..5];  // same as &s[..5]. Excludes the last index
let world = &s[6..11];  // same as &s[6..]. Includes the first index
```

#### String Slice - Refactoring first\_word()

```
fn first_word(s: &String) -> &str {
    let bytes = s.as_bytes();
    for (i, &item) in bytes.iter().enumerate() {
        if item == b' ' {
            return &s[0..i]; // return a slice(ref) of the string
        }
    }
    &s[..] // or return the slice of whole string
}
```

```
// Compiler assures that the slice is valid as long as the string is valid
fn main() {
    let mut s = String::from("hello world");
    let word = first_word(&s); // immutable borrow (return type is &str)

    s.clear(); // error! mutable borrow while immutable borrow is active
    println!("the first word is: {word}");
}
```

#### Other Slice types - Array example first\_word()

Similar to strings, slices can be used with arrays

```
fn main() {
    let a = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5];
    let slice = &a[1..3]; // slice is of type &[i32]
    assert_eq!([2, 3], slice);
}
```

Useful for passing parts of arrays to functions without copying the data.

### Structs - Overview

**Structs** data structure encapsulate fields of specific types and methods (just like in C++/OO language).

- If declared mutable, the whole struct is mutable.
- dot notation for named field access
- Methods are defined within the impl block

```
let mut user1 = User {
    username: String::from("user1"),
    phone: 1234567890
    active: true,
};
user1.active = false;
```



#### Structs - Shorthands

```
fn build_user(username: String, phone: u32) -> User { // Returns a User struct
    User {
        username, // shorthand for username: username
        phone, // shorthand for phone: phone
        active: true
// Struct update syntax
let user2 = User {
    phone: 9876543210
    ..user1 // copy the rest of the fields from user1
```

## Tuple Structs

**Tuple structs** are similar, but don't have named fields. Useful for naming tuples and creating new types.

```
struct Color(i32, i32, i32);
struct Point(i32, i32, i32);
fn main() {
    // black and origin are different types
    let red = Color(255, 0, 0);
    let origin = Point(0, 0, 0);
   Cannot pass a Point even though they have the same fields' types
  make_paler(color: Color) -> Color {
    Color(color.0 / 2, color.1 / 2, color.2 / 2)
```



# Methods - Basic implementation

Methods are defined within the <code>impl</code> block.

```
struct SumArgs {
  n1: i32,
  n2: i32,
impl SumArgs {
  fn add_numbers(&self) -> i32 { // self is alias for Self (instead of args: &SumArgs)
    self.n1 + self.n2
fn main() {
  let args = SumArgs { n1: 2, n2: 3 };
  let sum = args.add_numbers(); // Or SumArgs::add_numbers(&args)
  println!("{} + {} = {} ", args.n1, args.n2, sum);
```

Gian Lorenzetto. Rust - Structs, Functions and Methods. 2021. Medium Post

# Methods - Mutability

Use &self for read-only and &mut self for methods that modify the struct.

```
struct Rectangle {
    width: u32,
    height: u32
impl Rectangle {
    fn area(&self) -> u32 { // takes ownership of self (read-only)
        self.width * self.height
    fn half_rect(&mut self) { // borrows mutably
        self.width /= 2;
        self.height /= 2;
    fn width(&self) -> bool { // Getters in Rust
        self.width > 0
let mut rect = Rectangle { width: 10, height: 20 };
println!("rect's width is valid: {} because width={}", rect.width(), rect.width);
```



## Methods - Automatic referencing/dereferencing

Unlike in C/C++, Rust automatically references and dereferences when calling methods(No -> operator or (\*object).something() )

```
p1.distance(&p2); // Both are the same, version1 is more readable
(&p1).distance(&p2);
```

With object.something(), Rust automatically adds in & , &mut, or \* to match signature of the method.

It depends wether method is reading ( &self ), writing ( &mut self ), or consuming ( self )



### Methods - Associated function

When a function is associated with a struct, it doesn't take self as a parameter.

- Often used for constructor
- Called with the :: syntax

```
impl Rectangle {
    fn square(size: u32) -> Self {
        Self {
            width: size,
            height: size,
let square = Rectangle::square(10);
```



#### Enums - Overview

- Enums are a way to define a type by enumerating its possible variants
- Each variant can have different data associated with it (i.e. struct, string ...)
- Namespaced under identifier, accessed with Enum::variant syntax
- Default constructor is Enum::variant(data)

```
enum IpAddr {
    V4(u8, u8, u8),
    V6(String),
}
// Construct instances of each variant
let home = IpAddr::V4(127, 0, 0, 1);
let loopback = IpAddr::V6(String::from("::1"));
```



#### Enums - Advantages over struct

Use of impl blocks for common methods that applies to all variants

```
enum Message {
    Quit,
    Move \{ x: i32, y: i32 \},
    Write(String),
    ChangeColor(i32, i32, i32),
} // Could be same as 4 different structs `struct Quit`, `struct Move{...}`
impl Message {
    fn send(&self) {
        // self ref to the variant instance
        println!("Sending message {:?}...", self);
let m = Message::Write(String::from("Hello, world!"));
m.send();
```

### ? Option Enum - NULL free!

Rust has no null value, but uses the option enum to represent the presence or absence of a value from standard library.

```
enum Option<T> { // Generic type T
    Some(T),    // Some value of type T
    None,
}

let x: i8 = 5;
let y: Option<i8> = Some(5); // Some value
let z: Option<i8> = None; // No value

let sum = x + y; // Won't compile because i8 + Option<i8> are different types
    // and sum not implemented
```

With Option, the compiler forces you to handle the case where the value is None.

# Match Expression - Overview

match is a control flow operator that compares a value against a series of patterns and then executes code based on which pattern matches.

```
#[derive(Debug)] // to inspect the state inside match expr
enum UsState {Alabama, Alaska, //...}
enum Coin {Penny, Nickel, Dime, Quarter(UsState)}
fn value_in_cents(coin: Coin) -> u8 {
    match coin {
        Coin::Penny => 1,
        Coin::Nickel => 5,
        Coin::Dime => 10,
        Coin::Quarter(state) => {
            println!("State quarter from {state:?}!");
            25
        } // Passing a Coin::Quarter(UsState::Alaska) will print "State
          // quarter from Alaska!" and return 25
```

# Match Expression - Matching with Option<T>

More powerful than switch in C/C++ because it can match on any type.

```
fn plus_one(x: Option<i32>) -> Option<i32> {
   match x {
       None => None,
       Some(i) => Some(i + 1),
let five = Some(5);
let six = plus_one(five);  // returns Some(6)
let none = plus_one(None);  // returns None
```



### Match Expression - Exhaustive matching and catch-all

Evaluation is in order. We can use other or \_ to catch all other cases.

```
let dice_roll = 9;
match dice_roll {
    3 => add_fancy_hat(),
    7 => remove_fancy_hat(),
    other => move_player(other),  // if no param needed,
                                    // use _ => paramless_func()
fn add_fancy_hat() {}
fn remove_fancy_hat() {}
fn move_player(num_spaces: u8) {}
```

Powerful (type checking, Option, enums) and concise (no if-else chains).



#### **Concise Control Flow**

Syntax sugar for single match arms with <code>if</code> guards or single catch-all arm.

```
let mut count = 0;
// match version
match coin {
    Coin::Quarter(state) => println!("State quarter from {state:?}!"),
    _ => count += 1,
// if let version
if let Coin::Quarter(state) = coin {
    println!("State quarter from {state:?}!");
} else {
    count += 1;
```



### Common Collections - Overview

- Collections are data structures that can store multiple values
- Heap allocated
- Unknown size at compile time, but can grow or shrink at runtime

#### Discussed here:

- 1. Vectors Dynamic array
- 2. Strings UTF-8 encoded
- 3. **Hash Maps** Key/Value pairs



### Collections - Vectors init and access

**Vectors** are dynamic arrays. Generic type of Vec<T>

```
// Initialization
let v: Vec<u8> = Vec::new(); // type required
let mut my_vec = vec![1, 2, 3]; // type inferred with `vec!` macro
my_vec.push(4);
                   // Add an element
```

Accessing elements and bounds checking. Both yield a reference.

```
let third: &i32 = &my_vec[2]; // Panics! if out of bounds
println!("The third element is {third}");
let third: Option<&i32> = my_vec.get(2);  // Returns None if out of bounds
match third {
    Some(third) => println!("The third element is {third}"),
    None => println!("There is no third element."),
```



### Collections - Vectors' iteration and types

Iterate in read-only or mutable mode with for loop

```
for i in &my_vec { // Readonly
    println!("{i}");
}
```

Store only similar types within same vec, but can use enum for different types

```
{
    enum CliArg {
        Int(i32),
        Text(String),
    }
    let mut arguments = vec![
        CliArg::Int(5),
        CliArg::Text(String::from("my_database_name")),
    ];
    arguments.push(CliArg::Text(String::from("my_table_name")));    // mutable with mixed types
} // <---- Out of scope, `arguments`'s memory is freed</pre>
```



### **Collections** - Strings Overview

String str std vs String type:

- str is immutable, usually used as a slice/reference that can be borrowed
- String is mutable, heap-allocated, growable, and owned





# Practical project #1 - Write an I/O CLI program

#### Halfway project for a grep clone CLI app covers:

- 1. Code organization (crates, modules)
- 2. Use of containers and strings
- 3. Error handling
- 4. Using traits and lifetimes
- 5. Testing and documentation

Klabnik, Steve, and Carol Nichols. The Rust Programming Language. 2nd ed., No Starch Press.



I/O CLI program `grep` clone 🎑



TODO