3 Compound Data Types

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Sum types and product types

Rust supports algebraic data types which are compound data types. Assume there are types $T_1, T_2, ..., T_n$.

- A sum type may contain any of these types but only one concurrently.
- A product type must contain all types concurrently.

type	example	nr of values
Σ sum	Bool = False True	1+1
	Trool = False True DontKnow	1 + 1 + 1
Π product	any tuple, e.g.: (u8, u8)	256×256
	(u8, bool, i32)	$2^8\times 2\times 2^{32}$
	unit type ()	1
	(u8, ())	2 ⁸ × 1



Structures with struct

Usage of struct

To create a product type:

Declaration of a struct

```
struct Point {x: i32, y: i32}
Note the missing semicolon!
```

■ **Definition** of struct

```
let origin = Point {x: 0, y: 0};
let mut p = Point {x: 10, y: 11};
```

Element access

```
let px: i32 = p.x;
p.x = 5;
```



Field init shorthand for struct

Variable name identical to **field name**: Write x instead of x: x.

```
struct User { uid: String, email: String, signin_ct: u64 }
fn new_user(uid: String, email: String) -> User {
   User { uid, email, signin_ct: 0 }
}
                                  // ALTERNATIVE: uid: uid
fn main() {
    let to_str = String::from;
    let u1 = User {
        email: String::from("frizzyhair@rust-lang.org"),
        uid: String::from("frizzyhair"),
        signin_ct: 1
   }:
    let u2 = new_user(to_str("fuzzbuzz@rust-lang.org"),
                      to str("fuzzbuzz")):
```

Functional updates

Update multiple values using struct update syntax from the same (or another) struct:

... means that remaining fields (not explicitly set) get the **same values** as in the **given instance**

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Tuples

- unnamed struct (a structure without component names)
- **access:** via pattern matching (x, y, z) or direct access .0, .1, etc.
- singleton tuple: (x,)(x) indistinguishable from parenthesized value
- unit type is empty tuple: ()

```
struct Color(i32, i32, i32);
struct Point(i32, i32, i32);
let black = Color(0, 0, 0);
let origin = Point(0, 0, 0);
let x_axis = origin.0;
```

Color and Point are different types, cannot be assigned mutually!

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Pattern matching of tuples

Tuples can be **destructured** using pattern matching:

```
struct Point(i32, i32);
let p = Point(0, 8);
match p {
    Point(x, 0) => println!("On the x axis at \{\}", x),
    Point(0, y) \Rightarrow println!("On the y axis at \{\}", y),
    Point(x, y) => println!("On neither axis: (\{\},\{\})", x, y)
yields
```

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On the y axis at 8

Type aliasing

Type aliasing: A new type that can be used interchangeably with the original type, to **aid code understanding**.

```
type Kilometers = i32;
type Miles = i32;
let distance: Kilometers = 5;
```

However, the following is possible:

```
let mut marathon: Miles = 26;
marathon = distance;
```

Solution: Newtype pattern (origin: Haskell)



Newtype pattern

Use the newtype pattern to create a

- unique type with hidden implementation and
- no runtime performance penalty.

```
struct Kilometers(i32);
struct Miles(i32);
let    distance = Kilometers(5);
let    marathon: Miles = distance; // IMPOSSIBLE
```

These are **tuples**, so access the value like that:

```
println!("You walked {}km.", distance.0);
```

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Enumerations with enum

Usage of enum

```
To create a sum type:
enum Animal {
    Dog,
    Cat,
}

(An animal is either a dog, or a cat — but not both!)

let mut a: Animal = Animal::Dog;
a = Animal::Cat;
```

- **Declaration** with enum, then **enumerating** the alternatives
- **Definition** using the enum name, the path separator ::, and the variant name

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enum with fields

An enum may also contain fields (using the struct or tuple syntax):

```
enum Animal {
    // enum variant
   Dog(String, f64),
    // struct-like enum variant
   Cat { name: String, weight: f64 },
let mut a: Animal;
a = Animal::Dog("Snoopy".to_string(), 5.6);
a = Animal::Cat { name: "Garfield".to_string(),
                  weight: 37.2 };
```

Variants may have different fields.



Methods with impl

Method syntax in Rust

Rust allows to define methods on data types:

```
let s = String::from("Welcome to third lecture");
let 10 = String::len(&s);
let 11 = s.len();
```

where the signatures looks roughly like this:

- fn from(s: &str) -> String
 from is a String-associated function which does not operate on a
 String itself, hence the call convention with ::
- fn len(&self) -> usize
 &self is a special reference always referring to the data item for
 which the function is called. len also is a String-associated function
 and can either be called with the :: or the dot call convention.

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Defining methods

Methods for a data type implemented using impl keyword:

```
struct Color(f32, f32, f32);
impl Color {
    fn average(&self, c: &Color) -> Color {
        Color((self.0 + c.0)/2..
              (self.1 + c.1)/2..
              (self.2 + c.2)/2.)
let cyan = Color(0.0, 1.0, 1.0);
let blue = Color(0.0, 0.0, 1.0);
let avg = cyan.average(&blue);
println!("average is: ({},{},{})", avg.0, avg.1, avg.2);
```

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Error handling

Option<T>

Data types may be **parametrized using type variables**:

```
enum Option<T> = {
    Some(T),
    None
}
```

This type constructor allows to store data of any type T, or None if data unavailable.

language	equivalent		
C++17	std::optional <t></t>		
C#	Nullable <t></t>		
Haskell	Maybe a		
Java	Optional <t></t>		
Julia	Nullable{T}		
Scala	Option[A]		
Swift	Optional <t></t>		

Option<T> defines several methods, for example fn unwrap_or allows to give a **default value**:

```
fn list_dir(dir: Option<std::path::Path>) {
   let it = dir.unwrap_or(Path::new("./")).read_dir();
   // more work needed ...
```



Result<Ok, Err>

Result<T, E> provides **detailed failure information**:

- Ok(T): element of type T was found
- Err(E): an error of type E was encountered

```
match "15_".parse::<u32>() {
    Err(e) => println!("Error: {}", e),
    Ok(i) => println!("Parsed: {}", i)
}
yields
```

Error: invalid digit found in string

parse **returns a generic type**, so a type annotation is required. This is done using the turbofish syntax ::<>

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Example: Read file into string

```
use std::io::Read:
fn readf(path: &str) -> Result<String, &'static str> {
    if let Ok(mut file) = std::fs::File::open(path) {
        let mut buf = String::new();
        match file.read_to_string(&mut buf) {
            Ok(_) \Rightarrow Ok(buf),
                   => Err("Error while reading")
        }
    } else {
        return Err("Cannot open file")
match readf("/etc/os-release") {
    Ok(f) => println!("Got: {}", f),
    Err(e) => println!("Err: {}", e)
}
```



The? operator

```
Common pattern:
  Do something on Ok()
  Return immediately on Err()
Solution: short-cut evaluation using?
    ? can even be used inside expressions:
use std::io::Read;
fn readf(path: &str) -> Result<String, std::io::Error> {
    let mut buf = String::new();
    std::fs::File::open(path)?
        .read_to_string(&mut buf)?;
    Ok(buf)
}
match readf("/etc/os-release") {
    Ok(f) => println!("Got: {}", f),
    Err(e) => println!("Err: {}", e)
```

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}

The panic! macro

Unconditionally abort program execution:

```
fn main() {
    panic!("crash and burn");
}
```

No way to recover, use for:

- development purposes (panic! compatible with any type)
- getting a program backtrace
- examples, prototypes, tests
- nothing else

Some functions panic, e.g.: unwrap(), use only if you are **smarter than Rust**:

```
use std::net::IpAddr;
let home: IpAddr = "127.0.0.1".parse().unwrap();
```



Recursive types

Dynamically Sized Types (DST)

Variables and function parameters

- are stack allocated and
- must have known size (at compile time).

Dynamically Sized Types (DST) - Examples:

- **slices** cannot be assigned to variables without references, e.g. str
- **recursive types** have no immediate representation:

```
enum List<T> {
    Nil,
    Cons(T, List<T>)
}
```

This recursive definition has no known size, results in a **compile-time error**.

Solution: Use references/pointers and heap allocation.



Boxed values

Heap is a memory region which

- is decoupled from functions
- dynamically provides arbitrarily-sized memory chunks
- has no inherent size limit
- uses random access (slower!)
- is used with pointers

Box<T>

- Common use-case of pointers: Point to some object (on the heap)
- Box is a container for objects T on the heap

No deallocation necessary, Rust takes care of it.



Dynamically sized types with Box

```
enum List<T> {
    Nil,
    Cons(T, Box<List<T>>)
impl List<i32> {
    fn new() -> List<i32> { List::Nil }
    fn print(&self) {
        match &self {
            List::Nil => {
                println!(""); },
            List::Cons(a, 1) => {
                print!("{}, ", a); l.print(); }}}
    fn add_front(self, v: i32) -> List<i32> {
        List::Cons(v, Box::new(self)) }
}
List::new().add_front(5).add_front(7).print();
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```

Zero Sized Types (ZST)

Zero Sized Types (ZST)

Zero-sized types (ZST) do not require space:

- type with **no values** nothing to store
- types with a **single value** is constant, can be optimized away

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No values: The Void/Never type

- cannot be instantiated (there are no values)
- must not be confused with the void type from C/C++ which contains a single element void, equivalent to unit type ()
- cf. Haskell's Data. Void

```
! (predefined, experimental)
struct VoidS; enum VoidE{};
```

Diverging functions

```
Abandon pre-defined code paths
```

```
fn panic() -> ! { ... }
fn server() -> ! { ... }
Expressing non-termination
allows some optimizations
w.r.t. the unit () return value
```

```
enum Pipe<A, B, R> {
      Value(R).
      Await(fn (A) -> Pipe<A, B, R>),
      Yield(B, Box<Pipe<A, B, R>>) }
```

to get a Pipe that never yields:

```
type Consumer<A, R>
    = Pipe<A, Void, R>;
```

struct Void;

Zero sized types with one value

Any operation that produces or stores a **ZST can be reduced to a no-op**.



Zero-sized types in Rust

Sets are maps with unit () values.

- () values get removed from the resulting binary, do **not slow down**
- one code base, less bugs
- → zero cost abstraction

```
struct HashMap<K, V, S = RandomState> {
    // some fields omitted
}
type HashSet<K, S = RandomState> = HashMap<K, (), S>;
```

Void vs. ()

Why does Rust use () instead of ! (the never type)?

- The never type! is not yet finalized.
- Both! and () do get optimized away, so they are equal.
- When using ! you cannot put elements into the set.
- Returning () is simplified if the element look-up fails.



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```
→ zero cost abstraction
```

```
struct HashMap<K, V, S = RandomState> {
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}
type HashSet<K, S = RandomState> = HashMap<K, (), S>;
```

Void vs. ()

Why does Rust use () instead of ! (the never type)?

3 When using! you cannot put elements into the set.

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Collections

Overview

Collection types in **Rust's standard library**:

Sequences Vec, VecDeque, LinkedList, BitVec
Maps HashMap, BTreeMap, VecMap
Sets HashSet, BTreeSet, BitSet

	Vec	HashMap	BTreeMap	HashSet	BTreeSet
retains order	yes	no	no	no	no
sorted by keys	no	no	yes	no	yes
retrieve	0(1)	O(1)	O(log n)	0(1)	O(log n)
insert	at end	0(1)	O(log n)	0(1)	O(log n)

The other collection types cover **special use-cases**, not discussed here

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Iterators

- provide sequences of values
 - generic implementable for many types, including custom types safe iterator does not allow modification of collection efficient lazy evaluation (calculation only on demand)
- consumed using a for loop
- can be chained and combined

iter	immutable references	perform calculation
iter_mut	mutable references	update collection
into_iter	iterator consumes collection	transform collection

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Iterator examples

```
fn iter():
 let vec = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
 for x in vec.iter() { // same as: &vec
     println!("vec contains {}", x);
fn iter_mut():
 let mut vec = vec![1, 2, 3, 4];
 for x in vec.iter_mut() { // same as: &mut vec
     *x += 1:
```

Use * **dereference operator** to retrieve element from iterator reference. Mandatory for assignments, optional for reads.

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Converting collections with into_iter()

Use fn into_iter() and fn collect() together with **explicit type annotation** of the target collection:

```
Set contains 2: true
Set contains 5: false
```

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Lazy evaluation and iterator chaining

Print the sum of all squares which are less than 10.

```
let mut result = 0;
for i in (0..).map(|x| x*x).take_while(|x| *x < 10) {
    result += i
}
println!("Sum(squares<10) = {}", result);</pre>
```

```
Sum(squares<10) = 14
```



Hash maps/sets

- associate arbitrary keys with an arbitrary value
- keys/values are in no specific order
- insertion and look-up are fast: O(1)
- grow/shrink on demand
- iterator returns tuple of keys and values

```
let mut contacts = std::collections::HashMap::new();
contacts.insert("Daniel", "798-1364");
contacts.insert("Ashley", "645-7689");
contacts.insert("Katie", "435-8291");
contacts.insert("Robert", "956-1745");
match contacts.get(&"Susan") {
    Some(&number) => println!("Calling Susan: {}", number),
    _ => println!("Don't have Susan's number.") }
for (contact, &number) in contacts.iter() {
    println!("Calling {}: {}", contact, number); }
```

BTree maps/sets

- **balanced tree**, may have degree greater 2
- B-trees keep data sorted
- most operations in logarithmic time
- suited for databases/disks with large amounts of data

```
let mut count = std::collections::btree_map::BTreeMap::new();
let message = "she sells sea shells by the sea shore";
for c in message.chars() {
    *count.entry(c).or_insert(0) += 1;
}
println!("Number of occurrences of each character");
for (char, count) in count.iter() {
    println!("{}: {}", char, count);
}
```

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Destructuring data with pattern matching

Where can patterns occur?

```
match arms
                                                    irrefutable
               match VALUE { PATTERN => EXPR }
if let
                                                    refutable
               if let PATTERN = EXPR { }
while let
               while let PATTERN = EXPR { }
                                                    refutable
for loops
                                                    irrefutable
               for PATTERN in EXPR { }
let statements let PATTERN in EXPR;
                                                    irrefutable
               fn (PATTERN: TYPE) -> TYPE { }
                                                    irrefutable
fn parameters
```

- refutable: pattern can fail to match
- irrefutable: pattern must not fail to match for any value

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Pattern matching syntax

- **multiple patterns:** v1 | v2 matches both v_1 and v_2
- ranges: . . . is the same as . . =, exclusive range . . not yet available
- ignoring a single value: underscore _ ignores (part of) a value
- ignoring multiple values: . . ignores following elements may be used in the middle like so: (first, ..., last)
- match guards: p if boolexpr only matches pattern p if boolexpr is true
- @ **bindings:** x @ p matches pattern p but also associates variable x with whole expression

```
enum Message { Quit, Write { s: String, b: bool } }
let msg = Message::Write {
    s: "Lemons are green".to_string(), b: false };
match msg {
    Message::Write { b: true, s: x } => println!("{}", x),
    Message::Write { s, ... } => println!("Not true: {}", s),
    Message::Quit => println!("See you!") }
```

Pattern matching example

Order of patterns is important: **First arm** is taken.

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Summary

Today's goals:

- Be able to create sized and recursive data types.
- Learn how to implement methods.
- 3 Start using the heap by creating pointers to values.

We have learned about...

- sum and product types
- methods
- recursive types and boxed values
- collections and iterators
- type aliasing and the newtype pattern
- error handling and pattern matching in detail

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