# CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

#### **Rust Basics**

# Organization

- It turns out that a lot of Rust has direct analogues in OCaml
  - So we will introduce its elements with comparisons

```
let rec fact n =
  if n = 0 then 1
  else
    let x = fact (n-1) in
    n * x
```

# Factorial in Rust (recursively)

```
fn fact(n:i32)
rec by default
                                                 parm, return
                 {
                                                 types explicit
                   if n == 0
physical eq
                   else
                                                 block
                     let x = fact(n-1);
(no built-in
                                                 (expression)
structural eq)
                                                 local var
                                                 type inferred
          Rust
```

```
let rec fact n =
  if n = 0 then 1
  else
    let x = fact (n-1) in
    n * x
```

# Running factorial

Rust programs start at main

```
- As in C and Java

on call: arg parens required

fn main() {
   let res = fact(6);
   println!("fact(6) = {}), res);
}

- Prints fact(6) = 720

format string string conversion
```

• Aside: command-line args via env::args

# Block Expressions block

#### Syntax

```
- { stmt* e? }
```

 i.e., zero or more statements (separated by semi-colons) followed by an optional final expression

#### Evaluation

- Evaluate each stmt; result is evaluation of e
  - Or () if e is absent

#### Type checking

- Must type check each stmt, extending environment of subsequent stmts with added let-bindings
- Final type is the type of e
  - Or unit if e is absent

# If Expressions (not Statements)

#### Syntax

- if e block1 block2
  - e is the guard
  - block1 and block2 are the true/false branches

#### Evaluation

- Evaluate e to v
- Result is evaluation of block1 if v is true; or block2 if v is false
- Type checking
  - e:bool
  - block1: t and block2: t for some t

#### **Functions**

#### Syntax

- fn f(parms) [-> t] block
- f is the function name
- parms are formal parameters, including their types
  - Zero or more; have form x1:t1, ..., xn:tn
- t is the return type
  - May be omitted if function returns unit value ()
- block is the body, which is a block expression

#### Let Statements

#### Syntax

- let [mut]? x[:t]? = e;
  - Keyword is mut optional
  - Type t is optional; often can be inferred if missing

#### Evaluation

- Evaluate e to v; set x to v within the defining scope
- x is immutable unless mut keyword is present

#### Type checking

- If type t given, then e: t required
  - Else e should have some type t, which is inferred
- x: t assumed in rest of scope; immutability enforced

# Let Statement Usage Examples

```
{
  let x = 37;
  let y = x + 5;
  y
}//42
```

```
let x = 37;
x = x + 5;//err
x
}
```

```
{ //err:
  let x:u32 = -1;
  let y = x + 5;
  y
}
```

```
let x = 37;
let x = x + 5;
x
}//42
```

```
let mut x = 37;
x = x + 5;
x
}//42
```

```
let x:i16 = -1;
let y:i16 = x+5;
y
}//4
```

Redefining a variable *shadows* it (like OCaml)

Assigning to a variable only allowed if mut

Type annotations must be consistent (may override defaults)

## Quiz 1: What does this evaluate to?

```
{ let x = 6;
 let y = "hi";
 if x == 5 { y } else { 5 };
 7
}
```

- A. 6
- B. 7
- C. 5
- D. Error

## Quiz 1: What does this evaluate to?

```
{ let x = 6;
 let y = "hi";
 if x == 5 { y } else { 5 };
 7
}
```

- A. 6
- B. 7
- C. 5
- D. Error if and else have incompatible types

## Quiz 2: What does this evaluate to?

```
{ let x = 6;
 let y = 4;
 let x = 8;
 x == 10-y
}
```

- A. 6
- B. true
- C. false
- D. error

## Quiz 2: What does this evaluate to?

```
{ let x = 6;
 let y = 4;
 let x = 8;
 x == 10-y
}
```

- A. 6
- B. true
- C. false
- D. error

#### Pattern: Conditional Initialization

- Initialization expressions in let statements are arbitrary expressions
  - Thus can be dynamically determined

```
fn foo(cond:bool) -> i32 {
  let num = if cond { 5 } else { 6 };
  num+1
}
```

```
foo(true) == 6
foo(false) == 7
```

# **Using Mutation**

- Mutation is useful when performing iteration
  - As in C and Java

# Other Looping Constructs

- While loops
  - while e block
- For loops
  - for pat in e block
    - More later e.g., for iterating through collections
- These (and loop) are expressions
  - They return the final computed value
    - · unit, if none
  - break may take an expression argument, which is the final result of the loop

## Quiz 3: What does this evaluate to?

```
let mut x = 1;
for i in 1..6 {
  let x = x + 1;
}
x
```

- A. 1
- B. 6
- **C**. 0
- D. error

# Quiz 3: What does this evaluate to?

```
let mut x = 1;
for i in 1..6 {
  let x = x + 1;
}
x
```

- A. 1
- B. 6
- **C**. 0
- D. error

# Data: Scalar Types

- Integers
  - i8, i16, i32, i64, isize
     u8, u16, u32, u64, usize

Machine word size

- Characters (unicode)
  - char
- Booleans

```
- bool = { true, false
```

- Floating point numbers
  - f32, f64 #
- Note: arithmetic operators (+, -, etc.) overloaded

**Defaults** (from inference)

# Compound Data: Tuples and Arrays

#### Tuples

- n-tuple type (t1,..., tn)
  - unit () is just the 0-tuple
- n-tuple expression (e1, ..., en)
- Accessed by pattern matching or like a record field

#### Arrays

- constant length
  - Thus, not as useful as Vec<t> type, discussed later
- array type [t]
  - And type [t;n] where n is the array's (constant) length
- array expression has Ruby-like syntax [e1, ..., en]

# Compound Data: Tuples

```
fn dist(s:(f64,f64),e:(f64,f64)) -> f64 {
  let (sx,sy) = s; pattern
  let ex = e.0; accessor
  let ey = e.1;
  let dx = ex - sx;
  let dy = ey - sy;
  (dx*dx + dy*dy).sqrt() method invocation
}
```

```
let dist s e =
  let (sx,sy) = s in
  let (ex,ey) = e in
  let dx = ex -. sx in
  let dy = ey -. sy in
  sqrt (dx *. dx +. dy *. dy)
```

**OCaml** 

# Compound Data: Tuples

Can include patterns in parameters directly, too

```
fn dist2((sx,sy):(f64,f64),(ex,ey):(f64,f64)) -> f64 {
   let dx = ex - sx;
   let dy = ey - sy;
   (dx*dx + dy*dy).sqrt()
}
```

Rust

```
let dist (sx,sy) (ex,ey) =
  let dx = ex -. sx in
  let dy = ey -. sy in
  sqrt (dx *. dx +. dy *. dy) OCa
```

We'll see Rust structs later. They generalize tuples.

# **Arrays**

- Standard operations
  - Creating an array (can be mutable or not)
    - But must be of fixed length
  - Indexing an array
  - Assigning at an array index

```
let nums = [1,2,3];
let strs = ["Monday","Tuesday","Wednesday"];
let x = nums[0]; // 1
let s = strs[1]; // "Tuesday"
let mut xs = [1,2,3];
xs[0] = 1; // OK, since xs mutable
let i = 4;
let y = nums[i]; //fails (panics) at run-time
```

# **Array Iteration**

- Rust provides a way to iterate over a collection
  - Including arrays

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

- a.iter() produces an iterator, like a Java iterator
  - This is a method call, a la Java. More about these later
- The special for syntax issues the .next() call until no elements are left
  - No possibility of running out of bounds

# Quiz 4: Will this function type check?

```
fn f(n:[u32]) -> u32 {
   n[0]
}
```

A. Yes

B. No

# Quiz 4: Will this function type check?

```
fn f(n:[u32]) -> u32 {
  n[0]
}
```

- A. Yes
- B. No because array length not known

#### **Fun Fact**

- The original Rust compiler was written in OCaml
  - Betrays the sentiments of the language's designers!
- Now the Rust compiler is written in ... Rust
  - How is this possible? Through a process called bootstrapping:
    - The first Rust compiler written in Rust is compiled by the Rust compiler written in OCaml
    - Now we can use the binary from the Rust compiler to compile itself
    - We discard the OCaml compiler and just keep updating the binary through self-compilation
    - So don't lose that binary! ☺