

# CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

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Type-Safe, Low-level Programming with  
**Rust**

# Type Safety in Programming Languages

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- In a type-safe language, the type system enforces well defined behavior. Formally, a language is type-safe *iff*

$G \vdash e : t$  and  $G \vdash A$  implies

$A; e \Rightarrow v$  and  $\vdash v : t$  or that  $e$  runs forever

- $A; e \Rightarrow v$  says  $e$  *evaluates*  $v$  under environment  $A$
- $G \vdash e : t$  says  $e$  *has type*  $t$  under type environment  $G$
- $G \vdash A$  says  $A$  *is compatible with*  $G$ 
  - For all  $x$ ,  $A(x) = v$  implies  $G(x) = t$  and  $\vdash v : t$

# C/C++: *Not* Type-Safe – Spatially Unsafe

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$G \vdash e : t$  and  $G \vdash A$  implies  
 $A; e \Rightarrow v$  and  $\vdash v : t$  or that  $e$  runs forever

Type safety is violated by **buffer overflows**

```
int main() {  
    int x = 1, *p = &x;  
    int y = 0, *q = &y;  
    *(q+1) = 5; // overwrites p  
    return *p; // crash  
}
```

# C/C++: *Not* Type-Safe – Temporally Unsafe

---

and **dangling pointers** (uses of pointers to freed memory)

```
{ int *x = ...malloc();  
  free(x);  
  *x = 5; /* oops! */  
}
```

... which can happen via the stack, too:

```
int *foo(void) { int z = 5; return &z; }  
void bar(void) {  
  int *x = foo();  
  *x = 5; /* oops! */  
}
```

# Automatic Memory Management

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- Data may be **allocated** explicitly or implicitly. Data **reclamation** occurs **automatically**: No manual **free**
- A **garbage collector** traces pointers in use by the program, starting from the stack and global variables
  - **Retains** those objects it can **reach** (since could be used later)
  - **Reclaims** those it **cannot**
- Related technique: **Reference counting**
- Both impose **space** and **run-time costs**

# Memory Management in (Type-Safe) OCaml

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- Local variables live on the stack
- Tuples, closures, and constructed types live on the heap

```
let x = (3, 4) (* heap-allocated *)
```

```
let f x y = x + y in f 3
```

```
(* result heap-allocated *)
```

```
type 'a t = None | Some of 'a
```

```
None      (* not on the heap—just a primitive *)
```

```
Some 37   (* heap-allocated *)
```

- Heap data reclaimed via [garbage collection](#)

# In sum: What choice do programmers have?

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## C/C++

- **Type-unsafe**
- **Low level** control
- **Performance** over safety and ease of use
- **Manual** memory management, e.g., with **malloc/free**

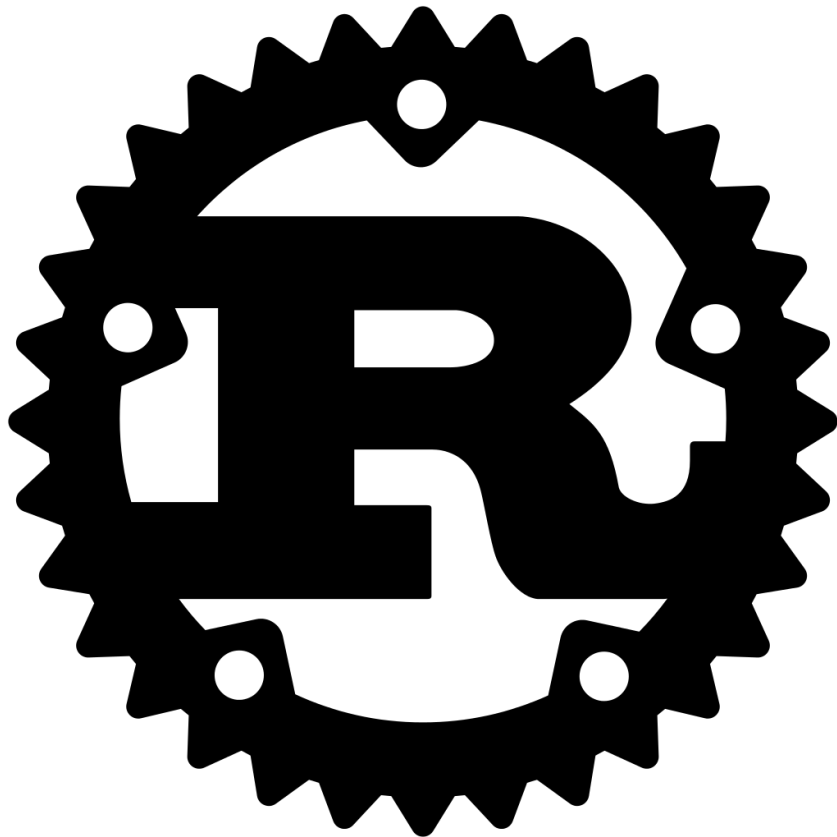
## Java, OCaml, Go, Ruby...

- **Type safe**
- **High level**, less control
- **Ease-of-use** and **safety** over performance
- **Automatic** memory management via **garbage collection**
  - No explicit malloc/free

Something in between ... ?

# Rust: Type-safe (and Thread-safe), and Fast

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- A Mozilla-sponsored, public project since 2010
  - Started in 2006 by Graydon Hoare while at Mozilla
- Most loved programming language in Stack Overflow annual surveys every year from 2016 through 2020
- Key properties: Type safety, and no data races, despite use of concurrency and manual memory management



# Rust in the Real World

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- Firefox Quantum and Servo components
  - <https://servo.org>
- REmacs port of Emacs to Rust
  - <https://github.com/Wilfred/remacs>
- Amethyst game engine
  - <https://www.amethyst.rs/>
- Magic Pocket filesystem from Dropbox
  - <https://www.wired.com/2016/03/epic-story-dropboxs-exodus-amazon-cloud-empire/>
- OpenDNS malware detection components
- <https://www.rust-lang.org/en-US/friends.html>

# Features of Rust

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- Lifetimes and Ownership
  - Key feature for ensuring safety
- **Traits** as core of object(-like) system
- Variable default is **immutability**
- **Data types** and **pattern matching**
- **Type inference**
  - No need to write types for local variables
- **Generics** (aka **parametric polymorphism**)
- **First-class functions**
- **Efficient C bindings**

Takes ideas from **functional** and **OO** languages, and **recent research**

# Installing Rust

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- Instructions, and stable installers, here:

<https://www.rust-lang.org/en-US/install.html>

- On a Mac or Linux (VM), open a terminal and run

```
curl https://sh.rustup.rs -sSf | sh
```

- On Windows, download+run [rustup-init.exe](#)

<https://static.rust-lang.org/rustup/dist/i686-pc-windows-gnu/rustup-init.exe>

# Rust Compiler, Build System

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- Rust programs can be compiled using `rustc`
  - Source files end in suffix `.rs`
  - Compilation, by default, produces an executable
    - No `-c` option
- Preferred: Use the `cargo` package manager
  - Will invoke `rustc` as needed to build files
  - Will download and build dependencies
  - Based on a `.toml` file and `.lock` file
    - You won't have to mess with these for this class
  - Like `ocamlbuild` or `dune`

# Using cargo

---

- Make a project, build it, run it

```
% cargo new hello_cargo --bin
```

```
% cd hello_cargo
```

```
% ls
```

```
Cargo.toml  src/
```

```
% ls src
```

```
main.rs
```

```
% cargo build
```

```
Compiling hello_cargo v0.1.0 (file:///...)
```

```
Finished dev [unoptimized + debuginfo] ...
```

```
% ./target/debug/hello_cargo
```

```
Hello, world!
```

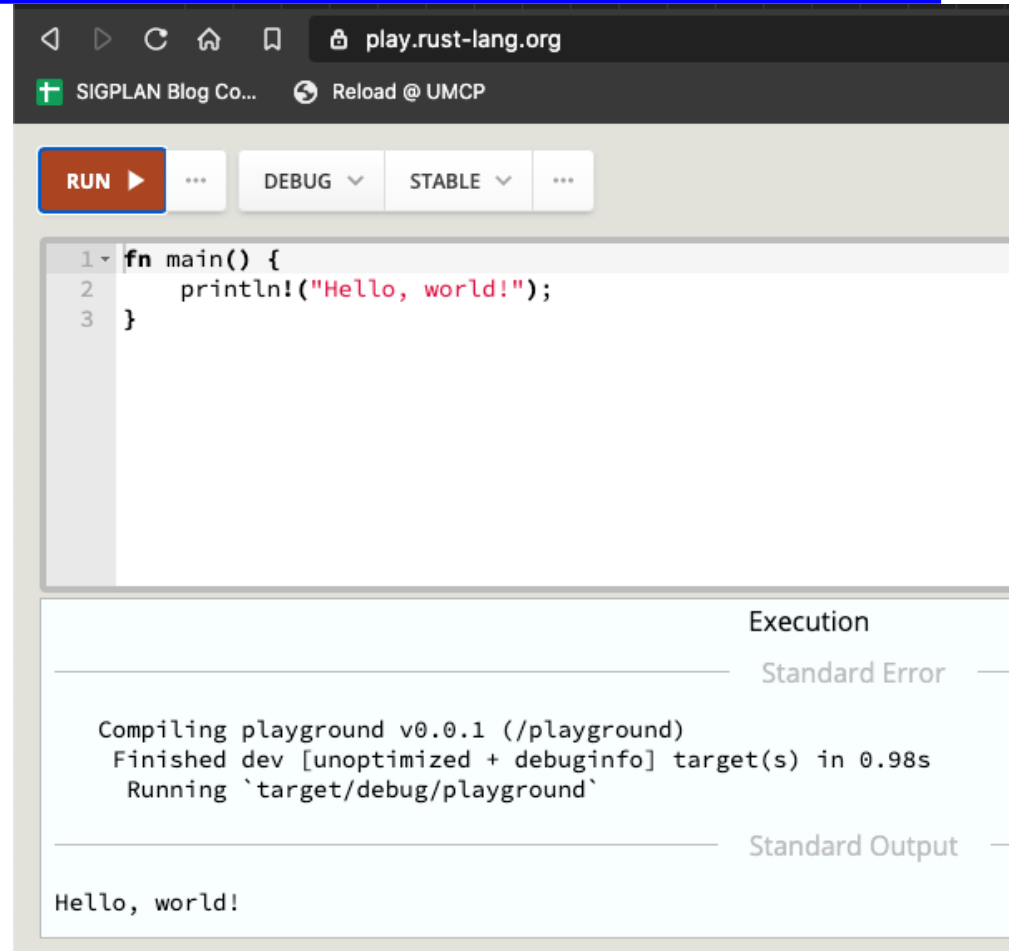
Use `cargo` to run tests, too; will discuss later

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

Uses `rustc`, the Rust compiler

# Rust, Interactively

- Rust has no top-level *à la* OCaml or Ruby
- There is an in-browser execution environment
  - <https://play.rust-lang.org/>



The screenshot shows the Rust playground interface in a browser. The address bar displays `play.rust-lang.org`. Below the browser window, there is a control bar with a red `RUN` button, a `DEBUG` dropdown, and a `STABLE` dropdown. The code editor contains the following Rust code:

```
1 fn main() {  
2     println!("Hello, world!");  
3 }
```

Below the code editor, the execution output is displayed. The output is divided into two sections: `Standard Error` and `Standard Output`. The `Standard Error` section shows the compilation and execution process:

```
Compiling playground v0.0.1 (/playground)  
Finished dev [unoptimized + debuginfo] target(s) in 0.98s  
Running `target/debug/playground`
```

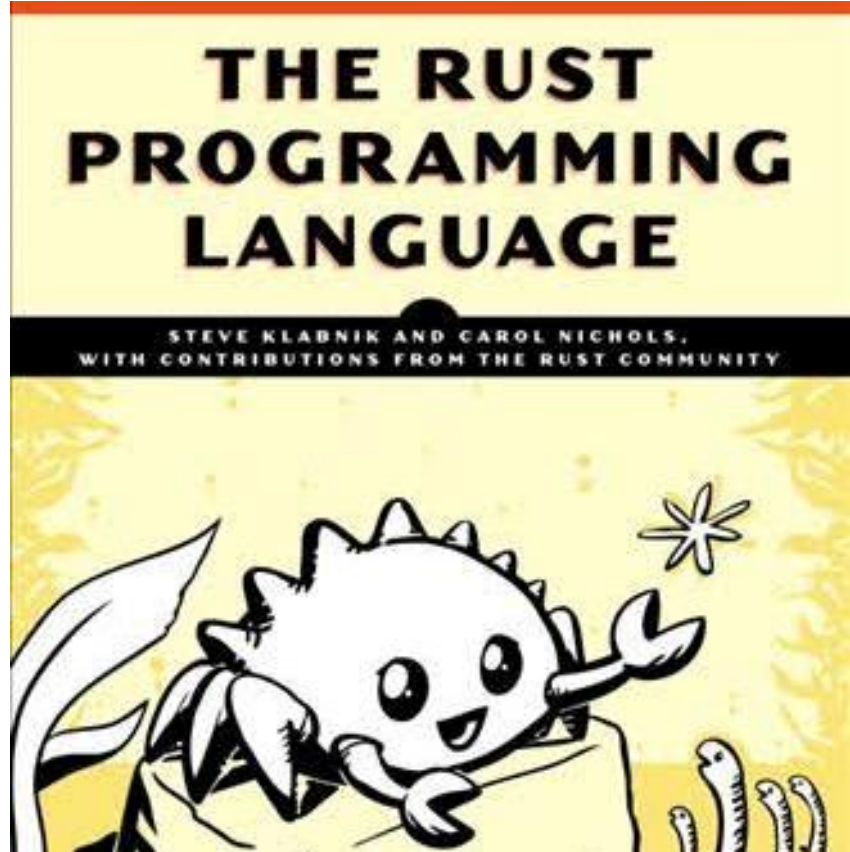
The `Standard Output` section shows the result of the program's execution:

```
Hello, world!
```

# Rust Documentation

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- Rust documentation is a good reference, and way to learn
  - <https://doc.rust-lang.org/stable/>
- This contains links to
  - the Rust Book (on which most of our slides are based)
  - the reference manual, and
  - short manuals on the compiler, cargo, and more



# Rust Basics

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# Functions

---

```
// comment
fn main() {
    println!("Hello, world!");
}
```

Hello, world!

# Let Statements

---

```
{  
  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);  
**aim to avoid**

Variables immutable by default; use **mut** to allow updates

Types inferred by default; optional annotations must be consistent (may override defaults)

# Conditionals

---

```
fn main() {  
    let n = 5;  
    if n < 0 {  
        print!("{}", is negative", n);  
    } else if n > 0 {  
        print!("{}", is positive", n);  
    } else {  
        print!("{}", is zero", n);  
    }  
}
```

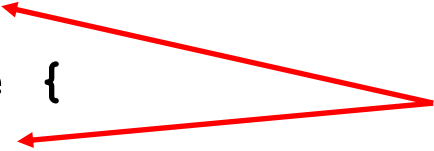
**5 is positive**

# Conditionals are *Expressions* (like OCaml)

---

```
fn main() {  
  let n = 5;  
  let x = if n < 0 {  
    10  
  } else {  
    "a"  
  };  
  print! ("{:?} |", x);  
}
```

Type error



# Factorial in Rust (recursively)

---

```
fn fact(n:i32) -> i32
{
    if n == 0 { 1 }
    else {
        let x = fact(n-1);
        n * x
    }
}

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

**fact(6) = 720**

## Quiz: 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: 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: What does this evaluate to?

---

```
{ let x = 6;  
  let y = 4;  
  y = x;  
  x == y  
}
```

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



## Quiz: What does this evaluate to?

---

```
{ let x = 6;  
  let y = 4;  
  y = x;  
  x == y  
}
```

- A. 6
- B. true
- C. false
- D. error – y is immutable**

# Using Mutation

---

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

```
fn fact(n: u32) -> u32 {  
    let mut x = n;  
    let mut a = 1;  
    loop {  
        if x <= 1 { break; }  
        a = a * x;  
        x = x - 1;  
    }  
    a  
}
```

infinite loop  
(break out)

# Other Looping Constructs

---

- **While** loops
  - `while e block`
- **For** loops
  - `for pat in e block`
    - More later – e.g., for iterating through collections

```
for x in 0..10 {  
    println! ("{}", x); // x: i32  
}
```

# Other Looping Constructs

---

- These (and `loop`) are *expressions*
  - They return the final computed value
    - unit, if none
  - **break** may take an expression, which is the loop's final value

```
let mut x = 5;
let y = loop {
    x += x - 3;
    println! ("{}", x) ;// 7 11 19 35
    x % 5 == 0 { break x; }
};
print! ("{}", y) ; //35
```

## Quiz: 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: 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`

Defaults (from inference)



- Booleans

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

- Floating point numbers

- `f32`, `f64`

- Note: arithmetic operators (+, -, etc.) *overloaded*

# Compound Data: Tuples

---

- 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

```
let tuple = ("hello", 5, 'c');  
assert_eq!(tuple.0, "hello");  
let(x,y,z) = tuple;
```



# Compound Data: Tuples

---

Distance between two points  $s$  and  $e$

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

# 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()  
}
```

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]; // type is [i32;3]
let strs = ["Monday", "Tuesday", "Wednesday"]; //[&str;3]
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
```

# Arrays: 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: Will this function type check?

---

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

A. Yes

B. No

## Quiz: Will this function type check?

---

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

A. Yes

**B. No – because  
array length not  
known. Need to  
fill in len**

# Testing

---

- In any language, there is the need to test code
- In most languages, testing requires extra libraries:
  - Minitest in Ruby
  - Ounit in Ocaml
  - Junit in Java
- Testing in **Rust** is a first-class citizen!
  - The **testing framework** is built into **cargo**

# Unit Testing In Rust

---

- Unit testing is for local or private functions
  - Put such tests [in the same file as your code](#)
- Use `assert!` to test that something is true
- Use `assert_eq!` to test that two things that implement the `PartialEq` trait are equal
  - E.g., integers, booleans, etc.
  - We'll explain [traits](#) later on



# Unit Testing In Rust

---

This is a  
*module*,  
tests

```
fn bad_add(a: i32, b: i32) -> i32 {  
    a - b  
}  
#[cfg(test)]  
mod tests {  
    #[test]  
    fn test_bad_add() {  
        assert_eq!(bad_add(1, 2), 3);  
    }  
}
```

Indicates that  
this module  
contains tests

Indicates  
that this  
function is  
a test

# Integration Testing In Rust

---

- **Integration testing** is for APIs and whole programs
- Create a **tests** directory
- Create different files for testing major functionality
- Files don't need **`#[cfg(test)]`** or a special module
  - But they do still need **`#[test]`** around each function
- Tests refer to code as if it were an external library
  - Declare it as an external library using **`extern crate`**
  - Include the functionality you want to test with **`use`**

# Integration Testing In Rust

---

src/lib.rs

```
pub fn add(a: i32, b: i32) -> i32 {  
    a + b  
}
```

tests/test\_add.rs

```
extern crate my-project-name;  
use my-project-name::add;  
#[test]  
pub fn test_add() {  
    assert_eq!(add(1,2), 3);  
}  
#[test]  
pub fn test_negative_add() {  
    assert_eq!(add(1,-2), -1);  
}
```

# Running Tests

---

- `cargo test` runs all of your tests
- `cargo test s` runs all tests that contain `s` in the name
- By default, console output is hidden
  - Use `cargo test -- --nocapture` to un-hide it

# 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! 😊