301AA - Advanced Programming

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AP-23: RUST

The RUST programming language

- Brief history
- Overview of main concepts
- Avoiding Aliases + Mutable
- Ownership and borrowing
- Traits, generics and inheritance
- (Slides by Haozhong Zhang)

Brief History

- Development started in 2006 by Graydon Hoare at Mozilla.
- Mozilla sponsored RUST since 2009, and announced it in 2010.
- In 2010 shift from the initial compiler in OCaml to a selfhosting compiler written in Rust, rustc: it successfully compiled itself in 2011.
- **rustc** uses **LLVM** as its back end.
- Most loved programming language in the Stack Overflow annual survey of 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020 and 2021.
- February 8, 2021: The development of the language passes to the Rust Foundation (non-profit independent) funded by da Mozilla, Microsoft, Google, AWS e Huawei.

On RUST syntax

- Rust is a system programming language with a focus on safety, especially safe concurrency, supporting both functional and imperative paradigms.
- Concrete syntax similar to C and C++ (blocks, if else, while, for), match for pattern matching
- Despite the superficial resemblance to C and C++, the syntax of Rust in a deeper sense is closer to that of the ML family of languages as well as the Haskell language.
- Nearly every part of a function body is an expression (including if-else).

Memory safety

- Designed to be memory safe:
 - No null pointers
 - No dangling pointers
 - No data races
- Data values can only be initialized through a fixed set of forms, requiring their inputs to be already initialized. Compile time error if any branch of code fails to assign a value to the variable.
- To avoid the use on "null", Rust core library provides an option type, which can be used to test if a pointer has Some value or None.
- Rust also introduces syntax to manage lifetimes, and the compiler reasons about these through its *borrow checker*.

Memory management

- No garbage collection. Deterministic management of resources, with very low overhead.
- Memory and other resources managed through Resource Acquisition Is Initialization (RAII), with optional reference counting. [Resource allocation is done during object initialization, by the constructor, while resource deallocation (release) is done during object destruction (specifically finalization), by the destructor.]
- Rust favors stack allocation (default). No implicit boxing.
- Safety in the use of pointers/references/aliases is guaranteed by the Ownership System and by the compilation phase of borrowing checking.

Ownership System

- Rust has an ownership system, based on concepts of ownership, borrowing and lifetimes
- Data are immutable by default, and declared mutable using mut.
- All values have a unique owner where the scope of the value is the same as the scope of the owner.
- A resource can be borrowed from its owner (via assignment or parameter passing) according to some rules.
- Values can be passed by immutable reference using &T, by mutable reference using &mut T or by value using T.
- At all times, there can either be multiple immutable references or one mutable reference to a resource. This is checked statically.

Types and polymorphism

- **Type inference**, for variables declared with the **let** keyword.
- Classes are defined using structs for fields and implementations (impl) for methods.
- No inheritance in RUST! → Pushing composition over inheritance
- The type system supports traits, corresponding to Haskell type classes, for ad hoc polymorphism.
- Traits can contain abstract methods or also concrete (default) methods. They cannot declare fields.
- Support for **bounded universal explicit polymorphism** with **generics**, as in Java, where bounds are one or more traits.

Generic functions

- Generic functions may have the generic type of parameter bound by one or more traits. Within such a function, the generic value can only be used through those traits.
- Therefore a generic function can be type-checked when defined (as in Java, unlike C++ templates).
- However, *implementation* of Rust generics similar to typical implementation of C++ templates: a separate copy of the code is generated for each instantiation.
- This is called **monomorphization** and contrasts with the type erasure scheme of Java.
 - Pros: optimized code for each specific use case
 - Cons: increased compile time and size of the resulting binaries.



An Introduction to Rust Programming Language

Haozhong Zhang Jun 1, 2015

Slides freely adapted by the lecturer

As a programming language ...

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

- **Rust** is a *system programming language* barely on the *hardware*.
 - No *runtime* requirement (*eg*. GC/Dynamic Type/...)
 - More control (over memory allocation/destruction/...)

• ..



More than that ...



Rust

more control, more safety



Rust overview

Performance, as with C

- Rust compilation to object code for bare-metal performance
- But, supports memory safety
 - Programs dereference only previously allocated pointers that have not been freed
 - Out-of-bound array accesses not allowed

With low overhead

- Compiler checks to make sure rules for memory safety are followed
- Zero-cost abstraction in managing memory (i.e. no garbage collection)

Via

- Advanced type system
- Ownership, borrowing, and lifetime concepts to prevent memory corruption issues

But at a cost

 Cognitive cost to programmers who must think more about rules for using memory and references as they program

Rust and typing

Primitive types

- bool
- char (4-byte unicode)
- i8/i16/i32/i64/isize
- u8/u16/u32/u64/usize
- f32/f64

Separate bool type

- C overloads an integer to get booleans
- Leads to varying interpretations in API calls
 - True, False, or Fail? 1, 0, -1?
 - Misinterpretations lead to security issues
 - Example: PHP strcmp returns 0 for both equality *and* failure!

Numeric types specified with width

• Prevents bugs due to unexpected promotion/coercion/rounding



Immutability by default

By default, Rust variables are immutable

• Usage checked by the compiler

mut is used to declare a resource as mutable.

```
1 • fn main() {
2    let a: i32 = 0;
3    a = a + 1;
4    println!("{}", a);
5 }
```

```
fn main() {
    let mut a: i32 = 0;
    a = a + 1;
    println!("{}", a);
}
```

```
rustc 1.14.0 (e8a012324 2016-12-16)
1
Program ended.
```



error: aborting due to previous error

Example: C is good Lightweight, low-level control of memory typedef struct Dummy { int a; int b; } Dummy; Precise memory layout void foo(void) { Dummy *ptr = (Dummy *) malloc(sizeof(struct Dummy)); *ptr->a* = 2048; - Lightweight reference free(ptr); Destruction .a = 2048 .b ptr



Example: C is not so good

typedef struct Dummy { int a; int b; } Dummy;



Other problems with aliasing + mutation

- Make programs more confusing
- May disallow some compiler's optimizations

Cause for a long time of inefficiency of C versus FORTRAN compilers

Solved by managed languages

Java, Python, Ruby, C#, Scala, Go...

- Restrict direct access to memory
- Run-time management of memory via periodic garbage collection
- No explicit malloc and free, no memory corruption issues
- But
 - Overhead of tracking object references
 - Program behavior unpredictable due to GC (bad for real-time systems)
 - Limited concurrency ("global interpreter lock" typical)
 - Larger code size
 - VM must often be included
 - Needs more memory and CPU power (i.e. not bare-metal)



Requirements for system programs

- Must be fast and have minimal runtime overhead
- Should support direct memory access, but be memory --safe
- Rust provides Box<T> to point to data on the Heap
- Boxes allow you to store data on the heap rather than the stack..
- Boxes don't have performance overhead, other than storing their data on the heap instead of on the stack. But they don't have many extra capabilities either.







Side Slide: Type Inference

```
struct Dummy { a: i32, b: i32 }
```

```
fn foo() {
    let mut res: Box<Dummy> = Box::new(Dummy {
                                    a: 0,
                                    b: 0
                                });
                 ;
}
```



Rust's Solution: Ownership & Borrowing

Allosing 🕂 Mutation

Compiler enforces:

- Every resource has a unique owner.
- Others can *borrow* the resource from its owner.
- Owner cannot free or mutate its resource while it is borrowed.









Stack



```
Ownership: Unique Owner
struct Dummy { a: i32, b: i32 } Appendix Ap
fn foo() {
                            let mut res = Box::new(Dummy {
                                                                                                                                                              a: 0,
                                                                                                                                                              b: 0
                                                                                                                                 });
                    Ownership is moved from res to arg
fn take(arg: Box<Dummy>) {
                              arq is out of scope and the resource is freed automatically
```



```
Immutable/Shared Borrowing (&)
struct Dummy { a: i32, b: i32 } Aliasing + Mutation
fn foo() {
    let mut res = Box::new(Dummy{
                       a: 0,
                       b: 0
                   });
    take(&res);
    res.a = 2048;
         Resource is returned from arg to res
Resource is immutably borrowed by arg from res
fn take(arg: &Box<Dummy>) { Compiling Error: Cannot mutate via
    arg.a = 2048; 🔶
                             an immutable reference
    Resource is still owned by res. No free here.
```



Immutable/Shared Borrowing (&)

```
struct Dummy { a: i32, b: i32 }
```

```
fn foo() {
    let mut res = Box::new(Dummy{a: 0, b: 0});
    {
        let alias1 = &res;
        let alias2 = &res;
        res.a = 2048;
        let alias3 = alias2;
    }
    res.a = 2048;
}
```

Read-only sharing



```
Mutable Borrowing (&mut)
struct Dummy { a: i32, b: i32 }
                                    Applied - Mutation
fn foo() {
    let mut res = Box::new(Dummy{a: 0, b: 0});
    take(<u>&mut</u> res):
    res.a = 4096; ) Mutably borrowed by arg from res
    let borrower = & mut res; Multiple mutable borrowings
    let alias / = &mut res;
                               are disallowed
}
            Returned from arg to res
fn take(arg: &mut Box<Dummy>) {
   arg.a = 2048;
}
```



Concurrency & Data-race Freedom

```
struct Dummy { a: i32, b: i32 }
```

}

```
fn foo() {
   let mut res = Box::new(Dummy {a: 0, b: 0});
                           — Spawn a new thread
   std::thread::spawn(move || {
      let borrower = &mut res;
      borrower.a += 1; res is mutably borrowed
   });
```



Other smart pointers in Rust

Туре	Sharable?	Mutable?	Thread Safe?
&	yes *	no	no
&mut	no *	yes	no
Box	no	yes	no
Rc	yes	no	no
Arc	yes	no	yes
RefCell	yes **	yes	no
Mutex	yes, in Arc	yes	yes

* but doesn't own contents, so lifetime restrictions.** while there is no mutable borrow

Lifetimes

- A lifetime is a construct the compiler (or more specifically, its borrow checker) uses to ensure all borrows are valid.
- A variable's lifetime begins when it is created and ends when it is destroyed.
- Lifetimes are mostly inferred, but can be made explicit using generics
- The compiler checks that every borrowed variable/reference has a lifetime that is longer than the borrower



Lifetime inference

// Lifetimes are annotated below with lines denoting the creation
// and destruction of each variable.

// `i` has the longest lifetime because its scope entirely encloses
// both `borrow1` and `borrow2`. The duration of `borrow1` compared
// to `borrow2` is irrelevant since they are disjoint.

```
fn main() {
```

}

```
let i = 3; // Lifetime for `i` starts.
{ //
    let borrow1 = &i; // `borrow1` lifetime starts.
    //
    println!("borrow1: {}", borrow1); //
} // `borrow1 ends.
{ //
    let borrow2 = &i; // `borrow2` lifetime starts.
    //
    println!("borrow2: {}", borrow2); //
} // `borrow2` ends.
// Lifetime ends.
```



Explicit Lifetimes

```
// `print_refs` takes two references to `i32` which have different
// lifetimes `'a` and `'b` (passed as generic parameters).
fn print_refs<'a, 'b>(x: &'a i32, y: &'b i32) {
    println!("x is {} and y is {}", x, y);
}
// A function which takes no arguments, but has a lifetime parameter `'a`.
fn failed_borrow<'a>() {
    let _x = 12;
}
```

```
// ERROR: `_x` does not live long enough
// let y: &'a i32 = &_x;
// The lifetime of `&_x` is shorter than that of `y`.
// A short lifetime cannot be coerced into a longer one.
```

```
fn main() {
```

}

}

```
let (four, nine) = (4, 9); // Create variables to be borrowed below.
print_refs(&four, &nine); // Borrows of both variables are passed
// In other words, the lifetime of `four` and `nine` must
// be longer than that of `print_refs`.
failed_borrow();
```

```
R
```

Other aspects of Rust: Enums

- Algebraic data types
- First-class
 - Instead of integers (C/C++)
- Structural
 - Parameters
 - Replacement of **union** in C/C++



Enums

```
enum RetInt {
    Fail(u32),
    Succ(u32)
}
fn foo_may_fail(arg: u32) -> RetInt {
    let fail = false;
    let errno: u32;
    let result: u32;
    . . .
    if fail {
        RetInt::Fail(errno)
    } else {
        RetInt::Succ(result)
    }
}
```



Enums: No Null Pointers

```
enum std::option::Option<T> {
    None,
    Some(T)
}
struct SLStack {
    top: Option<Box<Slot>>
}
struct Slot {
    data: Box<u32>,
    prev: Option<Box<Slot>>
}
```



Enums: Trees a ADT

```
#[derive(Debug)]
enum Tree<T> {
    Empty,
    Node(T, Box<Tree<T>>, Box<Tree<T>>)
}
fn main() {
    let tree = Tree::Node(
        42,
        Box::new(Tree::Node(
            0,
            Box::new(Tree::Empty),
            Box::new(Tree::Empty)
        )),
        Box::new(Tree::Empty));
    println!("{:?}", tree);
       // prints Node(42, Node(0, Empty, Empty), Empty)
}
```



Pattern Match

```
let x = 5;
match x {
                     => println!("one"),
     1
    2
                     => println!("two"),
    3|4 => println!("three or four"
5 ... 10 => println!("five to ten"),
                     => println!("three or four"),
    e @ 11 ... 20 => println!("{}", e);
                     => println!("others"),
}
          Compiler enforces the matching is complete
```



Pattern Match

```
enum std::option::Option<T> {
    None,
    Some(T)
}
struct SLStack {
    top: Option<Box<Slot>>
}
fn is_empty(stk: &SLStack) -> bool {
    match stk.top {
        None => true,
        Some(...) => false,
    }
}
```



```
Generic
```

```
struct SLStack {
    top: Option<Box<Slot>>
}
struct Slot {
    data: Box<u32>,
    prev: Option<Box<Slot>>
}
fn is_empty(stk: &SLStack) -> bool {
    match stk.top {
        None => true,
        Some(...) => false,
    }
}
```



```
Generic
   struct SLStack<T> {
       top: Option<Box<Slot<T>>>
   }
   struct Slot<T> {
       data: Box<T>,
       prev: Option<Box<Slot<T>>>
   }
   fn is_empty<T>(stk: &SLStack<T>) -> bool {
       match stk.top {
           None => true,
           Some(...) => false,
       }
   }
```



```
Type implementing this trait
Traits (Typeclass in Haskell)
                                       Object of the type
  trait Stack<T> {
                                       implementing this trait
      fn new() -> Self;
      fn is_empty(&self) -> bool;
      fn push(&mut self, data: Box<T>);
     fn pop(&mut self) -> Option<Box<T>>;
  }
  impl<T> Stack<T> for SLStack<T> {
      fn new() -> SLStack<T> {
          SLStack{ top: None }
                                        struct SLStack<T> {
                                           top: Option<Box<Slot<T>>>
      }
                                        }
      fn is_empty(&self) -> bool {
                                        struct Slot<T> {
          match self.top {
                                           data: Box<T>,
                                           prev: Option<Box<Slot<T>>>
               None
                        => true,
               Some(...) => false,
           }
      ł
```

Using Traits for Bounded Polymorphism

```
trait Stack<T> {
    fn new() -> Self:
    fn is empty(&self) -> bool;
    fn push(&mut self, data: Box<T>);
   fn pop(&mut self) -> Option<Box<T>>;
}
fn generic push<T, S: Stack<T>>(stk: &mut S,
                                 data: Box<T>) {
    stk.push(data);
}
fn main() {
    let mut stk = SLStack::<u32>::new();
    let data = Box::new(2048);
    generic push(&mut stk, data);
}
```



Multiple traits as bounds

```
trait Clone {
    fn clone(&self) -> Self;
}
impl<T> Clone for SLStack<T> {
    . . .
}
fn immut_push<T, S: Stack<T>+Clone>(stk: &S, data: Box<T>) -> S
{
    let mut dup = stk.clone();
    dup.push(data);
    dup
}
fn main() {
    let stk = SLStack::<u32>::new();
    let data = Box::new(2048);
    let stk = immut_push(&stk, data);
}
```

And if Mutably Sharing is necessary?

- Mutably sharing is *inevitable* in the real world.
- Example: mutable doubly linked list





Rust's Solution: Raw Pointers





- Compiler does *NOT* check the memory safety of most operations wrt. raw pointers.
- Most operations *wrt.* raw pointers should be encapsulated in a *unsafe* {} syntactic structure.



Unsafe superpowers

- Dereference a raw pointer
- Call an unsafe function or method
- Access or modify a mutable static variable
- Implement an unsafe trait
- Access fields of unions

Note: *unsafe*{} does not switch off the borrow checker



Rust's Solution: Raw Pointers



Foreign Function Interface (FFI)

• All foreign functions are unsafe.

```
extern {
    fn write(fd: i32, data: *const u8, len: u32) -> i32;
}
```

```
fn main() {
    let msg = "Hello, world!\n";
    unsafe {
        write(1, &msg[0], msg.len());
    }
}
```

