#### **301AA - Advanced Programming**

#### Lecturer: Andrea Corradini andrea@di.unipi.it http://pages.di.unipi.it/corradini/

AP-23: RUST #1

# The RUST programming language

- Brief history
- Memory safety
- Avoiding Aliases + Mutable
- Ownership and borrowing
- Lifetimes
- Enums, Structs, Generics, Traits...
- Unsafe
- Smart Pointers
- Concurrency

# **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 surveys since 2016.
- 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 goals and syntax

- Rust is a general purpose, system programming language with a focus on safety, especially safe concurrency, supporting both functional and imperative paradigms
- Main goal: ensuring safety without penalizing efficiency
- 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).
- No Runtime required (GC, Dynamic typing/binding,...)
- 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

# Memory safety

- Rust is designed to be **memory safe**, even in the presence of concurrency:
  - No null pointers
  - No dangling pointers
  - No double frees
  - No data races
  - No iterator invalidation
- These properties are guaranteed **statically**: if the program compiles it will never manifest those problems.
- Memory safety is obtained with a careful combination of several techniques: linguistic design choices, memory management policies, and powerful static (data-flow) analysis

# Null pointers

- Problem: accessing a variable which does not hold a value
- Two approaches to guarantee that a variable holds a value when accessed:
  - 1. Check that it has been assigned, via data flow analysis
  - 2. Use default values
- In Java, solution 1. for local vars of methods, solution 2. for instance and static variables.

#### Why???

- Sol. 2 is much simpler, sol. 1 hardly applicable to "global variables"
- Numeric variables typically have 0 as default value
- **Tony Hoare** introduced **Null** references in ALGOL W.
  - "The billion dollar mistake"...
- NullPointerException most thrown exception in Java

# Avoiding null pointers in Rust

- A Null value does not exist in Rust
- 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.
- Static/global variables must be initialized at declaration time
- For *nullable types*, a generic Option<T> type exist, playing the role of Haskell's Maybe or Java's Optional

```
enum std::option::Option<T> {
    None,
    Some(T)
}
```

## **Digression: Primitive types in Rust**

- Numeric types:
  - i8 / i16 / i32 / i64 / isize
  - u8 / u16 / u32 / u64 / usize
  - -f32/f64
- bool
- **char** (4-byte unicode)
- Type inference for variables declarations with let
- No overloading for literals: type annotations to disambiguate
- Tuples: like in Haskell
- Arrays: with fixed length. Runtime check for out-of-bound!

```
fn main() {
    let k = 3; // 3u8, 3.0, 3.2f32, ...
    let tup = (500, 6.4, 1);
    let (x, y, z) = tup;
    println!("The value of y is: {}",y);
    println!("The value of tup.1 is: {}",tup.1);
    let a: [i32;5] = [1,2,3,4,5];
    let b: [i32;6] = [3;6]; // [3,3,3,3,3,3]
```

```
enum std::option::Option<T> {
    None,
    Some(T)
}
```

#### **Using Option**

```
fn checked division(dividend: i32, divisor: i32) -> Option<i32> {
    if divisor == 0 {
         None
    } else {
         Some(dividend / divisor)
    }
}
fn try division(dividend: i32, divisor: i32) {
   // `Option` values can be pattern matched, just like other enums
   match checked division(dividend, divisor) {
       None => println!("{} / {} failed!", dividend, divisor),
        Some(quotient) => {
            println!("{} / {} = {}", dividend, divisor, quotient)
        } } }
fn main() {
    try division(54,9); try division(7,0);
    let opt float = Some(0f32);
   // Unwrapping a `Some` variant will extract the value wrapped.
   println!("{:?} unwraps to {:?}", opt_float, opt_float.unwrap());
```

## Dangling pointers: example in C++

- Problem: Pointers to invalid memory location
  - Pointers to explicitly deallocated objects;
  - Pointers to locations beyond the end of an array;
  - Pointers to objects allocated on the stack; ...
- Unpredictable effects
  - Random results
  - Segmentation fault
  - Corruption of memory manager

```
// C++ code
string *s;
{
    string s1 = "scope 1";
    s = &s1;
}
{
    string s2 = "scope 2";
}
cout << *s << endl;</pre>
```

Prints "scope 1" if compiled with x86-64 clang 13.0.1, but it prints "scope 2" if compiled with x86-64 gcc 11.2 (see https://godbolt.org/)

#### Double free: example in C++

- Problem: A memory location in the heap is reclaimed twice
- This can happen in languages with explicit deallocation of memory (like C, C++)
- A double-free error could corrupt the state of the memory manager, causing a program to crash or modification of execution flow
- It could be exploited for software attacks

```
// C++ code
auto *s1 = new string("example");
auto *s2 = s1;
// ...
delete s1;
delete s2;
```

## Race Condition: example in C++

- Problem: unpredictable results in concurrent computations
- The following multithreaded code typically prints values smaller than 20000, because of race conditions

```
// C++ code
int main() {
   int counter = 0;
   const auto task = [\&] {
      for (int i = 0; i < 100000; ++i) {</pre>
      counter++;
      }
   };
   thread thread1(task);
   thread thread2(task);
   thread1.join();
   thread2.join();
   cout << counter << endl;</pre>
   return 0;
```

#### Memory management

- As usual, Rust uses a STACK of activation records, and a HEAP for dynamically allocated data structures.
- Rust favors stack allocation (default).
- The user is forced to be aware of where the data are stored: No implicit **boxing**.

```
fn main() {
    let x = 3; // `let' allocates a variable on the stack
    let y = Box::new(3); // y is a reference to 3 on the heap
    println!("x == y is {}", x == *y); // "x == y is true"
}
```

- Modern languages either use Garbage Collection, or leave the programmer the responsibility of managing the heap
- Pros and cons:
  - GC slows down or interrupts the execution; could be unfeasable for real-time systems
  - Memory management by programmer can introduce subtle errors
- Rust avoids both, providing deterministic management of resources, with very low overhead, using RAII

# Immutability by default

By default, Rust variables are immutable

Usage checked by the compiler

mut is used to declare a resource as mutable.

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

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

```
rustc 1.14.0 (e8a012324 2016-12-16)
error[E0384]: re-assignment of immutable variable `a`
--> <anon>:3:5
|
2 | let a: i32 = 0;
| - first assignment to `a`
3 | a = a + 1;
| ^^^^^ re-assignment of immutable variable
error: aborting due to previous error
```

#### **Resource Acquisition Is Initialization**

- The Resource Acquisition Is Initialization (RAII) programming idiom states that Resource allocation is done during object initialization, by the constructor, while resource deallocation (release) is done during object destruction (specifically finalization), by the destructor.
- Popular in modern C++. Small objects better allocated on stack. Large resources are on the heap (or elsewhere) and are *owned* by an object on the stack. The object is then responsible for releasing the resource in its destructor.
- The object is bound to the scope (function, block) where it is declared; when the scope closes it is reclaimed, together with any owned resource.
- Each resource has a unique owner.

## **Ownership System**

- Rust has an ownership system, which supports RAII in a strict way
- Based on the concepts of ownership and borrowing
- Ownership can be summarized by three rules:

[O1] Every value is owned by a variable, identified by a name (possiby a path);

[O2] Each value has at most one owner at a time;

[O3] When the owner goes out-of-scope, the value is reclaimed / destroyed.

#### Move semantics of assignment

 By default, an assignment between variables has a move semantics: the ownership is moved from the RHS to the LHS (by [O2])

```
fn main() {
   let x = Box::new(3);
   let _y = x; // underscore to avoid `unused' warning
   println!("x = {}", x); // error!
```

- For primitive types and types implementing the Copy trait, assignment has a copy semantics
- [O2] is satisfied because a new value is created

```
fn main() {
    let x = 3;
    let _y = x;
    println!("x = {:?}", x); // OK
}
fn main() {
    let x = Option::Some(3);
    let _y = x;
    println!("x = {:?}", x); // OK
}
```

#### Move semantics of parameter passing

• The same with parameter passing and function return

```
fn foo<T>(z: T) -> T { // polymorphic identity function
   z
}
fn main() {
   let x = Box::new(3);
   let _y = foo(x);
   println!("x == {}", x); // error
}
fn main() {
   let x = 3;
   let _y = foo(x);
   println!("x == {}", x); // error
}
```

- Any value passed to the function will be reclaimed when it returns, as the formal parameters gets out of scope
- Only the returned value can survive (tuples to return more)

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = Box::new(3);
    x = foo(x);
    println!("x == {}", x); // OK
}
```

#### **Ownership: Unique Owner**

```
struct Dummy { a: i32, b: i32 }
 fn foo() {
    let mut res = Box::new(Dummy {
              a: 0,
              b: 0
});
take(res);
println!("res.a = {}", res.a);
}
Ownership is moved from res to arg
                                                      — Compiling Error!
        arg is out of scope and the resource is freed automatically
```

## Double free: not in Rust

- Remember the C++ code
- // Codice C++
  auto \*s1 = new string("esempio");
  auto \*s2 = s1;
  // ...
  delete s1;
  delete s2;
- Rust does not allow delete s2; for explicit memory deallocation.
- Because of RAII, memory is freed automatically when the owner goes out of scope
- By rule [O2], each value has only one owner.
- The move semantics of assignment guarantees that s2 only owns the string, thus when s1 goes out of scope nothing is reclaimed.

```
// Rust code
let s1 = String::new("esempio");
let s2 = s1;
```