

# Rust programming Course – 1

Gavrilut Dragos



### Agenda for today

- 1. Administrative
- 2. Intro
- 3. First rust program
- 4. Basic Types
- 5. Variables
- 6. Operators
- 7. Functions & Expression Statements
- 8. Basic statements (if, while, loop, ....)



# Administrative



#### Administrative

#### **Overview:**

- Course web page: <a href="https://gdt050579.github.io/rust\_course\_fii/">https://gdt050579.github.io/rust\_course\_fii/</a>
- Grading: Gauss-like system (check out our Administrative page for more details)

#### **Examination type:**

• A lab project →50 points (from week 8)

Course examination →30 points

• Lab activity →7 points (week 1 to week 7)

#### **Minimal requirements:**

• Lab (activity + project ) →20 points

Course examination → 10 points



# Intro



#### What is Rust

**Rust** is an open-source general programming language that focuses on performance and safety (memory safety / type safety). It is primarily used for building command line tools, web applications, server apps or to be used in embedded systems.

#### Resource:

- Linux & Mac/OSX: run curl --proto '=https' --tlsv1.3 https://sh.rustup.rs -sSf | sh
- GitHub repo: <a href="https://github.com/rust-lang/rust">https://github.com/rust-lang/rust</a>
- Windows install link: <a href="https://www.rust-lang.org/tools/install">https://www.rust-lang.org/tools/install</a>
- Documentation: <a href="https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/">https://doc.rust-lang.org/book/</a>
- Quick install: <a href="https://rustup.rs/">https://rustup.rs/</a>
- Official site: <a href="https://www.rust-lang.org/">https://www.rust-lang.org/</a>

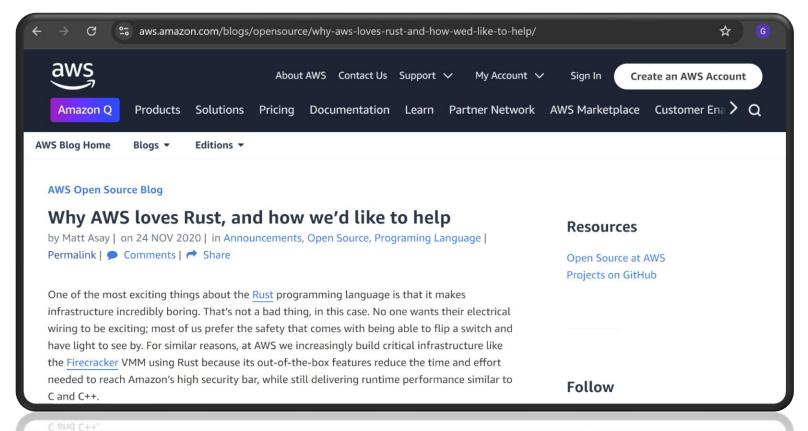
Rust latest version: 1.90.0 (18.Sep.2024)



- 2006 → started as a project develop in Mozilla by Graydon Hoare
- 2010 → officially announced as a project
- 2015 → Rust 1.0 (first stable released announce)
- 2021 → Rust Foundation is formed, and the project is no longer maintained solely by Mozilla. Companies that are part of Rust Foundations are: AWS, Google, Huawei, Microsoft and Mozilla
- 2022 → Linus Torvalds announce that Rust is probably going to be used in Linux Kernel in the near future

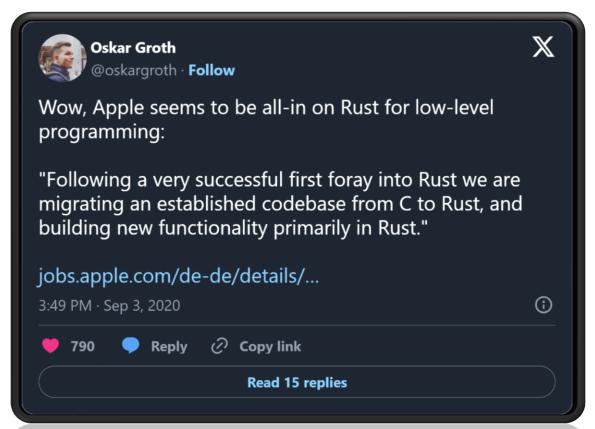


 2020 → Amazon announced its implication in using Rust as a language for various project (AWS FireCracker being one of them)





• 2020/Sep → While not confirmed by Apple, there are roomers that Apple is also using Rust internally





2021 → Google joins Rust Foundation with the director of

Engineering for the Android Platform – Lars Bergstrom



Rust nation UK (2024)

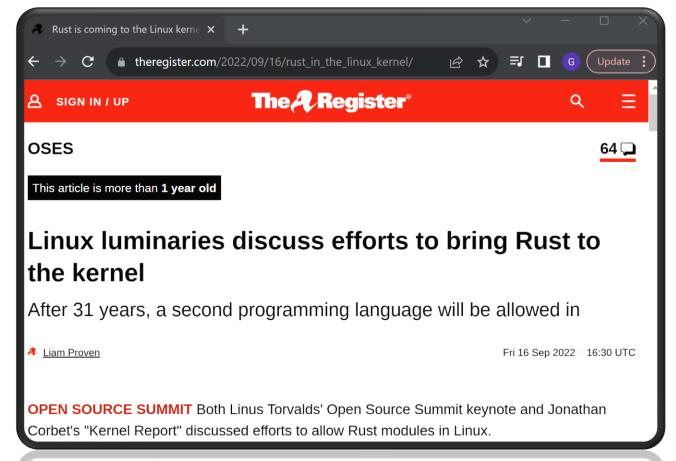
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6mZRWFQRvmw&t=27012s





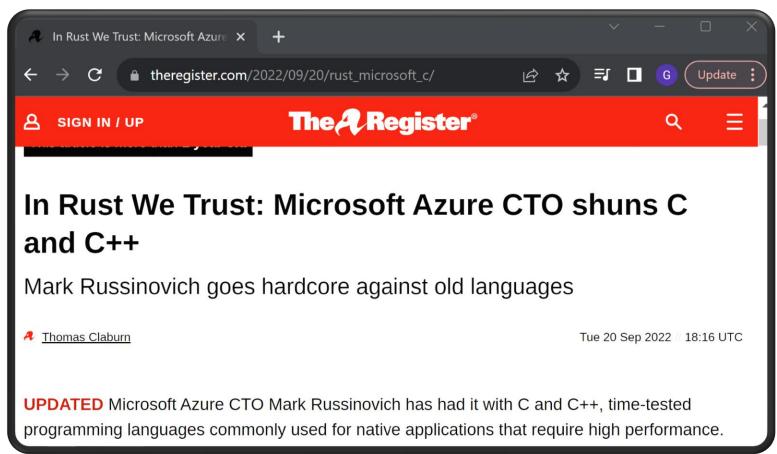
• 2022/Sep  $\rightarrow$  Rust for Linux Kernel is announced to be released in

Linux kernel 6.1





2022/Sep → Azure announce its support for Rust programming



programming languages commonly used for native applications that require high performance.



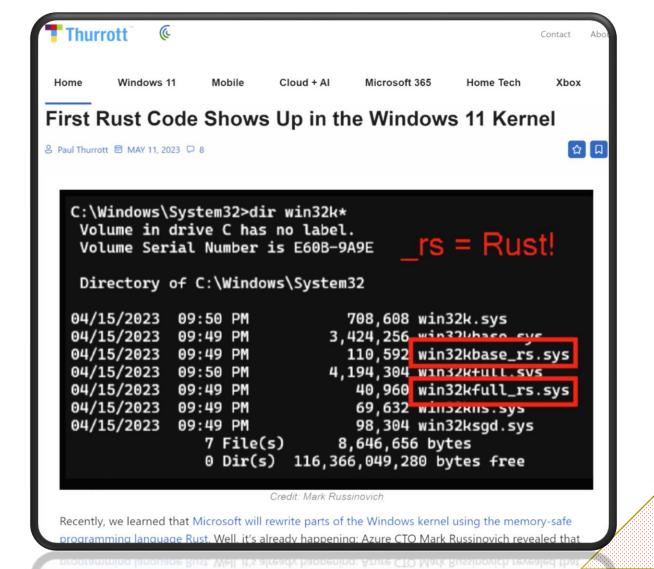
 Close after that event, Microsoft started to change some of its internal code to Rust.



memory-safe code is already reaching developers.



 And after Microsoft Build Conference from 2023, Microsoft announces its first kernel components written in Rust as part of their ecosystem.





• In May.2024, Microsoft donates 1M USD to Rust Foundation to confirm company interest in this language.

#### **THENEWSTACK**

PODCASTS EBOOKS EVENTS NEWSLETTER CONTRIBUT

ARCHITECTURE ENGINEERING OPERATIONS

RUST / SOFTWARE DEVELOPMENT

## Microsoft's \$1M Vote of Confidence in Rust's Future

Microsoft has made an unrestricted \$1 million donation to the Rust Foundation, demonstrating its commitment to the Rust programming language and its ecosystem.

May 7th, 2024 9:30am by Darryl K. Taft





 Additionally, NSA has issued a document that suggest using memory safety languages (such as Rust)

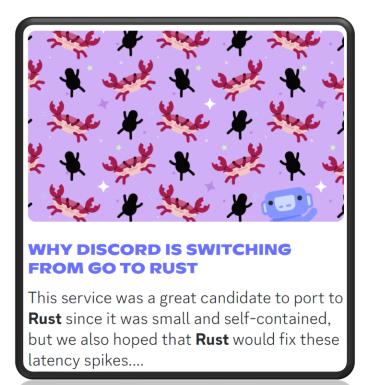


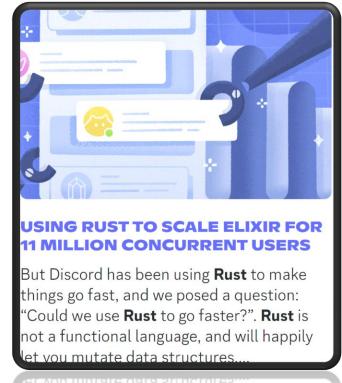
PRESS RELEASE | Dec. 6, 2023

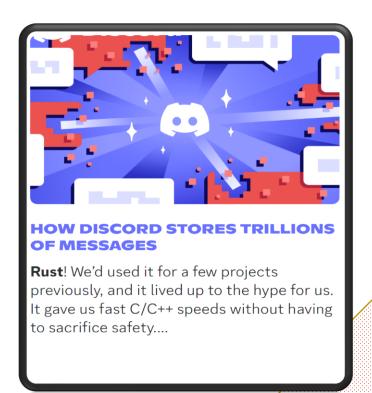


• Finally, it is worth mention that Discord uses Rust on several backend projects that require memory safety and increase performance:

https://discord.com/blog/search?query=rust







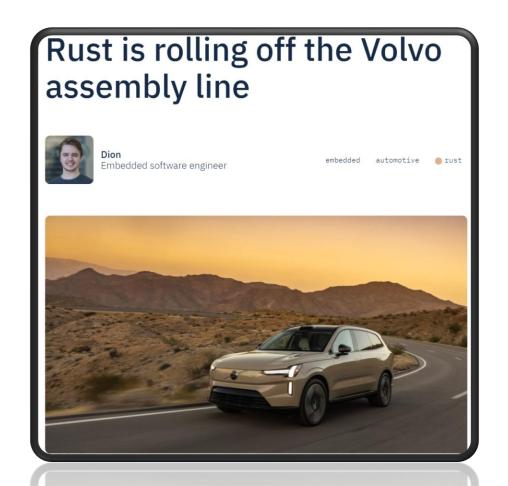


#### Other memorable notions:

- 2022 → CloudFlare announced Pingore (their proxy that connects Cloudflare to Internet written in Rust): <a href="https://blog.cloudflare.com/how-we-built-pingora-the-proxy-that-connects-cloudflare-to-the-internet/">https://blog.cloudflare.com/how-we-built-pingora-the-proxy-that-connects-cloudflare-to-the-internet/</a>
- 2022 Facebook announced their support for Rust for server side components: <a href="https://www.zdnet.com/article/the-rust-programming-language-just-got-a-big-boost-from-meta/">https://www.zdnet.com/article/the-rust-programming-language-just-got-a-big-boost-from-meta/</a>
- 2022 → Google announced that they started to use Rust for Android to mitigate risks: <a href="https://www.zdnet.com/article/google-after-using-rust-we-slashed-android-memory-safety-vulnerabilities/">https://www.zdnet.com/article/google-after-using-rust-we-slashed-android-memory-safety-vulnerabilities/</a>
- 2023 Meta announces Buck2 (a build system written in Rust): https://engineering.fb.com/2023/10/23/developer-tools/5-things-you-didnt-know-about-buck2/



#### Or other a little bit different:







#### Rust IDEs

Visual Studio Code:

https://marketplace.visualstudio.com/items?itemName=rust-lang.rust-analyzer

• IntelliJ (RostOver):

https://blog.jetbrains.com/rust/2023/09/13/introducing-rustrover-a-standalone-rust-ide-by-jetbrains/

• Eclipse:

https://www.eclipse.org/downloads/packages/release/2019-09/r/eclipse-ide-rust-developersincludes-incubating-components

• Online IDE (Rust playground):

https://play.rust-lang.org/

• Other online compilers:
<a href="https://www.tutorialspoint.com/compile\_rust\_online.php">https://www.tutorialspoint.com/compile\_rust\_online.php</a>
<a href="https://replit.com/languages/rust\_https://rust.godbolt.org/">https://rust.godbolt.org/</a>



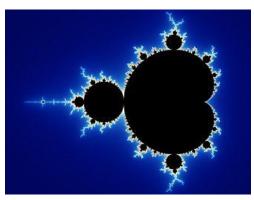
#### Rust Characteristics

- Strong-typed & statically typed language
- LLVM backend (native compiler) gcc backend also a possibility in the future
- Ownership and lifetimes for variables
- Memory safety (allocation / access)
- No garbage collector
- Zero cost abstraction
- Move semantics
- Traits (for polymorphism)
- Package manager and build mechanisms



### Performance tests (Mandelbrot)

The Mandelbrot test is a benchmarking exercise that measures the performance of a programming language or compiler by computing and rendering the Mandelbrot fractal.



#### What It Measures:

- Raw CPU performance
- Loop optimization
- Floating-point performance
- Parallelism or threading efficiency
- Compiler code generation quality

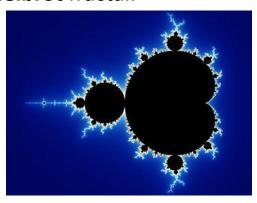
Language	Time	Peak Memory	Version
Rust	247ms	4.9MB	rustc 1.89.0-nightly
Rust	291ms	4.8MB	rustc 1.87.0
<u>C</u>	332ms	6.0MB	zigcc 0.14.1
C-Sharp	332ms	37.3MB	dotnet 9.0.300
<u>C</u>	452ms	6.5MB	clang 14.0.0-1ubuntu1.1
<u>C</u>	543ms	6.6MB	gcc 15.1.0
<u>Nim</u>	578ms	4.5MB	nim 2.2.4
<u>Java</u>	1162ms	55.7MB	openjdk 23
<u>Java</u>	1167ms	54.6MB	openjdk 21
<u>Java</u>	1194ms	108.9MB	graal/jvm 17.0.8
<u>Go</u>	3230ms	7.7MB	go 1.24.3

https://programming-language-benchmarks.vercel.app/problem/mandelbrot



### Performance tests (Mandelbrot)

The Mandelbrot test is a benchmarking exercise that measures the performance of a programming language or compiler by computing and rendering the Mandelbrot fractal.



#### What It Measures:

- Raw CPU performance
- Loop optimization
- Floating-point performance
- Parallelism or threading efficiency
- Compiler code generation quality

#	Language	Time (sec)	Memory (MB)	#	Language	Time (sec)	Memory (MB)
1	Rust	0.95	35,598	14	Dart	4.29	45,175
2	Chapel	1.18	42,156	15	Haskell	6.64	51,057
3	Julia	1.54	357,138	16	F#	7.17	49,979
4	C gcc	1.64	35,582	17	Swift	7.27	49,312
5	C++ g++	2.36	38,281	18	<b>OCaml</b>	7.60	64,643
6	Intel Fortran	2.72	85,975	19	Erlang	53.86	98,140
7	Go	3.77	37,970	20	PHP	68.29	53,531
8	Free Pascal	3.91	35,529	21	Ruby	143.13	118,436
9	Java	3.96	58,348	22	Lua	159.01	652,796
10	Ada 2012	4.01	41,099	23	Python 3	182.94	62,173
11	C#	4.02	40,743	24	PHP	258.19	16,437
12	Node.js	4.05	144,757	25	Smalltalk	>5 min	175,542
13	Lisp	4.20	60,654	26	Perl	>8 min	114,569

https://benchmarksgame-team.pages.debian.net/benchmarksgame/performance/mandelbrot.html (code that have possible hand-written vector instructions or "unsafe" was removed)



# First rust program



### First RUST Program

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

• C-like syntax



#### First RUST Program

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

```
C/C++
void main()
{
    printf("Hello world !");
}
```

- C-like syntax
- However, there are some differences:
  - A function in C is defined by writing the return type first, while in Rust a function is defined using a special keyword fn
  - "printf" is a function in C/C++, while "print!" is a macro in Rust



#### First RUST Program

```
fn helloWorld() -> i32
{
    print!("Hello world !");
    return 0;
}
```

```
c/C++
int helloWorld()
{
    printf("Hello world !");
    return 0;
}
```

- C-like syntax
- However, there are some differences:
  - A function in C is defined by writing the return type first, while in Rust a function is defined using a special keyword fn
  - "printf" is a function in C/C++, while "print!" is a macro in Rust
- To specify the return value of a function, use the following syntax:



#### 1. Using rustc (rust compiler) command line:

- Make sure that rust is installed
- Create a file in a folder named "first.rs" and insert into it the "hello world example (the one with a main function)
- Run the following command from command line: rustc first.rs
- An executable file (e.g. first.exe if you run this command in Windows) should appear in the first.rs file
- Run the executable file created on the precedent step (e.g. run first.exe if you are on Windows)



#### 2. Using cargo (rust package manager) from command line:

- Make sure that rust is installed
- Run the following command from command line: cargo new first
- You should see a new folder (named first) that was created in the current folder with the following structure:

\	Current folder			
\first	A folder that contains your first project			
\first\.git A hidden folder with a git integration data				
\first\.gitignore	Ignore rules for git repo			
\first\Cargo.toml	Configuration file for first project (INI like format)			
\src	A folder with all rust sources			
\src\main.rs	The main file of the rust project			



#### 2. Using cargo (rust package manager) from command line:

- Make sure that rust is installed
- Run the following command from command line: cargo new first
- You should see a new folder (named first) that was created in the current folder with the following structure:

```
\
\first
\first\.git
\first\.git
\first\.gitignore
\first\Cargo.toml
\src
\src\main.rs
[package]
name = "first"
version = "0.1.0"
edition = "2022"

# See more keys and their definitions at...
[dependencies]
```



#### 2. Using cargo (rust package manager) from command line:

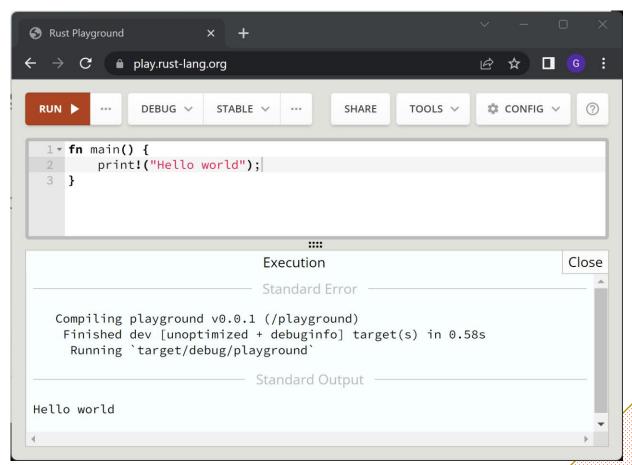
- Make sure that rust is installed
- Run the following command from command line: cargo new first
- You should see a new folder (named first) that was created in the current folder.
- Modify the "\src\main.rs" to contain the hello world example
- In folder "\first" execute the following command: cargo run

```
\first>cargo run
    Compiling first v0.1.0 (E:\Lucru\Rust\temp2\first)
    Finished dev [unoptimized + debuginfo] target(s) in 0.81s
    Running `target\debug\first.exe`
Hello, world!
```



#### 3. Try it using rust playground:

- Open a browser and go to <u>https://play.rust-lang.org/</u>
- Write the hello world code
- Hit the Run button from the top-left side of the web-page





#### 4. Use different features from specialized IDEs:

- Use features such as create new project (IntelliJ) or various command/prompts from Visual Studio Code
- In the backend the cargo utility is usually used



# **Basic Types**



### Basic types

#### Rust has several basic types, including:

- 1. Integers
- 2. Float values
- 3. Boolean
- 4. Character type



### Basic types

#### Rust integer types:

Size	Rust type	C/C++ type	C/C++ (approximate type)
8 bit (unsigned)	u8	uint8_t	unsigned char
8 bit (signed)	i8	int8_t	char
16 bit (unsigned)	u16	uint16_t	unsigned short
16 bit (signed)	i16	int16_t	short
32 bit (unsigned)	u32	uint32_t	unsigned int
32 bit (signed)	i32	int32_t	int
64 bit (unsigned)	u64	uint64_t	unsigned long long
64 bit (signed)	i64	int64_t	long long
128 bit (unsigned)	u128	N/A*	N/A
128 bit (signed)	i128	N/A*	N/A

<sup>\*</sup> gcc and c-lang provide a \_\_int128 type (but it is not part of the standard)



#### Rust integer types:

- General format is "i<no of bits>" for signed integer or "u<no of bits>" for unsigned integers
- Signed integers (just like in C) are based on C<sub>2</sub> complement format
- Besides this, there are two more integers types that have variable length (depending on the architecture (32 or 64 bit). These types are used as indexes in an array or as a representation of an offset or size of a structure in memory.

Туре	Rust type	C/C++ type
Unsigned (32/64 bit)	usize	size_t
Signed (32/64 bit)	isize	ptrdiff_t



#### Rust integer types:

- Rust supports the following notations for integer values:
  - 0x => for hexadecimal values
  - 0o => for octal values
  - 0b => for binary values
  - b'char' => for u8 values
- In addition, rust supports the use of character as a digit delimitator
- The type of the integer value (u8,u16,i8,i16,u32 ...) can also be specified as a suffix for a number to specify its type



#### Rust integer types:



#### Rust float types:

General format is "f<no of bits>" where number of bits is either 32 or

64

Format IEEE-754 (similar to C/C++)

• "f32" and "f64" can also be used as suffixes when creating a float constant

```
Type Rust type C/C++ type
Float 32 bits f32 float
Float 64 bits f64 double
```

```
Rust

123.0;  // f64

123f64;  // 123.0 (f64)

1.23f32;  // f32 value

5.200_345;  // f64 value of 5.200345
```



#### Rust boolean type:

Identical to C/C++ (bool)

Туре	Rust type	C/C++ type
Boolean	bool	bool

- Size of bool type is 1 byte (just like in C/C++) with 1 indicating a true value and 0 a false value
- Same constants just like in C/C++: true and false



#### Rust character type:

Identical to C/C++ (char)

Туре	Rust type	C/C++ type (used by people)	C++ equivalent type
Character	char	char	char32_t

- However, while the size of one character (for type char) in C/C++ is one byte, in Rust the size of one character is 4 bytes (so that it can represent any Unicode character value). The equivalent type in C++ is char32\_t
- Character constants can be written using single quotes 'A'





Rust supports both local and global variables.

A local variable in Rust is declared using the special keywork let .

let <variable_name> : <type> = <initialization_value?< th=""><th>&gt;;</th></initialization_value?<></type></variable_name>	>;
<pre>let <variable_name> = <initialization_value>;</initialization_value></variable_name></pre>	Variable type is inferred from the initialization_value
<pre>let <variable_name> : <type> ;</type></variable_name></pre>	Uninitialized variable. Its value must be set up before using it.
let <variable_name></variable_name>	Uninitiatlize variable without a type specification. Its value must be set up before using it. When its value is going to be set up, its type is going to be inferred at that time.



A simple example of local variables in Rust.

```
Rust
fn main() {
  let a: u32 = 123;  // a is of type u32 and has a value of 123
  let b = 123;  // b is inferred as an i32 and has a value of 123
   let c = 0xFFu64; // c is of type u64 (due to the suffix of u64 from the
                  // initialization constant)
  // e is not initialized and its type will be inferred upon
   let e;
                   // initialization.
   d = true;  // d value is initialized
   e = 4.3; // e is initialized and its type is f64
   println!("a={}, b={}, c={}, d={}, e={}", a, b, c, d, e);
```

Output

a=123, b=123, c=255, d=true, e=4.3



Rust does not allow the usage of uninitialized variables:

```
fn main() {
    let x: i32;
    println!("x={}", x);
}
```



However, the following code will work:

```
fn main() {
    let x: i32;
    println!("Before x is initialized !");
    x = 100;
    println!("x={}", x);
}
Output
```

In the second case the type of "x" is inferred to i32.

Before x is initialized! x=100

```
fn main() {
    let x;
    println!("Before x is initialized !");
    x = 100;
    println!("x={}", x);
}
```



By default, any variable declared in Rust is immutable. The following code will not compile because variable "x" can not be modified.

```
fn main() {
    let x = 10;
    println!("x is {}", x);
    x = 100;
    println!("now x is {}", x);
}
```

The usage of an in-mutable variable can be optimized when compiling (e.g inline-ing variable value).



In contrast, any C/C++ variables are by default mutable and can be changed. As such, declaring a variable in Rust is similar to the following code in C/C++;

```
fn main() {
    let x = 10;
    println!("x is {}", x);
}
```

```
c/C++ (using const specifier)

void main() {
   const int x = 10;
   printf("x is %d",x);
}
```

```
void main() {
   constexpr int x = 10;
   printf("x is %d",x);
}
```



To declare a mutable variable, use the keyword mut in the following way: let mut <variable\_name> ....

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 10;
    println!("x is {}", x);
    x = 100;
    println!("now x is {}", x);
}
```

Now the previous code compiles and produces the following output:

```
Output

x is 10

now x is 100
```



Once a variable has a type assigned (via initialization or through type inference) its type **CAN NOT** be changed (similar to how C/C++ works).

```
fn main() {
    let mut x;
    x = 10;
    println!("x is {}", x);
    x = true;
    println!("now x is {}", x);
}
```

In this case the second assignment tries to set the value of variable "x" that is of type "i32" to bool (via constant true)



Keep in mind that the same code in C/C++ works (due to the rules of promotion, any Boolean value can be converted into an int).

```
fn main() {
    let mut x;
    x = 10;
    println!("x is {}", x);
    x = true;
    println!("now x is {}", x);
}
```

```
void main() {
    int x;
    x = 10;
    printf("x is %d\n",x);
    x = true;
    printf("now x is %d\n",x);
}
```

Compile error

Compiles ok

#### Output

x is 10 now x is 1



As a general observation, once a variable is declared with a specific type, it can not be assigned with a value of a different type, even if an implicit conversion is possible.

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 10u32;
    x = 1u8;
    println!("x is {}", x);
}
```

In this case "X" is of type u32 (with values between 0 and 2<sup>32</sup>-1) and the assigned value is of type u8. Even if every possible value for an u8 (values between 0 and 2<sup>32</sup>-1) can be stored in an u32 value, Rust will still provide a compiler error.



In contrast, the same C/C++ code compiles (rules of conversion will automatically convert a u8 value to u32).

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 10u32;
    x = 1u8;
    println!("x is {}", x);
}
```

```
c/c++

void main() {
    unsigned int x = 10;
    x = (unsigned char)1;
    printf("x is %d\n",x);
}
```

Compile error

Compiles ok

Output

x is 1



To cast from a type to another type in Rust there is a keyword called as that can be used. The general format is <a href="mailto:rwalue"><a href="mail

For the previous case to work we need to rewrite it like this:

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 10u32;
    x = 1u8 as u32;
    println!("x is {}", x);
}
Output

x is 1
```



#### Let's see some examples:

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 255 as u8;
    let mut y = 1 as i32;
    y = x as i32;
    println!("y is {}", y); // y is 255
}
```

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 255 as u8;
    let mut y = 1 as i8;
    y = x as i8;
    println!("y is {}", y); // y is -1
}
```

Output y is 255 Output y is -1

First case is a simple one (as all possible values from u8) can be stored in an i32. The second case (i8 to u8) keeps the value as it is (in terms of bits) and just interprets the value in a different way.



Not all casts are possible (for example a cast between a number and a bool is not allowed). The following code will not compile:

C/C++ has a different logic (any value that is 0 can be implicitly seen as false and any value different than 0 can implicitly be seen as true).



#### Let's see some examples:

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 258 as u64;
    let mut y = 0 as u8;
    y = x as u8;
    println!("y is {}", y); // y is 2
}
Output

y is 2

}
```

In this case, a truncation to the first 8-bits happens for the value of 258 (keep in mind that an u8 cand only store values between 0 and 255).

```
258 = 0000 0000 0000 0000 0001 0000 0010
```

- = the code will truncate to the last 8bits (least significant one)
- = as such the result of the cast will be 1



In case of integer to float conversions, the program attempts to obtain the closest float value to the integer one (that can be represented in the float format).

```
fn main() {
    let x = 100 as u32;
    let mut y = 0 as f32;
    y = x as f32;
    println!("y is {}",y);
    println!("x is {}",x);
}
```

```
Output

y is 100
x is 100
```

```
fn main() {
    let x = 0xFFFF_FFFF as u32;
    let mut y = 0 as f32;
    y = x as f32;
    println!("y is {}",y);
    println!("x is {}",x);
}
```

```
      Output

      y is 4294967300
      A294967295

      Notice the difference
```



In case of float to float conversion (every f32 can be converted into an f64, while an f64 is approximated to the closest f32).

```
fn main() {
    let x = 1.0123456789 as f64;
    let mut y = 0 as f32;
    y = x as f32;
    println!("y is {}", y);
    println!("x is {}", x);
}
Output
```

```
fn main() {
    let x = 1.7976931348623157E+308 as f64;
    let mut y = 0 as f32;
    y = x as f32;
    println!("y is {}", y);
    println!("x is {}", x);
}
```

```
      Output
      Output

      y is 1.0123457
      y is inf

      x is 1.0123456789
      x is 17976931348623157000...000
```

If the f64 value is outside maximum value possible in f32, the conversion will enforce inf as the value of f32.



To declare multiple variables at the same time, use the following format:

```
- let (var<sub>1</sub>, var<sub>2</sub>, ... var<sub>n</sub>) = (value<sub>1</sub>, value<sub>2</sub>, ... value<sub>n</sub>)
```

The types for var<sub>1</sub>, var<sub>2</sub>, ... var<sub>n</sub> are inferred from the associated values.

```
fn main() {
    let (mut x, mut y, mut z) = (1, 2, 3);
    let (a, b) = (1.23, true);
    println!("{x},{y},{z},{a},{b}");
    x = 10;
    y = 20;
    z = 30;
    println!("{x},{y},{z},{a},{b}");
}

Output

1,2,3,1.23,true
10,20,30,1.23,true
10,20,30,1.23,true
2    println!("{x},{y},{z},{a},{b}");
}
```

The number of values provided must be the same as the number of variables.



Rust also allows shadowing  $\rightarrow$  meaning that a variable with the same name and possible different type can be declared within an inner block and possible be initialized with the value of the initial variable.

```
fn main() {
    let x: i32 = 10;
    println!("x is {}", x);
    {
       let x: bool = true;
       println!("inner x is {}", x);
    }
    println!("outter x is {}", x);
}
```



Shadowing is often used to change the mutability state of one variable for a limited period of time by using a copy of that variable.

```
fn main() {
    let x: i32 = 10;
    println!("x is {}", x);
    {
        let mut x = x;
        x = 20; // x is now mutable and can be changed
        println!("inner x is {}", x);
    }
    println!("outter x is {}", x);
}

Output
    x is 10
    inner x is 20
    outter x is 10
```



For global variables, use the keyword static instead of let (let is designed for stack/local variables).

```
Rust
static x: i32 = 10;

fn main() {
    let mut y = 0 as f32;
    y = x as f32;
    println!("y is {}", y);
    println!("x is {}", x);
}
Output
y is 10
x is 10
```

A static variable implies a possible mutable variable (if mut keyword is being used) and guarantees an allocated space in the binary data.



Rust also allows the usage of the special keyword const to define a constant. The main difference between a const value and a static value is that a const value is always immutable and will be replaced with its value upon compiling phase.

```
Rust
const x: i32 = 10;

fn main() {
    let mut y = 0 as f32;
    y = x as f32;
    println!("y is {}", y);
    println!("x is {}", x);
}
Output

y is 10
x is 10
x is 10
```



Both static and const keywords can be used in a local function:

```
Rust
                                   Rust
fn main() {
                                   fn main() {
                                                                       Output
    static x: i32 = 10;
                                       const x: i32 = 10;
    let mut y = 0 as f32;
                                       let mut y = 0 as f32;
                                                                       y is 10
    y = x as f32;
                                       y = x as f32;
                                                                       x is 10
    println!("y is {}", y);
                                       println!("y is {}", y);
    println!("x is {}", x);
                                       println!("x is {}", x);
```

**OBS**: a mutable static value requires unsafe code (more about this on a different course).



Another difference between static / const and let is that type has to be provided in case of static and const keywords and can not be inferred.

```
Rust

fn main() {
   const x = 10;
   println!("x is {}",x);
}
```

```
Rust

fn main() {
    static x = 10;
    println!("x is {}",x);
}
```



The same logic applies for initialization value (if in case of let, one can define a variable and assigned its value after this), in case of const and static this is not possible.

```
fn main() {
   static x: i32;
   x = 10;
   println!("x={}",x);
}
```



#### **Observations:**

1. There is no such thing as 0 initialization in Rust (for global variables).

= note: `#[warn(non upper case globals)]` on by default

- From this point of view, Rust tries to make everything clear and make sure that there is no unknown behavior due to this case.
- 2. In case of constants, Rust recommend using upper cases (this is considered a warning and will not affect the compilation phase).



#### Comparation with C/C++ similar forms:

Keyword	Rust	C/C++	
let	let mut x: i32 = 10;	int x = 10;	
	let mut x: i32;	int x;	
	let mut x = 10;	auto x = 10;	
	let mut x; x = 10;	N/A	
const	const x: i32 = 10;	const int x = 10;	
		constexpr int $x = 10$ ;	
		#define x 10	
static	static x: i32 = 10;	const int $x = 10$ ; // as a global variable	
		static const int $x = 10$ ; // as a local definition	



# Operators



# **Operators**

#### Rust supports the following operators:

Operator	Rust	C/C++
Arithmetic ( <mark>+ - * / %</mark> )	Yes	Yes
Comparation ( > < >= <= != ==)	Yes	Yes
Logical OR , AND or NOT (     && ! )	Yes	Yes
Bit operators: bitwise OR, bitwise AND, shifts ( &   ^ >> <<)	Yes	Yes
Assignments ( = += -= *= %= /= &=  = ^= >>= <<= )	Yes	Yes
Increment / Decrement operators ( ++ )	N/A	Yes
Negate operator ( ~ )	N/A (use !)	Yes
Conditionally operator ( $?:$ ) $\rightarrow$ condition ? Value for true : Value for false	N/A	Yes
Member access operator ( <mark>&gt;</mark> )	Partial (only .)	Yes
Error propagation (?)	Yes	N/A
Range literals ( <mark>=</mark> )	Yes	N/A
Functional update ( )	Yes	Partial (proxy ctor)



# **Operators**

Rust has a very comprehensive compiling error system that besides clearly explaining an error, it also provides some directions/ideas on how to fix that error. In particular for operators, Rust can identify some of the widely used operators that are not supported (such as increment or decrement) and provide guidance on how to fix some errors.

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 10;
    x++;
    print("x = {}", x);
}
```



# **Operators**

Rust has a very comprehensive compiling error system that besides clearly explaining an error, it also provides some directions/ideas on how to fix that error. In particular for operators, Rust can identify some of the widely used operators that are not supported (such as increment or decrement) and provide guidance on how to fix some errors.

```
fn main() {
    let mut x:u32 = 10;
    x = ~x;
    print!("x = {}", x);
}
```



# **Operators**

### Operators order:

Operator	Associativity
* / %	left to right
+ -	left to right
<< >>	left to right
&	left to right
۸	left to right
	left to right
== != < > <= >=	Require parentheses
&&	left to right
	left to right
=	Require parentheses
= += -= *= /= %= &=  = ^= <<= >>=	right to left



# Functions & Expression Statements



Function in Rust are defined using the keywork fn in the following way:

Rust	C/C++
fn <name> () {}</name>	void <name> () {}</name>
fn <name> (parameters) {}</name>	void <name> (parameters) {}</name>
fn <name> () -&gt; <return_type> {}</return_type></name>	<return_type> <name> () {}</name></return_type>
fn <name> (parameters) -&gt; <return_type> {}</return_type></name>	<return_type> <name> (parameters) {}</name></return_type>

Where parameters are defined in the following way:

- \* <param\_name>:<type> [, < param\_name >:<type>, ... ]
- \* mut < param\_name >:<type> [, ....]

Where cparam\_name is the name of a parameter, and <type</pre> is the type of that variable.



#### **Examples:**

```
Rust
fn sum(x: u32, y: u32) -> u32 {
    return x + y;
fn print_x(x: u32) {
    println!("X is {}", x);
fn main() {
   let mut x: u32 = 10;
    print_x(x);
   x = sum(10, 20);
   print_x(x);
```

#### Output

X is 10 X is 30



#### **Examples:**

```
Rust
fn compute(x: u32, y: u32) -> u32
   x = x * y;
    return x + y;
fn print_x(x: u32) {
    println!("X is {}", x);
fn main() {
   let mut x: u32 = 10;
    print_x(x);
    x = compute(10, 20);
   print_x(x);
```

#### **Error**



#### **Examples:**

```
Rust
fn compute(x:u32, y:u32) -> u32 {
     x = x * y;
     return x+y;
fn print_x(x:u32) {
     println!("X is {}",x);
fn main() {
      let mut \underline{x}:u32 = 10;
      print_x(\underline{x});
      \underline{x} = compute(10, 20);
      print_x(\underline{x});
```

```
Rust
fn compute(mut x:u32, y:u32) -> u32 {
     x = x * y;
     return x+y;
fn print_x(x:u32) {
     println!("X is {}",x);
fn main() {
      let mut \underline{x}:u32 = 10;
      print_x(\underline{x});
      \underline{x} = compute(10, 20);
      print_x(\underline{x});
```



Rust has a keyword ( return ) that can be used to return a value from a function (similar to C-like languages). At the same time, Rust allows a different format of returning a value by writing the value that you want to return directly.

The following two Rust programs are equivalent.

```
Rust

fn value_3() -> u32
{
    return 3;
}
fn main() {
    let x = value_3();
    println!("x is {}", x);
}

Rust

fn value_3() -> u32
{
    let x = value_3();
    println!("x is {}", x);
}
```



Rust

return 3;

fn main() {

## **Functions**

Rust has a keyword (return) that can be used to return a value from a function (similar to C-like languages). At the same time, Rust allows a different format of returning a value by writing the value that you want to return directly.

The following two Rust pro

```
Notice that ; character is not added after
                                      the value that needs to be returned
fn value_3() -> u32
                                                      ue 3()
                                                              -> u32
                                                fn main()
    let x = value_3();
                                                    let x = value_3();
    println!("x is {}", x);
                                                    println!("x is {}", x);
```



Rust also allows an expression statement where something gets computed based within a statement {...}

```
fn main() {
    let y = 10;
    let x = { 1 + y };
    println!("x = {x}");
}
Output

X = 11
```

Notice that the same return format (with a value) is being used in this case (without the ; character at the end)



In this format, some even more complex operations can be performed:

```
fn main() {
    let y = 10;
    let x = {
        let temp = y;
        let a = temp * y;
        a + y + 5
    };
    println!("x = {x}");
}
```

In this case, the value of "x" will be "a+y+5"



In this format, some even more complex operations can be performed:

```
fn main() {
    let y = 10;
    let x = {
        fn sum(x: i32, y: i32) -> i32 { x + y }
        fn dif(x: i32, y: i32) -> i32 { x - y }
        sum(2, 5) + dif(7, 3)
    };
    println!("x = {x}");
}
```

It is also possible to create nested functions within an expression statements and use them to compute the return value.



Nested functions can be added within an existing function:

```
Rust
fn main() {
    fn sum(x: i32, y: i32) -> i32 {
        x + y
                                                                  Output
                                                                  X = 10, Y = 30
    fn dif(x: i32, y: i32) -> i32 {
        x - y
    let y = sum(10, 20);
    let x = dif(20, 10);
    println!("x = \{x\}, y = \{y\}");
```



# **Basic statements**



## Basic statements

Most of basic statements that exists in C/C++ can be found in Rust as well:

Statement type	Rust	C/C++
If statement	Yes	Yes
While statement	Yes	Yes
For statement (classic)	N/A	Yes
For each	Yes	Yes
Loop	Yes	N/A
DoWhile statement	N/A	Yes
GoTo	N/A (partial support)	Yes
switch	Yes	Yes
Patterns: iflet, whilelet, letelse	Yes	N/A



#### If statement format:

- if condition <then statement>
- if condition <then statement> else <else statement>

#### Obs:

- Notice that condition does not require parentheses (...)
- 2. Because of this, <then statement> and <else statement> can not be simple instructions (they have to be embedded in a block).



#### Example:

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 1;
    if x > 0 {
        x += 1;
    }
    println!("x = {x}");
}
```

```
C/C++ (v1)

void main() {
    int x = 1;
    if (x>0) {
        x+=1;
    }
    printf("x = %d", x);
}
```

```
C/C++ (v2)

void main() {
   int x = 1;
   if (x>0)
        x+=1;
   printf("x = %d", x);
}
```

```
X = 2
```



#### Example (if ... else):

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 1;
    if x > 0 {
        x += 1;
    } else {
        x -= 1;
    }
    println!("x = {x}");
}
```

```
C/C++ (v1)

void main() {
    int x = 1;
    if (x>0) {
        x+=1;
    } else {
        x-=1;
    }
    printf("x = %d", x);
}
```

```
C/C++ (v2)

void main() {
    int x = 1;
    if (x>0)
        x+=1;
    else
        x-=1;
    printf("x = %d", x);
}
```

```
X = 2
```



Parentheses (and) around the condition are allowed, the code compiles but triggers a warning:

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 1;
    if (x > 0) {
        x += 1;
    }
    println!("x = {x}");
}
```

#### Warning

```
X = 2
```



If statement can also be used as an expression statement:

```
fn main() {
    let x = 31;
    let y = if x > 20 { x / 2 } else { x * 2 };
    println!("y = {y}");
}
```

```
C++
void main() {
   int x = 31;
   int y = x>20 ? x/2 : x * 2;
   printf("y = %d", y);
}
```

```
Output
y = 15
```

Notice the fact the return value is specified just like in the case of expression statements for both *then* and *else* parts.



While statement is similar to the one from C/C++:

```
- while <condition> { ... do block ... }
```

Just like in if statement case, notice that the *condition* does not need to be surrounded by parentheses.

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 0;
    while x < 3 {
        println!("x={x}");
        x = x + 1;
    }
}</pre>
```

```
C/C++
void main() {
    int x = 1;
    while (x<3) {
        printf("x = %d", x);
        x+=1;
    }
}</pre>
```

```
X = 0
X = 1
X = 2
```



Similar to if statement, the condition MUST be followed by a block (and can not be a simple instruction like in the case of C/C++).

```
C/C++
void main() {
   int x = 1;
   while (x<3)
        x+=1;
   printf("x = %d", x);
}</pre>
```

```
error: expected `{`, found `x`
   --> src\main.rs:6:9

5  | while x<3
   | ---- --- this `while` condition successfully parsed
   | |
   | while parsing the body of this `while` expression
6  | x = x+1;
   | ^ expected `{`
help: try placing this code inside a block
6  | { x = x+1; }
   | +</pre>
```

The C/C++ code will compile



Both break and continue keywords can be used in a while statement, with the same logic as the one from C/C++ (break or continue the loop).

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 1;
    while x < 10 {
        if x % 3 == 0 {
            break;
        }
        x = x + 1;
    }
    println!("{x}");
}</pre>
```



Let's consider the following problem:

- Let there be a number of form **abc**, where **a**, **b** and **c** are digits between 1 and 9
- Can we find the smallest number of this form that has the following relation between a, b and c

1) 
$$a = b \times 2$$

2) 
$$b = c \times 2$$

The answer is simple  $\rightarrow$  there are two numbers that respect this condition: 421 and 842, and as we are searching for the smallest one the final answer will be 421.



#### Let's see how the previous problem can be solved in Rust:

```
Rust
fn main() {
   let (mut x, mut y, mut z) = (1, 1, 1);
   while x < 10 {
       y = 1;
       while y < 10 {
            z = 1;
            while z < 10 {
                if (x == y * 2) \&\& (y == z * 2) {
                    println!("{x}, {y}, {z}");
                    break;
                z += 1;
            y += 1;
        x += 1;
```

This code will run correctly, but it will not print the smallest solutions but instead it will print all solutions.

#### Output

4, 2, 1 8, 4, 2



#### Let's see how the previous problem can be solved in Rust:

```
Rust
fn main() {
    let (mut x, mut y, mut z) = (1, 1, 1);
   let mut done = false;
    while (x < 10) \&\& (!done) {
        y = 1;
        while (y < 10) \&\& (!done) {
            z = 1;
            while (z < 10) \&\& (!done) {
                if (x == y * 2) && (y == z * 2) {
                    println!("{x}, {y}, {z}");
                    done = true;
                z += 1;
            y += 1;
        x += 1;
```

One solution will be to create a flag variable that forces the exit from every inner while loops. Once the first solution is found, we enable that flag and for the exit from every inner while loop.

**Output** 

4, 2, 1



Rust has a way of providing a name (a label) for every loop statement (for, while or loop).

This is done via the following format:

- '<name>: <for|while|loop>

Example: 'first\_while: while ...

This allows keywords like break or continue to explicitly say if we want to break the current loop or if we want to break a specific loop based on the loop name / label.

- break
- break 'first\_while



#### Let's see how the previous problem can be solved in Rust:

```
Rust
fn main()
    let (mut x, mut y, mut z) = (1, 1, 1);
 'first_while: while x < 10 {</pre>
        y = 1;
        'second_while: while y < 10 {</pre>
            z = 1;
            while z < 10 {
                if (x == y * 2) && (y == z * 2) {
                    println!("{x}, {y}, {z}");
                     break 'first while;
                z += 1;
            y += 1;
        x += 1;
```

This is a more elegant solution as we can specify what while should the break keyword break;

When break 'first\_while is called, it will break the most outer while and stop the entire process.

Output

4, 2, 1



Rust also has a special loop called loop statement

```
- loop { ... do block ... }
```

In a nutshell a loop statement is nothing but a while true {...} statement.

```
fn main() {
    let mut x = 0;
    loop {
        println!("{x}");
        if x >= 3 {
            break;
        }
        x += 1;
    }
}
```

```
void main() {
    int x = 1;
    while (true) {
        printf("x = %d", x);
        if (x>=3) break;
        x+=1;
    }
}
```



# loop

The main advantage of the loop statement stays in the fact that it can be transformed in an execution statement where the return of the loop can be obtained via a break <value> statement.

Format: let <variable>:<type> = loop { ... break <value> ... };

```
fn main() {
    let (mut x, mut y) = (24, 18);
    let cmmdc: i32 = loop {
        if x > y { x -= y; }
        else if y < x { y -= x }
        else { break x; }
    };
    println!("{cmmdc}");
}</pre>
```





Type can be omitted and will be inferred from the value returned via break statement.

```
Format: let <variable> = loop { ... break <value> ... };
```

```
fn main() {
    let mut sum = 0;
    let mut counter = 0;
    let first_10_sum = loop {
        if counter > 10 { break sum; }
        sum += counter;
        counter += 1;
    };
    println!("{first_10_sum}");
}
```

# If let

"if let" tries to match an expression with a specified pattern. If the expression matches the pattern, the assignment is being performed and the code from the <then block> is being executed. Otherwise, the <else> block, if present is executed.

- if let <pattern> = <expression> { ... then block ... }
- if let <pattern> = <expression> { ... then block ... } else { ... else block ... }

This statement is **NOT** to be confused with the if var=<expression> statement from C/C++, as they serve a different scope.



# if let

The assignment (in case of *if let <pattern> = <expression> { ...}* usually translates in a match of:

- An enum variant
- A structure with parameters
- Numerical constants
- Tuples
- •

We will discuss more about this type of statement when we talk about enums, errors and variants (as this is where this statement is mostly used).





#### If let statement (example):

```
Rust
                                                           Output
fn main() {
                                                           x is 10
   let x = 10;
                                                           A tuple of 1 and 2
    if let 5 = x { println!("x is 5 "); }
                                                           current tuple is not in the form (x,1)
    if let 10 = x { println!("x is 10"); }
    let tuple = (1,2); // a tuple with two integers 1 and 2
    if let (x,2) = tuple { println!("A tuple of {x} and 2");}
    if let (x,1) = tuple {
        /* do something */
    } else {
        println!("current tuple is not in the form (x,1)");
```



#### If let statement (example):

```
Rust
     fn main() {
         let x = 10;
         if let 5 = x { println!("x is 5 "); }
         if let 10 = x { println!("x is 10"); }
         let tuple = (1,2): // a tuple with two integers 1 and 2
         if let (x,2) = tuple { println!("A tuple of {x} and 2");}
                        = tuple {
                       mething */
This actually translates into the following logic:
                                           s not in the form (x,1)");
* If variable tuple's second value is 2 then copy its
first value into variable "x" and run the code from
               <then> block.
```





#### If let statement (example):

```
Rust
fn main() {
    let x = 10;
    if let 5 = x { println!("x is 5 "); }
    if let 10 = x { println!("x is 10"); }
    let tunle = (1.2): // a tunle with two integers 1 and 2
    if let (x,2) = tuple { println!("A tuple of {x} and 2");}
    1† let (x,1) = tuple {
         /* do something */
      els
                      An equivalent code will look like this:
             if the second value from a tuple is 2
           if tuple.1 == 2 {
               // assign the first value from the tuple to variable x
               let x = tuple.0;
               println!("A tuple of {x} and 2");
```





#### Let's discuss another example:

```
fn main() {
   if let v = 0 {
      println!("{v}");
   }
}
```

In this example, "if let v = 0" will always be true (in reality there is no pattern to match here – just a simple assignment). The code will compile, but this no different than just writing "let v = 0".



# if let

Let's discuss another example:

```
Rust
fn main() {
    let v = 20;
    if let v = 0 {
        println!("{v}");
    }
    println!("{v}");
}
```

This is a similar logic  $\rightarrow$  however, notice that the "v" variable from the if let statement has a *limited lifetime* to the *<then> block* and will not affect the outer "v" variable. As a result, the second println will print the value 20.





#### Let's discuss another example:

```
fn main() {
    let v = 20;
    if let v = 0 {
        println!("inner = {v}");
    }
    println!("outer = {v}");
}
```

```
C++
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
    int v = 20;
    if (v = 0) {
        printf("inner = %d",v);
    }
    printf("outer = %d",v);
}
```

Keep in mind that these two code are **NOT EQUIVALENT**. In case of C++ example, variable v is first instantiated with value 0 and then evaluated (and since 0 = false) the **<then block>** is not executed. Furthermore, it's the same variable "v" and as such the second printf will print value 0.



The while let form can be used in a loop with a similar logic (pattern must match in order for the loop to run).

```
fn main() {
    while let mut y = 0 {
        if y >= 3 { break; }
        y = y + 1;
        println!("{y}");
    }
}
```

On the first glance, we would expect this while to run for 3 iterations, print values from 1 to 3 and exit.

This is not to be confused with while var=expression statement from C/C++.



The while let form can be used in a loop with a similar logic (pattern must match in order for the loop to run).

```
fn main() {
    while let mut y = 0 {
        if y >= 3 { break; }
        y = y + 1;
        println!("{y}");
    }
}
```

This is not to be confused wit from C/C++.

On the first glance, we would expect this while to run for 3 iterations, print values from 1 to 3 and exit.

In reality, the code runs indefinitely. The initialization of y to 0 is evaluated on every iteration and as a result y will always be 0 and as such the break condition will not be achieved.



The while let form can be used in a loop with a similar logic (pattern must match in order for the loop to run).

```
fn main() {
    while let mut y = 0 {
        if y >= 3 { break; }
        y = y + 1;
        println!("{y}");
    }
}
```

Rust notifies about this behavior through a warning!



The while let form can be used in a loop with a similar logic (pattern must match in order for the loop to run).

```
fn main() {
    while let mut y = 0 {
        if y >= 3 { break; }
        y = y + 1;
        println!("{y}");
    }
}
Equivalent code

Rust

fn main() {
    while true {
        let mut y = 0;
        if y >= 3 { break; }
        y = y + 1;
        println!("{y}");
    }
}
```

This is not to be confused with while var=expression statement from C/C++.



The assignment (in case of while let <pattern> = <expression> { ...} usually translates in a match of:

- An enum variant
- A structure with parameters
- Numerical constants
- Tuples
- •

We will discuss more about this type of statement when we talk about enums, errors and variants (as this is where this statement is mostly used).



#### let ... else

"let ... else" tries to match an expression with a specified pattern. If the expression matches the pattern, the assignment is being executed. Otherwise, an error (that will be discuss in the next courses) will be thrown:

let <pattern> = <expression> else { ... error ... }

This is mostly used with enum, variants or structs and we will further discuss this type of behavior at that point.



### let ... else

#### Some examples of "let ... else":

```
fn main() {
    let tuple = (1,2);
    let (x,2) = tuple else {
        panic!("Fail to assign !")
    };
    println!("{x}");
}
```

#### Output

1

```
fn main() {
    let tuple = (1,3);
    let (x,2) = tuple else {
        panic!("Fail to assign !")
    };
    println!("{x}");
}
```

#### **Error**

```
thread 'main' panicked at 'Fail to assign !',
src\main.rs:3:31
stack backtrace:
    0: std::panicking::begin_panic_handler
```



### let ... else

#### Some examples of "let ... else":

```
fn main() {
    let tuple = (1,2);
    let (x,2) = tuple else {
        panic!("Fail to assign !")
    };
    println!("{x}");
}
```

This code compiles and runs without any error. Since tuple variable matches the format (<number>,2), the value of the first field from the tuple will be copied to variable "x".

```
fn main() {
    let tuple = (1,3);
    let (x,2) = tuple else {
        panic!("Fail to assign !")
    };
    println!("{x}");
}
```

Notice that tuple variable is (1,3) and does not match the let ... else requirement and as such a runtime error (panic) is thrown.



### other statements

There are other more complex statement in Rust, such as:

- for (equivalent for classical for from C/C++ and a foreach)
- match (an equivalent for switch in C/C++ but more oriented to pattern matching)

As all these statements are either more complex or require understanding of different concepts in Rust, we will discuss them during the next courses.

