

Generics in Rust

CS110L
Feb 2, 2022

Logistics

- Week 3 exercise sample solutions posted
- Week 5 exercises coming out tonight, due next Monday. Very short!
- Project 1 coming out Monday, due Feb 20th
 - *But feel free to start early :)*
 - Short project walkthrough on Monday during class!
- Today: wrapping up code organization with generics and a bit of intro to multiprocessing

Generics: Type parameters

Consolidating repetitive code

```
fn max(x: usize, y: usize) -> usize {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}  
  
fn main() {  
    let x: usize = read_usize("Enter a number: ");  
    let y: usize = read_usize("Enter another number: ");  
    println!("The biggest number was {}", max(x, y));  
}
```


Consolidating repetitive code

```
fn max_usize(x: usize, y: usize) -> usize {
    if x > y { x } else { y }
}

fn max_f32(x: f32, y: f32) -> f32 {
    if x > y { x } else { y }
}

fn main() {
    let x: usize = read_usize("Enter a number: ");
    let y: usize = read_usize("Enter another number: ");
    println!("The biggest number was {}", max_usize(x, y));
    let a: f32 = read_f32("Enter a decimal number: ");
    let b: f32 = read_f32("Enter another decimal number: ");
    println!("The biggest number was {}", max_f32(a, b));
}
```

Consolidating repetitive code

Table 3-1: Integer Types in Rust

Length	Signed	Unsigned
8-bit	i8	u8
16-bit	i16	u16
32-bit	i32	u32
64-bit	i64	u64
128-bit	i128	u128
arch	isize	usize

Rust also has two primitive types for *floating-point numbers*, which are numbers with decimal points. Rust's floating-point types are `f32` and `f64`, which are 32 bits and 64 bits in size, respectively.

The default type is `f64` because on modern CPUs it's roughly the

✅ The compiler is happy!

❌ But we are not :(There is so much code duplication!

```
fn max_usize(x: usize, y: usize) -> usize {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn max_i32(x: i32, y: i32) -> i32 {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn max_i64(x: i64, y: i64) -> i64 {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn max_f32(x: f32, y: f32) -> f32 {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn max_f64(x: f64, y: f64) -> f64 {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

How to decompose?

```
fn max_usize(x: usize, y: usize) -> usize {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn max_i32(x: i32, y: i32) -> i32 {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn max_i64(x: i64, y: i64) -> i64 {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn max_f32(x: f32, y: f32) -> f32 {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn max_f64(x: f64, y: f64) -> f64 {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

In traditional decomposition:

- Factor out the common parts into a function
- Define parameters for the parts that vary

What about here?

- The bodies are the functions are the same
- It's the *types* that are different.

Generic types

```
fn max_usize(x: usize, y: usize) -> usize {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn max_i32(x: i32, y: i32) -> i32 {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn max_i64(x: i64, y: i64) -> i64 {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn max_f32(x: f32, y: f32) -> f32 {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn max_f64(x: f64, y: f64) -> f64 {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

Decomposition: Factor out common parts into a function, with parameters for the parts that vary. Here, create *type parameters*:

```
fn max<T>(x: T, y: T) -> T {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

```
fn main() {  
    let x, y: usize = // ...  
    println!("Biggest: {}", max::usize(x, y));  
    let a, b: f32 = // ...  
    println!("Biggest: {}", max::f32(a, b));  
}
```

Alternatively, let the compiler infer T based on context:

```
println!("Biggest: {}", max(x, y));  
println!("Biggest: {}", max(a, b));
```

Generic types

Note: type parameter doesn't have to be named `T`

```
// valid (but annoying)
fn max<Banana>(x: Banana, y: Banana)
-> Banana {
    if x > y { x } else { y }
}
```

Note: can have multiple type parameters

```
fn myFunction<T, R, O>(x: T, y: R) -> O {
    // Do stuff
    // Return value of type O
}
```

Rust generics have no runtime overhead

```
fn max<T>(x: T, y: T) -> T {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}  
  
fn main() {  
    let x, y: usize = // ...  
    println!("Biggest: {}", max(x, y));  
    let a, b: f32 = // ...  
    println!("Biggest: {}", max(a, b));  
}
```

Compiled assembly:

__ZN7example3max17h401c757a865d8900E:

```
    push    r14  
    push    rbx  
    sub     rsp, 24  
    mov     rbx, rsi  
    mov     r14, rdi  
    mov     qword ptr [rsp + 8], rdi  
    mov     qword ptr [rsp + 16], rsi  
    lea    rdi, [rsp + 8]  
    lea    rsi, [rsp + 16]  
    call   __ZN4core3cmp5impls57_$LT$impl$u20$core..cmp..PartialOrd$u20$for$u20$usize$GT$2gt17h6b7  
    test   al, al  
    cmovne rbx, r14  
    mov     rax, rbx  
    add     rsp, 24  
    pop     rbx  
    pop     r14  
    ret
```

__ZN7example3max17h60e8a4caf87fe7d5E:

```
    sub     rsp, 24  
    movss  dword ptr [rsp + 12], xmm0  
    movss  dword ptr [rsp + 16], xmm0  
    movss  dword ptr [rsp + 8], xmm1  
    movss  dword ptr [rsp + 20], xmm1  
    lea    rdi, [rsp + 16]  
    lea    rsi, [rsp + 20]  
    call   __ZN4core3cmp5impls55_$LT$impl$u20$core..cmp..PartialOrd$u20$for$u20$f32$GT$2gt17h9575d  
    movss  xmm0, dword ptr [rsp + 12]  
    test   al, al  
    jne    .LBB249_2  
    movss  xmm0, dword ptr [rsp + 8]  
.LBB249_2:  
    add     rsp, 24  
    ret
```

We get a separate function for each type!
Assembly is identical to the code we wrote
before decomposing!

Consequently: Code cleanup cost us nothing
(practical concern, given that nicer code in
high-level languages often has performance
costs)

What if we can't handle *every* type?

What if we can't handle *every* type?

- Our max function doesn't actually compile just yet...

```
fn max<T>(x: T, y: T) -> T {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

error[E0369]: binary operation `>` cannot be applied to type `T`

[--> src/main.rs:45:10](#)

```
|  
45 |     if x > y { x } else { y }  
|         - ^ - T  
|         |  
|         T  
|
```

help: consider restricting type parameter `T`

```
|  
44 | fn max<T: std::cmp::PartialOrd>(x: T, y: T) -> T {  
|         ^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^  
|
```

Trait bounds

- We need to limit T to be a comparable type, i.e. a type that has the `PartialOrd` trait implemented (which provides the `<`, `<=`, `>`, `>=` operators)

```
fn max<T: PartialOrd>(x: T, y: T) -> T {  
    if x > y { x } else { y }  
}
```

Generics and Data Structures

Data structures can be generic, too!

- Last week, our LinkedList could only hold i32s... Let's make it capable of storing anything!

```
struct Node {  
    value: i32,  
    next: Option<Box<Node>>,  
}
```

```
struct LinkedList {  
    head: Option<Box<Node>>,  
    length: usize,  
}
```

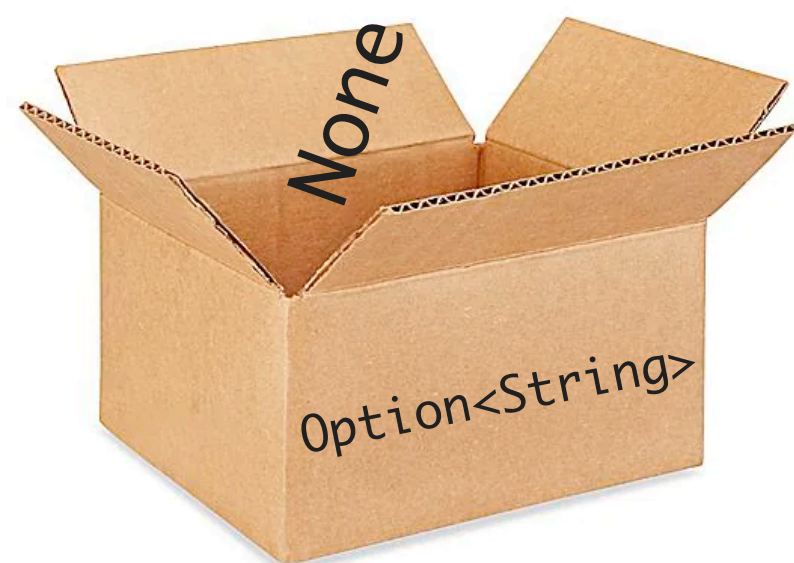
```
struct Node<T> {  
    value: T,  
    next: Option<Box<Node<T>>>,  
}
```

```
struct LinkedList<T> {  
    head: Option<Box<Node<T>>>,  
    length: usize,  
}
```


Data structures can be generic, too!

- You have actually seen this before... with Option and Result!

```
pub enum Option<T> {  
  /// No value  
  None,  
  /// Some value `T`  
  Some(T),  
}
```



```
pub enum Result<T, E> {  
  /// Contains the success value  
  Ok(T),  
  /// Contains the error value  
  Err(E),  
}
```



Implementing methods on generic types

```
struct Node<T> {  
    value: T,  
    next: Option<Box<Node<T>>>,  
}
```

```
struct LinkedList<T> {  
    head: Option<Box<Node<T>>>,  
    length: usize,  
}
```

```
fn main() {  
    let mut list: LinkedList<String> = LinkedList::new();  
    list.push_back("Hello world!".to_string());  
}
```

```
impl<T> LinkedList<T> {  
    fn new() -> LinkedList<T> {  
        LinkedList { head: None, length: 0 }  
    }  
  
    pub fn back_mut(&mut self) -> Option<&mut Box<Node<T>>> {  
        // Same implementation as from last week  
    }  
  
    pub fn push_back(&mut self, val: T) {  
        // Same implementation as from last week  
    }  
}
```

type parameter

type that we are
implementing methods for

The compiler can (usually) infer the type parameter based on how you use the variable!

Conditionally defining methods on trait bounds

- Say we want to add a `print()` method. We need `T` to have `Display`, but we still want the other methods to exist even if `T` doesn't have `Display`

```
impl<T> LinkedList<T> {  
    fn new() -> LinkedList<T> {  
        LinkedList { head: None, length: 0 }  
    }  
  
    pub fn back_mut(&mut self) -> Option<&mut Box<Node<T>>> {  
        // Same implementation as from last week  
    }  
  
    pub fn push_back(&mut self, val: T) {  
        // Same implementation as from last week  
    }  
}
```

```
impl<T: Display> LinkedList<T> {  
    pub fn print(&self) {  
        let mut curr = self.front();  
        while let Some(node) = curr {  
            println!("{}", node.value);  
            curr = node.next.as_ref();  
        }  
    }  
}
```

Conditionally defining methods on trait bounds

- Say we want to add a `print()` method. We need `T` to have `Display`, but we still want the other methods to exist even if `T` doesn't have `Display`

This works:

- `print` method exists for this `LinkedList<String>`, because `String` implements the `Display` trait.

```
fn main() {  
    let mut list: LinkedList<String> = LinkedList::new();  
    list.push_back("Hello world!".to_string());  
    list.print();  
}
```

This doesn't work.

- Assuming `MyType` doesn't implement the `display` trait, a `LinkedList<MyType>` cannot call `print`.

```
fn main() {  
    let mut list: LinkedList<MyType> = LinkedList::new();  
    list.push_back(MyType {});  
    list.print();  
}
```

```
91 | struct MyType{}  
   | ----- doesn't satisfy `MyType: std::fmt::Display`  
...  
96 |     list.print();  
   |           ^^^^^ method cannot be called on `LinkedList<MyType>`  
due to unsatisfied trait bounds  
   |  
= note: the following trait bounds were not satisfied:  
       `MyType: std::fmt::Display`
```

[Bonus slides: Not Covered]

What if we want to store different types in a data structure together?

Not covering this year, but happy to talk about the `dyn` keyword and the differences between monomorphization and dynamic dispatch, if you're interested.

More resources here (thanks to Phil Levis for pointing me to these!)

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=olM7o_oYML0

<https://stackoverflow.com/questions/66575869/what-is-the-difference-between-dyn-and-generics>

More on using traits

- So far, we've seen how to write different code that works for several different types
 - We can write functions that take objects implementing a specific trait (e.g. Display)
 - This technique uses *monomorphization*, where the compiler emits a new function/method/struct/etc for every type parameter
- What if we want to store different objects together?
 - E.g. what if we want to store different kinds of bears in a vector, all of which implement Roar?
 - This is a different kind of challenge, because the objects may be different sizes

Storing different types together



```
struct TeddyBear;  
impl Roar for TeddyBear {}
```



```
struct RedTeddyBear {  
    candycane: CandyCane,  
}  
impl Roar for RedTeddyBear {}
```



```
struct GreenTeddyBear {  
    cub: TeddyBear,  
}  
impl Roar for GreenTeddyBear {  
    fn roar(&self) {  
        println!("DOUBLE ROAR!!");  
    }  
}
```

- Naive attempt: Create a `Vec<Roar>`
- But then the “slots” of the vector would need to be different sizes...

`my_bears: Vec<Roar> =`

RedTeddyBear

TeddyBear

GreenTeddyBear

TeddyBear



- Also, if we’re looping through this vector, how do we know what `roar()` function to call? (There’s no type information stored as part of a struct.)

Storing different types together



```
struct TeddyBear;  
  
impl Roar for TeddyBear {}
```

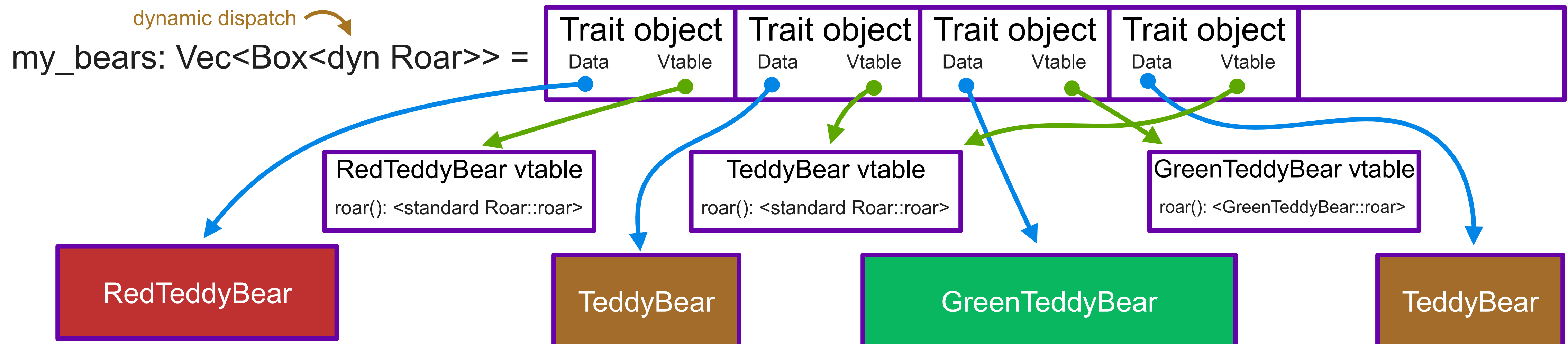


```
struct RedTeddyBear {  
    candycane: CandyCane,  
}  
  
impl Roar for RedTeddyBear {}
```



```
struct GreenTeddyBear {  
    cub: TeddyBear,  
}  
  
impl Roar for GreenTeddyBear {  
    fn roar(&self) {  
        println!("DOUBLE ROAR!!");  
    }  
}
```

- Instead, store a *pointer* to an object (Box or &) along with info about what functions to call ([try it here](#))



[Bonus slides: Not Covered] Reflecting on Traits vs. Inheritance

*On different approaches for sharing code and/or
enforcing requirements across objects.
via Ryan Eberhardt.*

Traits vs. Inheritance: thinking about tradeoffs

Ad-hoc do whatever you want,
what's decomposition???



Less repetition
Tighter coupling

More repetition
More flexibility

Cleaner code

- Less repetition
- Can be easier to isolate the source of bugs

You don't want to be all the way over here — where you've decomposed out every little possible thing.

- Get locked into a design; hard to adapt to changing requirements, features
- Everything is tightly coupled and dependent: changes in class A can break classes B, C, D.

Tons of flexibility!

- Easy to change one part of your program
- Can be really helpful at the beginning of a project: iterate, come up with a good design, then decide how to break up the solution.

Don't want to be over here

- Harder to isolate the source of bugs
- Very easy to introduce “copy and paste” bugs
- Hard for others to understand your code
 - Makes your CS110 TA sad. :(

Traits vs. Inheritance: thinking about tradeoffs



- Traditional OOP does a good job of decoupling code *outside* a class from the implementation *inside* the class
 - With good OOP design, if you need to change how a class is implemented in the future, no problem! Keep the interface the same, change the internals
- With inheritance, child classes are often tightly coupled to the implementation of their parent classes
 - [Fragile Base Class problem: it becomes hard to change parent classes without breaking child classes in unexpected ways](#)
- Traits are not “better”, but can be more flexible and lead to several unique patterns in Rust