CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Closures and Iterators In Rust

Using Closures/Functions Locally

Rust has local functions, and closures

```
fn moveit(l:bool,x:i32) -> i32 {
  let left = |x| x - 1;
  fn right(x:i32) -> i32 { x+1 };
  if l { left(x) }
  else { right(x) }
}
```

Closure (may have an environment)

Local function (no environment)

OCaml local functions/closures

```
let moveit l x =
  let left = fun x -> x - 1 in
  let right = fun x -> x + 1 in
  if l then left x
  else right x
```

Limits of Type Inference

Rust infers non-polymorphic types

```
let id = |x| x;
let x = id(1); //infers x:i32
let y = id("hi"); //fails: &str ≠ i32
```

OCaml infers polymorphic types

```
let f = fun x -> x in (* 'a -> 'a *)
let x = id 1 in
let y = id "hi" in (* OK *) ...
```

- More details on closures at the end, including polymorphism
 - Now for something (not so completely) different

Iteration using the Iterator Trait

Recall an earlier example:

```
let a = vec![10, 20, 30, 40, 50];
for e in a.iter() {
  println!("the value is: {}", e);
}
```

 The iter() method returns an iterator, i.e., a value with the Iterator trait

```
trait Iterator {
  type Item; //this is an associated type
  fn next(&mut self) -> Option<Self::Item>;
    ... //default method impls
}
```

Unpacking the for syntax

- Each call to next advances the iterator
 - So it has to be mut

```
let a = vec![10, 20];
let mut iter = a.iter();
assert_eq!(iter.next(), Some(&10));
assert_eq!(iter.next(), Some(&20));
assert_eq!(iter.next(), None);
```

- calls to next produce immutable references to the values in a
 - else may call into_iter or iter_mut on a to get different sorts of references

Iterator Adaptors

- We can make one iterator from another
 - An iterator is consumed as it used; it is lazy
- This is a pattern for higher order programming
 - i.map(f) produces an iterator returning f(e) for each of i's elements e
 - i.filter(f) produces iterator for i's elements e such that
 f(e) == true
 - i.collect() converts an iterator into a vector
 - i.fold(a,f) is like OCaml's fold_right
 - fold_right f a v where v is the list corresponding to i
 - zip, sum, ...

Examples

```
let a = vec![10,20];
let i = a.iter();
let j = i.map(|x| x+1).collect();
//[11,21]
let k = a.iter().fold(0,|a,x| x-a); //10
for e in a.iter().filter(|&&x| x == 10) {
    println!("{}",e);
} //prints 10
```

Quiz 1: Output of the following code

```
fn main() {
  let a = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5];
  let mut iter2 = a.iter().map(|x| 2 * x);
  iter2.next();
  let t2 = iter2.next();
  println!("{:?}", t2)
}
```

- A. Some(0)
- B. Some(1)
- C. Some(2)
- D. Some(4)

Quiz 1: Output of the following code

```
fn main() {
  let a = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5];
  let mut iter2 = a.iter().map(|x| 2 * x);
  iter2.next();
  let t2 = iter2.next();
  println!("{:?}", t2)
}
```

- A. Some(0)
- B. Some(1)
- C. Some(2)
- D. Some(4)

Iterator Notes

- You can make your own iterators too
 - Implement the Iterator trait
 - Several examples in the Rust Book
- Iterators perform extremely well
 - Better that for loops with explicit indexes!
 - This is because Rust aggressively optimizes the code it generates, e.g., by unrolling the iteration loop
 - So feel free to program using map, fold, zip, etc.

Iter Example

```
struct Fibonacci {
  curr: u32,
  next: u32,
impl Iterator for Fibonacci {
 type Item = u32;
 fn next(&mut self) -> Option<Self::Item> {
  let new next = self.curr + self.next;
  self.curr = self.next:
  self.next = new next;
  if self.curr < 100 {
   Some(self.curr)
  }else{
   return None
fn fibonacci() -> Fibonacci {
  Fibonacci { curr: 0, next: 1 }
```

```
fn main() {
    println!("The first 15 terms of the Fibonacci seq:");
    for i in fibonacci().take(15) {
        print!("{},", i);
    }

    println!("\nfrom 5th, the next 3 terms of the Fibonacci seq:");
    for i in fibonacci().skip(4).take(3){
        print!("{},", i);
    }
    println!()
}
```

Back to Closures: Passing as Arguments

- Each closure has a distinct type
 - Even if two closures have the same signature, their types are considered different
 - Such types are called generative types
- To specify the type of a closure (for a function parameter, say), use generics with trait bounds
 - Fn t (will describe later)
 - FnMut t
 - FnOnce t
- Functions (defined with fn f...) implement the above trait bounds too

Using the Fn Trait

Trait bound on **T** to _____ specify type of **f**

```
fn app_int<T>(f:T,x:i32) -> i3
    where T:Fn(i32) -> i32

{
    f(x)}
fn main() {
    println!("{}",app_int((|x| x-1),1));
}
```

But cannot write

```
fn app_int(f:(i32) -> i32,x:i32) -> i32
{ f(x) }
```

 Can also use function trait bounds in struct, enum, etc. definitions

Using the Fn Trait Polymorphically

```
fn app\langle T, U, W \rangle (f:T, x:U) \rightarrow W
    where T:Fn(U) \rightarrow W
  f(x)
fn main() {
  println!("{}",app((|x| x-1),1));//i32
  let s = String::from("hi ");
  println!("{}",app(|x| x+"there",s));//String
```

Capturing Free Variables

```
fn main() {
   let x = 4;
   let equal_to_x = |z| z == x;
   let y = 4;
   assert!(equal_to_x(y))
} // true
Closure
env
captures x
```

- Note: fails if equal_to_x defined as a local function
 - Local functions do not have an environment
- Complication: What if x is owned?
 - Capturing it could move it or borrow (mut or immut)
 - Use various FnX traits to specify what to do

Distinguishing Fn Trait Bounds

- FnOnce t (where t is a func type)
 - Consumes the variables it captures from its enclosing scope (i.e., moves or copies them)
 - Thus can only be called once
 - The call consumes ownership
- FnMut t
 - Borrows captured variables mutably
- Fn t
 - Borrows captured variables immutably, or copies
 - equal_to_x copied x due to its Copy trait
 - Try this bound first; follow the compiler's advice if it doesn't work

Example use of FnOnce

```
let x = String::from("hi");
let add_x = |z| x+z; //captures x; is FnOnce
println!("x = {}",x); //fails
let s = add_x(" there");//consumes closure
let t = add_x(" joe");//fails, add_x consumed
```