Oxide: The Essence of Rust

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1 INTRODUCTION

The Rust programming language exists at the intersection of low-level "systems" programming and high-level "applications" programming, aiming to empower the programmer with both fine-grained control over memory and performance and high-level abstractions that make software safer and quicker to produce. To accomplish this, Rust integrates decades of programming languages research into a production system, in particular, linear and ownership types [2, 4, 7, 9] and region-based memory management [3, 5]. Yet, Rust goes beyond much of this prior art in developing a particular discipline that aims to balance both expressivity and usability. Thus, we hold that Rust has something interesting to teach us about making ownership practical for programming. To that end, we are designing a formal semantics called Oxide to capture the essence of Rust.

While there are some existing formalizations [6, 8, 10], none capture a high-level understanding of Rust’s essence (namely ownership and borrowing). Patina [8], the first major effort, formalized an early version of Rust which predates much of the work to simplify and streamline the language. RustBelt [6], the most complete effort to date, formalized a low-level, intermediate language in continuation-passing style, which makes it difficult to reason about ownership as a source-level concept. Finally, an early version of Oxide [10] oversimplified some parts of the language and overcomplicated others. We describe the changes from this early version in more detail later.

In this work, we present key pieces of the latest version of Oxide, and in particular, our core language Oxide0 which omits unsafe-implemented abstractions from the standard library. In future work, we will describe further extensions Oxide1, Oxide2, and so forth that add essential abstractions from the standard library as described in our prior work [10].

2 OWNERSHIP AND BORROWING

The essence of Rust lies in its novel approach to ownership and borrowing, which we explain intuitively before diving into their formal presentation. To start, we consider Fig. 1.

First, on line 1, we declare a type Point that consists of a pair of unsigned 32-bit integers (u32). Then, on line 3, we create a new Point bound to p. In Rust, each value is owned by the identifier to which it’s bound. So, we can then say that p owns the value Point(3, 2). Then, on line 4, we move the value from p to the new identifier pt. This is the first operation that affects ownership. After moving the value out of p, we invalidate the old name and thus further attempts to use it will result in an error. Then, on line 6, we create a reference borrowing from the place pt.0 — the first projection of pt. This borrowing operation also affects ownership, but in a more subtle way as we explain below.

There are two distinct kinds of borrows — immutable and mutable — though it might be more apt to refer to them as shared and unique respectively. During an immutable borrow (like the one on line 6), the value can actually be shared between other references, but only as long as they are all immutable. During a mutable borrow, the new reference must be unique which means that the old identifier is temporarily invalidated while this reference is alive. This mutual exclusivity between mutation and sharing is how Rust can rule out the possibility of data races in concurrent programs, and is the site of the aforementioned subtlety.

Formally, we model ownership and borrowing with linear capabilities [3] and fractional permissions [1]. We’ve developed a novel type-and-effect system that automatically tracks fractional capabilities representing ownership by recording and applying effects that modify these capabilities. This system takes the form of the judgment:

$$\Sigma; \Delta; \Gamma; \rho \vdash e : \tau \Rightarrow \varepsilon$$

In this judgment, we have four environments. Our first environment $\Sigma$ (called the global environment) records top-level definitions of functions and types like the one we saw on line 1 of our example (struct Point(u32, u32)). Our second environment $\Delta$ (called the type variable environment) records in-scope type variables and their respective kinds $\kappa$.
Places \( \pi \) ::= \( x \mid * \pi \)  
\| \( \pi . x \mid \pi . n \)  
\| \( \pi [n] \)  
\| \( \pi [n_1..n_2] \)

**Figure 2:** The grammar for places in Oxide.

— since we have both type variables \( \alpha \) and region variables \( \rho \). Our third environment \( \Gamma \) (called the variable environment) tracks in-scope places \( \pi \) (described below) and their types \( \tau \) with the fractional capability \( f \) guarding their use. Entries in \( \Gamma \) are written \( \pi : _f \tau \). Our final environment \( \mathcal{L} \) (called the loan environment) tracks valid loans \( \ell \) with a fractional capability \( f \) and the place \( \pi \) of their provenance. These loans \( \ell \) (like ‘a and ‘b in Fig 1) give names to specific borrow sites in the program that are used in our types to track the possible provenance of references.

Places. Places are expressions that represent a location in memory. In Oxide, we use these expressions themselves to capture the shape of memory in order to keep our memory model abstract and easier to reason about. In Fig 2, we have the grammar of places including identifiers, dereferencing, projection, indexing, and slicing. Places appear in the syntax of expressions that affect ownership like moves and borrows.

Transferring Ownership. In T-Move (Fig. 3), we give a static semantics to places \( \pi \) as expressions which dynamically move values out of the places in memory which own them. As the earlier example (Fig. 1) captured, this is only safe if \( \pi \) has a whole capability (written 1) associated with it — since otherwise, moving the value would invalidate some existing references. Further, T-Move must have the effect of dropping \( \pi \) from the environments to prevent further use.

Borrowing Ownership. In T-BorrowImm (Fig. 3), we give a static semantics to immutable borrows which require that the place \( \pi \) being borrowed from has a non-zero capability associated with it and yields a borrow effect that, when applied, creates a new entry in the loan environment \( \mathcal{L} \) with the given data. Additionally, the type we produce records a singleton loan set \( \{ \ell \} \) specifying that the reference came from that particular borrow site. T-BorrowMut (Fig. 3) is analogous, but requires a whole capability, rather than simply a non-zero one.

Ownership and Branching. Branching in programs plays a central role in tracking ownership since it introduces a point where precise aliasing information is lost. T-Branch (Fig. 3) captures how we handle this loss of precision. In particular, we typecheck each side of the branch in environments \( \Gamma \) and \( \mathcal{L} \) after applying the effect \( e_1 \), and then unify their types to get a combined type \( \tau \) (denoted \( \tau_1 \sim \tau_2 \Rightarrow \tau_3 \)).

In this unification, we union the sets of loans that appear in the reference types (introduced by T-BorrowImm and T-BorrowMut) which tell us that values at that type could come from any of the loans in the set.

**Figure 3:** A selection of important typing rules in Oxide.

### 3 Comparison to Earlier Oxide

Compared to our earlier version [10], the primary difference is that we now model moves and mutable borrows as separate operations, rather than modelling the former as the latter. In doing so, we recognize that the distinction between a move and a mutable borrow is essential to Rust’s semantics. We then simplified Oxide by removing the existence of alloc as a syntactic form (which was never present in Rust). The result is a semantics more faithful to Rust.

### 4 Metatheory

We prove type safety for Oxide by using progress and preservation [11]. The proofs of both lemmas are standard, but rely on an instrumented dynamic semantics where we maintain the loan environment \( \mathcal{L} \) at runtime. It is straightforward to define a subsequent erasure translation that removes this instrumentation.

**Lemma (Progress).** If \( \Sigma; \Delta; \Gamma; \mathcal{L} ; e : \tau \Rightarrow \tau \) and \( \Gamma \vdash \mathcal{L} \) and \( \Sigma; \Delta; \Gamma; \mathcal{L} + \sigma \), then either \( e \) is a value or \( \exists \sigma' . \mathcal{L}' . e' . (\sigma ; \mathcal{L} ; e) \rightarrow (\sigma' ; \mathcal{L}' ; e') \).

**Lemma (Preservation).** If \( \Sigma; \Delta; \Gamma; \mathcal{L} ; e : \tau \Rightarrow \tau \) and \( \Gamma \vdash \mathcal{L} \) and \( \Sigma; \Delta; \Gamma; \mathcal{L} + \sigma \) and \( (\sigma ; \mathcal{L} ; e) \rightarrow (\sigma' ; \mathcal{L}' ; e') \) then \( \exists e_1, e_2 . e_1, e_2 \leq \ell \land \exists \Gamma' . \mathcal{L}' . e_1 (\Gamma' ; \mathcal{L}') = \Gamma_1 ; \mathcal{L}_1 \land \Sigma; \Delta; \Gamma_1 ; \mathcal{L}_1 + e' : \tau \Rightarrow e_2 \land \Gamma_1 \vdash \mathcal{L}_1 \land \Sigma; \Delta; \Gamma_1 ; \mathcal{L}_1 + \sigma' \).
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