# 11

## **Exploring the Standard Library**

Throughout this book, we have explained and used the concepts of Rust's Standard Library-the std crate. In this chapter, we will be discovering important standard modules that were not yet been covered (such as working with paths and files), and get a better grasp of working with collections.

We will discuss the following topics:

- Exploring std and the prelude module
- Collections using hashmaps and hashsets
- Working with files
- Using Rust without the Standard Library

### Exploring std and the prelude module

In previous chapters, we used built-in modules such as str, vec, and io from the std crate. The std crate contains many modules and functions that are used in real projects. For that reason, you won't see extern crate std, because std is imported by default in every other crate.

The small prelude module in std declares mostly traits (such as Copy, Send, Sync, Drop, Clone, Eq, Ord, and so on) and common types (such as Option and Result). For the same reason, the contents of the prelude module are imported by default in every module, as well as a number of standard macros (such as println!). That is the reason why we don't need to specify Result:: before the Ok and Err variants in match branches.

The website https://doc.rust-lang.org/std/ shows lists of the primitive types, modules, and macros contained in the standard library. We already discussed the most important macros from the standard library; see Chapter 5, Higher-Order Functions and Error-Handling, and Chapter 8, Organizing Code and Macros, in the Some other built-in macros section.

#### Collections - using hashmaps and hashsets

Often, you need to collect a large number of data items of a given type in one data structure. Until now, we have only worked with the Vec datatype to do this, but the std::collections module contains other implementations of sequences (such as LinkedList), maps (such as HashMap), and sets (such as HashSet). In most cases, you will only need Vec and HashMap; let's examine how to work with the latter.

A HashMap <K, V> is used when you want to store pairs consisting of a key of type K and a value of type V, both of generic type. K can be a Boolean, an integer, a string, or any other type that implements the Eq and Hash traits. A HashMap enables you to very quickly look up the value attached to a certain key using a hashing algorithm, and also because the data is cached. However, the keys of a HashMap are not sorted; if you need that, use a BTreeMap. HashMap is allocated on the heap, so it is dynamically resizable, just like a Vec.

Let's store monster names together with the planets they originate from:

```
// code from Chapter 11/code/hashmaps.rs:
use std::collections::HashMap;

fn main() {
    let mut monsters = HashMap::new();

    monsters.insert("Oron", "Uranus");
    monsters.insert("Cyclops", "Venus");
    monsters.insert("Rahav", "Neptune");
    monsters.insert("Homo Sapiens", "Earth");

    match monsters.get(&"Rahav") {
        Some(&planet) =>
    println!("Rahav originates from: {}", planet),
        _ => println!("Planet of Rahav unknown."),
    }

    monsters.remove(&("Homo Sapiens"));

// `HashMap::iter()` returns
    for (monster, planet) in monsters.iter() {
```

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```
println!("Monster {} originates from planet {}", monster, planet);
     }
}
```

This program prints out:

```
Rahav originates from: Neptune
Monster Rahav originates from planet Neptune
Monster Cyclops originates from planet Venus
Monster Oron originates from planet Uranus
```

A new HashMap with default capacity is created with HashMap::new(). insert is used to put data into it, one pair at a time. If the inserted value is new, it returns None, otherwise, it returns Some (value). To retrieve a value (here the planet on which a monster comes from), use the get method. This takes a reference to a key value and returns Option<&V>, so you have to use match to find the value. remove takes a key and removes the pair from the collection. The iter() method from HashMap returns an iterator that yields (&key, &value) pairs in arbitrary order.

If your requirement is to store unique values, such as unique monster names, HashSet guarantees that; it is in fact HashMap without values:

```
// code from Chapter 11/code/hashsets.rs:
use std::collections::HashSet;
fn main() {
   let mut m1: HashSet<&str> = vec!["Cyclops", "Raven",
"Gilgamesh"].into_iter().collect();
   let m2: HashSet<&str> = vec!["Moron", "Keshiu",
"Raven"].into_iter().collect();
   m1.insert("Moron");
   if m1.insert("Raven") {
        println! ("New value added")
   else {
        println!("This value is already present")
   println!("m1: {:?}", m1);
println!("Intersection: {:?}", m1.intersection(&m2).collect::<Vec<_>>());
   println!("Union: {:?}", m1.union(&m2).collect::<Vec<_>>());
println!("Difference: {:?}", m1.difference(&m2).collect::<Vec<_>>());
    println!("Symmetric Difference: {:?}",
             m1.symmetric_difference(&m2).collect::<Vec<_>>());
```

This program prints out:

```
This value is already present
m1: {"Raven", "Cyclops", "Gilgamesh", "Moron"}
Intersection: ["Raven", "Moron"]
Union: ["Raven", "Cyclops", "Gilgamesh", "Moron", "Keshiu"]
Difference: ["Cyclops", "Gilgamesh"]
Symmetric Difference: ["Cyclops", "Gilgamesh", "Keshiu"]
```

We can construct a <code>HashSet</code> from a <code>Vec</code> using <code>into\_iter()</code>. collect(). To add new values one by one, use <code>insert()</code>, which returns <code>true</code> if the value is new, or <code>false</code> if it is not. If the type of the set's elements implements the <code>Debug</code> trait, we can print them out with the <code>{:?}</code> format string. Methods for the intersection, union, difference, and symmetrical difference operations are also present.

#### Working with files

Now we show you how to do common operations with files, such as reading and writing, and making folders, and at the same time do proper error handling. The modules that contain these functionalities are std::path, which provides for cross platform file path manipulation, and std::fs.

#### **Paths**

File paths from the underlying file system are represented by the Path struct, which is created from a string slice containing the full path with Path: new. Suppose hello.txt is an existing file in the current directory; let's write some code to explore it:

```
// code from Chapter 11/code/paths.rs:use std::path::Path;
fn main() {
    let path = Path::new("hello.txt");
    let display = path.display();
    // test whether path exists:
    if path.exists() {
        println!("{} exists", display);
    }
    else {
        panic!("This path or file does not exist!");
    }
    let file = path.file_name().unwrap();
```

```
let extension = path.extension().unwrap();
let parent_dir = path.parent().unwrap();
    println!("This is file {:?} with extension {:?} in folder {:?}", file,
extension, parent_dir);

// Check if the path is a file:
    if path.is_file() { println!("{} is a file", display); }
    // Check if the path is a directory:
    if path.is_dir() { println!("{} is a directory", display); }
}
```

This code performs the following:

- Prints: This is file "hello.txt" with extension "txt" in folder "".
- The Path::new("e.txt").unwrap\_or\_else() method creates the file e.txt or panics with an error.
- Tests whether a path is valid. Use the exists() method.
- Uses the create\_dir() method to make folders.
- The file\_name(), extension() and parent() methods return an Option value, so use unwrap() to get the value. The is\_file() and is\_dir() methods test respectively whether a path refers to a filename or to a directory.
- The join() method can be used to build paths, and it automatically uses the operating system-specific separator:

```
let new_path = path.join("abc").join("def");

// Convert the path into a string slice
match new_path.to_str() {
     None => panic!("new path is not a valid UTF-8 sequence"),
     Some(s) => println!("new path is {}", s),
}
```

• This prints out the following on a Windows system:

new path is hello.txt\abc\def

#### Reading a file

The File struct from std::fs represents a file that has been opened (it wraps a file descriptor), and gives read and/or write access to the underlying file.

Since many things can go wrong when doing file I/O, explicit and proactive handling of all possible errors is certainly needed. This can be done with pattern matching, because all the File methods return the std::io::Result<T> type, which is an alias for Result<T, io::Error>.

To open a file in read-only mode, use the static File::open method with a reference to its path, and match the file handler or a possible error like this:

```
// code from Chapter 11/code/read_file.rs:
use std::path::Path;
use std::fs::File;
use std::io::prelude::*;
use std::error::Error;

fn main() {
    let path = Path::new("hello.txt");
    let display = path.display();

    let mut file = match File::open(&path) {
        Ok(file) => file,
        Err(why) => panic!("couldn't open {}: {}", display,
Error::description(&why))
    };
}
```

In the case of a failing open method (because the file does not exist or the program has no access) this prints out:

```
thread '<main>' panicked at 'couldn't open hello999.txt: os error',
F:\Rust\Rust book\Chapter 11 - Working with files\code\read_file.rs:11
```

Explicitly closing files is not necessary in Rust; the file handle goes out of scope at the end of main or the surrounding block, causing the file to automatically close.

We can read in the file in a content string by using the read\_to\_string() method, which again returns a Result value, necessitating a pattern match. In order to be able to use this, we need to do the import use std::io::prelude::\*:

```
let mut content = String::new();
    match file.read_to_string(&mut content) {
        Err(why) => panic!("couldn't read {}: {}",
        display, Error::description(&why)),
            Ok(_) => print!("{} contains:\n{}", display, content),
        }
}
```

This prints out:

```
hello.txt contains: "Hello Rust World!"
```

std::io::prelude imports common I/O traits in our code, such as Read, Write, BufRead, and Seek.

#### **Error-handling with try!**

In order to program in a more structured way, we'll use the try! macro, which will propagate the error upwards, causing an early return from the function, or unpack the success value. When returning the result, it needs to be wrapped in either Ok to indicate success or Err to indicate failure. This is shown here:

```
// code from Chapter 11/code/read_file_try.rs:
use std::path::Path;
use std::fs::File;
use std::io::prelude::*;
use std::error::Error;
use std::io;
fn main() {
    let path = Path::new("hello.txt");
    let display = path.display();
    let content = match read_file(path) {
         Err(why) => panic!("error reading {}: {}", display,
Error::description(&why)),
         Ok(content) => content
    };
    println!("{}", content);
}
```

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```
fn read_file(path: &Path) -> Result<String, io::Error> {
  let mut file = try!(File::open(path));
  let mut buf = String::new();
  try!(file.read_to_string(&mut buf));
  Ok(buf)
  }
This prints out:
  "Hello Rust World!"
```

#### **Buffered reading**

Reading in a file in memory with read\_to\_string might not be that clever with large files, because that would use a large chunk of memory. In that case, it is much better to use the buffered reading provided by BufReader and BufRead from std::io:; this way lines are read in and processed one by one.

In the following example, a file with numerical information is processed. Each line contains two fields, an integer, and a float, separated by a space:

```
// code from Chapter 11/code/reading_text_file.rs:
use std::io::{BufRead, BufReader};
use std::fs::File;
fn main() {
    let file =
BufReader::new(File::open("numbers.txt").unwrap());
    let pairs: Vec<_> = file.lines().map(|line| {
        let line = line.unwrap();
        let line = line.trim();
        let mut words = line.split(" ");
let left = words.next().expect("Unexpected empty line!");
let right = words.next().expect("Expected number!");
left.parse::<u64>().ok().expect("Expected integer in first column!"),
right.parse::<f64>().ok().expect("Expected float in second column!")
}).collect();
     println!("{:?}", pairs);
```

This prints out:

```
[(120, 345.56), (125, 341.56)]
```

The information is collected in pairs, which is a Vec<(u64, f64)>, and which can then be processed as you want.

For a more complex line structure, you would want to work with struct values describing the line content instead of pairs, like this:

```
struct LineData {
    string1: String,
    int1: i32,
    string2: String,
    // Some other fields
}
```

In production code, the unwrap() and expect() functions should be replaced by more robust code using pattern matching and/or try!.

#### Writing a file

To open a file in write-only mode, use the File::create static method with a reference to its path. This method also returns an io::Result, so we need to pattern match this value:

```
// code from Chapter 11/code/write_file.rs:
static CONTENT: &'static str =
"Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipisicing elit, sed do eiusmod
tempor incididunt ut labore et dolore magna aliqua. Ut enim ad minim
veniam, quis nostrud exercitation ullamco laboris nisi ut aliquip ex ea
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est laborum.
use std::path::Path;
use std::fs::File;
use std::io::prelude::*;
use std::error::Error;
fn main() {
   let path = Path::new("lorem_ipsum.txt");
   let display = path.display();
   let mut file = match File::create(&path) {
```

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This command creates a new file or overwrites an existing one with that name, but it cannot create folders; if the path contains a subfolder, this must already exist. If you want to write a string (here a static string CONTENT) to that file, first convert the string with as\_bytes() and then use the write\_all() method, again matching the Result value:

This prints out:

```
successfully wrote to lorem_ipsum.txt
```

We need to write the string out as bytes; when writing a simple literal string like this to a file file.write\_all("line one\n"); we get error: mismatched types: expected &[u8], found & static str (expected slice, found str) [E0308]. To correct this, we must write (notice the b before the string for converting to bytes) this:

```
file.write_all(b"line one\n");
```

In fact, the write\_all method continuously calls the write method until the buffer is written out completely. So we could just as well use write, and instead of a match we could also test on the successful outcome by checking is\_err, like this:

```
if file.write(CONTENT.as_bytes()).is_err() {
println!("Failed to save response.");
return;
}
```

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Instead of panicking in the case of an error, thus ending the program, we could also just display the error and return to the calling function, as in this variant:

#### **Error-handling with try!**

In the same way as we did for reading a file, we could also use the try! macro when writing to a file, like here:

```
// code from Chapter 11/code/write_file_try.rs:
use std::path::Path;
use std::fs::File;
use std::io::prelude::*;
use std::error::Error;
use std::io;
struct Info {
    name: String,
    age: i32,
    rating: i32
impl Info {
    fn as_bytes(&self) -> &[u8] {
        self.name.as_bytes()
    fn format(&self) -> String {
        format!("{};{};{}\n", self.name, self.age, self.rating)
fn main() {
    let path = Path::new("info.txt");
    let display = path.display();
    let file = match write_file(&path) {
        Err(why) => panic!("couldn't write info to file {}: {}",
```

To open a file in other modes, use the OpenOptions struct from std::fs.

#### Filesystem operations

Here is an example that shows some info for all files in the current directory:

```
// code from Chapter 11/code/read_files_in_dir.rs:
use std::env;
use std::fs;
use std::error::Error;
fn main() {
    show_dir().unwrap();
fn show_dir() -> Result<(), Box<Error>> {
    let here = try!(env::current_dir());
    println!("Contents in: {}", here.display());
    for entry in try!(fs::read_dir(&here)) {
        let path = try!(entry).path();
        let md = try!(fs::metadata(&path));
                                                    println!("
                                                               {} ({}
bytes)", path.display(), md.len());
    Ok(())
}
```

```
Contents in: F:\Rust\Rust book\The Rust Programming Language\Chapter 11 - Working with files\code F:\Rust\Rust book\The Rust Programming Language\Chapter 11 - Working with files\code\read_file.rs (710 bytes) F:\Rust\Rust book\The Rust Programming Language\Chapter 11 - Working with files\code\read files in dir.exe (2382143 bytes)
```

Here are some remarks to clarify the code:

- This code uses the current\_dir method from std::env, reads that folder with read\_dir, and iterates over all files it contains with for entry in
- To manipulate the filesystem, see filesystem.rs in the code download for examples, which demonstrates the use of the methods create\_dir, create\_dir\_all, remove\_file, remove\_dir, and read\_dir
- The kind() method is used here in the error case, to display the specific I/O error category (from the std::io::ErrorKind enum)
- The fs::read\_dir method is used to read the contents of a directory, returning an io::Result<Vec<Path>> paths, which can be looped through with this code:

```
for path in paths {
    println!("> {:?}", path.unwrap().path());
}
```

### Using Rust without the Standard Library

Rust is foremost a systems programming language and because the compiler can decide when a variable's lifetime ends, no garbage collection is needed for freeing memory. So when a Rust program executes, it runs in a very lightweight runtime, providing a heap, backtraces, stack guards, unwinding of the call stack when a panic occurs, and dynamic dispatching of methods on trait objects. Also, a small amount of initialization code is run before an executable project's main function starts up.

As we have seen, the standard library gives a lot of functionality. It offers support for various features of its host system: threads, networking, heap allocation, and more. It also links to its C equivalent, which also does some runtime initialization.

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But Rust can also run on much more constrained systems that do not need (or do not have) this functionality. You can leave out the standard library from the compilation altogether by using the #! [no\_std] attribute at the start of the crate's code. In that case, Rust's runtime is roughly equivalent to that of C, and the size of the native code is greatly reduced.

When working without the standard library, the core crate and its prelude module are automatically made available to your code. The core library provides the minimal foundation needed for all Rust code to work. It comprises the basic primitive types, traits, and macros. For an overview, see; https://doc.rust-lang.org/core/.

At present, this only works for a library crate on the Rust stable version. Compiling an executable application without the standard library on Rust stable is much more involved; we refer you to https://doc.rust-lang.org/unstable-book/language-features/lang-items.html; #using-libc for a thorough and up-to-date discussion.

#### **Summary**

In this chapter, we showed you how to work with hashmaps and hashsets, two other important collection data structures. Then, we learned how to read and write files and explore the filesystem in Rust code. Finally, we looked at the Rust runtime, and how to make a project that runs without the standard library. We will conclude our overview of Rust's essentials in the next chapter by taking a closer look at Rust's ecosystem of crates.

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