

# **Today: Modules and Testing**

- Packages and Crates
- Modules
  - The use keyword
  - Module Paths and File System
- Unit Testing
- Integration Testing

## **Large Programs**

As your programs get larger, the organization of the code becomes increasingly important.

It is generally good practice to:

- Split code into multiple folders and files
- Group related functionality
- Separate code with distinct features
- Encapsulate implementation details
- Modularize your program

## **Module System**

Rust implements a number of organizational features, collectively referred to as the *module system*.

- Packages: A Cargo feature that lets you build, test, and share crates
- Crates: A tree of modules that produces a library or executable
- Modules: Lets you control the organization, scope, and privacy of paths
- Paths: A way of naming an item, such as a struct, function, or module

# **Packages and Crates**

### Crate

A *crate* is the smallest amount of code that the Rust compiler considers at a time.

- The equivalent in C/C++ is a *compilation unit*
- Running rustc on a single file also builds a crate
- Crates contain modules
  - Modules can be defined in other files
  - Paths allow modules to refer to other modules

### Crate

There are two types of crates: binary crates and library crates.

- A binary crate can be compiled to an executable
  - Contains a main function
  - Examples include command-line utilities or servers
- A library crate has no main function, and does not compile to an executable
  - Defines functionality intended to be shared with multiple projects
- Each crate also has a file referred to as the *crate root* 
  - The Rust compiler looks at this file first, and it is also the root module of the crate (more on modules later!)

# **Package**

A package is a bundle of one or more crates.

- A package is defined by a <code>cargo.toml</code> file at the root of your directory
  - Cargo.toml describes how to build all of the crates
- A package can contain any number of binary crates, but at most one library crate

## cargo new

Let's walk through what happens when we create a package with cargo new.

```
$ cargo new my-project
    Created binary (application) `my-project` package

$ ls my-project
Cargo.toml
src

$ ls my-project/src
main.rs
```

- Creates a new package called my-project
- Creates a src/main.rs file that prints "Hello, world!"
- Creates a Cargo.toml in the root directory

## Cargo.toml

Let's take a look inside the cargo.toml.

```
[package]
name = "my-project"
version = "0.1.0"
edition = "2021"

[dependencies]
```

- File written in toml, a file format for configuration files
- Notice how there is no explicit mention of src/main.rs
- Cargo follows the convention that a src/main.rs file is the crate root of a binary crate
- Similarly, a src/lib.rs file is the crate root of a *library* crate

# Example: cargo

Cargo is actually a Rust package that ships with installations of Rust!

- Contains the binary crate that compiles to the executable cargo
- Contains a library crate that the cargo binary depends on

# Aside: Package vs Project vs Program

- "Package" is the only term of these three with a formal definition in Rust
- "Project" is a very overloaded term
  - Meaningful in the context of an *IDE*
- "Program"
  - Ask the mathematicians \('\mu')/\(\tag{"}\)

# Modules

### **Modules**

*Modules* let us organize code within a crate for readability and easy reuse.

- Modules are collections of items
  - Items are functions, structs, traits, etc.
- Allows us to control the privacy of items
- Mitigates namespace collisions
- Here is a cheat sheet from the Rust Book!

### **Root Module**

The root module is in our main.rs (for a binary crate) or lib.rs (for a library crate).

```
$ cargo new restaurant

src/main.rs

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

## **Declaring Modules**

We can declare a new module with the keyword mod.

#### src/main.rs

```
fn main() {
    println!("Hello, World!");
}

mod kitchen {
    // `cook` is defined in the module `kitchen`
    fn cook() {
        println!("I'm cooking");
    }
}
```

# **Using Modules**

To use items outside of a module, we must declare them as pub.

### src/main.rs

```
fn main() {
    kitchen::cook();
}

mod kitchen {
    pub fn cook() { println!("I'm cooking"); }

    // Only items internal to the `kitchen` should be able to access this
    fn examine_ingredients() {}
}
```

• By default, all module items are private in Rust

## **Declaring Submodules**

We can declare submodules inside of other modules.

#### src/main.rs

```
fn main() {
    kitchen::stove::cook();
}

mod kitchen {
    pub mod stove {
        pub fn cook() { println!("I'm cooking"); }
    }

    fn examine_ingredients() {}
}
```

- Submodules also have to be declared as pub mod to be accessible
- The module system is a tree, just like a file system

## **Modules as Files**

In addition to declaring modules *within* files, creating a file named module\_name.rs declares a corresponding module named module\_name.

```
src
├── module_name.rs
└── main.rs
```

- Allows us to represent the module structure in the file system
- Let's try moving the kitchen module to its own file!

## **Modules as Files**

#### src/main.rs

```
mod kitchen; // The compiler will look for kitchen.rs

fn main() {
    kitchen::stove::cook();
}
```

#### src/kitchen.rs

```
pub mod stove {
    pub fn cook() { println!("I'm cooking"); }
}
fn examine_ingredients() {}
```

What about moving the stove submodule to its own file?

## **Submodules as Files**

We can move the stove submodule into a file src/kitchen/stove.rs to indicate that stove is a submodule of kitchen.

#### src/kitchen.rs

```
pub mod stove; // note this still has to be `pub`
fn examine_ingredients() {}
```

#### src/kitchen/stove.rs

```
pub fn cook() {
   println!("I'm cooking");
}
```

main.rs is unchanged (omitted for slide real estate)

## Alternate Submodule File Naming

We could also replace src/kitchen.rs with src/kitchen/mod.rs. src/kitchen/mod.rs pub mod stove; fn examine\_ingredients() {} src/kitchen/stove.rs pub fn cook() { println!("I'm cooking");

• The only difference is in which file the kitchen module is defined

# **Alternate Submodule File Naming**

In terms of Rust's module system, these two file trees are (essentially) identical.

- This is a stylistic choice that each instructor has a very strong opinion on
   Ask at your own peril...
- Consistency with surrounding codebase is always most important

## The Module Tree, Visualized

Even with our file system changes, the module tree stays the same!

We can customize our file structure without changing any behavior

## **Module Paths**

To use any item in a module, we need to know its *path*, just like a filesystem.

There are two types of paths:

- An *absolute path* is the full path starting from the crate root
- A *relative path* starts from the current module and use <code>self</code>, <code>super</code>, or an identifier in the current module
- Components of paths are separated by double colons ( : : )

# **Paths for Referring to Modules**

You may have noticed a path from the previous sequence:

```
kitchen::stove::cook();
```

### This is saying:

- In the module kitchen
  - In the submodule stove
    - Call the function cook
- This is a path relative to the crate root

# **Using Paths**

### src/main.rs

```
mod kitchen;
fn main() {
    kitchen::stove::cook();
}
```

Not too hard to write...

# **Using Verbose Paths**

What if we had a deeper module tree?

### src/main.rs

```
fn main() {
   kitchen::stove::stovetop::burner::gas::gasknob::pot::cook();
   kitchen::stove::stovetop::burner::gas::gasknob::pot::cook();
   kitchen::stove::stovetop::burner::gas::gasknob::pot::cook();
}
```

- A lot more verbose...
  - Especially if we need to write this multiple times

# The use Keyword

We can bring paths into scope with the use keyword.

#### src/main.rs

```
mod kitchen;
use kitchen::stove::stovetop::burner::gas::gasknob::pot;
fn main() {
    pot::cook();
    pot::cook();
    pot::cook();
}
```

• It is idiomatic to use up to the *parent* of a function, rather than the function item itself

# More use Syntax

We can also import items from the Rust standard library ( std ).

```
use std::collections::HashMap;
use std::io::Bytes;
use std::io::Write;
```

- HashMap and Bytes are structs, and Write is a trait
- It is idiomatic to import structs, enums, traits, etc. directly
  - No real reason behind this besides convention

# More use Syntax

We can combine those 2 std::io imports into one statement:

```
use std::collections::HashMap;
use std::io::{Bytes, Write};
```

- You could also write use std::io::\* to bring in everything from the std::io module (including Bytes and Write)
  - Called the "glob operator"
  - Generally not recommended (increases compilation cost)

# **Aside: Binary and Library Crate Paths**

In the past examples, we were using a binary crate (src/main.rs). All the same principles apply to using a library crate.

However, if you use *both* a binary *and* a library crate, things are slightly different.

```
src
— kitchen
— mod.rs
— stove.rs
— lib.rs <- What happens when we add this?
— main.rs
```

# **Aside: Binary and Library Crate Paths**

Typically when you have both a binary and library crate in the same package, you want to call functions defined in lib.rs from main.rs.

- If you have both a main.rs file and a lib.rs file, both are crate roots
- So how can we get items from a separate module tree?

# **Accessing Library from Binary**

Let's try to refactor our previous example:

### src/lib.rs

```
pub mod kitchen; // Now marked `pub`!
```

### src/main.rs

```
fn main() {
    ???::kitchen::stove::cook();
}
```

- All files in src/kitchen remain unchanged
- What do we put in ?????

## **Accessing Library from Binary**

We treat our library crate as an *external* crate, with the same name as our package.

### src/main.rs

```
fn main() {
   restaurant::kitchen::stove::cook();
}
```

- Similar to how you would treat std as an external crate
- We'll talk about external crates more next week!

# The super Keyword

We can also construct relative paths that begin in the parent module with super.

#### src/kitchen/stove.rs

```
pub fn cook() {
    super::examine_ingredients(); // Make sure you do this before cooking!
    println!("I'm cooking");
}
```

## **Privacy**

#### src/kitchen/stove.rs

```
pub fn cook() {
    super::examine_ingredients(); // Make sure you do this before cooking!
    println!("I'm cooking");
}
```

- examine\_ingredients does not need to be public in this case
- stove can access anything in its parent module kitchen
- Privacy only applies to parent modules and above

#### **Privacy of Types**

We can also use pub to designate structs and enums as public.

```
pub struct Breakfast {
    pub toast: String,
    seasonal_fruit: String,
}

pub enum Appetizer {
    Soup,
    Salad,
}
```

- We can mark specific fields of structs public, allowing direct access
- If an enum is public, so are its variants!

#### **Recap: Modules**

- You can split a package into crates, and crates into modules
- You can refer to items defined in other modules with paths
- All module components are private by default, unless you mark them as pub

# **Testing**

#### **Testing**

Program testing can be a very effective way to show the presence of bugs, but it is hopelessly inadequate for showing their absence.

• Edsger W. Dijkstra, *The Humble Programmer* 

#### **Testing**

Correctness of a program is complex and not easy to prove.

- Rust's type system helps with this, but it certainly cannot catch everything
- Rust includes a testing framework for this reason!

#### What is a Test?

Generally we want to perform at least 3 actions when running a test:

- 1. Set up needed data or state
- 2. Run the evaluated code
- 3. Determine if the results are as expected

#### **Writing Tests**

In Rust, a test is a function annotated with the #[test] attribute.

src/lib.rs

```
#[cfg(test)]
mod tests {
    #[test]
    fn it_works() {
        let result = 2 + 2;
        assert_eq!(result, 4);
    }
}
```

• After running cargo new adder --lib, this code will be in src/lib.rs

#### **Writing Tests**

Let's break this down.

```
#[test]
fn it_works() {
    let result = 2 + 2;
    assert_eq!(result, 4);
}
```

- The #[test] attribute indicates that this is a test function
- We set up the value result by adding 2 + 2
- We use the assert\_eq! macro to assert that result is correct
- We don't need to return anything, since not panicking is the test!

#### **Running Tests**

We run tests with cargo test.

```
$ cargo test
   Compiling adder v0.1.0 (file:///projects/adder)
    Finished test [unoptimized + debuginfo] target(s) in 0.57s
     Running unittests src/lib.rs (target/debug/deps/adder-92948b65e88960b4)
running 1 test
test tests::it works ... ok
test result: ok. 1 passed; 0 failed; 0 ignored; 0 measured; 0 filtered out; finished in 0.00s
  Doc-tests adder
running 0 tests
test result: ok. 0 passed; 0 failed; 0 ignored; 0 measured; 0 filtered out; finished in 0.00s
```

#### **Running Tests**

Let's break down the output of cargo test.

```
running 1 test
test tests::it_works ... ok
test result: ok. 1 passed; 0 failed; 0 ignored; 0 measured; 0 filtered out; finished in 0.00s
```

- We see test result: ok, meaning we have passed all the tests
- In this case, only 1 test has run, and it has passed
- The 0 measured statistic is for benchmark tests, which are currently only available in "nightly" versions of Rust

#### **Documentation Tests**

You may have seen something similar to this in your homework:

```
Doc-tests adder
running 0 tests
test result: ok. 0 passed; 0 failed; 0 ignored; 0 measured; 0 filtered out; finished in 0.00s
```

- All of the code examples in documentation comments are treated as tests!
- This is useful for keeping your docs and code in sync

# #[cfg(test)]

You may have also noticed this #[cfg(test)] attribute in your homework:

```
#[cfg(test)]
mod tests {
    // <-- snip -->
}
```

- This tells the compiler that this entire module should only be used for testing
- Effectively removes this module from the source code when compiling with cargo build

### **Writing Better Tests**

Let's try and be more creative with our tests.

```
#[cfg(test)]
mod tests {
    #[test]
    fn exploration() {
        assert_eq!(2 + 2, 4);
    #[test]
    fn another() {
        panic!("Make this test fail");
```

# **Failing Tests**

#### Let's see what we get:

```
$ cargo test
   Compiling adder v0.1.0 (file:///projects/adder)
    Finished test [unoptimized + debuginfo] target(s) in 0.72s
     Running unittests src/lib.rs (target/debug/deps/adder-92948b65e88960b4)
running 2 tests
test tests::another ... FAILED
test tests::exploration ... ok
failures:
---- tests::another stdout ----
thread 'tests::another' panicked at 'Make this test fail', src/lib.rs:10:9
note: run with `RUST BACKTRACE=1` environment variable to display a backtrace
failures:
    tests::another
test result: FAILED. 1 passed; 1 failed; 0 ignored; 0 measured; 0 filtered out; finished in 0.00s
error: test failed, to rerun pass `--lib`
```

## **Failing Tests**

```
failures:
---- tests::another stdout ----
thread 'tests::another' panicked at 'Make this test fail', src/lib.rs:10:9
note: run with `RUST_BACKTRACE=1` environment variable to display a backtrace
failures:
    tests::another
test result: FAILED. 1 passed; 1 failed; <-- snip -->
error: test failed, to rerun pass `--lib`
```

• Instead of ok, we get that the result of tests: another is FAILED

#### **Checking Results**

We can use the assert! macro to ensure that something is true.

```
#[test]
fn larger_can_hold_smaller() {
    let larger = Rectangle {
        width: 8,
        height: 7,
    };
    let smaller = Rectangle {
        width: 5,
        height: 1,
    };
    assert!(larger.can_hold(&smaller));
```

#### **Testing Equality**

Rust also provides a way to check equality between two values.

```
#[test]
fn it_adds_two() {
    assert_eq!(4, add_two(2));
}
```

## **Testing Equality**

If add\_two(2) somehow evaluated to 5, we would get this output:

```
---- tests::it_adds_two stdout ----
thread 'tests::it_adds_two' panicked at 'assertion failed: `(left == right)`
  left: `4`,
  right: `5`', src/lib.rs:11:9
note: run with `RUST_BACKTRACE=1` environment variable to display a backtrace
```

You get a nicer error message from assert\_eq! versus using

```
assert!(left == right)
```

#### **Custom Error Messages**

We can also write our own custom error messages in assert!

```
#[test]
fn greeting_contains_name() {
    let result = greeting("Carol");
    assert!(
        result.contains("Carol"),
        "Greeting did not contain name, value was `{}`",
        result
    );
}
```

#### #[should\_panic]

You may have seen something similar in your homework:

```
#[test]
#[should_panic(expected = "not less than 100")]
fn greater_than_100() {
    this_better_be_less_than_100(200);
}
```

- The #[should\_panic] attribute says that this test expects a panic!
- Adding the expected = "..." means we want a specific panic message

#### Using Result<T, E> in Tests

We can also use Result in our tests.

```
#[test]
fn it_works() -> Result<(), String> {
    if 2 + 2 == 4 {
        Ok(())
    } else {
        Err(String::from("two plus two does not equal four"))
    }
}
```

- The test will now fail if it returns Err
- Allows convenient usage of ? in tests
- Note that you can't use #[should\_panic] on tests that return a Result

#### **Controlling Test Behavior**

cargo test compiles your code in test mode and runs the resulting test binary.

- By default, it will run all tests in parallel and prevent the output ( stdout and stderr ) from being displayed.
- Other testing configurations are available
- Note that you can run cargo test --help, and cargo test -- --help for help

#### **Running Tests in Parallel**

- Suppose each of your tests all write to some shared file on disk.
  - All tests write to a file output.txt
- They later assert that the file still contains that data they wrote
- You probably don't want all of them to run at the same time!

#### **Test Threads**

By default, Rust will run all of the tests in parallel, on different threads.

You can use --test-threads to control the number of threads running the tests.

```
$ cargo test -- --test-threads=1
```

Generally not a good idea, since the benefits of parallelism are lost

#### **Showing Output**

If you want to prevent the capturing of output, you can use --show-output

```
$ cargo test -- --show-output
```

- This will print the full output of every test that is run
- With 1000 tests, this might get too verbose!
- If only we could only run a subset of the tests...

#### **Running Tests by Name**

Let's say we have 1000 tests, but only one is named one\_hundred. We can run cargo test one\_hundred to only run that test.

```
$ cargo test one_hundred
   Compiling adder v0.1.0 (file:///projects/adder)
   Finished test [unoptimized + debuginfo] target(s) in 0.69s
   Running unittests src/lib.rs (target/debug/deps/adder-92948b65e88960b4)

running 1 test
test tests::one_hundred ... ok

test result: ok. 1 passed; 0 failed; 0 ignored; 0 measured; 999 filtered out; finished in 0.00s
```

 Notice how there are now 999 filtered out tests, these were the tests that didn't match the name one\_hundred

#### **Multiple Tests by Name**

cargo will actually find any test that matches the name you passed in.

```
$ cargo test add
   Compiling adder v0.1.0 (file:///projects/adder)
   Finished test [unoptimized + debuginfo] target(s) in 0.61s
   Running unittests src/lib.rs (target/debug/deps/adder-92948b65e88960b4)

running 2 tests
test tests::add_three_and_two ... ok
test tests::add_two_and_two ... ok
test result: ok. 2 passed; 0 failed; 0 ignored; 0 measured; 998 filtered out; finished in 0.00s
```

• If you want an exact name, use cargo test {name} -- -- exact

#### **Ignoring Tests**

We can ignore some tests by using the #[ignore] attribute.

```
#[test]
fn it_works() {
    assert_eq!(2 + 2, 4);
}

#[test]
#[ignore]
fn expensive_test() {
    // code that takes an hour to run
}
```

- If we only want to run ignored tests, we can run cargo test -- --ignored
- If we want to run all tests, we can run cargo test -- --include-ignored

#### **Test Organization**

The Rust community thinks about tests in terms of two main categories: unit tests and integration tests.

- Unit tests test each unit of code in isolation
- Integration tests are external to your library, testing the entire system

#### **Unit Tests**

Unit tests are almost always contained within the src directory.

- The convention is to create a submodule named tests annotated with #
   [cfg(test)] for every module you want to test
- Recall that #[cfg(test)] attribute on items will only compile those items
   when running cargo test, and not cargo build
- Prevents deploying extra code in production that is only used for testing

#### **Testing Private Functions**

Rust allows you to test private functions.

```
// bad style for slides
pub fn add_two(a: i32) -> i32 { internal_adder(a, 2) }
fn internal_adder(a: i32, b: i32) -> i32 { a + b }
#[cfg(test)]
mod tests {
    use super::*;
    #[test]
    fn internal() {
        assert_eq!(4, internal_adder(2, 2));
```

#### **Integration Tests**

Integration Tests use your library in the same way any other code would.

- They can only call functions that are part of your library's public API
- Useful for testing if many parts of your library work together correctly

#### **Integration Tests**

To create integration tests, we need a tests directory.

```
adder
— Cargo.lock
— Cargo.toml
— src
— lib.rs
— tests
— integration_test.rs
```

Notice how tests is outside of src

#### **Integration Tests**

Since we are now external to our own library, we must import everything as if it were a 3rd-party crate.

tests/integration\_test.rs

```
use adder;

#[test]
fn it_adds_two() {
    assert_eq!(4, adder::add_two(2));
}
```

- Note that we don't need to annotate anything with #[cfg(tests)]
- We can now also run test files using the name of the file with cargo test --test integration\_test

#### **Submodules in Integration Tests**

As you add more integration tests, you might want to make more files in the tests directory to help organize them.

- You can use submodules in the tests directory just like in the src directory
- You can also use the "alternate file path" method to define non-test code

# **Submodules in Integration Tests**

Using the alternate naming convention with common/mod.rs tells Rust not to treat the common module as an integration test file.

```
    Cargo.lock
    Cargo.toml
    src
    Lib.rs
    tests
    mod.rs
    integration_test.rs
```

#### **Submodules in Integration Tests**

Here is an example of using common in an integration test:

```
└── tests
├── common
└── mod.rs
└── integration_test.rs
```

```
use adder;
mod common;

#[test]
fn it_adds_two() {
    common::setup();
    assert_eq!(4, adder::add_two(2));
}
```

#### **Integration Tests for Binary Crates**

We cannot create integration tests for a binary crate.

- Binary crates do not expose their functions
- This is why most binary crates will be paired with a library crate, even if they don't *need* to expose any functions

#### **Recap: Testing**

- Unit tests examine parts of a library in isolation and can test private implementation details
- Integration tests check that many parts of the library work together correctly
- Even though Rust can prevent some kinds of bugs, tests are still extremely important to reduce logical bugs!

#### **Homework 6**

You'll be following the Rust Book and implementing a mini version of grep!

- You can do this homework in <10 minutes by copying and pasting code</li>
- We encourage you to actually read and follow the tutorial
- You will still have to add some small extra feature once you are done!
- Remember that if you complete 4 homeworks and show up to every lecture, you pass this course!
- We will only grade homework 6 at the end of the semester if your grade is not already high enough

# **Next Lecture: Crates, Closures, and Iterators**

• Thanks for coming!

