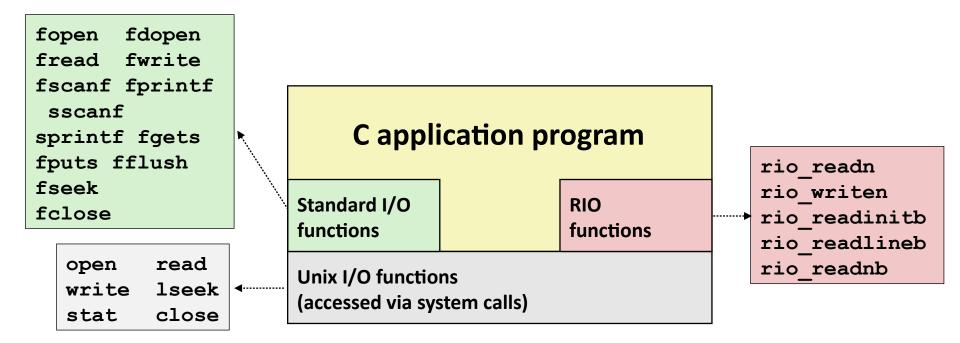
Today

Unix I/O

- Metadata
- Sharing and redirection
- Standard I/O
- RIO (robust I/O) package
- Closing remarks

Today: Unix I/O and C Standard I/O

- Two sets: system-level and C level
- Robust I/O (RIO): special wrappers, good coding practice: handles error checking, signals, and "short counts"



Unix I/O Overview

A Linux *file* is a sequence of *m* bytes:

B₀, B_1 , ..., B_k , ..., B_{m-1}

Cool fact: All I/O devices are represented as files:

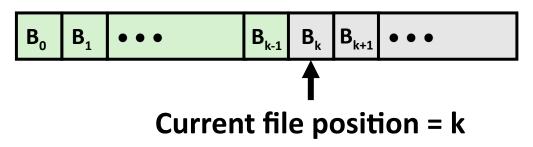
- /dev/sda2 (/usr disk partition, block device)
- /dev/tty2 (terminal, character device)

Even the kernel is represented as a file:

- /boot/vmlinuz-4.19.0-6-amd64 (kernel image)
- /proc (kernel data structures)

Unix I/O Overview

- Elegant mapping of files to devices allows kernel to export simple interface called Unix I/O:
 - Opening and closing files
 - open() and close()
 - Reading and writing a file
 - read() and write()
 - Changing the current file position (seek)
 - indicates next offset into file to read or write
 - lseek()



File Types

Each file has a type indicating its role in the system

- *Regular file:* Contains arbitrary data
- Directory: Index for a related group of files
- *Pipe:* Simple unidirectional IPC facility
- Socket: For communicating with a process on another machine

• Other file types beyond our scope

- Named pipes (FIFOs)
- Symbolic links
- Character and block devices

Regular Files

- A regular file contains arbitrary data
- Applications often distinguish between text files and binary files
 - Text files are regular files with only ASCII or Unicode characters
 - Binary files are everything else
 - e.g., object files, JPEG images
 - Kernel doesn't know the difference!

Text file is sequence of *text lines*

- Text line is sequence of chars terminated by newline char ('\n')
 - Newline is **0xa**, same as ASCII line feed character (LF)

End of line (EOL) indicators in other systems

- Linux and Mac OS: '\n' (0xa)
 - line feed (LF)
- Windows and Internet protocols: '\r\n' (0xd 0xa)
 - Carriage return (CR) followed by line feed (LF)



Directories

Directory consists of an array of *links*

Each link maps a *filenam*e to a file

Each directory contains at least two entries

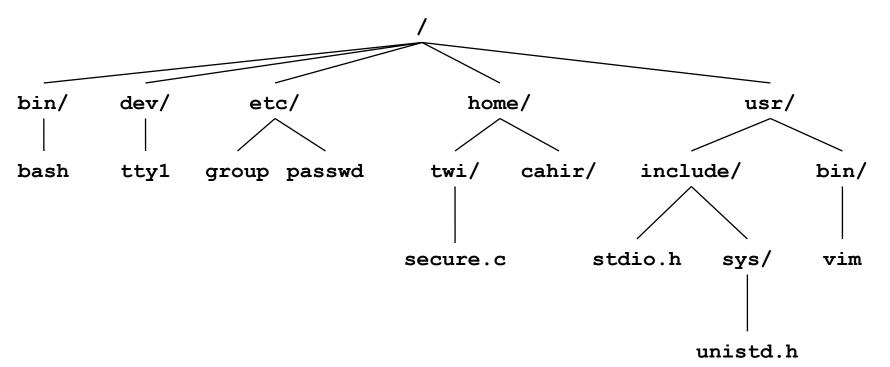
- . (dot) is a link to itself
- .. (dot dot) is a link to *the parent directory* in the *directory hierarchy* (next slide)

Commands for manipulating directories

- mkdir: create empty directory
- **ls**: view directory contents
- rmdir: delete empty directory

Directory Hierarchy

All files are organized as a hierarchy anchored by root directory named / (slash)



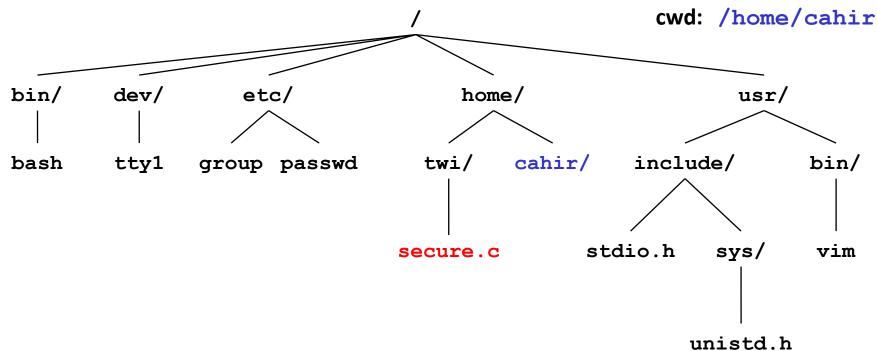
Kernel maintains current working directory (cwd) for each process

Modified using the cd command

Pathnames

Locations of files in the hierarchy denoted by pathnames

- Absolute pathname starts with '/' and denotes path from root
 - /home/twi/secure.c
- *Relative pathname* denotes path from current working directory
 - ../home/twi/secure.c



Opening Files

Opening a file informs the kernel that you are getting ready to access that file

```
int fd; /* file descriptor */
if ((fd = open("/etc/hosts", O_RDONLY)) < 0) {
    perror("open");
    exit(1);
}</pre>
```

Returns a small identifying integer *file descriptor*

- fd == -1 indicates that an error occurred
- Each process created by a Linux shell begins life with three open files associated with a terminal:
 - 0: standard input (stdin)
 - 1: standard output (stdout)
 - 2: standard error (stderr)

Closing Files

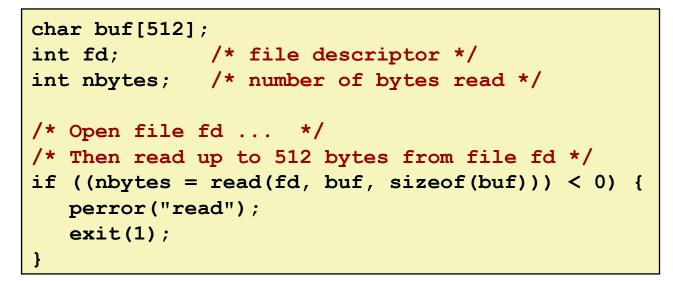
Closing a file informs the kernel that you are finished accessing that file

```
int fd; /* file descriptor */
int retval; /* return value */
if ((retval = close(fd)) < 0) {
    perror("close");
    exit(1);
}</pre>
```

- Closing an already closed file is a recipe for disaster in threaded programs (more on this later)
- Moral: Always check return codes, even for seemingly benign functions such as close()

Reading Files

Reading a file copies bytes from the current file position to memory, and then updates file position



Returns number of bytes read from file fd into buf

- Return type ssize_t is signed integer
- **nbytes** < 0 indicates that an error occurred</p>
- Short counts (nbytes < sizeof(buf)) are possible and are not errors!</p>

Writing Files

Writing a file copies bytes from memory to the current file position, and then updates current file position

Returns number of bytes written from buf to file fd

- **nbytes** < 0 indicates that an error occurred
- As with reads, short counts are possible and are not errors!

Simple Unix I/O example

Copying stdin to stdout, one byte at a time

```
#include "csapp.h"
int main(void) {
   char c;
   while(Read(STDIN_FILENO, &c, 1) != 0)
      Write(STDOUT_FILENO, &c, 1);
   exit(0);
}
```

On Short Counts

Short counts can occur in these situations:

- Encountering (end-of-file) EOF on reads
- Reading text lines from a terminal
- Reading and writing network sockets

Short counts never occur in these situations:

- Reading from disk files (except for EOF)
- Writing to disk files

Best practice is to always allow for short counts.

Seeking

Regular files and block devices are seekable

- You can move cursor associated with open file
- SEEK_SET, SEEK_CUR, SEEK_END
- Iseek returns a position from the beginning of file
- Seeking past end of file is possible and create *holes*

Check file size:

```
#include "csapp.h"
int main(void) {
    int fd = Open("file.txt", O_RDONLY, 0);
    off_t pos = lseek(fd, 0, SEEK_END);
    printf("file size is %ld bytes\n", pos);
    exit(0);
}
```

Truncate

- By writing at the end of file we can increase its size
- What if we decided shorten a file?

```
Truncate file to given size:
```

```
#include "csapp.h"
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    ...
    off_t newend = atoi(argv[1]);
    int fd = Open("file.txt", O_RDONLY, 0);
    Ftruncate(fd, newend);
    exit(0);
}
```

More on open

- For *flags*, you can pass a bitwise-OR of one or more flags
- Three kinds of flags (we only discuss the important ones)
 - Access modes (one of them must be included):
 - O_RDONLY, O_WRONLY, O_RDWR
 - File creation flags:
 - O_CREAT, O_TRUNC, etc.
 - File status flags

Access mode flags and file creation flags

O_RDONLY / O_WRONLY / O_RDWR

• Open the file read-only / write-only / read-write.

O_CREAT

- If the provided pathname does not exist, create it as a regular file.
- O_TRUNC
 - If the file already exists and if the access mode allows writing (i.e. is O_RDWR or O_WRONLY), then the file will be truncated to length 0.

O_APPEND

Each time file is written to, atomically move cursor to the end of file and write contents.

O_DIRECTORY

Fail if user attempted to open a file that is not a directory.

More on open

- For mode, you can pass a bitwise-OR of one or more constants
- Specifies, when creating a file, what permission the file will be created with
- Only useful when *flags* contain O_CREAT (or O_TMPFILE)

Linux permissions

- Every file and directory has permission information
- You've seen it before
 - ls -l prints the permissions for each file/directory like:
 -rw-r--r--... drwxr-xr-x ...
 - chmod changes the permissions for files/directories
 - \$ chmod -R 777 /
 - There are read (R), write (W) and executable (X) permissions for user (USR), group (GRP) and other (OTH)

Specify permissions in open()

	Read (R)	Write (W)	Executable (X)	All (RWX)
User (USR)	S_IRUSR	S_IWUSR	S_IXUSR	S_IRWXU
Group (GRP)	S_IRGRP	S_IWGRP	S_IXGRP	S_IRWXG
Other (OTH)	S_IROTH	S_IWOTH	S_IXOTH	S_IRWXO

- These constants can be bitwise-OR'd and passed to the third argument of open()
- What does S_IRWXG | S_IXUSR | S_IXOTH mean?
- How to create a file which everyone can read from but only the user can write to it or execute it?

Today

Unix I/O

Metadata

- Sharing and redirection
- Standard I/O
- RIO (robust I/O) package
- Closing remarks

File Metadata

Metadata is data about data, in this case file data

Per-file metadata maintained by kernel

accessed by users with the stat and fstat functions

```
/* Metadata returned by the stat and fstat functions */
struct stat {
               st dev; /* Device */
   dev t
               st ino; /* inode */
   ino t
              st_mode; /* Protection and file type */
   mode t
   nlink_t st_nlink; /* Number of hard links */
               st uid; /* User ID of owner */
   uid t
               st_gid; /* Group ID of owner */
   qid t
              st rdev; /* Device type (if inode device) */
   dev t
   off t
               st size; /* Total size, in bytes */
   unsigned long st blksize; /* Blocksize for filesystem I/O */
   unsigned long st blocks; /* Number of blocks allocated */
               st atime; /* Time of last access */
   time t
   time_t st_mtime; /* Time of last modification */
               st ctime; /* Time of last change */
   time t
};
```

Example of Accessing File Metadata

```
int main (int argc, char **argv) {
   struct stat stat;
   char *type, *readok;
```

```
Stat(argv[1], &stat);
/* Determine file type */
if (S ISREG(stat.st mode))
 type = "regular";
else if (S ISDIR(stat.st mode))
  type = "directory";
else
 type = "other";
/* Check read access */
if ((stat.st mode & S IRUSR))
  readok = "yes";
else
  readok = "no";
printf("type: %s, read: %s\n", type, readok);
exit(0);
                                  statcheck.c
```

linux> ./statcheck statcheck.c
type: regular, read: yes
linux> chmod 000 statcheck.c
linux> ./statcheck statcheck.c
type: regular, read: no
linux> ./statcheck ..
type: directory, read: yes

Where file names are stored?

- Metadata is stored in i-node's (for ext4 and ufs)
 - File exists within file system mounted from block device st_dev.
 - It's unique identifier there is st_ino (aka i-node number).
- Yes, files do not have names by themselves!
 - No st_name field in struct stat.
- File name is stored in directory file.
 - When a directory references a file it bumps its st_nlink.

Very elegant solution with interesting consequences...

<pre>struct stat {</pre>		
dev_t	<pre>st_dev;</pre>	/* Device */
ino_t	<pre>st_ino;</pre>	/* inode */
nlink_t	<pre>st_nlink;</pre>	<pre>/* Number of hard links */</pre>
•••		
};		

Directories

The only file type in Unix that is record-oriented.

- You cannot use read or write on it!
- System call to read dirent records is getdirentries, but not portable – it's better to use readdir.
- When an association between a name and i-node is created st_nlink value is bumped up.
- Several system calls devoted to operations on directories.

```
struct dirent {
    ino_t d_ino; /* Inode number */
    off_t d_off; /* Not an offset; see below */
    unsigned short d_reclen; /* Length of this record */
    unsigned char d_type; /* Type of file */
    char d_name[256]; /* Null-terminated filename */
};
```

Accessing Directories

Reading directory entries

- dirent structure contains information about a directory entry
- DIR structure contains information about directory while stepping through its entries

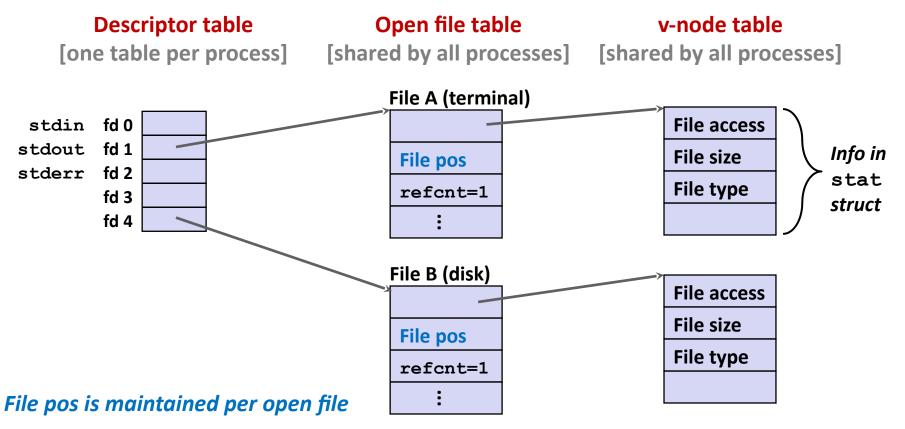
```
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <dirent.h>
 DIR *directory;
  struct dirent *de;
  if (!(directory = opendir(dir name)))
      error("Failed to open directory");
 while (0 != (de = readdir(directory))) {
     printf("Found file: %s\n", de->d name);
  }
  closedir(directory);
```

Today

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How the Unix Kernel Represents Open Files

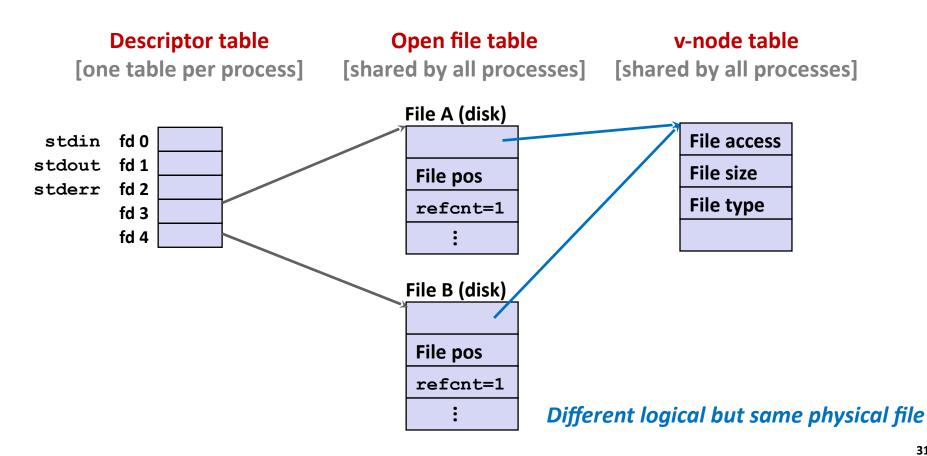
Two descriptors referencing two distinct open files. Descriptor 1 (stdout) points to terminal, and descriptor 4 points to open disk file



File Sharing

Two distinct descriptors sharing the same disk file through two distinct open file table entries

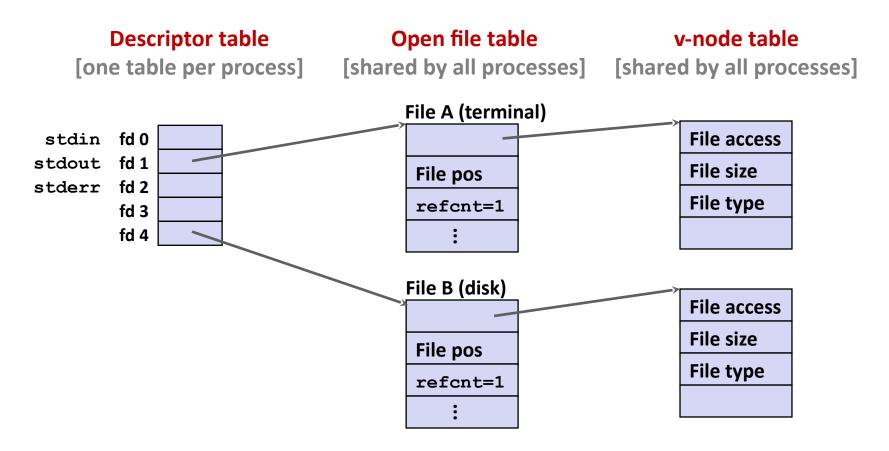
E.g., Calling open twice with the same filename argument



How Processes Share Files: fork

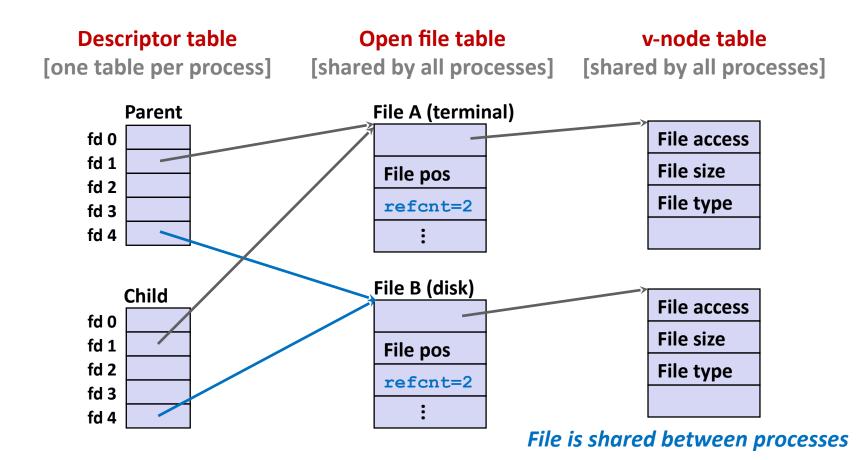
A child process inherits its parent's open files

- Note: situation unchanged by exec functions (use fcntl to change)
- Before fork call:



How Processes Share Files: fork

- A child process inherits its parent's open files
- After fork:
 - Child's table same as parent's, and +1 to each refcnt



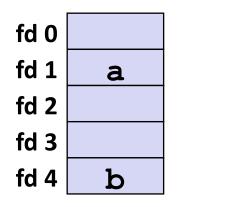
I/O Redirection

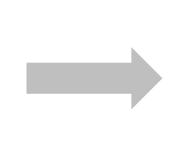
Question: How does a shell implement I/O redirection? linux> ls > foo.txt

Answer: By calling the dup2 (oldfd, newfd) function

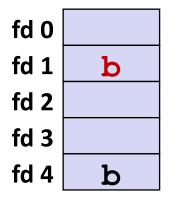
Copies (per-process) descriptor table entry oldfd to entry newfd

Descriptor table *before* dup2 (4,1)





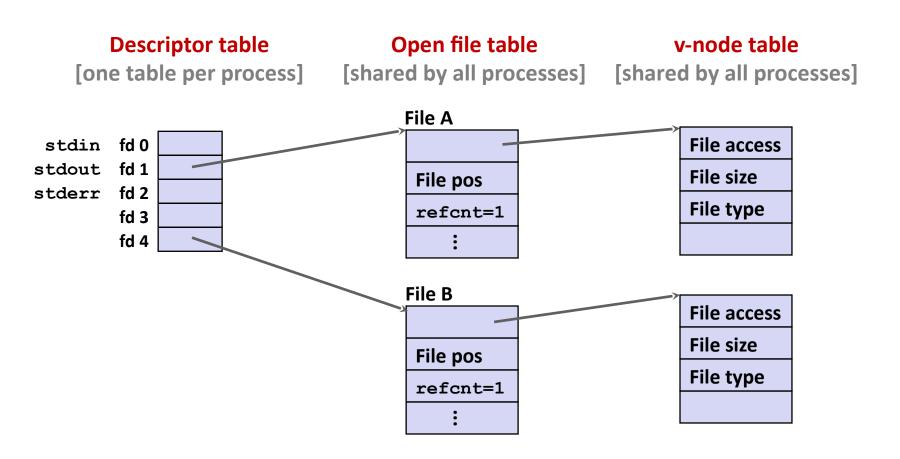
Descriptor table *after* dup2 (4,1)



I/O Redirection Example

Step #1: open file to which stdout should be redirected

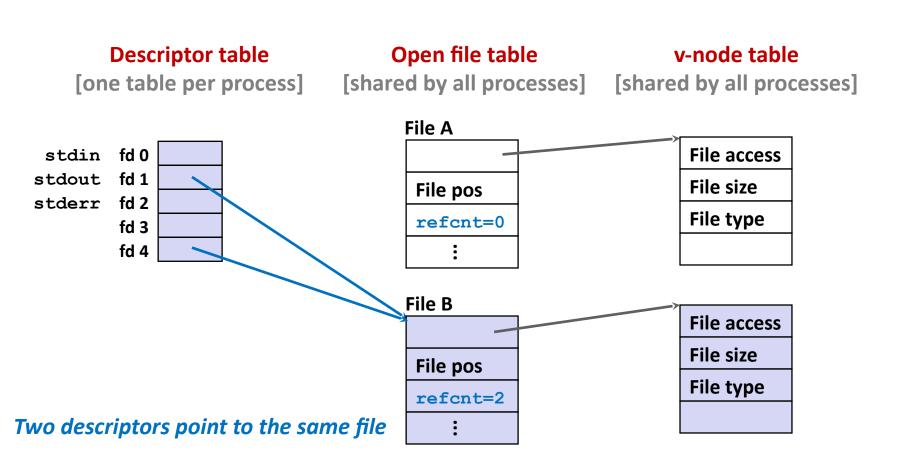
Happens in child executing shell code, before exec



I/O Redirection Example (cont.)

Step #2: call dup2 (4,1)

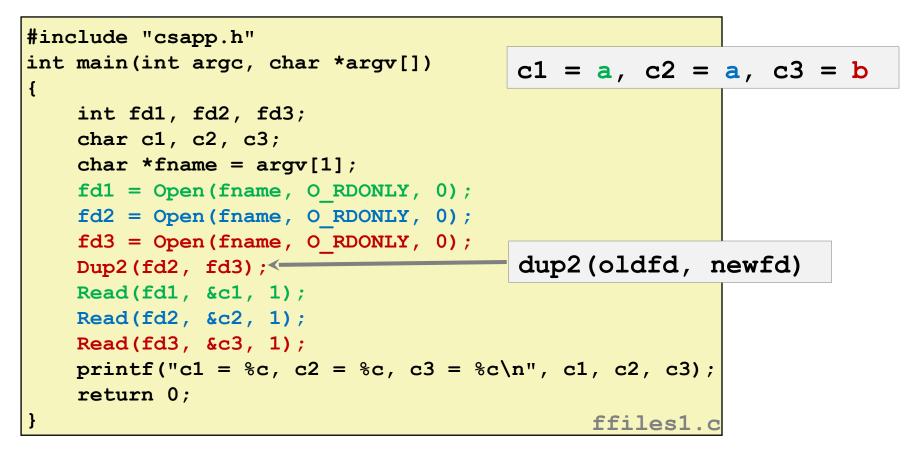
cause fd=1 (stdout) to refer to disk file pointed at by fd=4



Warm-Up: I/O and Redirection Example

```
#include "csapp.h"
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
ł
    int fd1, fd2, fd3;
   char c1, c2, c3;
   char *fname = argv[1];
   fd1 = Open(fname, O RDONLY, 0);
   fd2 = Open(fname, O RDONLY, 0);
    fd3 = Open(fname, O RDONLY, 0);
   Dup2(fd2, fd3);
   Read(fd1, &c1, 1);
   Read(fd2, &c2, 1);
   Read(fd3, &c3, 1);
   printf("c1 = c, c2 = c, c3 = c, c1, c2, c3);
    return 0;
                                             ffiles1.c
```

Warm-Up: I/O and Redirection Example



Master Class: Process Control and I/O

```
#include "csapp.h"
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int fd1;
    int s = getpid() \& 0x1;
    char c1, c2;
    char *fname = argv[1];
    fd1 = Open(fname, O RDONLY, 0);
    Read(fd1, &c1, 1);
    if (fork()) { /* Parent */
        sleep(s);
        Read(fd1, &c2, 1);
        printf("Parent: c1 = c, c2 = c, c1, c2);
    } else { /* Child */
        sleep(1-s);
        Read(fd1, &c2, 1);
        printf("Child: c1 = %c, c2 = %c n", c1, c2);
    }
    return 0;
                                            ffiles2.c
```

Master Class: Process Control and I/O

```
#include "csapp.h"
                                       Child: c1 = a, c2 = b
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
                                       Parent: c1 = a, c2 = c
{
    int fd1;
    int s = getpid() & 0x1;
   char c1, c2;
                                      Parent: c1 = a, c2 = b
    char *fname = argv[1];
                                      Child: c1 = a, c2 = c
    fd1 = Open(fname, O RDONLY, 0);
   Read(fd1, &c1, 1);
    if (fork()) { /* Parent */
       sleep(s);
       Read(fd1, &c2, 1);
       printf("Parent: c1 = \&c, c2 = \&c n", c1, c2);
    } else { /* Child */
       sleep(1-s);
       Read(fd1, &c2, 1);
       printf("Child: c1 = %c, c2 = %c n", c1, c2);
    }
    return 0;
                                          ffiles2.c
```

Today

- Unix I/O
- Metadata, sharing, and redirection
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- Closing remarks

Standard I/O Functions

The C standard library (libc.so) contains a collection of higher-level standard I/O functions

Examples of standard I/O functions:

- Opening and closing files (fopen and fclose)
- Reading and writing bytes (fread and fwrite)
- Reading and writing text lines (fgets and fputs)
- Formatted reading and writing (fscanf and fprintf)

Standard I/O Streams

Standard I/O models open files as streams

- Abstraction for a file descriptor and a buffer in memory
- C programs begin life with three open streams (defined in stdio.h)
 - **stdin** (standard input)
 - stdout (standard output)
 - stderr (standard error)

```
#include <stdio.h>
extern FILE *stdin; /* standard input (descriptor 0) */
extern FILE *stdout; /* standard output (descriptor 1) */
extern FILE *stderr; /* standard error (descriptor 2) */
int main() {
   fprintf(stdout, "Hello, world\n");
}
```

Buffered I/O: Motivation

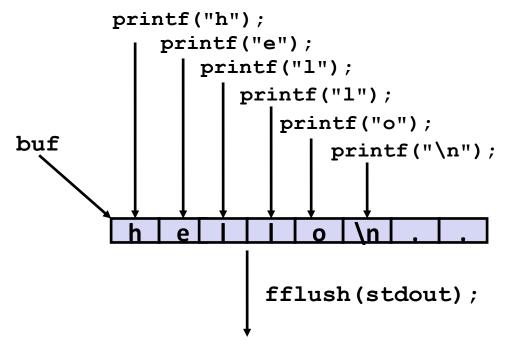
- Applications often read/write one character at a time
 - getc, putc, ungetc
 - gets, fgets
 - Read line of text one character at a time, stopping at newline
- Implementing as Unix I/O calls expensive
 - read and write require Unix kernel calls
 - > 10,000 clock cycles

Solution: Buffered read

- Use Unix read to grab block of bytes
- User input functions take one byte at a time from buffer
 - Refill buffer when empty

Buffering in Standard I/O

Standard I/O functions use buffered I/O



write(1, buf, 6);

Buffer flushed to output fd on "\n", call to fflush or exit, or return from main.

Standard I/O Buffering in Action

You can see this buffering in action for yourself, using the always fascinating Linux strace program:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    printf("h");
    printf("e");
    printf("l");
    printf("l");
    printf("l");
    printf("o");
    printf("\n");
    fflush(stdout);
    exit(0);
}
```

```
linux> strace ./hello
execve("./hello", ["hello"], [/* ... */]).
...
write(1, "hello\n", 6) = 6
...
exit_group(0) = ?
```

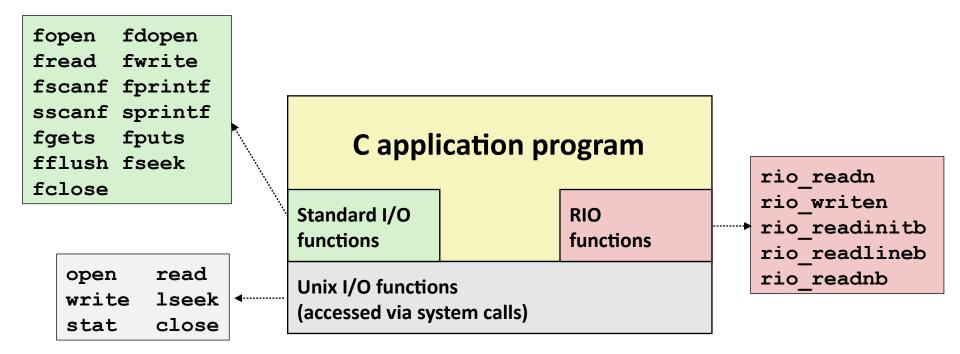
Today

- Unix I/O
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Today: Unix I/O, C Standard I/O, and RIO

Two incompatible libraries building on Unix I/O

Robust I/O (RIO): special wrappers, good coding practice: handles error checking, signals, and "short counts"



Unix I/O Recap

/* Read at most max_count bytes from file into buffer.
 Return number bytes read, or error value */
ssize t read(int fd, void *buffer, size t max count);

/* Write at most max_count bytes from buffer to file.
 Return number bytes written, or error value */
ssize t write(int fd, void *buffer, size t max count);

Short counts can occur in these situations:

- Encountering (end-of-file) EOF on reads
- Reading text lines from a terminal
- Reading and writing network sockets

Short counts never occur in these situations:

- Reading from disk files (except for EOF)
- Writing to disk files

Best practice is to always allow for short counts.

The RIO Package

- RIO is a set of wrappers that provide efficient and robust I/O in apps, such as network programs that are subject to short counts
- RIO provides two different kinds of functions
 - Unbuffered input and output of binary data
 - rio_readn and rio_writen
 - Buffered input of text lines and binary data
 - rio_readlineb and rio_readnb
 - Buffered RIO routines are thread-safe and can be interleaved arbitrarily on the same descriptor

Unbuffered RIO Input and Output

- Same interface as Unix read and write
- Especially useful for transferring data on network sockets

```
#include "csapp.h"
ssize_t rio_readn(int fd, void *usrbuf, size_t n);
ssize t rio writen(int fd, void *usrbuf, size t n);
```

Return: num. bytes transferred if OK, 0 on EOF (rio_readn only), -1 on error

- rio_readn returns short count only if it encounters EOF
 - Only use it when you know how many bytes to read
- rio_writen never returns a short count
- Calls to rio_readn and rio_writen can be interleaved arbitrarily on the same descriptor

Implementation of rio_readn

```
/* rio readn - Robustly read n bytes (unbuffered) */
ssize t rio readn(int fd, void *usrbuf, size t n) {
 size t nleft = n;
 ssize t nread;
 char *bufp = usrbuf;
 while (nleft > 0) {
   if ((nread = read(fd, bufp, nleft)) < 0) {</pre>
     if (errno == EINTR) /* Interrupted by sig handler return */
      else
       return -1; /* errno set by read() */
   }
   else if (nread == 0)
                      /* EOF */
   break;
   nleft -= nread;
   bufp += nread;
 }
 return (n - nleft); /* Return >= 0 */
                                                    csapp.c
```

Buffered RIO Input Functions

Efficiently read text lines and binary data from a file partially cached in an internal memory buffer

```
#include "csapp.h"
void rio_readinitb(rio_t *rp, int fd);
ssize_t rio_readlineb(rio_t *rp, void *usrbuf, size_t maxlen);
ssize_t rio_readnb(rio_t *rp, void *usrbuf, size_t n);
Return: num. bytes read if OK, 0 on EOF, -1 on error
```

- rio_readlineb reads a text line of up to maxlen bytes from file fd and stores the line in usrbuf
 - Especially useful for reading text lines from network sockets
- Stopping conditions
 - maxlen bytes read
 - EOF encountered
 - Newline ('\n') encountered

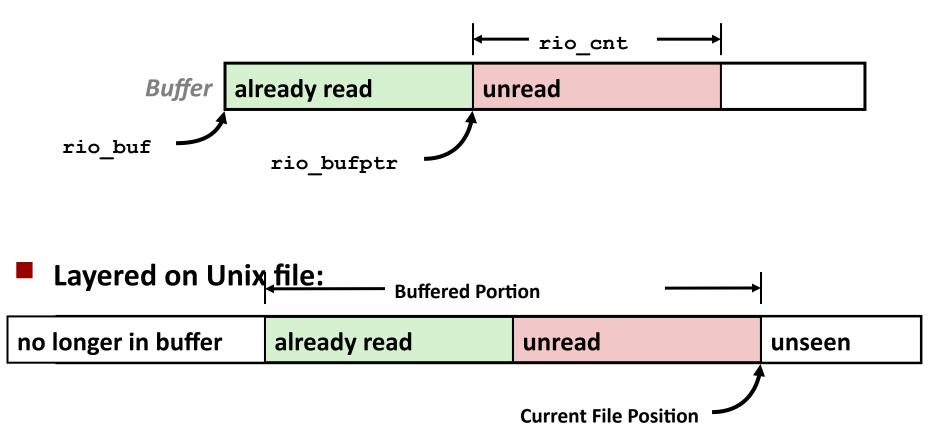
Buffered RIO Input Functions (cont)

```
#include "csapp.h"
void rio_readinitb(rio_t *rp, int fd);
ssize_t rio_readlineb(rio_t *rp, void *usrbuf, size_t maxlen);
ssize_t rio_readnb(rio_t *rp, void *usrbuf, size_t n);
Return: num. bytes read if OK, 0 on EOF, -1 on error
```

- rio_readnb reads up to n bytes from file fd
- Stopping conditions
 - maxlen bytes read
 - EOF encountered
- Calls to rio_readlineb and rio_readnb can be interleaved arbitrarily on the same descriptor
 - Warning: Don't interleave with calls to rio_readn

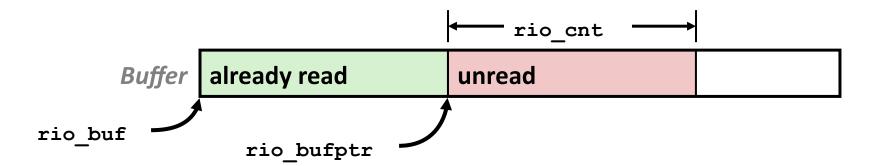
Buffered I/O: Implementation

- For reading from file
- File has associated buffer to hold bytes that have been read from file but not yet read by user code



Buffered I/O: Declaration

All information contained in struct



RIO Example

Copying the lines of a text file from standard input to standard output

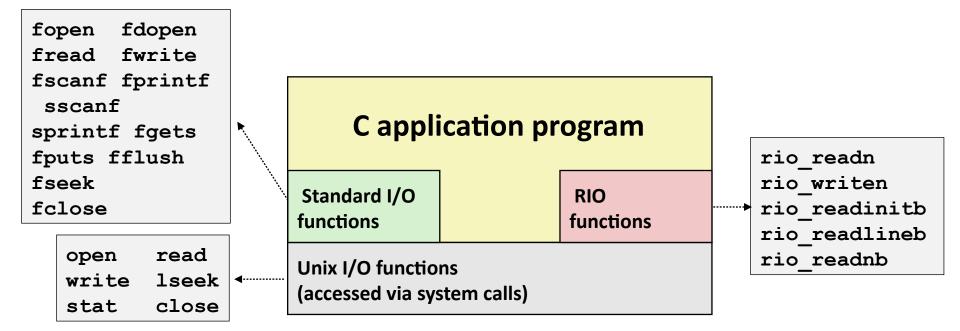
```
#include "csapp.h"
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    int n;
    rio_t rio;
    char buf[MAXLINE];
    Rio_readinitb(&rio, STDIN_FILENO);
    while((n = Rio_readlineb(&rio, buf, MAXLINE)) != 0)
    Rio_writen(STDOUT_FILENO, buf, n);
    exit(0);
}
```

Today

- Unix I/O
- Metadata, sharing, and redirection
- Standard I/O
- RIO (robust I/O) package
- Closing remarks

Unix I/O vs. Standard I/O vs. RIO

Standard I/O and RIO are implemented using low-level Unix I/O



Which ones should you use in your programs?

Pros and Cons of Unix I/O

Pros

- Unix I/O is the most general and lowest overhead form of I/O
 - All other I/O packages are implemented using Unix I/O functions
- Unix I/O provides functions for accessing file metadata
- Unix I/O functions are async-signal-safe and can be used safely in signal handlers

Cons

- Dealing with short counts is tricky and error prone
- Efficient reading of text lines requires some form of buffering, also tricky and error prone
- Both of these issues are addressed by the standard I/O and RIO packages

Pros and Cons of Standard I/O

Pros:

- Buffering increases efficiency by decreasing the number of read and write system calls
- Short counts are handled automatically

Cons:

- Provides no function for accessing file metadata
- Standard I/O functions are not async-signal-safe, and not appropriate for signal handlers
- Standard I/O is not appropriate for input and output on network sockets
 - There are poorly documented restrictions on streams that interact badly with restrictions on sockets (CS:APP3e, Sec 10.11)

Choosing I/O Functions

General rule: use the highest-level I/O functions you can

- Many C programmers are able to do all of their work using the standard I/O functions
- But, be sure to understand the functions you use!

When to use standard I/O

When working with disk or terminal files

When to use raw Unix I/O

- Inside signal handlers, because Unix I/O is async-signal-safe
- In rare cases when you need absolute highest performance

When to use RIO

- When you are reading and writing network sockets
- Avoid using standard I/O on sockets