

System-Level I/O

15-213: Introduction to Computer Systems
21st Lecture, July 21, 2022

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System level: below standard level

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void) {
    FILE *fp = fopen("output.txt", "w");
    if (!fp) {
        perror("output.txt");
        return 1;
    }
    fputs("baby shark (do doo dooo)\n", fp);
    if (fclose(fp)) {
        perror("output.txt");
        return 1;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

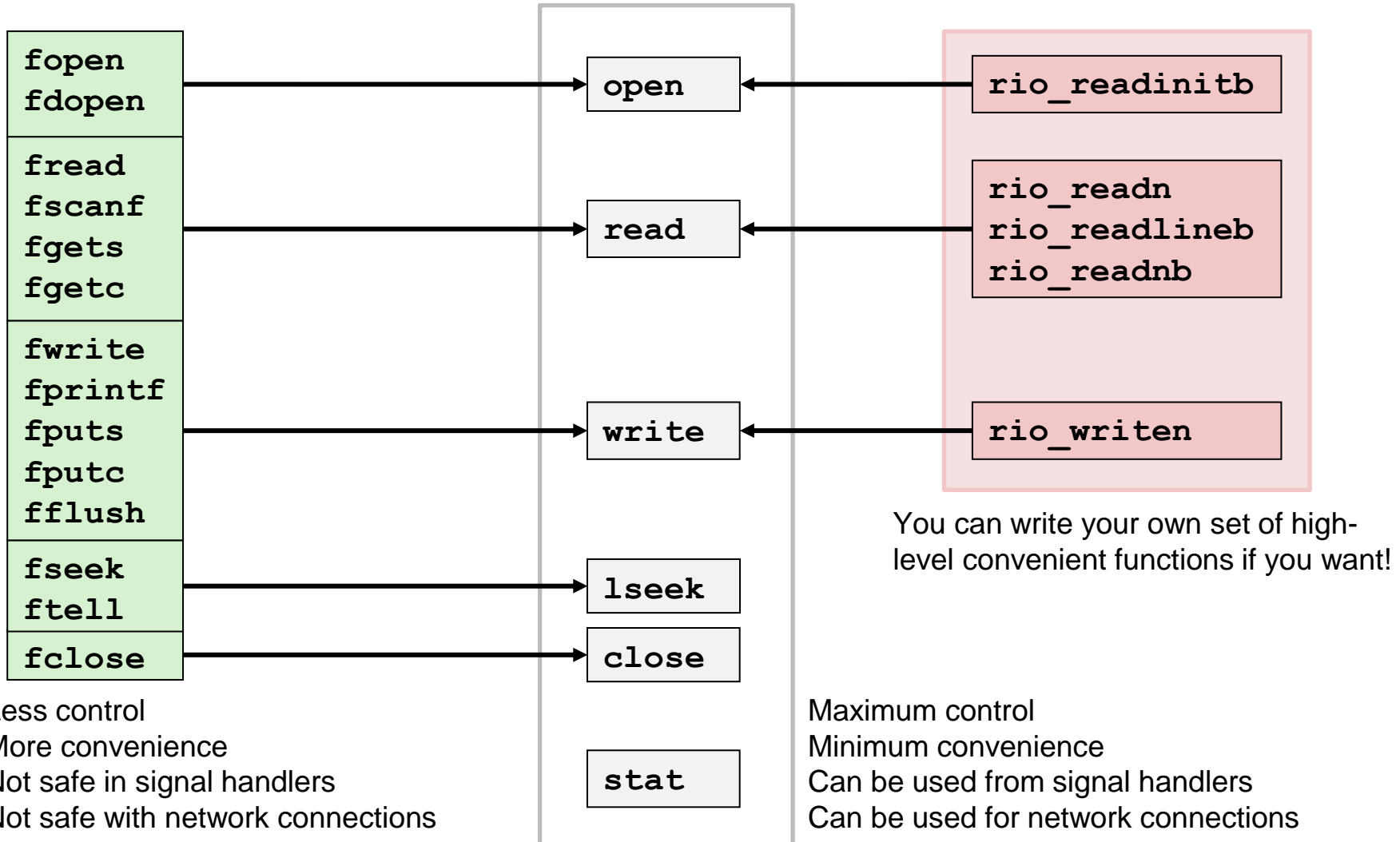
```
FILE *fopen(const char *fname,
            const char *mode) {
    int fd = open(fname,
                 __mode2flags(mode),
                 DEFFILEPERMS);
    if (fd == -1) {
        return NULL;
    }
    return fdopen(fd, mode);
}
```

```
int fputs(const char *s, FILE *fp) {
    size_t n = strlen(s);
    while (n > 0) {
        ssize_t written =
            write(fp->fd, s, n);
        if (written < 0) return EOF;
        n -= written;
        s += written;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

```
.globl close
close:
    mov $3, %eax
    syscall
    cmp $-4096, %rax
    jae __syscall_error
    ret
```

```
int fclose(FILE *fp) {
    int rv = close(fp->fd);
    __ffree(fp);
    return rv;
}
```

Why do we have two sets?



Today

- **Unix I/O**
- Standard I/O
- Which I/O when
- **Metadata, sharing, and redirection**

Unix I/O Overview

■ A *file* is a sequence of bytes:

- $B_0, B_1, \dots, B_k, \dots, B_{m-1}$

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

- `/dev/sda2` (disk partition)
- `/dev/tty2` (terminal)
- `/dev/null` (discard all writes / read empty file)

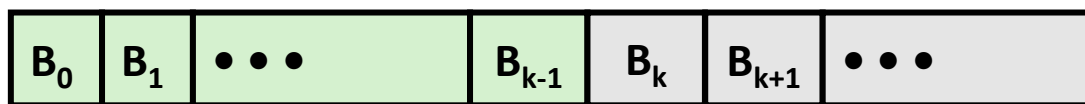
■ Cool fact: Kernel data structures are exposed as files

- `cat /proc/$$/status`
- `ls -l /proc/$$/fd/`
- `ls -RC /sys/devices | less`

Unix I/O Overview

■ Kernel offers a set of basic operations for all files

- Opening and closing files
 - `open()` and `close()`
- Reading and writing a file
 - `read()` and `write()`
- Look up information about a file (size, type, last modification time, ...)
 - `stat()`, `lstat()`, `fstat()`
- Changing the *current file position* (seek)
 - indicates next offset into file to read or write
 - `lseek()`



↑ Current file position = k
(in between bytes $k-1$ and k)

File Types

- **Each file has a *type* indicating its role in the system**
 - *Regular file*: Stores arbitrary data
 - *Directory*: Index for a related group of files
 - *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* and *binary files*
 - Text files contain human-readable text
 - Binary files are everything else (object files, JPEG images, ...)
 - Kernel doesn't care! It's all just bytes!
- Text file is sequence of *text lines*
 - Text line is sequence of characters terminated (not separated!) by *end of line indicator*
 - Characters are defined by a *text encoding* (ASCII, UTF-8, EUC-JP, ...)
- End of line (EOL) indicators:
 - All "Unix": Single byte `0x0A`
 - line feed (LF)
 - DOS, Windows: Two bytes `0x0D 0x0A`
 - Carriage return (CR) followed by line feed (LF)
 - Also used by many Internet protocols
 - C library translates to `'\n'`



Directories

■ Directory consists of an array of *entries* (also called *links*)

- Each entry maps a *filename* to a file

■ Each directory contains at least two entries

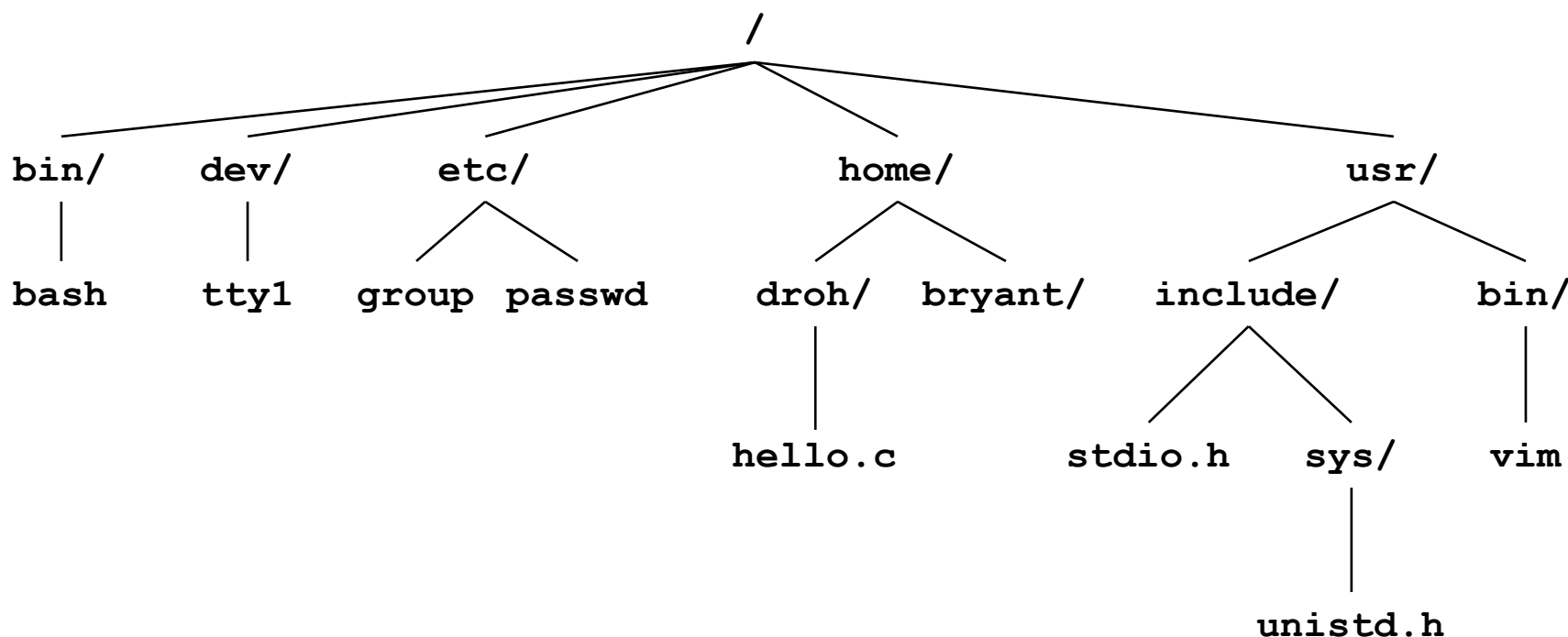
- `.` (dot) maps to the directory itself
- `..` (dot dot) maps to *the parent directory* in the *directory hierarchy* (next slide)

■ 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)

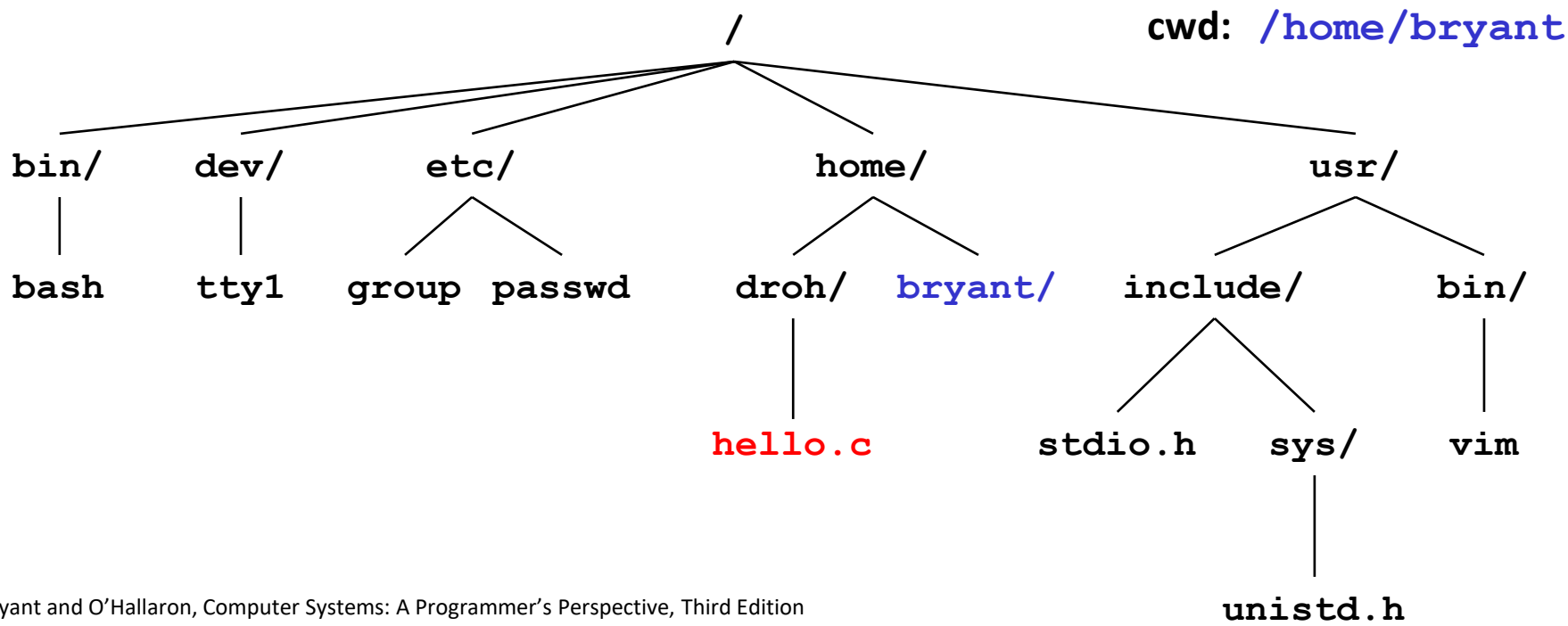


- Kernel maintains *current working directory (cwd)* for each process
 - Modified using the `cd` command

Pathnames

■ Locations of files in the hierarchy denoted by *pathnames*

- *Absolute pathname* starts with '/' and denotes path from root
 - `/home/droh/hello.c`
- *Relative pathname* denotes path from current working directory
 - `../droh/hello.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);
}
```

- Returns a small identifying integer *file descriptor*
 - `fd == -1` indicates that an error occurred
- Each process begins life with three open files
 - 0: standard input (stdin)
 - 1: standard output (stdout)
 - 2: standard error (stderr)
 - These could be files, pipes, your terminal, or even a network connection!

Lots of ways to call open

Open an existing file:

`open(path, flags)`

flags must include exactly one of:

`O_RDONLY` Only want to read from file

`O_WRONLY` Only want to write to file

`O_RDWR` Want to do both

Flags may also include (use | to combine)

`O_APPEND` All writes go to the very end

`O_TRUNC` Delete existing contents if any

`O_CLOEXEC` Close this file if `execve()` is called

Open or create a file:

`open(path, flags, mode)`

flags must include

`O_CREAT` Create the file if it doesn't exist

and exactly one of:

`O_WRONLY` Only want to write to file

`O_RDWR` Want to write and read

and maybe also some of:

`O_EXCL` Fail if file does exist

`O_APPEND` All writes go to the very end

`O_TRUNC` Delete existing contents if any

`O_CLOEXEC` Close this file if `execve()` is called

(and many more... consult the `open()` manpage)

The third argument to open

■ Yes, open takes either two or three arguments

- Bet you thought you couldn't do that in C
- Look through `/usr/include/fcntl.h` and try to figure out how it's done
- Third argument must be present when `O_CREAT` appears in second argument; ignored otherwise

■ Third argument gives *default access permissions* for newly created files

- Modified by *umask* setting (see `man umask`)
- Use `DEFFILEMODE` (from `sys/stat.h`) unless you have a specific reason to want something else
- More explanation:
 - <https://linuxfoundation.org/blog/classic-sysadmin-understanding-linux-file-permissions/>
 - https://linuxcommand.org/lc3_lts0090.php
 - <https://devconnected.com/linux-file-permissions-complete-guide/>

Closing Files

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

```
if (close(fd) < 0) {  
    fprintf(stderr, "%s: write error: %s",  
            filename, strerror(errno));  
    exit(1);  
}
```

- Take care not to close any file more than once
 - Same as not calling `free()` twice on the same pointer
- Closing a file can fail!
 - Well, not exactly *fail*—the file is still closed
 - The OS is taking this opportunity to report a *delayed error* from a previous write operation
 - You might silently lose data if you don't check!

Reading Files

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

```
char buf[512];
int fd;      /* file descriptor */
int nbytes; /* number of bytes read */

/* Open file fd ... */
/* Then read up to 512 bytes from file fd */
if ((nbytes = read(fd, buf, sizeof(buf))) < 0) {
    perror("read");
    exit(1);
}
```

- Returns number of bytes read from file `fd` into `buf`
 - Return type `ssize_t` is signed integer
 - `nbytes < 0` indicates that an error occurred
 - **Short counts** (`nbytes < sizeof(buf)`) are possible and are not errors!

Writing Files

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

```
char buf[512];
int fd;      /* file descriptor */
int nbytes; /* number of bytes read */

/* Open the file fd ... */
/* Then write up to 512 bytes from buf to file fd */
if ((nbytes = write(fd, buf, sizeof(buf))) < 0) {
    perror("write");
    exit(1);
}
```

- 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 <unistd.h>

int main(void) {
    char c;
    while (read(STDIN_FILENO, &c, 1) != 0)
        write(STDOUT_FILENO, &c, 1);
    return 0;
}
```

Always check return codes from system calls!

Simple Unix I/O example

■ Copying stdin to stdout, one byte at a time

```
#include <unistd.h>
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void) {
    char c;
    for (;;) {
        ssize_t nread = read(STDIN_FILENO, &c, 1);
        if (nread == 0) {
            return 0;
        } else if (nread < 0) {
            perror("stdin");
            return 1;
        }
        if (write(STDOUT_FILENO, &c, 1) < 1) {
            perror("stdout: write error");
            return 1;
        }
    }
}
```

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);
    }
    return 0;
}
```

*“Stevens wrappers” make things shorter...
but they don’t let you recover from errors*

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, pipes, etc.

■ 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.

Do activity 1 now ("Unix I/O" section)

<http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~213/activities/system-io.pdf>

<http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~213/activities/system-io.tar>

Today

- Unix I/O
- **Standard I/O**
- Which I/O when
- **Metadata, sharing, and redirection**

Standard I/O Functions

- The C standard library (`libc.so`) contains a collection of higher-level *standard I/O* functions
 - Documented in Appendix B of K&R
- 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

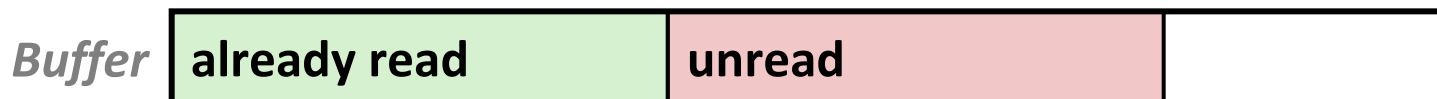
- Standard I/O models open files as *streams*
 - Abstraction for a file descriptor and a buffer in memory
- C programs begin life with three open streams (defined in `stdio.h`)
 - `stdin` (standard input)
 - `stdout` (standard output)
 - `stderr` (standard error)

```
#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");
}
```

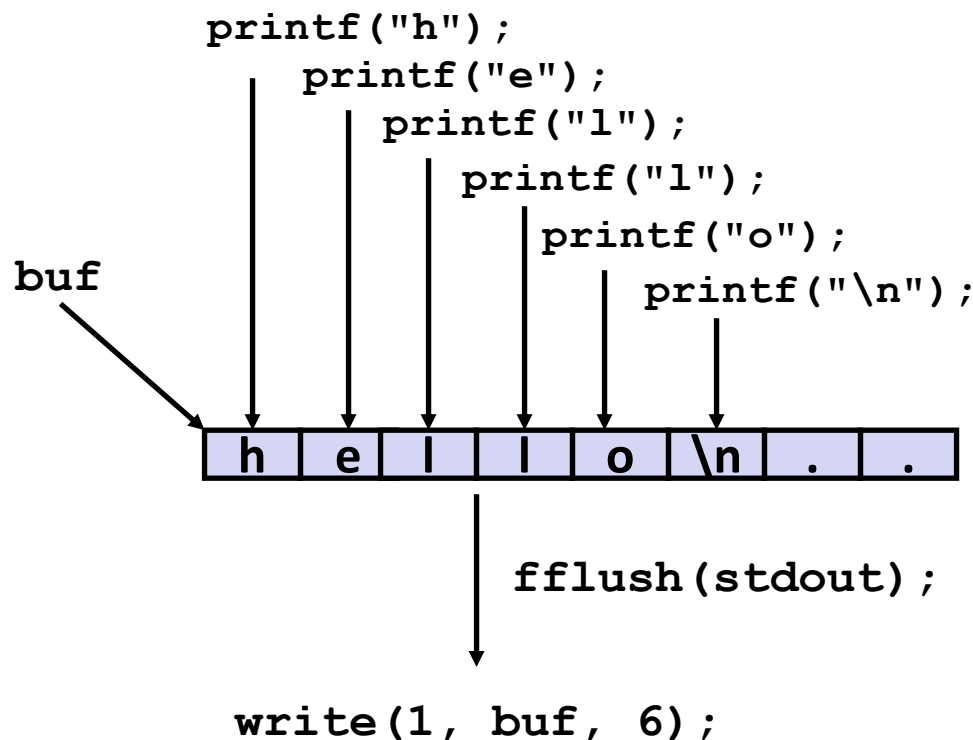
Buffered I/O: Motivation

- 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



■ 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("o");
    printf("\n");
    fflush(stdout);
    exit(0);
}
```

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

**Do activity 2 now
("Standard I/O" and
"Buffering and Performance")**

Today

- Unix I/O
- Standard I/O
- **Which I/O when**
- Metadata, sharing, and redirection

Pros and Cons of Unix I/O

■ Pros

- Unix I/O is the most general 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

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 “ordinary” files

■ When to use raw Unix I/O

- *Inside signal handlers, because Unix I/O is async-signal-safe*
- *When you are reading and writing network sockets*
 - Libraries dedicated to buffered network I/O make this easier
 - CS:APP `rio_*` functions; libevent, libuv, ...
- In rare cases when you need absolute highest performance

Aside: Working with Binary Files

■ Functions you should *never* use on binary files

- **Text-oriented I/O:** such as `fgets`, `scanf`, `rio_readlineb`
 - Interpret EOL characters.
 - Use functions like `rio_readn` or `rio_readnb` instead
- **String functions**
 - `strlen`, `strcpy`, `strcat`
 - Interprets byte value 0 (end of string) as special

Today

- Unix I/O
- Standard I/O
- Which I/O when
- **Metadata, sharing, and redirection**

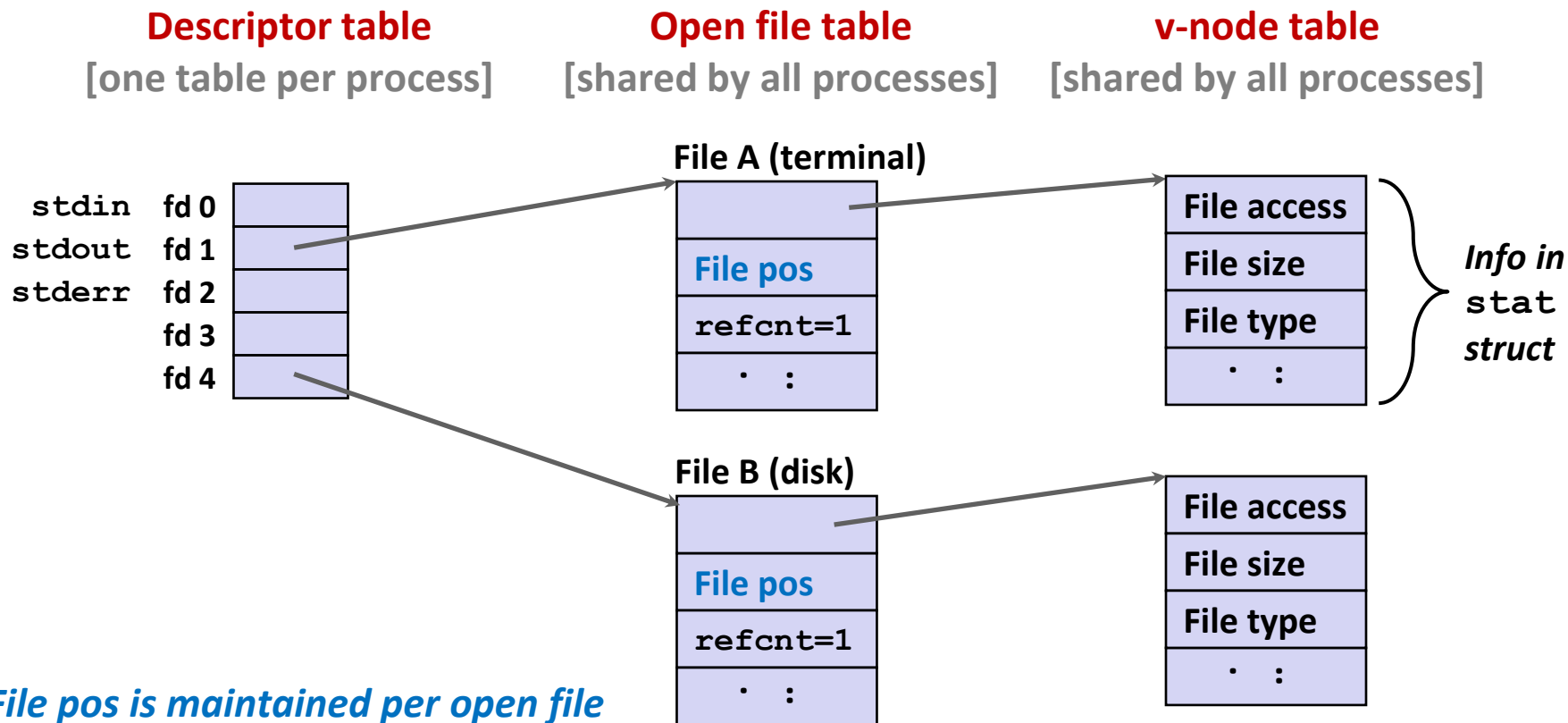
File Metadata

- **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 {
    dev_t          st_dev;          /* Device */
    ino_t          st_ino;         /* inode */
    mode_t        st_mode;        /* Protection and file type */
    nlink_t       st_nlink;       /* Number of hard links */
    uid_t         st_uid;         /* User ID of owner */
    gid_t         st_gid;         /* Group ID of owner */
    dev_t         st_rdev;        /* Device type (if inode device) */
    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 */
    time_t        st_atime;       /* Time of last access */
    time_t        st_mtime;       /* Time of last modification */
    time_t        st_ctime;       /* Time of last change */
};
```

How the Unix Kernel Represents Open Files

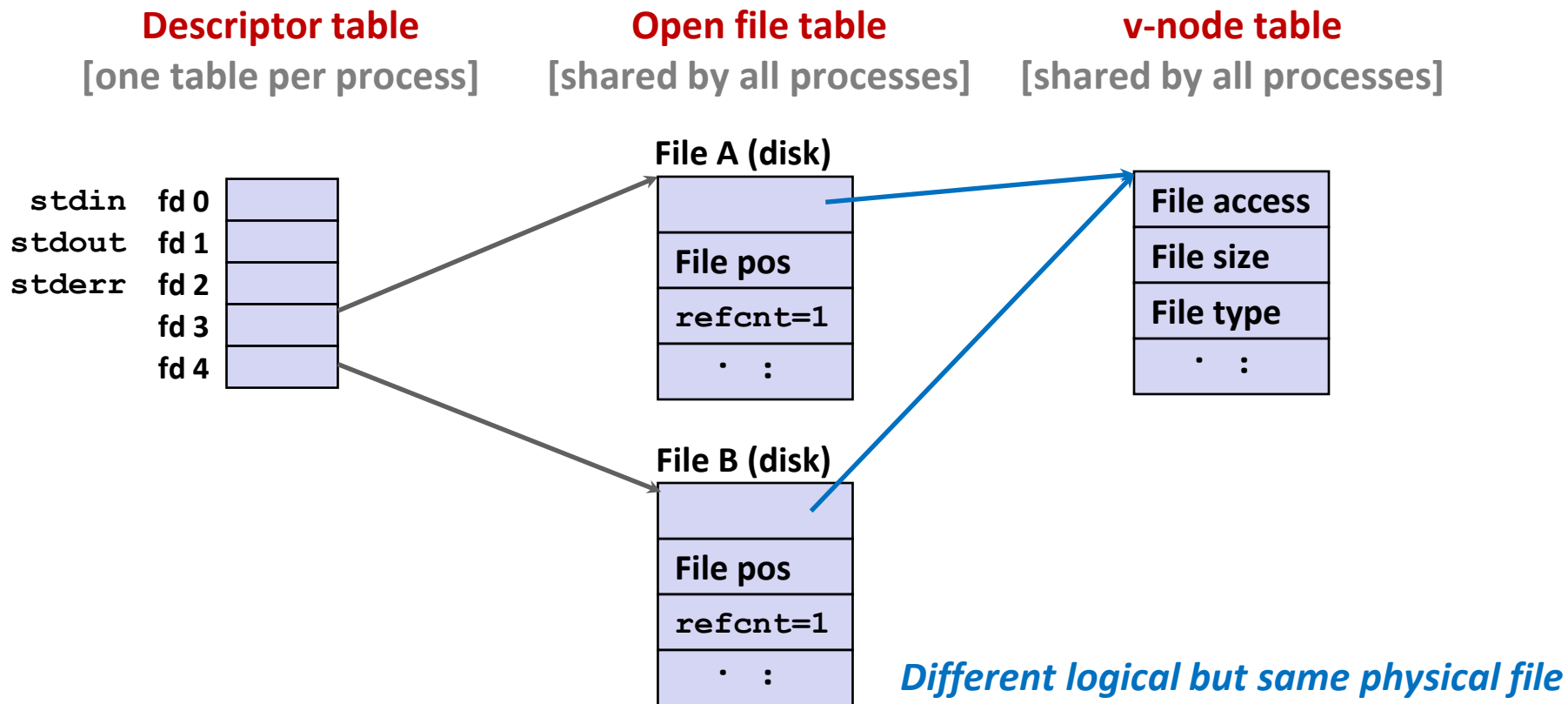
- Two descriptors referencing two distinct open files.
Descriptor 1 (stdout) points to terminal, and descriptor 4 points to open disk file



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

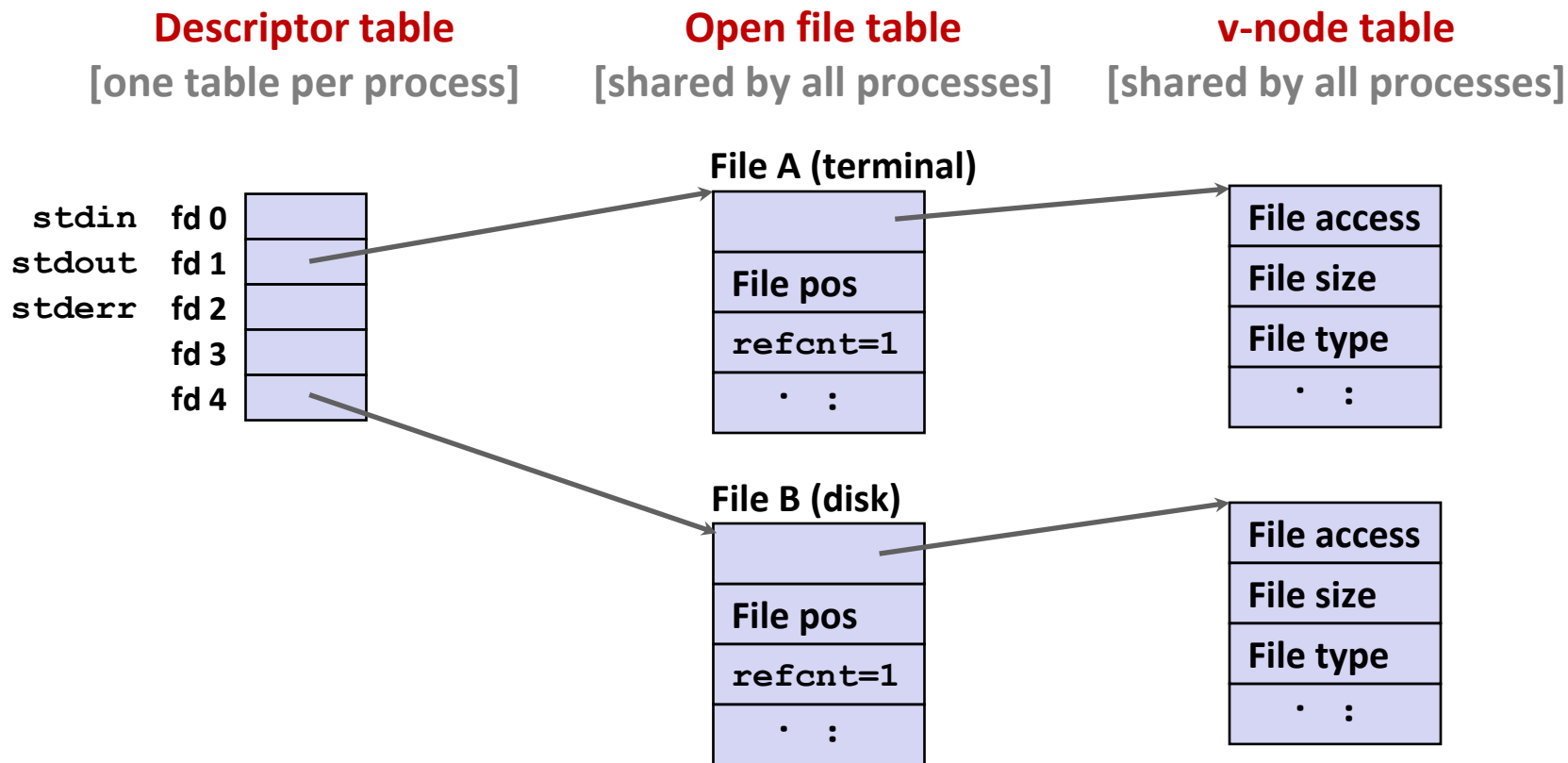


How Processes Share Files: `fork`

■ A child process inherits its parent's open files

- Note: situation unchanged by `exec` functions (use `fcntl` to change)

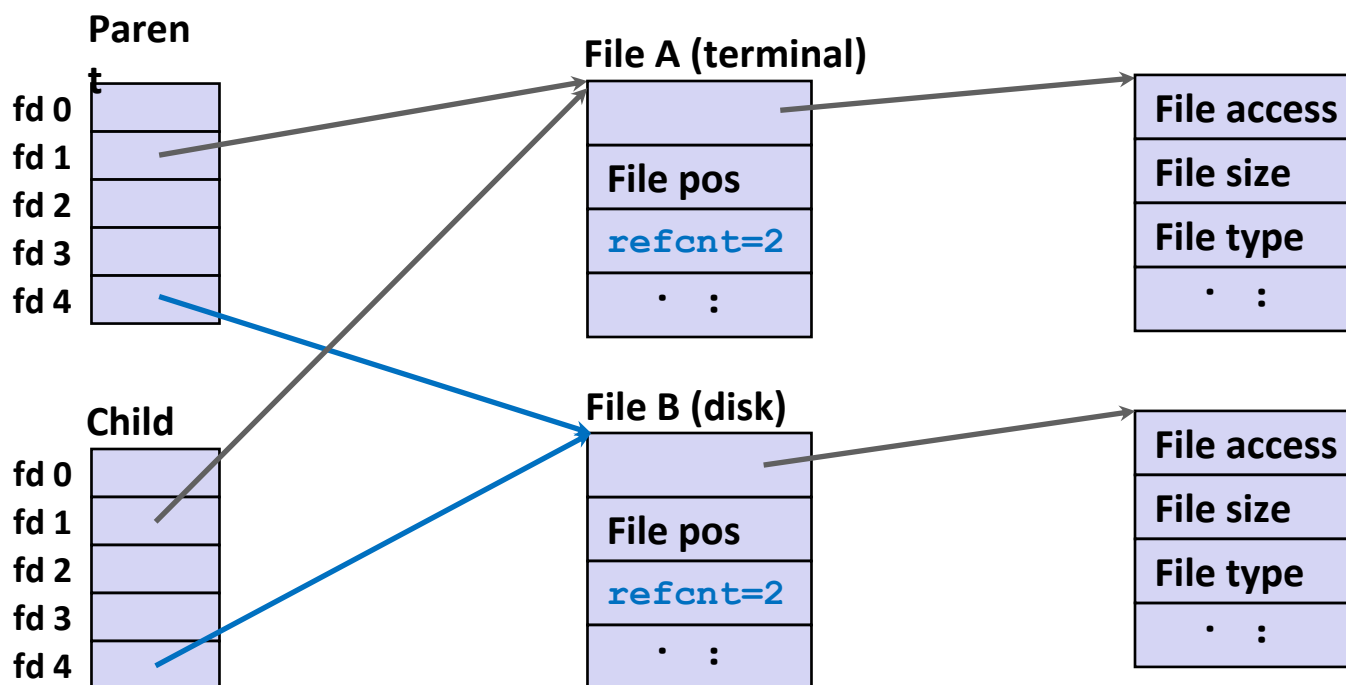
■ *Before* `fork` call:



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

Descriptor table [one table per process] **Open file table** [shared by all processes] **v-node table** [shared by all processes]



File is shared between processes

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)`

fd 0	
fd 1	a
fd 2	
fd 3	
fd 4	b

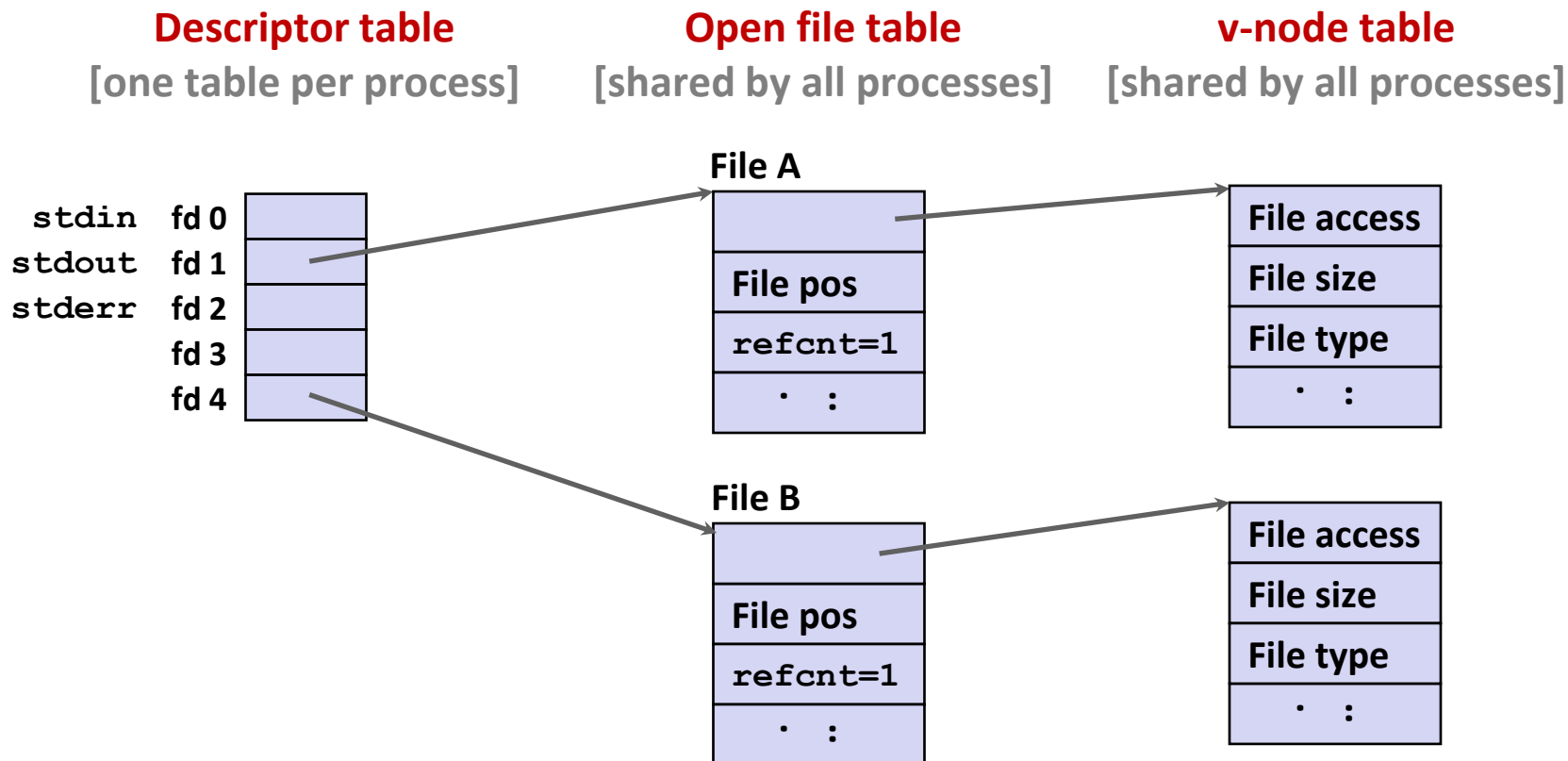


Descriptor table
after `dup2 (4, 1)`

fd 0	
fd 1	b
fd 2	
fd 3	
fd 4	b

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`

Descriptor table

[one table per process]

stdin	fd 0	
stdout	fd 1	
stderr	fd 2	
	fd 3	
	fd 4	

Open file table

[shared by all processes]

File A

File pos
<code>refcnt=0</code>
· :

File B

File pos
<code>refcnt=2</code>
· :

v-node table

[shared by all processes]

File access
File size
File type
· :

File access
File size
File type
· :

Two descriptors point to the same file

**Do activities
3 and 4 now
(and then we're done)**