CSE344 System Programming

Week 3

Files and low level I/O in the UNIX world

- open/close/read/write/lseek/fcnt/ioctl
- Redirection
- *File implementation in UNIX*
- File stats
- Temporary files
- Relationship between file descriptors and open files
- Buffering and stdio

"On a UNIX system, everything is a file; if something is not a file, it is a process."*

Directories: **files** containing the names of files in them Programs, texts, images, videos: **files**; either binary or ASCII Devices, e.g. monitor, cpu, gpu, printer: all represented as **files**

Consequently, it is highly important to know how to handle them!

^{*} minor exceptions apply

File types

Regular

```
$ ls -l *
-rw-r--r-- 1 greys greys 1024 Mar 29 06:31 text
```

Directory

```
$ ls -ld *
-rw-r--r-- 1 greys greys 1024 Mar 29 06:31 text
drwxr-xr-x 2 greys greys 4096 Aug 21 11:00 mydir
```

Device file (**c:** streams sequential data one byte at a time, **b:** provides random access to blocks of data)

```
$ ls -al /dev/loop0 /dev/ttys0

brw-rw---- 1 root disk 7, 0 Sep 7 05:03 /dev/loop0
crw-rw-rw- 1 root tty 3, 48 Sep 7 05:04 /dev/ttys0
```

File types

Named Pipe (IPC)

```
$ ls -al /dev/xconsole
prw-r---- 1 root adm 0 Sep 25 08:58 /dev/xconsole
```

Symbolic link

```
$ ls -al hosts

1 rwxrwxrwx 1 greys www-data 10 Sep 25 09:06 hosts -> /etc/host
```

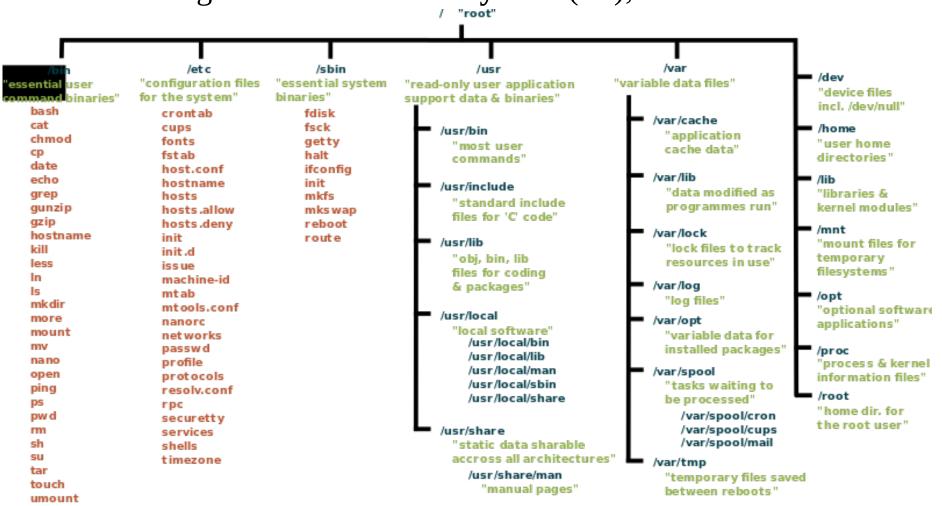
Socket (IPC)

```
$ ls -al /dev/log

srw-rw-rw- 1 root root 0 Sep 7 05:04 /dev/log0
```

All files are organized within a **file system** (FS); a tree of files

uname



Unlike windows where each drive has a letter that's the root of its own FS, in UNIX, drives, partitions, removable media and even network shares can be **mounted**, and thus the entire volume's FS appears as a directory. The root is always denoted by / ("slash")

/bin: binaries, ls, cp, etc. **/home:** user directories

/boot: files needed for booting the system

/etc: system-wide configuration files

/dev: file representations of devices /lib: libraries

/proc: files representing runtime system information

/usr: read-only stuff: non-system critical binaries, libraries, resources

/var: variable data files: logs, temporary files, mail, print jobs, etc.

An arbitrary location or address within this tree structure is known as a **path**, e.g.: /home/erhan/courses/cse344/week3.pdf

Every directory contains the files: "." and ".." that represent respectively the current and parent directories.

If a path starts with / then it's an **absolute or fully qualified path,** otherwise, the program prepends the absolute path of the current working directory;

e.g, you are located at: /home/erhan/courses/bil344

../bil464/midterm.pdf -> /home/erhan/courses/bil464/midterm.pdf

All system calls that deal with files (of any type) refer to them through **file descriptors**; i.e a small non-negative integer.

All programs start with 3 open files that are opened on their behalf by the shell:

File descriptor	Purpose	POSIX name	stdio stream
0	standard input	STDIN_FILENO	stdin
1	standard output	STDOUT_FILENO	stdout
2	standard error	STDERR_FILENO	stderr

There are four key system calls upon which programming libraries (fopen, fclose, fwrite, etc) rely for file I/O:

- fd = open(pathname, flags, mode)
- Opens the file *pathname* and returns its file descriptor
- numread= read(fd, buffer, count)
- Read at most count bytes from the open file fd and stores in buffer
- numwritten=write(fd, buffer, count)
- Writes up to count bytes from buffer into the open file fd
- status=close(fd)
- Is called after all I/O operations are completed, and releases resources

open

```
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/stat.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
int open (const char *pathname, int flags);
int open (const char *pathname, int flags, mode_t mode);
Flag examples:
O_RDONLY: read only; O_WRONLY: write only
O RDWR: read and write
O CREAT: create a new file
O APPEND: any data written to the file will be appended to its end
O TRUNC: discard previous content
O EXCL: used together with O CREAT, returns error if the file already exists
O NONBLOCK: if the file cannot be opened, instead of blocking, returns an error
...and more..
```

Returns the fd or -1 in case of error.

open

mode: is an octal number specifying the permissions of the newly created file (in conjunction with <u>umask</u> and the <u>access permissions of the parent directory</u>).

POSIX defines symbolic names for the permission masks so that you can specify them independently of the underlying implementation (defined in sys/stat.h)

S_I(R|W|X)(USR|GRP|OTH)

e.g.

S_IRUSR: read access for user

S_IWGRP: write access for group

S_IXOTH: execution permission for others

Having **read** permission on a file grants the right to read the contents of the file. Read permission on a directory implies the ability to list all the files in the directory.

Write permission implies the ability to change the contents of the file (for a file) or create new files in the directory (for a directory).

Execute permission on files means the right to execute them, if they are programs. (Files that are not programs should not be given the execute permission.) For directories, execute permission allows you to enter the directory

Example: open

```
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <sys/stat.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <unistd.h>
int main (int argc, char* argv[])
  /* The path at which to create the new file. */
 char* path = argv[1];
  /* The permissions for the new file. */
 mode_t mode = S_IRUSR | S_IWUSR | S_IRGRP | S_IWGRP | S_IROTH;
  /* Create the file. */
  int fd = open (path, O_WRONLY | O_EXCL | O_CREAT, mode);
 if (fd == -1) {
   /* An error occurred. Print an error message and bail. */
   perror ("open");
    return 1;
 return 0;
```

Symbolic notation	Numeric notation	
	0000	
- rwx	0700	
- rwxrwx	0770	
- rwxrwxrwx	0777	
xx	0111	
WWW-	0222	
WX -WX -WX	0333	
-rrr	0444	
-r-xr-xr-x	0555	
- rw- rw- rw-	0666	
-rwxr	0740	

close

Even though when a process terminates the OS closes all open fd's associated with that process, it is good practice to close a file once you are done with it.

```
#include <unistd.h>
int close(int fd);
```

Returns zero on success and -1 on error.

Open file descriptors use kernel resources (every process needs a table to keep track of its open files). The typical limit is 1024 file descriptors per process. You can adjust this limit through the getrlimit and setrlimit system calls.

write

```
#include <unistd.h>
ssize_t write(int fd, const void *buf, size_t count);
```

It writes up to count bytes from the buffer pointed by buf **to the current offset** of the file referred to by the file descriptor fd. It might write less than count due to a signal interruption, etc. The data to write need not be a character string; it works with arbitrary bytes.

Returns the number of bytes written or -1 on error.

Error examples:

EBADF: fd is not a valid file descriptor or is not open for writing.

ENOSPC: the device containing the file referred to by fd has no room for the data.

Example: write

```
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <stdio.h>
                                          example on how to append a timestamp to a file
#include <string.h>
#include <sys/stat.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <time.h>
#include <unistd.h>
/* Return a character string representing the current date and time. */
char* get timestamp ()
 time t now = time (NULL);
 return asctime (localtime (&now));
int main (int argc, char* argv[])
  /* The file to which to append the timestamp. */
  char* filename = argv[1];
  /* Get the current timestamp. */
  char* timestamp = get timestamp ();
  /* Open the file for writing. If it exists, append to it;
    otherwise, create a new file. */
  int fd = open (filename, O WRONLY | O CREAT | O APPEND, 0666);
 /* Compute the length of the timestamp string. */
  size t length = strlen (timestamp);
  /* Write the timestamp to the file. */
  write (fd, timestamp, length);
 /* All done. */
  close (fd);
  return 0;
```

r:4, w: 2, x: 1

0666: rw-rw-rw-

```
% ./timestamp tsfile
% cat tsfile
Thu Feb 1 23:25:20 2001
% ./timestamp tsfile
% cat tsfile
Thu Feb 1 23:25:20 2001
Thu Feb 1 23:25:47 2001
```

Bad example: does not check whether the system calls succeeded.

read

```
#include <unistd.h>
ssize_t read(int fd, void *buf, size_t count)
```

Similar to write in principle. Returns the number of bytes read, 0 on EOF, -1 on error.

Warning: in the UNIX world file lines are separated by the newline character '\n' (ASCII 10). In the windows world, lines are separated by two characters: a carriage return '\r' (ASCII 13) **and** a newline character.

So if your file was saved in a windows environment, and you read it in a UNIX environment, do not be alarmed when you see the **^M** expression (corresponding to the carriage return character) at the end of every line.

Example: read

```
#include <fcntl.h>
                                                        print the hexadecimal dump of a file
#include <stdio.h>
#include <sys/stat.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
                                     int i;
#include <unistd.h>
                                     /* Open the file for reading. */
int main (int argc, char* argv[])
                                     int fd = open (argv[1], 0_RDONLY);
                                     /* Read from the file, one chunk at a time. Continue until read
  unsigned char buffer[16];
                                         "comes up short", that is, reads less than we asked for.
  size t offset = 0;
                                        This indicates that we've hit the end of the file. */
  size t bytes read;
                                     do {
                                        /* Read the next line's worth of bytes. */
                                        bytes_read = read (fd, buffer, sizeof (buffer));
                                        /* Print the offset in the file, followed by the bytes themselves. */
                                        printf ("0x%06x : ", offset);
                                       for (i = 0; i < bytes read; ++i)
                                          printf ("%02x ", buffer[i]);
                                       printf ("\n");
                                        /* Keep count of our position in the file. */
                                        offset += bytes read;
                                     while (bytes read == sizeof (buffer));
                                                                    % ./hexdump hexdump
                                     /* All done. */
                                                                    0x000000 : 7f 45 4c 46 01 01 01 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
                                     close (fd);
                                                                    0x000010 : 02 00 03 00 01 00 00 00 c0 83 04 08 34 00 00 00
                                                                    0x000020 : e8 23 00 00 00 00 00 00 34 00 20 00 06 00 28 00
                                     return 0;
                                                                    0x000030 : 1d 00 1a 00 06 00 00 00 34 00 00 00 34 80 04 08
```

Example: copying a file

```
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <sys/stat.h>
#define READ_FLAGS O_RDONLY
#define WRITE_FLAGS (O_WRONLY | O_CREAT | O_EXCL)
#define WRITE_PERMS (S_IRUSR | S_IWUSR)
/* function definitions */
int copyfile(int fromfd, int tofd);
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
   int bytes;
   int fromfd, tofd;
   if (argc != 3) {
      fprintf(stderr, "Usage: %s from_file to_file\n", argv[0]);
      return 1;
   }
   if ((fromfd = open(argv[1], READ_FLAGS)) == -1) {
      perror("Failed to open input file");
      return 1;
   }
   if ((tofd = open(argv[2], WRITE_FLAGS, WRITE_PERMS)) == -1) {
      perror("Failed to create output file");
      return 1;
   }
   bytes = copyfile(fromfd, tofd);
   printf("%d bytes copied from %s to %s\n", bytes, argv[1], argv[2]);
   return 0;
                                                /* the return closes the files */
```

Example: copying a file

```
#include <errno.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#define BLKSIZE 1024
int copyfile(int fromfd, int tofd) {
   char *bp;
   char buf[BLKSIZE];
   int bytesread;
   int byteswritten = 0;
   int totalbytes = 0;
   for ( ; ; ) {
     while (((bytesread = read(fromfd, buf, BLKSIZE)) == -1) &&
             (errno == EINTR)); /* handle interruption by signal */
      if (bytesread <= 0) /* real error or end-of-file on fromfd */
         break;
      bp = buf;
      while (bytesread > 0) {
         while(((byteswritten = write(tofd, bp, bytesread)) == -1 ) &&
              (errno == EINTR)); /* handle interruption by signal */
         if (byteswritten < 0)</pre>
                                                   /* real error on tofd */
            break;
         totalbytes += byteswritten;
         bytesread -= byteswritten;
         bp += byteswritten;
                                                  /* real error on tofd */
      if (byteswritten == -1)
         break;
   }
   return totalbytes;
```

Iseek

A file descriptor remembers its position in a file. As you read or write the position advances depending on the number of bytes read or written. If you want to move arbitrarily within a file then:

```
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <unistd.h>
off_t lseek(int fd, off_t offset, int whence);
```

offset: new position. The third argument determines how to interpret the second arg.

whence=SEEK_SET: number of bytes from the start of the file (only positive) whence=SEEK_CUR:number of bytes from the current position (positive or negative) whence=SEEK_END: number of bytes from the end of the file (positive or negative)

Returns the new position from the beginning. Cannot be used with sockets.

Example: Iseek

```
lseek(fd, 0, SEEK SET);
                                 /* Start of file */
lseek(fd, 0, SEEK END);
                                 /* Next byte after the end of the file */
lseek(fd, -1, SEEK END);
                               /* Last byte of file */
lseek(fd, -10, SEEK CUR); /* Ten bytes prior to current location */
lseek(fd, 10000, SEEK END);
                             /* 10001 bytes past last byte of file */
  Listing B.5 (lseek-huge.c) Create Large Files with lseek
  #include <fcntl.h>
  #include <stdlib.h>
  #include <sys/stat.h>
  #include <sys/types.h>
  #include <unistd.h>
                                       size t length = (size t) atoi (argv[2]) * megabyte;
  int main (int argc, char* argv[])
                                       /* Open a new file. */
                                       int fd = open (filename, O WRONLY | O CREAT | O EXCL, 0666);
    int zero = 0;
                                       /* Jump to 1 byte short of where we want the file to end. */
    const int megabyte = 1024 * 1024;
                                       lseek (fd, length - 1, SEEK SET);
                                       /* Write a single 0 byte. */
    char* filename = argv[1];
                                       write (fd, &zero, 1);
                                       /* All done. */
                                       close (fd);
                                       return 0;
```

Iseek

```
Using 1seek-huge, we'll make a 1GB (1024MB) file. Note the free space on the drive
                                                                                      a.k.a sparse files
before and after the operation.
  % df -h .
                                                                           e.g. when representing the
  Filesystem
                       Size Used Avail Use% Mounted on
                                                                            drive of a virtual machine.
  /dev/hda5
                       2.9G 2.1G 655M 76% /
  % ./lseek-huge bigfile 1024
                                                                            It'll have very little data in
  % ls -l bigfile
                                                                             the beginning, and keep
               1 samuel samuel
   -rw-r----
                                 1073741824 Feb 5 16:29 bigfile
                                                                                       filling with time.
  % df -h .
                       Size Used Avail Use% Mounted on
  Filesystem
                                                                                  No use of allocating
  /dev/hda5
                       2.9G 2.1G 655M 76% /
                                                                                   XYZGB from day 1.
```

No appreciable disk space is consumed, despite the enormous size of bigfile. Still, if we open bigfile and read from it, it appears to be filled with 1GB worth of 0s. For instance, we can examine its contents with the hexdump program of Listing B.4.

These "magic" file holes are a nice property of UNIX file systems. In windows environments this would lead to an actual 1GB file.

ioctl

Non standard I/O operations: ioclt

#include <sys/ioctl.h>

```
int ioctl(int fd, int request, ...);
                                       It manipulates the underlying device
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <linux/cdrom.h>
#include <sys/ioctl.h>
                                                    parameters of special files.
#include <sys/stat.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
                                           It requires detailed understanding
#include <unistd.h>
                                        of the device represented by the fd.
int main (int argc, char* argv[])
 /* Open a file descriptor to the device specified on the command line. */ It's beyond our scope.
 /* Eject the CD-ROM. */
 ioctl (fd, CDROMEJECT);
 /* Close the file descriptor. */
 close (fd);
 return 0;
                                                     Example: ejecting a cdrom.
```

fcntl

Advanced file operations: fcntl

```
#include <unistd.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
int fcntl(int fd, int cmd, ... /* arg */ );
```

- It can manipulate the flags associated with a fd (same ones used during opening).
- It can duplicate file descriptors
- It can lock/unlock files very useful for inter process communication...

To place a lock on a file, first create and zero out a struct flock variable. Set the <code>l_type</code> field of the structure to <code>F_RDLCK</code> for a read lock or <code>F_WRLCK</code> for a write lock. Then call <code>fcntl</code>, passing a file descriptor to the file, with the <code>F_SETLCKW</code> operation code, and a pointer to the <code>struct flock</code> variable. If another process holds a lock that prevents a new lock from being acquired, <code>fcntl</code> blocks until that lock is released.

Example: fcntl

Listing 8.2 (lock-file.c) Create a Write Lock with fcntl

```
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <unistd.h>
int main (int argc, char* argv[])
  char* file = argv[1];
  int fd;
  struct flock lock;
  printf ("opening %s\n", file);
                                                   getchar ();
  /* Open a file descriptor to the file.
  fd = open (file, O WRONLY);
  printf ("locking\n");
  /* Initialize the flock structure.
  memset (&lock, 0, sizeof(lock));
  lock.l type = F WRLCK;
  /* Place a write lock on the file. */
                                                   close (fd);
  fcntl (fd, F SETLKW, &lock);
                                                   return 0;
```

Only one process can hold a write-lock for a given fd.

Many can hold a read-lock.

In case of an already acquired lock, the call to fcntl will block the process.

POSIX LOCKS ARE ADVISORY

```
printf ("locked; hit Enter to unlock... ");
/* Wait for the user to hit Enter. */
getchar ();

printf ("unlocking\n");
/* Release the lock. */
lock.l_type = F_UNLCK;
fcntl (fd, F_SETLKW, &lock);

close (fd);
return 0;
```

Redirection

Under normal circumstances a process reads from standard input, outputs its result to standard output and in case of error, it is sent to standard error. We can however redirect them!

```
In Bourne-style shells: $ ./myscript > results.log 2>&1
```

i.e. redirect stdout to results.log and redirect stderr to wherever stdout points to; so both stdout and stderr end at results.log

```
$ ./myscript 2>&1 | less
```

Both stderr and stdout of "myscript" become stdin of "less"

&: modifies a file into a fd; otherwise 2 is redirected to a file named "1"

Redirection

How does redirection work behind the scenes?

```
#include <unistd.h>
int dup2(int oldfd , int newfd );
```

It makes a duplicate of the file descriptor given in oldfd using the descriptor number supplied in newfd. If the file descriptor specified in newfd is already open, it closes it first; e.g.

```
dup2(1,2) // 2>&1
```

first closes stderr, then replaces it with a copy of stdout.

Or you can use fcntl instead of dup2:

```
newfd = fcntl(oldfd, F_DUPFD, startfd);
```

Uses as newfd the lowest unused file descriptor greater than or equal to startfd

File implementation

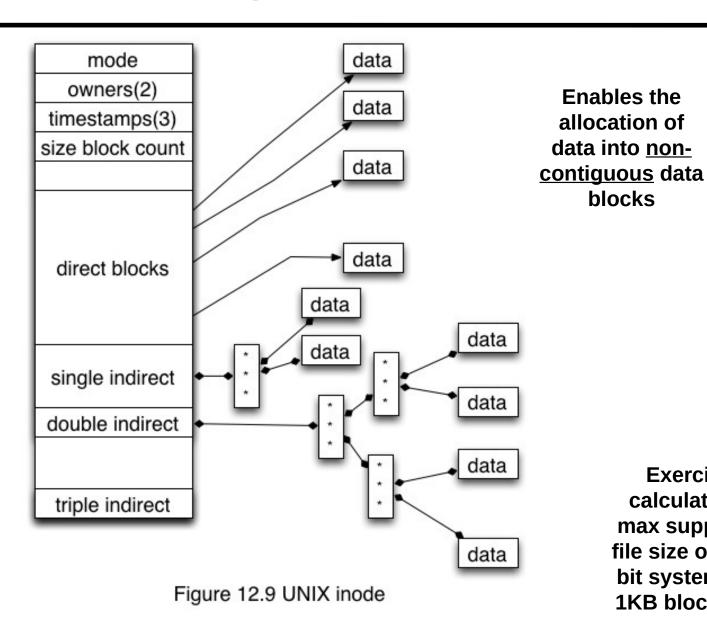
The designers of POSIX have separated file data and meta-data.

All the meta-data concerning a given file reside in a fixed-length structure called **inode** (short for index node).

The inode contains information about the **file size**, the **file location**, the **owner** of the file, the **time of creation**, **time of last access**, **time of last modification**, **permissions** and so on.

In addition to descriptive information about the file, the inode contains pointers to the first few data blocks of the file. If the file is large, the indirect pointer is a pointer to a block of pointers that point to additional data blocks. If the file is still larger, the double indirect pointer is a pointer to a block of indirect pointers. If the file is really huge, the triple indirect pointer contains a pointer to a block of double indirect pointers.

File implementation



Exercise: calculate the max supported file size on a 64bit system with 1KB block size.

Directory implementation

Directories in UNIX are basically associate arrays of filenames and inode numbers; e.g.

```
1167010 .
1158721 ..
1167626 subdir
132651 barfile
132650 bazfile
```

The inode itself does not contain the filename. When a program references a file by pathname, the operating system traverses the file system tree to find the filename and inode number in the appropriate directory.

Once it has the inode number, the operating system can determine other information about the file by accessing the inode.

Directory implementation

A directory implementation that contains only names and inode numbers has the following advantages.

- 1. **Changing the filename** requires changing only the directory entry. A file can be moved from one directory to another just by moving the directory entry, as long as the move keeps the file on the same partition.
- 2. **Only one physical copy** of the file needs to exist on disk, but the file may have several names or the same name in different directories. Again, all of these references must be on the same physical partition.
- 3. Directory entries are of variable length because the filename is of variable length. Directory entries are small, since most of the information about each file is kept in its inode. Manipulating small variable-length structures can be done efficiently. **The larger inode structures are of fixed length**.

UNIX directories have two types of links—links and symbolic links

- A link is an association between a filename and an inode, sometimes called a hard link,
- A symbolic link, sometimes called a soft link, is a file that stores a string used to modify the pathname when it is encountered during pathname resolution
- Each inode contains a count of the number of hard links to the inode.
- When a file is created, a new directory entry is created an a new inode is assigned.
- Additional hard links can be created with

ln newname oldname

```
or with
#include <unistd.h>
int link(const char *oldpath, const char *newpath);
```

A new hard link to an existing file creates a new directory entry but assigns no other additional disk space.

- A new hard link increments the link count in the inode.
- A hard link can be removed with the rm command or the unlink system call:

```
#include <unistd.h>
int unlink(const char *pathname);
```

- These decrement the link count.
- The inode and associated disk space are freed when the count is decremented to 0.

A symbolic link is a special type of file that contains the name of another file.

- A reference to the name of a symbolic link causes the operating system to use the name stored in the file, rather than the name itself.
- Symbolic links are created with the command:

```
ln -s newname oldname Of
#include <unistd.h>
int symlink(const char *target, const char *linkpath);
```

- Symbolic links do not affect the link count in the inode.
- Unlike hard links, symbolic links can span filesystems.

```
$echo "cat" > file1 // 3 bytes + n = 4 bytes
$touch "dog" > file2
$ls -li
4986415 -rw-r--r-- 1 erhan erhan 4 Mar 7 10:02 file1
                               4 Mar 7 10:03 file2
4986713 -rw-r--r-- 1 erhan erhan
$ln file1 link
$ln -s file2 slink
$ls -li
4986415 -rw-r--r-- 2 erhan erhan 4 Mar 7 10:02 link
4985804 lrwxrwxrwx 1 erhan erhan
                                5 Mar 7 10:06 slink -> file2
                                        7 10:02 file1
4986415 -rw-r--r-- 2 erhan erhan
                               4 Mar
4986713 -rw-r--r-- 1 erhan erhan 4 Mar 7 10:03 file2
$readlink slink
file2
4986415 -rw-r--r-- 1 erhan erhan 4 Mar 7 10:02 link
```

Temporary files

Some programs need to create temporary files that are used only while the program is running, and these files should be removed when the program terminates.

The mkstemp call generates a unique filename based on a template supplied by the caller and opens the file, returning a file descriptor that can be used with I/O system calls.

```
#include <stdlib.h>
int mkstemp(char * template);
```

Returns the file descriptor on success, or -1 on error

Typically, a temporary file is unlinked (deleted) soon after it is opened, using the unlink system call

Temporary files

```
int fd;
char template[] = "/tmp/somestringXXXXXX";
fd = mkstemp(template);
if (fd == -1)
    errExit("mkstemp");
printf("Generated filename was: %s\n", template);
unlink(template); /* Name disappears immediately, but the file
                         is removed only after close() */
/* Use file I/O system calls - read(), write(), and so on */
if (close(fd) == -1)
    errExit("close");
```

You can access the inode information through the stat calls

```
#include <sys/stat.h>
int stat(const char *pathname, struct stat *statbuf);
int lstat(const char *pathname, struct stat *statbuf);
int fstat(int fd, struct stat *statbuf);
```

All return 0 on success, or -1 on error

stat works with filenames

fstat works with file descriptors

1stat is similar to stat, except that if the named file is a symbolic link, information about the link itself is returned, rather than the file to which the link points

```
struct stat {
                        /* IDs of device on which file resides */
   dev t
           st dev;
   ino t st ino; /* I-node number of file */
   nlink t st nlink; /* Number of (hard) links to file */
                        /* User ID of file owner */
   uid t st uid;
   gid t st gid;
                        /* Group ID of file owner */
                        /* IDs for device special files */
   dev t st rdev;
   off t st size;
                        /* Total file size (bytes) */
                        /* Optimal block size for I/O (bytes) */
   blksize t st blksize;
   blkcnt t st blocks; /* Number of (512B) blocks allocated */
   time_t st_atime; /* Time of last file access */
   time_t st_mtime; /* Time of last file modification */
   time t st ctime; /* Time of last status change */
};
```

Modif: change of file contents

Change: change of file meta information

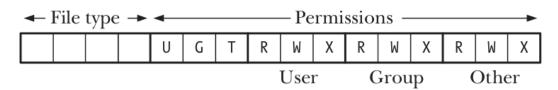


Figure 15-1: Layout of *st_mode* bit mask

The file type can be extracted by AND'ing (&) with the constant S_IFMT.

```
if ((statbuf.st_mode & S_IFMT) == S_IFREG)
printf("regular file\n")
```

But since this is a common operation there are macros for it.

Table 15-1: Macros for checking file types in the st_mode field of the stat structure

Constant	Test macro	File type	
S_IFREG	S_ISREG()	Regular file	
S_IFDIR	S_ISDIR()	Directory	
S_IFCHR	S_ISCHR()	Character device	
S_IFBLK	S_ISBLK()	Block device	
S_IFIFO	S_ISFIFO()	FIFO or pipe	
S_IFSOCK	S_ISSOCK()	Socket	
S_IFLNK	S_ISLNK()	Symbolic link	

```
if (S_ISREG(statbuf.st_mode))
    printf("regular file\n");
```

```
#include <unistd.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <sys/stat.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
int main(int argc, char **argv)
   if(argc != 2) return 1;
   struct stat fileStat;
   if(stat(argv[1],&fileStat) < 0) return -1;
   printf("Information for %s\n", argv[1]);
   printf("----\n");
   printf("File Size: \t\t%d bytes\n", fileStat.st_size);
   printf("Number of Links: \t%d\n", fileStat.st_nlink);
```

```
printf("File inode: \t\t%d\n", fileStat.st ino);
   printf("File Permissions: \t");
   printf( (S ISDIR(fileStat.st mode)) ? "d" : "-");
   printf( (fileStat.st_mode & S_IRUSR) ? "r" : "-");
   printf( (fileStat.st_mode & S_IWUSR) ? "w" : "-");
   printf( (fileStat.st_mode & S_IXUSR) ? "x" : "-");
    // similarly for GRP and OTH
   printf("\n\n");
   printf("The file %s a symbolic link\n", (S ISLNK(fileStat.st mode))
? "is" : "is not");
    return 0;
```

```
$ ./testProgram testfile.sh

Information for testfile.sh

------

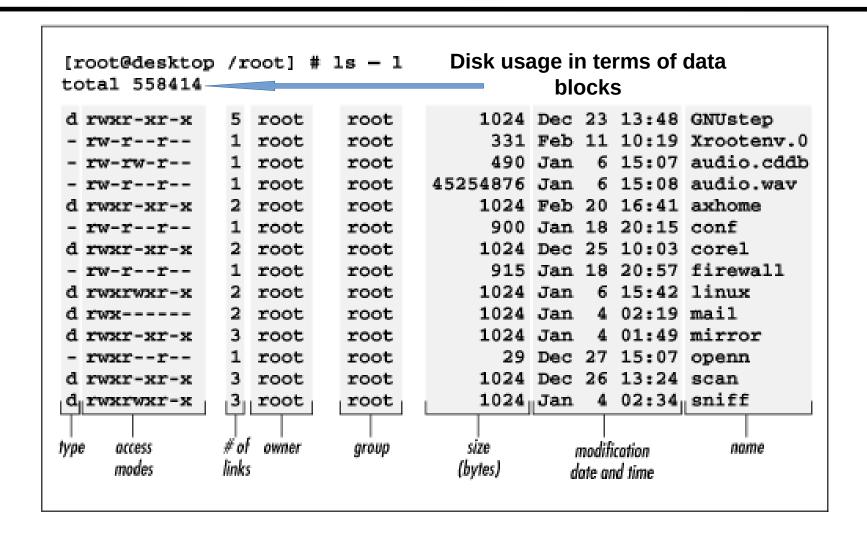
File Size: 36 bytes

Number of Links: 1

File inode: 180055

File Permissions: -rwxr-xr-x
```

The file is not a symbolic link



Relationship between open files and processes

There is no one-to-one correspondence between file descriptors and open files. It is possible-and useful-to have multiple descriptors referring to the same open file. These file descriptors may be open in the same process or in different processes.

The kernel maintains 3 data structures

- the per-process file descriptor table (with fd flags);
- the system-wide table of open file descriptions (offset, inode, signal settings, etc)
- the file system i-node table (file type, owner, location, etc)

Relationship between open files and processes

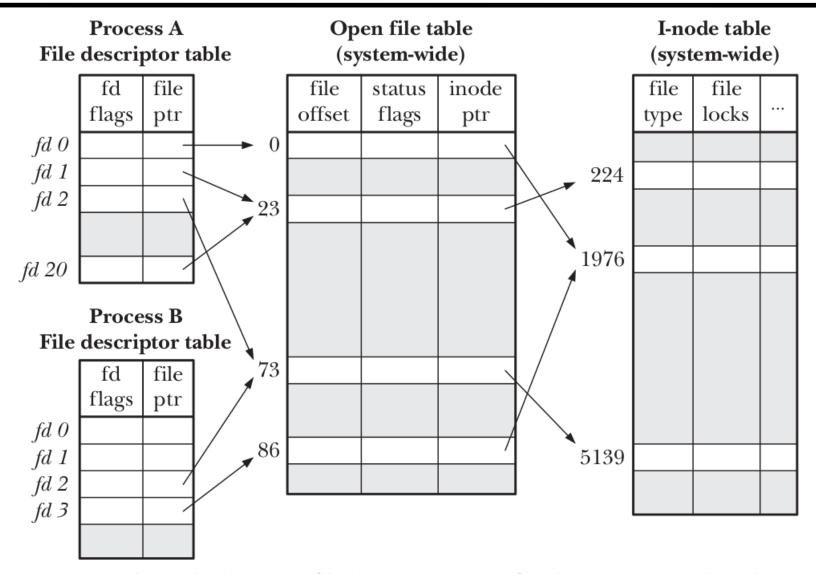


Figure 5-2: Relationship between file descriptors, open file descriptions, and i-nodes

Relationship between open files and processes

Process A has two fds referring to the same file #23 (and offset) due to:

• a call to dup() or fcntl() for duplicating a fd.

Process A and B have two fds referring to the same file #73 (and offset):

because probably A and B have a parent child relationship, and fork() clones the parent process along with its fd table, but both fds (2 and 2) point to the same file description entry, and hence same offset!

Process A has a fd (0), and process B has a fd (3), with distinct **offsets** that however point to the same file (i.e. same i-node: 1976):

- ullet either because A and B called open () independently on the same file
- or it can also happen when the same process calls twice open() on the same file.

When working with disk files, the read() and write() system calls don't directly initiate disk access. Instead, they simply copy data between a user-space buffer and a buffer in the kernel buffer cache. For example, the following call transfers 3 bytes of data from a buffer in user-space memory to a buffer in kernel space:

```
write(fd, "abc", 3);
```

At this point, write() returns. At some later point, the kernel writes (flushes) its buffer to the disk. (Hence, we say that the system call is not synchronized with the disk operation.) If, in the interim, another process attempts to read these bytes of the file, then the kernel automatically supplies the data from the buffer cache, rather than from (the outdated contents of) the file (a similar scenario is valid for read).

The kernel performs the same number of disk accesses, regardless of whether we perform 1000 writes of a single byte or a single write of a 1000 bytes. However, the latter is preferable, since it requires a single system call, while the former requires 1000. Although much faster than disk operations, system calls nevertheless take an appreciable amount of time, since the kernel must trap the call, check the validity of the system call arguments, and transfer data between user space and kernel space.

Let's look at the effect of the buffer size on duplicating a large file.

Table 13-1: Time required to duplicate a file of 100 million bytes

BUF_SIZE	Time (seconds)				
	Elapsed	Total CPU	User CPU	System CPU	
1	107.43	107.32	8.20	99.12	
2	54.16	53.89	4.13	49.76	
4	31.72	30.96	2.30	28.66	
8	15.59	14.34	1.08	13.26	
16	7.50	7.14	0.51	6.63	
32	3.76	3.68	0.26	3.41	
64	2.19	2.04	0.13	1.91	
128	2.16	1.59	0.11	1.48	
256	2.06	1.75	0.10	1.65	
512	2.06	1.03	0.05	0.98	
1024	2.05	0.65	0.02	0.63	
4096	2.05	0.38	0.01	0.38	
16384	2.05	0.34	0.00	0.33	
65536	2.06	0.32	0.00	0.32	

Buffering and File pointers

Buffering of data into large blocks to reduce system calls is exactly what is done by the C library I/O functions (e.g., fprintf(), fscanf(), fgets(), fputs(), fputc(), fgetc()) when operating on disk files. Thus, using the stdio library relieves us of the task of buffering data for output with write() or input via read().

Be careful as these higher level functions handle files in terms of pointers to FILE structures.

the FILE structure

```
typedef struct {
    char *fpos; // Current position of file pointer (absolute address)
    void *base; /* Pointer to the base of the file */
    unsigned short handle; /* File handle */
    short flags; /* Flags (see FileFlags) */
    short unget; /* 1-byte buffer for ungetc (b15=1 if non-empty) */
    unsigned long alloc; // # of currently allocated bytes for the file unsigned short buffincrement; /* # of bytes allocated at once */
} FILE;
```

The setvbuf() function controls the form of buffering employed by the stdio library.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int setvbuf(FILE * stream , char * buf , int mode , size_t size
);
```

Returns 0 on success, or nonzero on error. Valid for all subsequent stdio operations.

stream: the stream upon which the buffering will be applied

buf: the buffer

size: size of the buffer in bytes

mode can be one of the following:

_IONBF: no buffering, immediate reads/writes, default of stderr

_IOLBF: Employ line-buffered I/O. This flag is the default for streams referring to terminal devices. For output streams, data is buffered until a newline character is output (unless the buffer fills first). For input streams, data is read a line at a time.

_IOFBF: Employ fully buffered I/O. Data is read or written (via calls to read() or write()) in units equal to the size of the buffer. This mode is the default for streams referring to disk files.

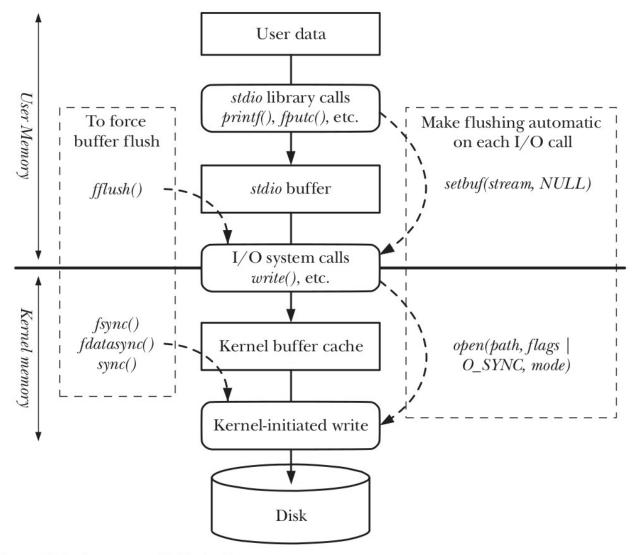
```
#define BUF_SIZE 1024
static char buf[BUF_SIZE];

if (setvbuf(stdout, buf, _IOFBF, BUF_SIZE) != 0)
    errExit("setvbuf");
```

Regardless of the current buffering mode, at any time, we can force the data in a stdio output stream to be written (i.e., flushed to a kernel buffer via write()) using the fflush() library function. This function flushes the output buffer for the specified stream.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int fflush(FILE * stream);
```

Returns 0 on success, EOF on error



O_SYNC guarantees that the call will not return before all data has been transferred to the disk (as far as the OS can tell). This still does not guarantee that the data isn't somewhere in the harddisk write cache, but it is as much as the OS can guarantee.

Figure 13-1: Summary of I/O buffering