# Network Programming in UNIX A glance at the Sockets API

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#### 1 About this Document

This document briefly covers the basics of utilising the sockets API in the context of UNIX network programming. It's purpose is to serve as a reference or a starting point for learning elementary TCP and UDP sockets, and parts of it can be used as student handouts or as a basis for a tutorial. The reader is assumed to be somewhat familiar with UNIX programming, as well as with the TCP, UDP, and IPv4 protocols.

Turn to the on-line manual for information on the various error codes that might be returned by the socket functions, as they are *not* covered in this text.

#### 2 Introduction to Sockets

Sockets can be thought of as communication endpoints. Two processes, a web browser and a web server, for example, exchange data through their respective sockets.

We begin describing the sockets API by examining the IPv4 and generic socket address structures.

#### 2.1 The IPv4 Socket Address Structure

The structure for an IPv4 socket address, also known as an "Internet socket address structure", is named sockaddr\_in and is defined in the <netinet/in.h> header. Figure 1 shows the Posix.1g definition.

Some points to make are:

- Only three members are actually required by Posix.1g: sin\_family, sin\_addr, and sin\_port. Posix-compliant implementations may define additional structure members; in fact, this is normal for an Internet socket address structure. The sin\_zero member is added by most implementations so that socket address structures are at least 16 bytes in size.
- Even if the sin\_length field is present, we neither set nor examine it (unless we are handling routing sockets [Ste98]).

```
struct in_addr {
 in_addr_t s_addr;
                           /* IPv4 address (32 bits) */
                           /* network byte ordered
struct sockaddr_in {
                                /* Structure length (16)
 uint8_t
                  sin_len;
                                                                     */
                  sin_family; /* AF_INET
                                                                     */
 sa_family_t
 in_port_t
                  sin_port;
                                /* TCP or UDP port number (16 bits) */
                                /* network byte ordered
                                                                     */
 struct in_addr
                  sin_addr;
                                /* IPv4 address (32 bits)
                                                                     */
                                /* network byte ordered
                                                                     */
                  sin zero[8]: /* Unused
  char
                                                                     */
};
              Figure 1: The IPv4 socket address structure.
struct sockaddr {
 uint8 t
               sa len:
 sa_family_t sa_family;
                               /* Address family. AF_INET for IPv4, */
                                /* AF_INET6 for IPv6, etc.
                                                                      */
```

Figure 2: The generic socket address structure.

• The IPv4 address and the TCP or UDP port number are stored in the structure in network byte order. (Big-endian for Internet protocols.)

/\* Protocol-specific address

\*/

• The sin\_zero array is unused, but should always be set to 0. When binding a specific IPv4 address to a socket, this member must be 0, although most uses of the socket address structure do not require this.

#### 2.2 The Generic Socket Address Structure

sa\_data[14];

char
};

When passing socket structures as arguments to any of the socket functions, they are passed by reference. This is because socket functions that take one of these pointers as an argument must be able to support different kinds of socket address structures. (For example, instead of using IPv4 socket addresses, we could be using IPv6 socket addresses, etc.) The chosen solution (in 1982, before ANSI C) was to define a generic socket address structure in the <sys/socket.h> header. The structure is shown in figure 2.

Posix.1g datatypes used in both the socket address structures and socket functions are shown in figure 3.

#### 2.3 Byte order conversion functions

The Internet protocols use big-endian byte ordering for the 16-bit port number and the 32-bit IPv4 address in a TCP segment. Posix.1g specifies that certain members of the socket address structure be maintained in network byte order.

| Datatype    | Description   | Header                      |
|-------------|---|-----------------------------|
| uint8_t     | unsigned 8-bit integer                                | <sys types.h=""></sys>      |
| uint16_t    | unsigned 16-bit integer                               | <sys types.h=""></sys>      |
| uint32_t    | unsigned 32-bit integer                               | <sys types.h=""></sys>      |
| sa_famliy_t | address family of socket address structure            | <sys socket.h=""></sys>     |
| socklen_t   | length of socket address structure, normally unit32_t | <sys socket.h=""></sys>     |
| in_addr_t   | IPv4 address, normally uint32_t                       | <netinet in.h=""></netinet> |
| in_port_t   | TCP or UDP port, normally uint16_t                    | <netinet in.h=""></netinet> |

Figure 3: Some Posix.1g datatypes.

Therefore we use the following functions to convert between host and byte order respectively.

```
#include <netinet/in.h>
uint16_t htons(uint16_t host16bitvalue);
uint32_t htonl(uint32_t host32bitvalue);

Returns: value in network byte order

uint16_t ntohs(uint16_t net16bitvalue);
uint32_t ntohl(uint32_t net32bitvalue);

Returns: value in host byte order
```

#### 2.4 inet\_aton, inet\_addr, and inet\_ntoa functions

An IP address is often displayed as a dotted-decimal string, for example "204.138.245.1". The value that goes into the sin\_addr.s\_addr member of the IPv4 socket address structure, however, is a binary value in network byte order.

In this and the next section, we describe two groups of address conversion functions that convert a string representation of an IPv4 address to its 32-bit, network byte ordered, binary counterpart.

```
#include <arpa/inet.h>
int inet_aton(const char *strptr, struct in_addr *addrptr);

Returns: 1 if string was valid, 0 on error
in_addr_t inet_addr(const char *strptr);

Returns: 32-bit binary network byte ordered IPv4 address; INADDR_NODE on error
char *inet_ntoa(struct in_addr inaddr);

Returns: pointer to dotted-decimal string
```

The inet\_aton function converts the C character string pointed to by strptr to a corresponding 32-bit binary value in network byte order. This value is stored through the addrptr argument.

The same conversion is also done by the inet\_addr function, but this function returns the binary value instead of storing it through a pointer. A serious problem with this function is that all  $2^{32}$  possible binary values are valid IP addresses, but the function returns the constant INADDR\_NONE (typically 32 one-bits) on error. This means that the dotted-decimal string 255.255.255 cannot be handled by this function, since its value appears to indicate function failure. This function is deprecated and any new code should use inet\_aton or inet\_pton (described in the next section) instead.

The inet\_ntoa converts the 32-bit binary, network byte ordered, IPv4 address into its string counterpart. The string pointed to by the return value resides in static memory, that is, the function is *not* reentrant. Note that the function's argument is a structure, and not a pointer to a structure.

#### 2.5 inet\_pton and inet\_ntop functions

These two functions can be used with IPv6 as well as IPv4. The letters p and n stand for *presentation* and *numeric*.

The family argument for both functions is either AF\_INET or AF\_INET6 (for IPv6). These functions are new with IPv6, and are not available in systems without IPv6 support.

The first function tries to convert the string pointed to by strptr, storing the result through the addrptr argument. The second function does the reverse conversion. The len argument is the the size of the destination, preventing the function from overflowing the caller's buffer. The following two macros are defined in <netinet/in.h> to help speciy the size:

```
#define INET_ADDRSTRLEN 16 /* for IPv4 dotted-decimal */
#define INET6 ADDRSTRLEN 48 /* for IPv6 hex string */
```

## 3 Basic TCP Sockets

We now turn to describing the basic socket functions required to write a basic TCP client and server.

#### 3.1 socket function

The first thing a process that wants to perform network I/O must do is call the socket function.

```
#include<sys/socket.h>
int socket(int family, int type, int protocol);
Returns: nonnegative descriptor if OK, -1 on error
```

The family argument specifies the protocol family. For our purposes, we set it to AF\_INET. The socket type is set to SOCK\_STREAM for TCP sockets or, in the case of UDP sockets, to SOCK\_DGRAM. The protocol argument is normally set to 0 unless we are dealing with raw sockets, which we are not.

You may also encounter the constant PF\_INET passed as the first argument to the socket function. The PF\_ prefix stands for "protocol family", as opposed to the AF\_ prefix, that stands for "address family". This topic will not be delved into any deeper, but we note that the <sys/socket.h> header defines PF\_INET to be equal to the value of AF\_INET.

#### 3.2 connect function

The connect function is used by a TCP client to establish a connection with a TCP server.

```
#include <sys/socket.h>
int connect(int sockfd, const struct sockaddr *servaddr, socklen_t addrlen);
Returns: 0 if OK, -1 on error
```

socket descriptor returned by the socket function. The second and third arguments are a pointer to a socket address structure, and it's size. The socket address structure must contain the IP address and port number of the server. When using TCP sockets, connect initialises TCP's three-way handshake; the function returns when a connection is established or when an error occurs.

#### 3.3 bind function

The bind function assigns a local protocol address to a socket. Using the Internet protocols, this address is a combination of a 32-bit IPv4 address or a 128-bit IPv6 address, along with a a 16-bit TCP or UDP port number.

```
#include <sys/socket.h>
int bind(int sockfd, struct sockaddr *myaddr, socklen_t addrlen);
Returns: 0 if OK, -1 on error
```

The second argument is a pointer to a protocol-specific address and the third argument is the size of this address. With TCP, calling bind lets us specify a port number, an IP address, both, or neither. Servers bind their well-known

| sin_addr         | sin_port | Result of bind call                               |
|------------------|----------|---|
| INADDR_ANY       | 0        | kernel chooses IP address and port                |
| INADDR_ANY       | nonzero  | kernel chooses IP address, process specifies port |
| local IP address | 0        | process specifies IP address, kernel chooses port |
| local IP address | nonzero  | process specifies IP address and port             |

Figure 4: Specifying IP address or port number or both.

port when they start. (For example, a day-time server—that returns the current date and time to the client—would bind port 13.)

A process can bind a specific IP address to its socket. The IP address must belong to an interface on the host. For a TCP client, this assigns the source IP address that will be used for IP datagrams sent on the socket. For a TCP server, this restricts the socket to receive incoming client connections destined only to that IP address. Usually, a TCP client does not bind an IP address to its socket, letting the kernel decide the source IP address to use when the socket is connected.

Before calling bind, the socket address structure pointed to by the myaddr argument must be set up to contain the desired IP address and port number. Figure 4 lists the values to which we set the these members, depending on the desired result.

#### 3.4 listen function

The listen function is only called by TCP servers. When a socket has been created with the socket function, it is assumed to be an *active* socket, that is, a client socket that will connect to a server. By calling listen, the active socket is converted to a *passive* socket, indicating that the kernel should listen for connection requests directed to this socket.

```
#include<sys/socket.h>
int listen(int sockfd, int backlog);
Returns: 0 if OK, -1 on error
```

The second argument specifies the maximum number of connections that the kernel should queue for this socket. (The *actual* meaning of the backlog argument is a bit complicated. We will not go into any details here, but [Ste98] does.)

#### 3.5 accept function

A TCP server calls accept to be returned the next completed connection from the front of the completed connection queue. If the completed connection queue is empty, the server is put to sleep (assuming the default of a blocking socket).

```
#include<sys/socket.h>
int accept(int sockfd, struct sockaddr *cliaddr, socklen_t *addrlen);
Returns: nonnegative descriptor if OK, -1 on error
```

The sockfd argument is a passive socket, that is, a listening socket. The cliaddr and addrlen arguments are used to return the protocol address of the connected client. Note that addrlen is a value-result argument; before the call, we set the integer value pointed to by addrlen to the size of the socket address structure pointed to by cliaddr, and on return, this integer value contains the actual number of bytes stored by the kernel in the socket address structure.

#### 3.6 Reading and Writing Data

TCP sockets exhibit a behaviour with the read and write functions that is different to normal file I/O. A read or write on a TCP socket might input our output fewer bytes than requested, but this is not an error condition. This is because the buffer limits for the socket might have been reached in the kernel. The caller needs only to call read or write again, until the remaining bytes have been read or written.

If we want to read n bytes from a TCP socket, we should always make sure that n bytes actually got read, and if not, call read again, as many times as necessary. The same goes for writing to a socket.

#### 3.7 close() function

The ordinary UNIX close function is also used to close a socket and terminate a TCP connection.

```
#include <unistd.h>
int close(int sockfd);
Returns: 0 if OK, -1 on error
```

The default action of close with a TCP socket is to mark the socket as closed and immediately return to the process. The socket is no longer usable by the process, but TCP will still send any data that has been queued to be sent to the other end. Only after this, is the normal TCP connection termination sequence begun.

Note that, unless a socket's reference count is 1, calling close only decrements the reference count. The TCP four-packet connection termination sequence is not initiated until the reference count is 0 after being decremented. Another way of terminating a TCP connection is to use the shutdown function instead of close. We do not discuss shutdown any further.

# 4 A little something about UDP Sockets

UDP is a connectionless, unreliable, datagram protocol, quite different from the connection-oriented, reliable byte stream provided by TCP.

As mentioned in 3.1, when creating an UDP socket with the socket function, we pass SOCK\_DGRAM as the second argument. Also, when reading and writing data to and from an UDP socket, we use the recvfrom and sendto functions.

The first three arguments, sockfd, buff, and nbytes are identical to the arguments for the read and write functions: descriptor, pointer to buffer to read from, or write to, and the number of bytes to read or write.

We do not cover the flags argument here. For simple client-server applications, it is set to 0.

The to argument is a socket address structure containing the IP address and port number of where the data is to be sent. The size of this structure is specified by addrlen.

The recvfrom function fills in the socket address structure pointed to by from with the protocol address of who sent the datagram. The number of bytes stored in this structure is also returned to the caller in the integer pointed to by addrlen. If from is set to NULL; then addrlen must be a null pointer as well. This indicates that the caller of recvfrom is not interested in knowing the protocol address of whoever sends data.

## 5 Port numbers

Both TCP and UDP define a group of well-known ports to identify well-known services. For example, FTP servers are assigned port 21, web servers port 80, etc. On the other hand, clients normally use short-lived ports, assigned automatically by TCP or UDP.

The Internet Assigned Numbers Authority (IANA) divide port numbers into three ranges:

- 1. The well-known ports: 0 through 1023. These numbers are controlled and assigned by IANA.
- 2. The registered ports: 1024 through 49151. These numbers are not controlled by the IANA, but IANA registers and lists uses of these ports as a convenience to the community. For example, ports 6000 through 6063 are assigned for X window servers.
- 3. The dynamic or private ports: 49152 through 65535. The IANA says nothing about these ports. These ports are sometimes called *ephemeral* ports. (Ephemeral meaning lasting a very short time.)

UNIX systems have the concept of a *reserved* port, that is, any port less than 1024. These ports can only be assigned to a socket by a superuser process.

With respect to history, Berkeley-derived implementations have allocated ephemeral ports in the range 1024-5000. In the early 1980s, this was OK, but

today it is not difficult to find a host that can support more than 3977 clients at any given time. Consequently, some systems try to provide more ephemeral ports. Solaris is an example of this, allocating ephemeral ports in the range 32768-65535.

## References

[Ste98] W. Richard Stevens. UNIX Network Programming Volume 1: Networking APIs: Sockets and XTI. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ 07458, second edition, 1998.