Lecture 21. Network IPC: Sockets

The IPC methods of communication studied (pipes, FIFOs, message queues, semaphores, shared memory) allow processes running on the <u>same computer</u> to communicate with each other. This lecture covers methods that allow processes running on <u>different computers</u> to communicate with each other.

The **socket network IPC interface** allows processes to communicate with each other on the same machine or on different machines. The socket IPC network interface can be used to communicate using many different network protocols, but we will limit the discussion to the TCP/IP protocol suite.

Socket Descriptors

A socket is an abstraction of a communication endpoint. Applications use sockets to communicate, just like they use file descriptors. In fact, **socket descriptors** are implemented as file descriptors under UNIX. Many of the functions available to file descriptors (read(), write() etc.) are available to sockets.

A socket can be created with the socket() function:

Arguments:

domain—determines the nature of the communication, including the address format. It is one of the domains shown in Table 1

type—the type of the socket, which determines the communication characteristics. The types available are shown in Table 2

protocol—usually 0, to select the default protocol for the given domain and type. When multiple protocols are supported for the same domain/type, the protocol argument selects a particular protocol.

A **datagram** is a connectionless service, which needs no logical connection between the peers that communicate. A datagram message is analogous to a letter,

in that it contains the address of the peer it is destined to, but the order and reliability of the service are not guaranteed. A datagram service is specified by:

SOCK_DGRAM—socket type (2nd argument to socket());

SOCK_RAW—datagram interface directly to the underlying network layer (e.g. TCP or UDP transport layers are bypassed). Superuser privileges are required to create a raw socket.

A **connection-oriented protocol** requires a logical connection between the communicating peers. It is analogous to a phone call, in that once the connection is in place, a bidirectional conversation can take place, and the connection is a peer-to-peer communication channel. The messages do not, therefore, contain addressing information. A connection-oriented protocol is specified by one of the following socket types:

SOCK_STREAM—byte stream service. Reading data from a SOCK_STREAM socket does not guarantee the delivery of all the bytes written by the sender. The retrieval of all these bytes may require several system calls;

SOCK_SEQPACKET—message-based service. The amount of data read from such a socket is the same as the amount of data sent. The Stream Control Transmission Protocol (SCTP) provides a sequential packet service in the Internet domain.

Domain	Description
AF_INET	IPv4 Internet domain
AF_INET6	IPv6 Internet domain
AF_UNIX	UNIX domain
AF_UNSPEC	unspecified

Table 1.
Communication
Domains

Table 2. Socket Types

Туре	Description
SOCK_DGRAM	fixed-length, connectionless, unreliable messages
SOCK_RAW	datagram interface to IP (optional in POSIX.1)
SOCK_SEQPACKET	fixed-length, sequenced, reliable, connection-oriented messages
SOCK_STREAM	sequenced, reliable, bidirectional, connection-oriented byte streams

As mentioned earlier, the system calls available to file descriptors are available to sockets. The following table summarizes all the functions available to sockets.

Function	Behavior with socket
close (Section 3.3)	deallocates the socket
dup, dup2 (Section 3.12)	duplicates the file descriptor as normal
fchdir (Section 4.22)	fails with errno set to ENOTDIR
fchmod (Section 4.9)	unspecified
fchown (Section 4.11)	implementation defined
fcntl (Section 3.14)	some commands supported, including f_DUPFD, F_GETFD, F_GETFL, F_GETOWN, F_SETFD, F_SETFL, and F_SETOWN
fdatasync, fsync (Section 3.13)	implementation defined
fstat (Section 4.2)	some stat structure members supported, but how left up to the implementation
ftruncate (Section 4.13)	unspecified
getmsg, getpmsg (Section 14.4)	works if sockets are implemented with STREAMS (i.e., on Solaris)
ioctl (Section 3.15)	some commands work, depending on underlying device driver
lseek (Section 3.6)	implementation defined (usually fails with errno set to ESPIPE)
mmap (Section 14.9)	unspecified
pol1 (<u>Section 14.5.2</u>)	works as expected
putmsg, putpmsg (Section 14.4)	works if sockets are implemented with STREAMS (i.e., on Solaris)
read (Section 3.7) and readv (Section 14.7)	equivalent to recv (Section 16.5) without any flags
select (Section 14.5.1)	works as expected
write (<u>Section 3.8</u>) and writev (<u>Section 14.7</u>)	equivalent to send (Section 16.5) without any flags

Communication on a socket is bidirectional. I/O to a socket can be <u>disabled</u> with the shutdown() function:

Arguments:

```
sockfd—file (socket) descriptor, returned by socket()
how—may have one of the following values:
    SHUT_RD—reading from the socket is disabled
    SHUT_WR—writing to the socket is disabled
    SHUT_RDWR—disables both
```

A socket is <u>closed</u> with the <u>close()</u> function. Why are both <u>shutdown()</u> and <u>close()</u> needed? <u>shutdown()</u> frees the file (socket) descriptor explicitly, <u>disabling</u> <u>all remaining references</u> to the file (socket) descriptor, whereas <u>close()</u> deallocates the network endpoint <u>only when the last active reference is closed</u>.

The following short program creates a socket:

```
#include <sys/socket.h> /* for 1st, 2nd arguments */
#include <netinet/in.h> /* for 3rd argument */
#include <stdio.h> /* for printf() */
#include <errno.h> /* for errno */
#include <string.h> /* for strerror() */

int main(void)
{
    int sockfd;

    sockfd=socket(AF_INET6, SOCK_RAW, IPPROTO_IPV6);
    printf("Created socket with sockfd=%d.\n", sockfd);
    printf("errno=%d: %s\n", errno, strerror(errno));
return 0;
}
```

The output shows the **sockfd** created, and that the operation is only permitted with superuser privileges:

```
$ sudo ./mysocket
Password:
Created socket with sockfd=3.
errno=0: Undefined error: 0
```

Addressing

So far, we studied how to create and destroy a socket. In this section, we study how to identify the process with which the communication through sockets takes place. The **network address** of the remote computer is used to identify the <u>peer host</u>. The **port number**, representing a service, is used to identify the <u>peer process</u>.

Byte Ordering

The two types of byte ordering are:

big endian—the highest byte address occurs in the least significant byte (highest is rightmost, number grows right to left, contrary to the normal way of representing binary numbers)

little endian— the lowest byte address occurs in the least significant byte (highest is leftmost, number grows left to right, the normal way of representing numbers)

For example, a 32-bit integer with the hexadecimal value 0x04030201 will be read differently on machines with different byte ordering types: on the big endian system: ch[0]=4 (leftmost non-zero digit) on the little endian system: ch[0]=1 (rightmost non-zero digit)

The byte orderings for the four most popular platforms are:

Operating system	Processor architecture	Byte order
FreeBSD 5.2.1	Intel Pentium	little-endian
Linux 2.4.22	Intel Pentium	little-endian
Mac OS X 10.3	PowerPC	big-endian
Solaris 9	Sun SPARC	big-endian

In order for different computers running different platforms to communicate, the specific byte orderings on each system must be translated into the byte ordering used by the protocol. For instance, TCP/IP uses big endian byte ordering. The following functions provide byte ordering translation:

```
#include <arpa/inet.h>

uint32_t htonl(uint32_t hostint32);
uint16_t htons(uint16_t hostint16);
uint32_t ntohl(uint32_t netint32);
uint16_t ntohs(uint16_t netint16);
Returns 32-bit integer in network byte order.

Returns 32-bit integer in host byte order.

Returns 32-bit integer in host byte order.

Returns 16-bit integer in host byte order.

Returns 16-bit integer in host byte order.
```

```
htonl()—host to network long
htons()—host to network short
ntohl()—network to host long
ntohs()—network to host short
```

The following example shows the little endian-to-big endian conversion:

$$\begin{split} n &= 1234 = 1024 + 128 + 64 + 16 + 2 = 2^{10} + 2^7 + 2^6 + 2^4 + 2^1 = \\ &= \underbrace{0000\ 0100}_{\text{byte 1}} \underbrace{1101\ 0010}_{\text{byte 0}} = 0x04D2 \end{split}$$

If **n** is in little endian byte order, meaning the least significant byte is the lowest address byte, to convert it into big endian, the byte ordering must be reversed:

$$m = \underbrace{11010010}_{\text{byte 0}} \underbrace{00000100}_{\text{byte 1}} = 2^{15} + 2^{14} + 2^{12} + 2^{9} + 2^{2} = 53,764$$

The following program illustrates the use of the host-to-network short integer conversion function htons():

```
#include <arpa/inet.h>
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void)
{
    uint32_t n=1234;

    uint32_t m=htonl(n);
    printf("In network byte order: n=%d\n", m);
    uint16_t p=htons(n);
    printf("In network byte order: n=%d\n", p);
return 0;
}
```

The output shows that we obtain the same value as above only for a 16-bit integer:

```
$ ./mybyteorder
In network byte order: n=-771489792
In network byte order: n=53764
```

Address Formats

An **address** identifies the destination socket in a communication domain (one of the four). The address format is specific to the domain. For this reason, in order for addresses with different formats to be passed to socket functions, the differently formatted addresses are stored in a generic **sockaddr** structure, specifying the domain, as opposed to just a number. For BSD, this is:

```
struct sockaddr
{
    };
In the IPv4 Internet domain (AF_INET) a socket address is represented by the
sockaddr in structure:
struct sockaddr in
{
    sa_family_t sin_family;  /* address family */
in_port_t sin_port;  /* port number */
     struct in addr sin addr;
                                 /* IPv4 address */
};
where the in addr structure is:
struct in addr
                           /* IPv4 address */
     in addr t s addr;
};
In the IPv6 Internet domain (AF_INET6) a socket address is represented by a
sockaddr in6 structure:
struct sockaddr in6
{
                        sin6 family; /* address family */
     sa family t
                        sin6 port;
                                      /* port number */
     in port t
                        sin6 flowinfo; /* traffic class and
    uint32 t
flow info */
    struct in6 addr
                        sin6 addr; /* IPv6 address */
```

```
uint32_t sin6_scope_id; /* set of interfaces for
scope */
};

where the in6_addr structure is:
struct in6_addr
{
    uint8_t s6_addr[16]; /* IPv6 address */
};
```

Although sockaddr_in and sockaddr_in6 are different, they can be passed to the same socket functions as sockaddr argument types. Later, we will study the AF_UNIX UNIX domain sockets, with their own structures.

The following two functions convert IPv4/IPv6 between binary and string dot notation formats, in network byte order:

Arguments:

domain—one of the AF_INET and AF_INET6 values

addr—buffer to hold address, 32 bits for AF_INET, and 128 bits for AF_INET6

str—buffer to hold the text string representing an IPv4/IPv6 address, of sizes
INET_ADDRSTRLEN (for AF_INET) and INET6_ADDRSTRLEN (for AF_INET6)

The 4-byte IP address in IPv4 of my MacBook Pro is **71.183.210.141**. Each digit group between the dots represents a byte. Converted into binary, this IP address can be broken into:

```
71 = 64 + 4 + 2 + 1 = 2^{6} + 2^{2} + 2^{1} + 2^{0} = 0100 \ 0111
183 = 128 + 32 + 16 + 4 + 2 + 1 = 2^{7} + 2^{5} + 2^{4} + 2^{2} + 2^{1} + 2^{0} = 1011 \ 0111
210 = 128 + 64 + 16 + 2 = 2^{7} + 2^{6} + 2^{4} + 2^{1} = 1101 \ 0010
141 = 128 + 8 + 4 + 1 = 2^{7} + 2^{3} + 2^{2} + 2^{0} = 1000 \ 1101
```

This is in network byte order, meaning the highest order byte is the leftmost byte (little endian). Converted into an integer, this address is, still in network byte order:

```
\underbrace{0100\ 0111}_{\text{byte 0}}\underbrace{1011\ 0111}_{\text{byte 1}}\underbrace{1101\ 0010}_{\text{byte 2}}\underbrace{1000\ 1101}_{\text{byte 3}} =
= \underbrace{2^{31} + 2^{26} + 2^{25} + 2^{24}}_{1191182\ 336} + \underbrace{2^{23} + 2^{21} + 2^{20} + 2^{18} + 2^{17} + 2^{16}}_{11993\ 088} +
+ \underbrace{2^{15} + 2^{14} + 2^{12} + 2^{9}}_{53\ 760} + \underbrace{2^{7} + 2^{3} + 2^{2} + 2^{0}}_{141} = 1\ 203\ 229\ 325
```

This number is what the function inet_pton() (peer-to-network), when called with my IP address, 71.183.210.141, returns into the addr.sin_addr member of the sockaddr_in structure. The function ntohl() (network-to-host long) will convert that into uint32_t number. The following program illustrates this fact:

```
#include<stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/socket.h>
#include <arpa/inet.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <errno.h>
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
     struct in addr addr;
     char *byte order=malloc(sizeof(argv[1]));
     if(argc<2)
     {
          fprintf(stderr, "usage: ./myIPaddress4 [ip address]
\n");
          return -1;
     }
     inet pton(AF INET, argv[1], &addr);
```

```
fprintf(stdout, "Network byte order: %d\n",
ntohl(addr.s_addr));
    long back=htonl(ntohl(addr.s_addr));
    fprintf(stdout, "Host byte order: %ld\n", back);
    inet_ntop(AF_INET, &addr.s_addr, byte_order,
    sizeof(argv[1])*2);
    fprintf(stdout, "Dot quad: %s\n", byte_order);
    free(byte_order);
return 0;
}
```

The output shows the conversion of the quad dot IP peer address into network byte ordered integer, and back:

```
$ ./myIPaddress4 71.183.210.141
Network byte order: 1203229325
Host byte order: 2379396935
Dot quad: 71.183.210.141
```

The network byte order is the same as previously calculated by hand. The conversion into host byte order, explained on an earlier example, is done by reversing the byte order of the 4 bytes from the network byte ordered integer.

Address Lookup

Having seen the address structures for IPv4 and IPv6, we would like to write applications that are unaware of the internals of each of these structures. Instead, we want do pass socket addresses as **sockaddr** structures. These will work with multiple protocols that provide the same type of service.

The network configuration information returned by the functions that interface with the network is either kept in static files (/etc/hosts, /etc/services etc.), or can be managed by a name service (DNS—Domain Name System, or NIS—Network Information Service).

The <u>hosts known by a computer system</u> are returned by gethostent():

```
void sethostent(int stayopen);
void endhostent(void);
```

gethostent() opens the **host database file**, and returns the next entry in the file. The sethostent() function opens the file or rewinds it if already open. endhostent() closes the file. gethostent() returns a pointer to a structure hostent:

The addresses returned are in network byte order.

The following program illustrates the contents of this structure for my MacBook Pro:

```
#include <netdb.h> /* for gethostent() */
#include <stdio.h> /* for printf() */
#include <stdlib.h> /* for malloc() */
#include <arpa/inet.h>

int main(void)
{
    struct hostent *host_ptr=malloc(sizeof(struct hostent));
    host_ptr=gethostent();
    printf("Name of host: %s.\n", host_ptr->h_name);
    char **aliases_ptr;
    for (aliases_ptr=host_ptr->h_aliases; *aliases_ptr!=NULL;
aliases_ptr++)
    {
```

```
printf("Alias: %s.\n", *aliases ptr);
     }
     switch(host ptr->h addrtype)
     case 0:
          printf("Address type: %d: %s.\n",
                    host ptr->h addrtype, "AF_UNSPEC");
          break;
     case 1:
          printf("Address type: %d: %s.\n",
                    host ptr->h addrtype, "AF UNIX");
          break;
     case 2:
          printf("Address type: %d: %s.\n",
                    host ptr->h addrtype, "AF INET");
          break;
     default:
          break;
     }
     printf("Address length: %d bytes.\n", host ptr->h length);
     char **address list ptr;
     for (address list ptr=host ptr->h addr list;
               *address list ptr!=NULL; address list ptr++)
     {
          printf("Address list: %s.\n", inet ntoa((*(struct
in addr *)*address list ptr)));
return 0;
The output is:
$ ./mygethostent
Name of host: localhost.
Address type: 2: AF INET.
Address length: 4 bytes.
Address list: 127.0.0.1.
```

Network names and numbers can be obtained with the following functions:

```
#include <netdb.h>
```

```
struct netent *getnetbyaddr(uint32_t net, int type);
struct netent *getnetbyname(const char *name);
struct netent *getnetent(void);
All return pointer if OK, NULL if error.
void setnetent(int stayopen);
void endnetent(void);
```

...where the **netent** structure has the following fields:

The following program shows the use of getnetent() to return a netent struct and its members:

```
#include <netdb.h> /* for getnetbyaddr() */
#include <stdio.h> /* for printf() */
#include <stdlib.h> /* for malloc() */
struct netent *netentry;
int main(void)
     netentry=malloc(sizeof(struct netent));
     //netentry=getnetbyaddr(2379396935, AF INET);
     netentry=getnetent();
     printf("netentry->n net=%d\n", netentry->n net);
     printf("netentry->n addrtype=%d\n", netentry->n addrtype);
     printf("netentry->n_name=%s\n", netentry->n_name);
     char **ptr;
     int i=0;
     for (ptr=&netentry=>n aliases[0]; *ptr!=NULL; ptr++)
     {
          printf("netentry->n_aliases[%d]=%s\n", i, *ptr);
```

```
i++;
}
return 0;
}
The output is:

$ ./mynetent
netentry->n_net=127
netentry->n_addrtype=2
netentry->n_name=loopback
netentry->n_aliases[0]=loopback-net
```

The **loopback** device is a virtual network interface used for a computer to communicate with itself, for purposes of diagnostics and troubleshooting, but especially to connect to servers running on the local host.

The following functions map between protocol names and numbers:

The protoent structure has the following entries:

The following program, gracefully borrowed from stackoverflow, shows the use of getprotoent() to retrieve members of the protoent structure:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <netdb.h>
int main (int argc, char *argv[])
     int i;
     struct protoent *proto=getprotobyname("ipv6");
     if (proto!=NULL)
     {
          printf("Official name: %s\n", proto->p name);
          printf("Port#: %d\n", proto->p proto);
          for (i = 0; proto->p aliases[i] != 0; i++)
               printf("Alias[%d]: %s\n", i+1, proto-
>p_aliases[i]);
          }
     }
     else
          perror("protocol not found");
return 0;
}
The output is:
$ ./myprotoent
Official name: ipv6
Port#: 41
Alias[1]: IPV6
```

Services are represented by the <u>port number portion of the address</u>. In struct sockaddr_in, the member in_port_t sin_addr represents the port. A service name can be mapped to a port number by calling getservbyname(), and viceversa by calling getservbyport(). Alternately, the services database can be scanned sequentially with getservent():

The servent structure has the following members:

The following program uses getservent() to scan all services on this host and print out the members of servent:

```
#include <netdb.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
struct servent *serventry;
int main(void)
{
     serventry=malloc(sizeof(struct servent));
     for (;;)
     {
          printf("----
          serventry=getservent();
          printf("serventry->s port=%d\n", serventry->s port);
          printf("serventry->s_name=%s\n", serventry->s_name);
          printf("serventry->s_proto=%s\n", serventry->s_proto);
          for (int i=0; serventry->s aliases[i]!=0; i++)
               printf("serventry->s aliases[%d]=%s\n", i,
serventry->s aliases[i]);
```

```
return 0;
}
The first few lines of the output look like this:
serventry->s port=256
serventry->s_name=rtmp
serventry->s_proto=ddp
-----
_____
serventry->s port=256
serventry->s name=tcpmux
serventry->s_proto=udp
-----
serventry->s port=256
serventry->s name=tcpmux
serventry->s proto=tcp
_____
______
serventry->s port=512
serventry->s_name=nbp
serventry->s proto=ddp
_____
```