

# CSE 333

## Lecture 17 -- network programming intro



# Today

## Network programming

- dive into the Berkeley / POSIX sockets API

# Files and file descriptors

Remember open, read, write, and close?

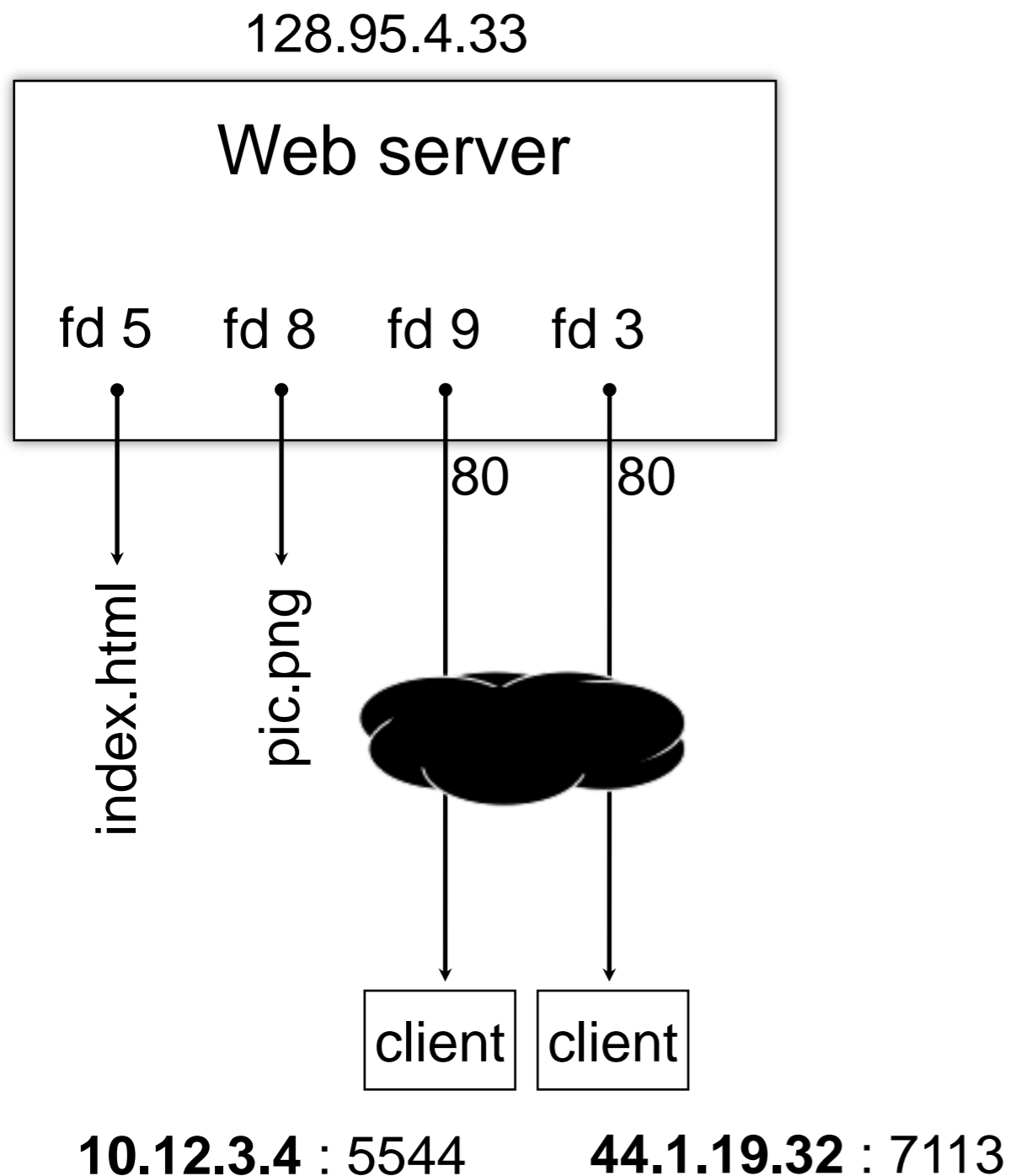
- POSIX system calls for interacting with files
- `open( )` returns a *file descriptor*
  - › an integer that represents an open file
  - › inside the OS, it's an index into a table that keeps track of any state associated with your interactions, such as the file position
  - › you pass the file descriptor into read, write, and close

# Networks and sockets

UNIX likes to make all I/O look like file I/O

- the good news is that you can use `read( )` and `write( )` to interact with remote computers over a network!
- just like with files.....
  - your program can have multiple network channels open at once
  - you need to pass `read( )` and `write( )` a ***file descriptor*** to let the OS know which network channel you want to write to or read from
- a file descriptor used for network communications is a **socket**

# Pictorially



## OS' s descriptor table

file descriptor	type	connected to?
0	pipe	stdin (console)
1	pipe	stdout (console)
2	pipe	stderr (console)
3	TCP socket	local: 128.95.4.33:80 remote: 44.1.19.32:7113
5	file	index.html
8	file	pic.png
9	TCP socket	local: 128.95.4.33:80 remote: 102.12.3.4:5544

# Types of sockets

## Stream sockets

- for connection-oriented, point-to-point, reliable bytestreams
  - uses TCP, SCTP, or other stream transports

## Datagram sockets

- for connection-less, one-to-many, unreliable packets
  - uses UDP or other packet transports

## Raw sockets

- for layer-3 communication (raw IP packet manipulation)

# Stream sockets

Typically used for client / server communications

- but also for other architectures, like peer-to-peer

## Client

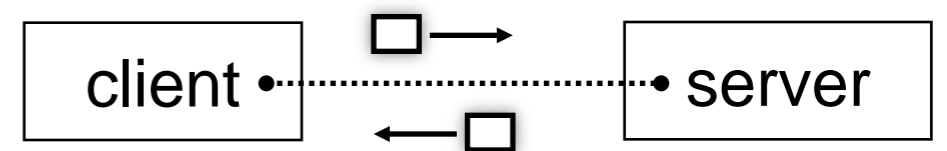
- an application that establishes a connection to a server

## Server

- an application that receives connections from clients



1. establish connection



2. communicate



3. close connection

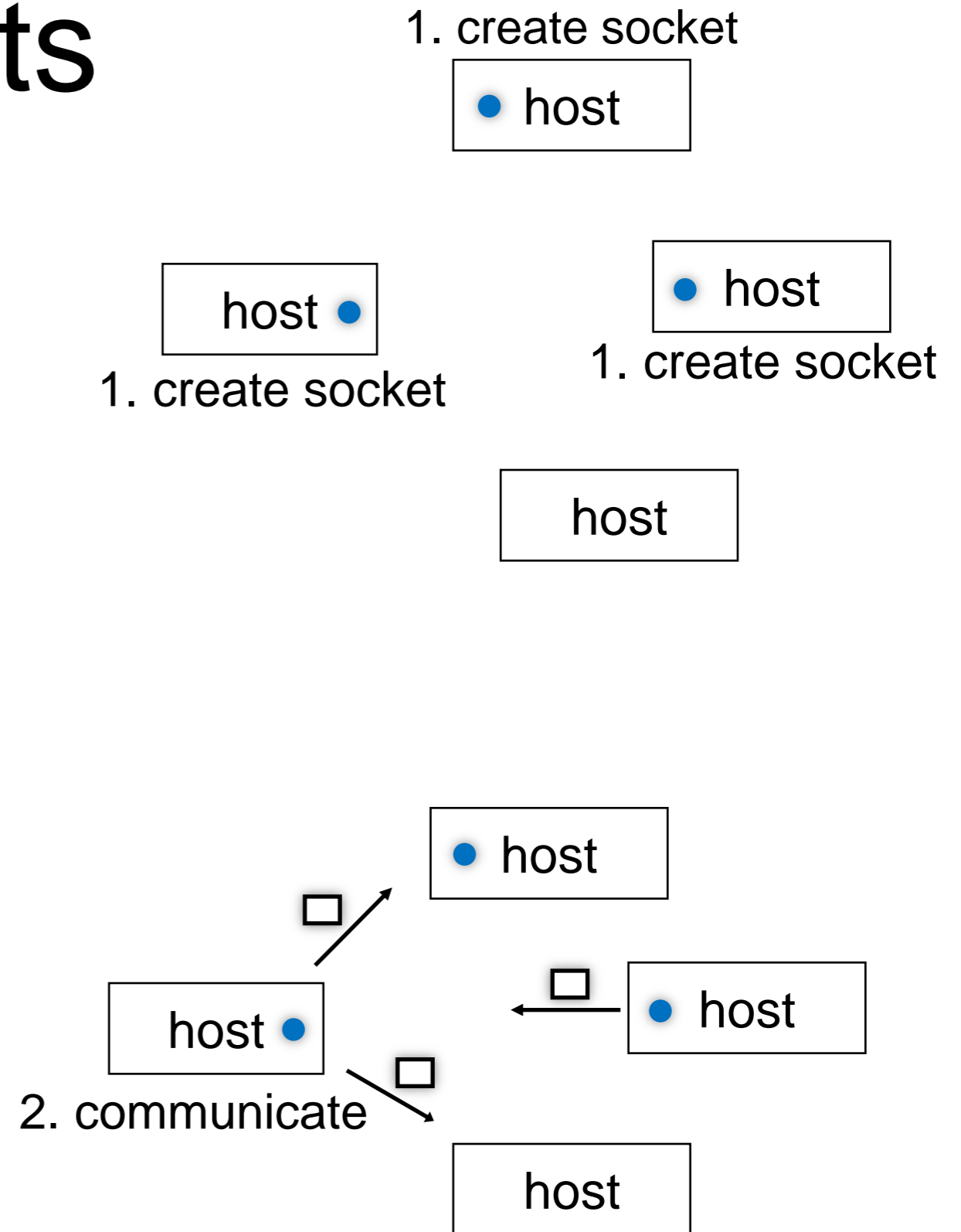
# Datagram sockets

Used less frequently than stream sockets

- they provide no flow control, ordering, or reliability

Often used as a building block

- streaming media applications
- sometimes, DNS lookups





# The sockets API

Berkeley sockets originated in 4.2 BSD Unix circa 1983

- it is the standard API for network programming
  - available on most OSs

## POSIX socket API

- a slight updating of the Berkeley sockets API
  - a few functions were deprecated or replaced
  - better support for multi-threading was added

# Let's dive into it!

We'll start by looking at the API from the point of view of a client connecting to a server over TCP

- there are five steps:
  1. figure out the IP address and port to which to connect
  2. create a socket
  3. connect the socket to the remote server
  4. `read( )` and `write( )` data using the socket
  5. close the socket

## **Connecting from a client to a server.**

Step 1. Figure out the IP address and port to which to connect.

# Network addresses

For IPv4, an IP address is a 4-byte tuple

- e.g., 128.95.4.1 (80:5f:04:01 in hex)

For IPv6, an IP address is a 16-byte tuple

- e.g., 2d01:0db8:f188:0000:0000:0000:0000:1f33
  - 2d01:0db8:f188::1f33 in shorthand

# IPv4 address structures

```
// Port numbers and addresses are in *network order*.

// A mostly-protocol-independent address structure.
struct sockaddr {
    short int      sa_family;    // Address family; AF_INET, AF_INET6
    char          sa_data[14]; // 14 bytes of protocol address
};

// An IPv4 specific address structure.
struct sockaddr_in {
    short int      sin_family; // Address family, AF_INET == IPv4
    unsigned short int sin_port; // Port number
    struct in_addr  sin_addr; // Internet address
    unsigned char   sin_zero[8]; // Same size as struct sockaddr
};

struct in_addr {
    uint32_t s_addr; // IPv4 address
};
```

# IPv6 address structures

```
// A structure big enough to hold either IPv4 or IPv6 structures.
struct sockaddr_storage {
    sa_family_t    ss_family;        // address family

    // a bunch of padding; safe to ignore it.
    char          __ss_pad1[_SS_PAD1SIZE];
    int64_t      __ss_align;
    char          __ss_pad2[_SS_PAD2SIZE];
};

// An IPv6 specific address structure.
struct sockaddr_in6 {
    u_int16_t    sin6_family;    // address family, AF_INET6
    u_int16_t    sin6_port;      // Port number
    u_int32_t    sin6_flowinfo; // IPv6 flow information
    struct in6_addr sin6_addr;   // IPv6 address
    u_int32_t    sin6_scope_id; // Scope ID
};

struct in6_addr {
    unsigned char s6_addr[16];    // IPv6 address
};
```

# Generating these structures

Often you have a string representation of an address

- how do you generate one of the address structures?

genaddr.cc

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

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    struct sockaddr_in sa; // IPv4
    struct sockaddr_in6 sa6; // IPv6

    // IPv4 string to sockaddr_in.
    inet_pton(AF_INET, "192.0.2.1", &(sa.sin_addr));

    // IPv6 string to sockaddr_in6.
    inet_pton(AF_INET6, "2001:db8:63b3:1::3490", &(sa6.sin6_addr));

    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

# Generating these structures

How about going in reverse?

genstring.cc

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

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    struct sockaddr_in6 sa6;           // IPv6
    char astring[INET6_ADDRSTRLEN];   // IPv6

    // IPv6 string to sockaddr_in6.
    inet_pton(AF_INET6, "2001:db8:63b3:1::3490", &(sa6.sin6_addr));

    // sockaddr_in6 to IPv6 string.
    inet_ntop(AF_INET6, &(sa6.sin6_addr), astring, INET6_ADDRSTRLEN);
    std::cout << astring << std::endl;

    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```



# DNS

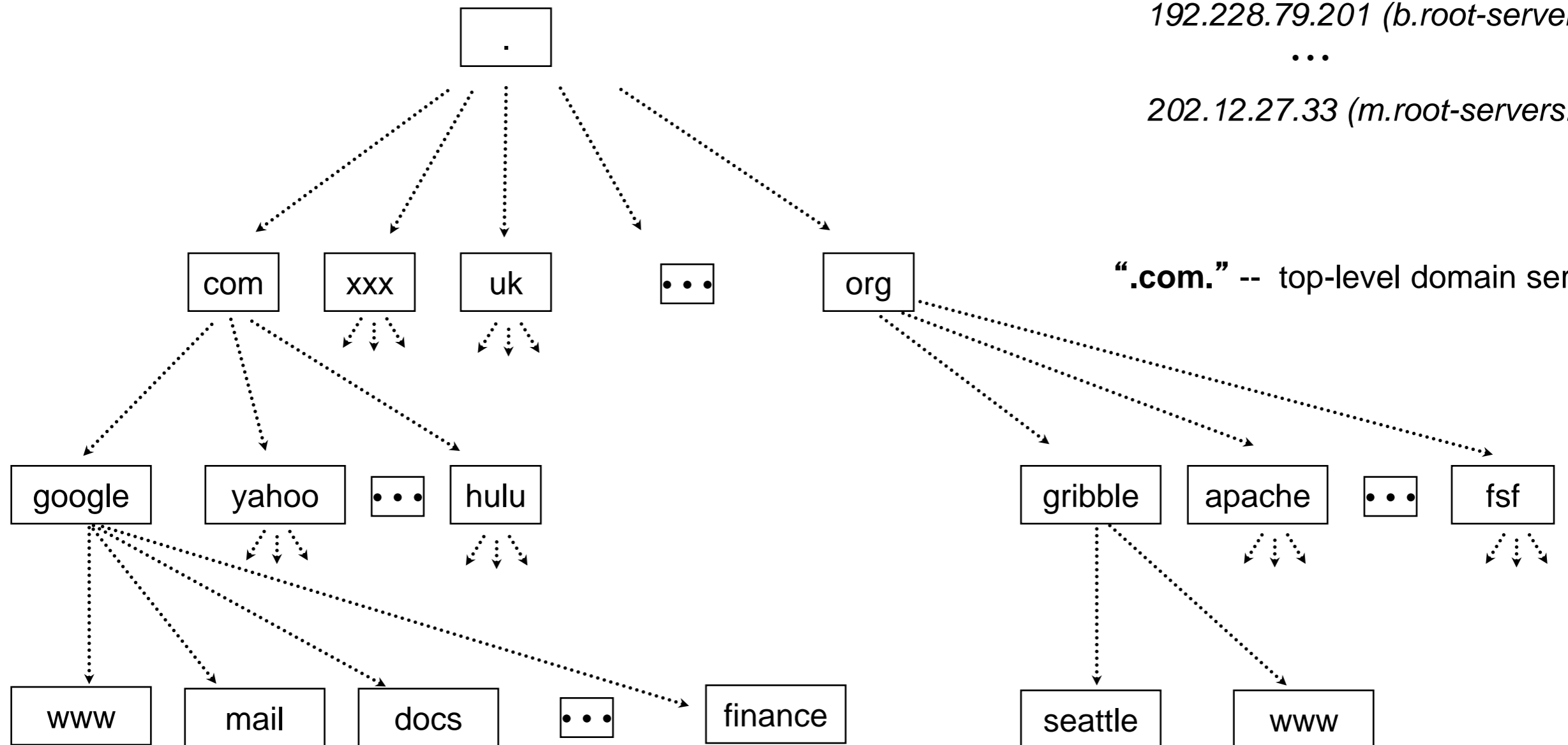
People tend to use DNS names, not IP addresses

- the sockets API lets you convert between the two
- it's a complicated process, though:
  - a given DNS name can have many IP addresses
  - many different DNS names can map to the same IP address
    - an IP address will reverse map into at most one DNS names, and maybe none
  - a DNS lookup may require interacting with many DNS servers

You can use the “dig” Linux program to explore DNS

- “man dig”

# DNS hierarchy



**“.”** -- root name servers

198.41.0.4 (*a.root-servers.net*)

192.228.79.201 (*b.root-servers.net*)

...

202.12.27.33 (*m.root-servers.net*)

**“.com.”** -- top-level domain server

# Resolving DNS names

The POSIX way is to use **getaddrinfo( )**

- a pretty complicated system call; the basic idea...
  - › set up a “hints” structure with constraints you want respected
    - e.g., IPv6, IPv4, or either
  - › tell getaddrinfo( ) which host and port you want resolved
    - host: a string representation; DNS name or IP address
  - › getaddrinfo( ) gives you a list of results packet in an “addrinfo” struct
  - › free the addrinfo structure using freeaddrinfo( )

# DNS lookup example

*see [dnsresolve.cc](http://dnsresolve.cc)*

## **Connecting from a client to a server.**

Step 2. Create a socket.

# Creating a socket

## Use the **socket** system call

- creating a socket doesn't yet bind it to a local address or port

socket.cc

```
#include <errno.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <sys/socket.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <iostream>

int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    int socket_fd = socket(PF_INET, SOCK_STREAM, 0);
    if (socket_fd == -1) {
        std::cerr << strerror(errno) << std::endl;
        return EXIT_FAILURE;
    }
    close(socket_fd);
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

## **Connecting from a client to a server.**

Step 3. Connect the socket to the remote server.

# connect( )

The **connect( )** system call establishes a connection to a remote host

- you pass the following arguments to connect( ):
  - the socket file descriptor you created in step 2
  - one of the address structures you created in step 1
- connect may take some time to return
  - it is a **blocking** call by default
  - the network stack within the OS will communicate with the remote host to establish a TCP connection to it
  - this involves *~2 round trips* across the network



# connect example

*see connect.cc*

## **Connecting from a client to a server.**

Step 4. `read( )` and `write( )` data using the socket.

# read( )

By default, a blocking call

- if there is data that has already been received by the network stack, then read will return immediately with it
  - thus, read might return with less data than you asked for
- if there is no data waiting for you, by default read( ) will block until some arrives
  - pop quiz: how might this cause **deadlock**?

# write( )

By default, a blocking call

- but, in a more sneaky way
- when write( ) returns, the receiver (i.e., the other end of the connection) probably has not yet received the data
  - in fact, the data might not have been sent on the network yet!
  - write( ) enqueues your data in a send buffer in the OS, and then returns; the OS will transmit the data in the background
- if there is no more space left in the send buffer, by default write( ) will block
  - how might this cause **deadlock**?

# read/write example

*see [sendreceive.cc](http://sendreceive.cc)*

## **Connecting from a client to a server.**

Step 5. `close( )` the socket.

See you on Wednesday!