CSE 333 Lecture 6 - system calls, intro to file I/O

Hal Perkins

Department of Computer Science & Engineering University of Washington



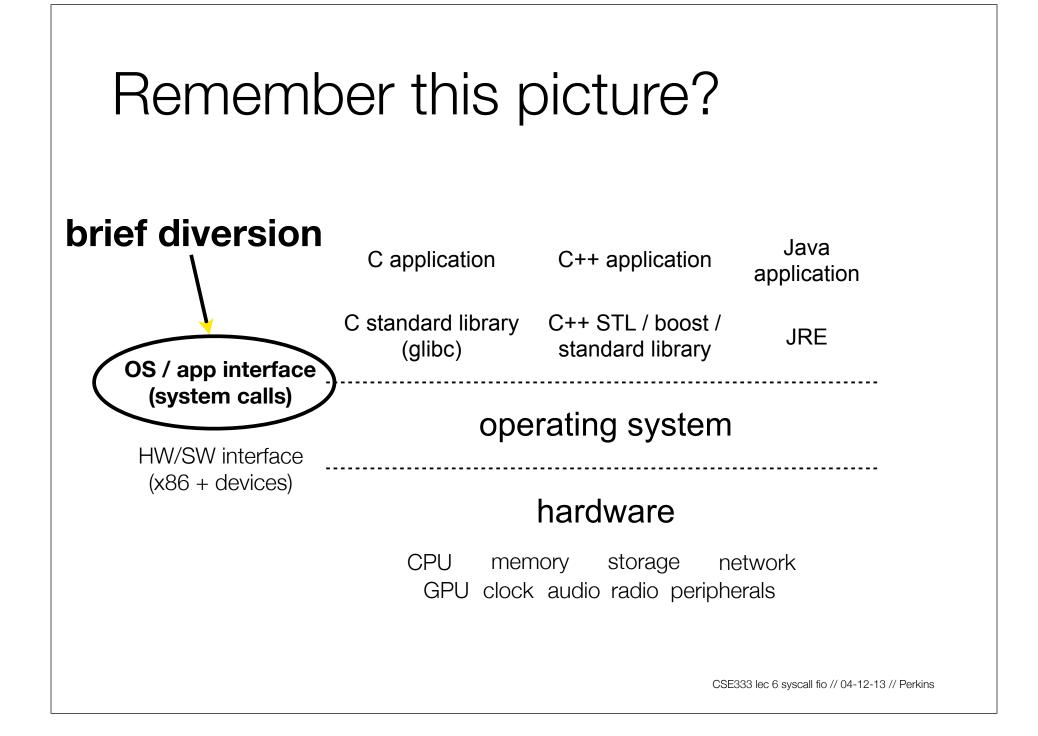
Administrivia

HW1 due a week from Tuesday

- Not much discussion board traffic yet. No problems, no confusion, or not very far along yet?
 - (Hint: would be good to make lots of progress over the weekend if not sooner)

The exercises keep rolling along

- Unfortunately the grading isn't
 - Plan is to catch up over the weekend & figure out how to compensate for same errors repeated multiple times
 - Meanwhile, be sure to look at sample solutions & compare



What's an OS?

Software that:

1. directly interacts with the hardware

- OS is trusted to do so; user-level programs are not
- OS must be ported to new HW; user-level programs are portable

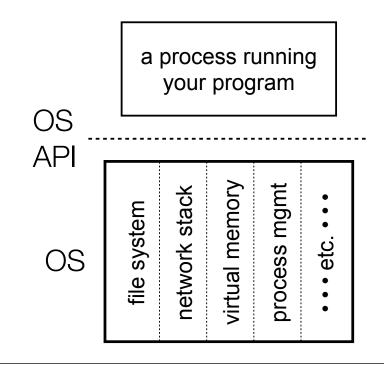
2. manages (allocates, schedules, protects) hardware resources

- decides which programs can access which files, memory locations, pixels on the screen, etc., and when
- 3. abstracts away messy hardware devices
 - provides high-level, convenient, portable abstractions
 - e.g., files vs. disk blocks

OS as an abstraction provider

The OS is the "layer below"

- a module that your program can call (with system calls)
- provides a powerful API (the OS API POSIX, Windows, ...)



file system

- open(), read(), write(), close(), ... network stack
- connect(), listen(), read(), write(), ... virtual memory
- brk(), shm_open(), ...

process management

- fork(), wait(), nice(), ...

OS isolates processes from each other

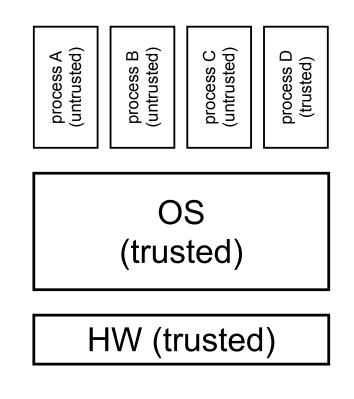
- but permits controlled sharing between them
 - through shared name spaces (e.g., FS names)

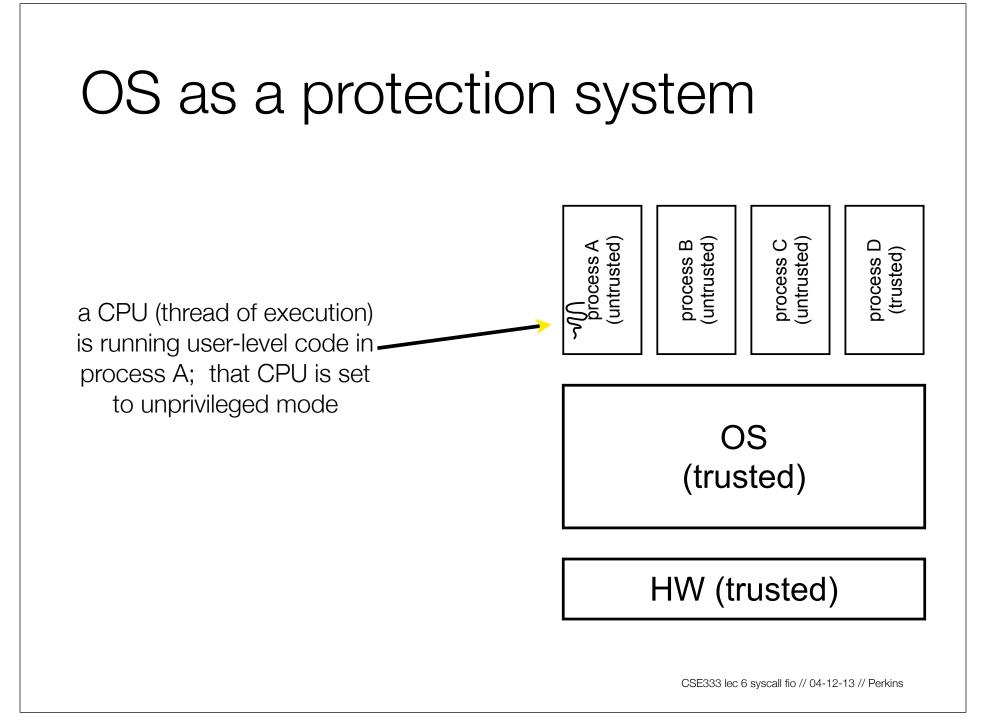
OS isolates itself from processes

- and therefore, must prevent processes from accessing the hardware directly

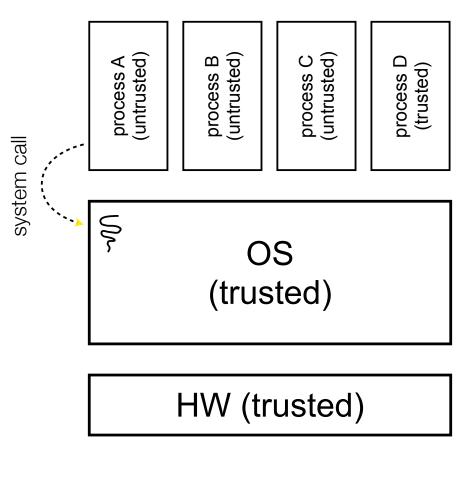
OS is allowed to access the hardware

- user-level processes run with the CPU in unprivileged mode
- when the OS is running, the CPU is set to privileged mode
- user-level processes invoke a system call to safely enter the OS

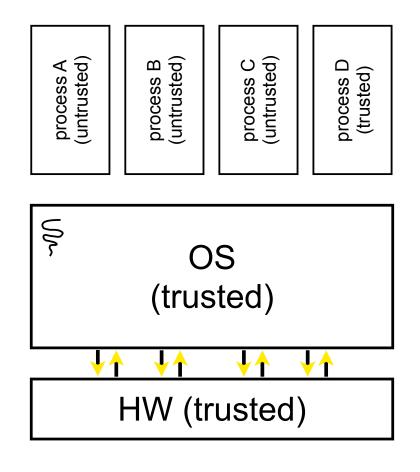




code in process A invokes a system call; the hardware then sets the CPU to privileged mode and traps into the OS, which invokes the appropriate system call handler



because the CPU executing the thread that's in the OS is in privileged mode, it is able to use privileged instructions that interact directly with hardware devices like disks



system call return

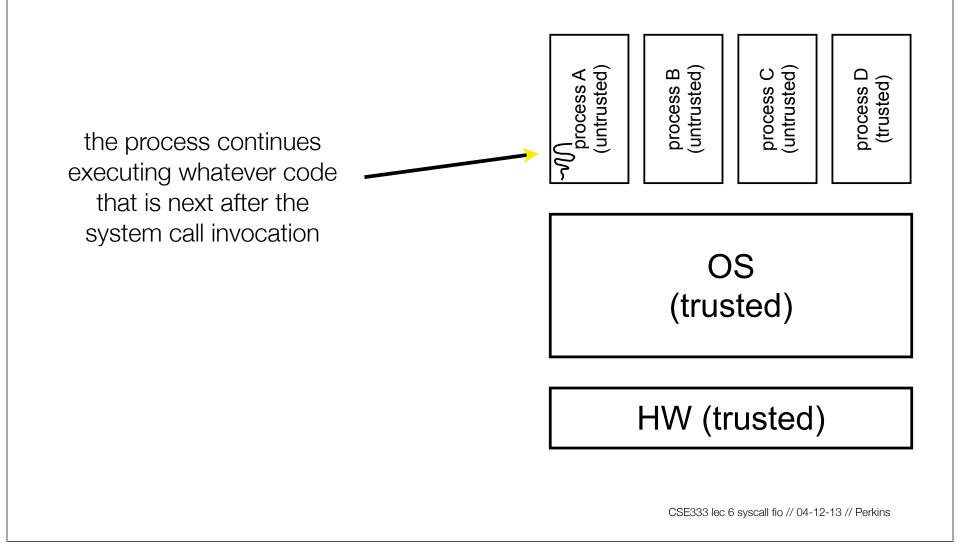
once the OS has finished servicing the system call (which might involve long waits as it interacts with HW) it:

(a) sets the CPU back to unprivileged mode, and

(b) returns out of the system call back to the user-level code in process A

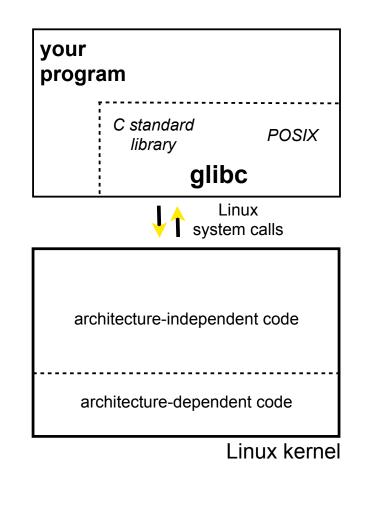
process A (untrusted) process B (untrusted) process C (untrusted) orocess D (trusted) \mathbb{S} OS (trusted) HW (trusted)





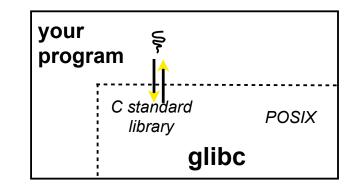
A more accurate picture:

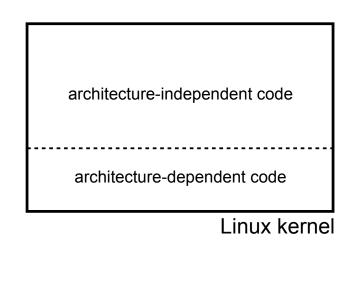
- consider a typical Linux process
- its thread of execution can be several places
 - in your program's code
 - in glibc, a shared library containing the C standard library, POSIX support, and more
 - in the Linux architectureindependent code
 - in Linux x86-32/x86-64 code



Some routines your program invokes may be entirely handled by glibc

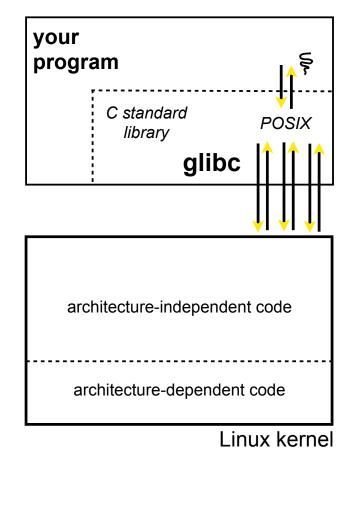
- without involving the kernel
 - e.g., **strcmp()** from stdio.h
- ∃ some initial overhead when invoking functions in dynamically linked libraries
- but, after symbols are resolved, invoking glibc routines is nearly as fast as a function call within your program itself





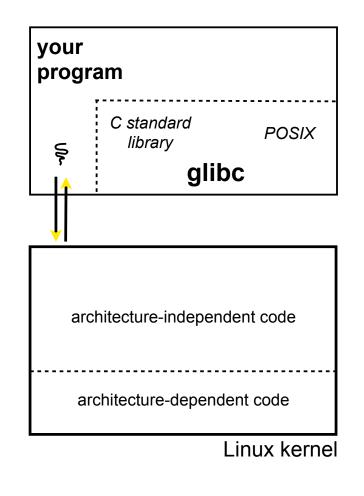
Some routines may be handled by glibc, but they in turn invoke Linux system calls

- e.g., POSIX wrappers around Linux syscalls
 - POSIX readdir() invokes the underlying Linux readdir()
- e.g., C stdio functions that read and write from files
 - fopen(), fclose(), fprintf() invoke underlying Linux open(), read(), write(), close(), etc.



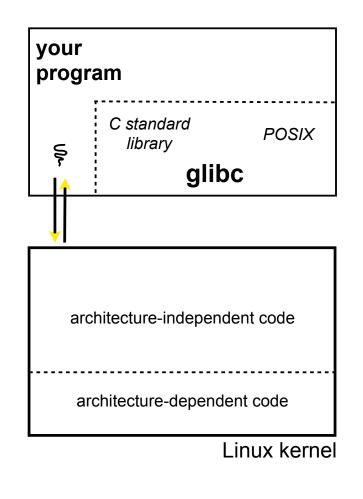
Your program can choose to directly invoke Linux system calls as well

- nothing forces you to link with glibc and use it
- but, relying on directly invoked Linux system calls may make your program less portable across UNIX varieties



Let's walk through how a Linux system call actually works

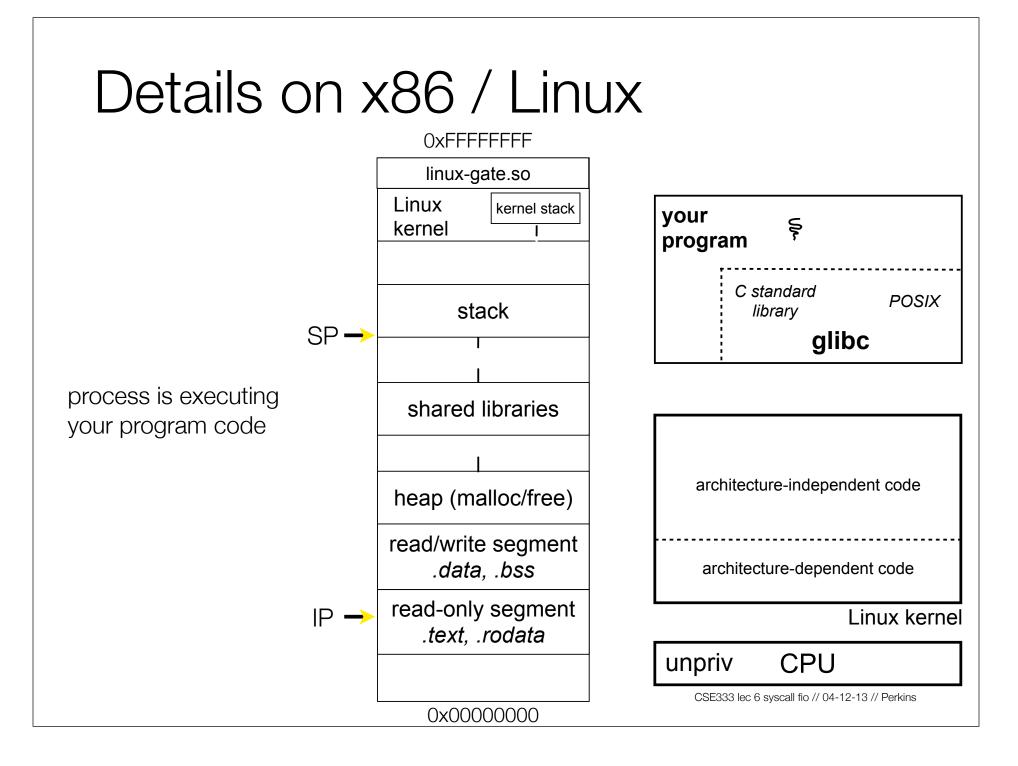
 we'll assume 32-bit x86 using the modern SYSENTER / SYSEXIT x86 instructions

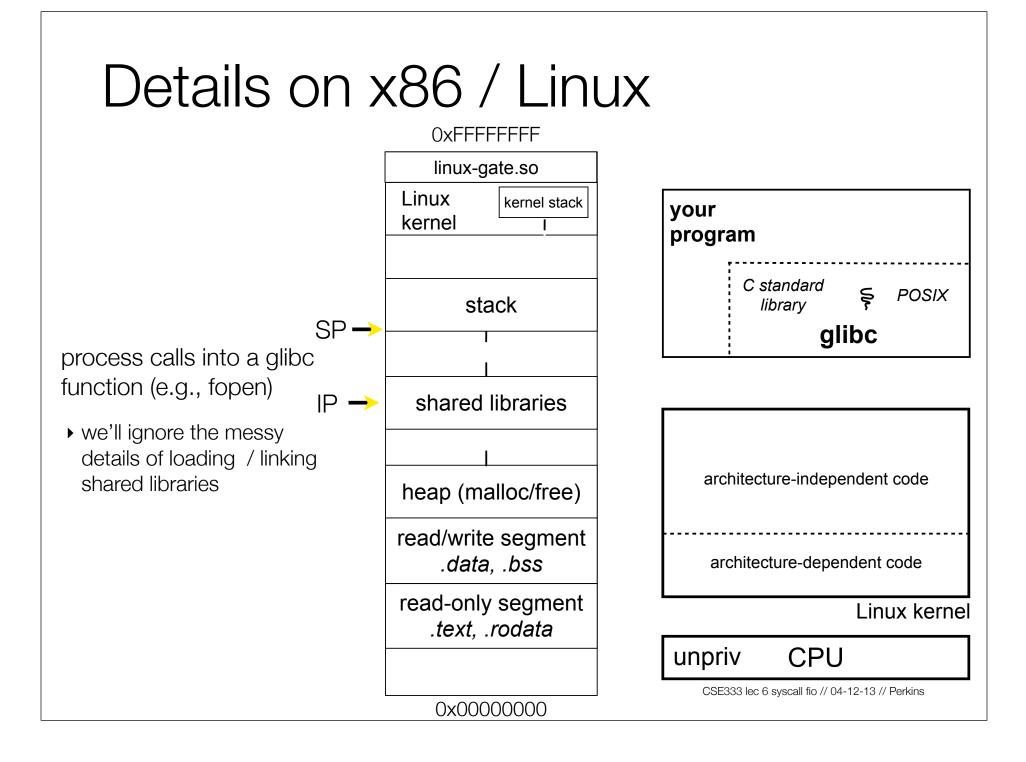


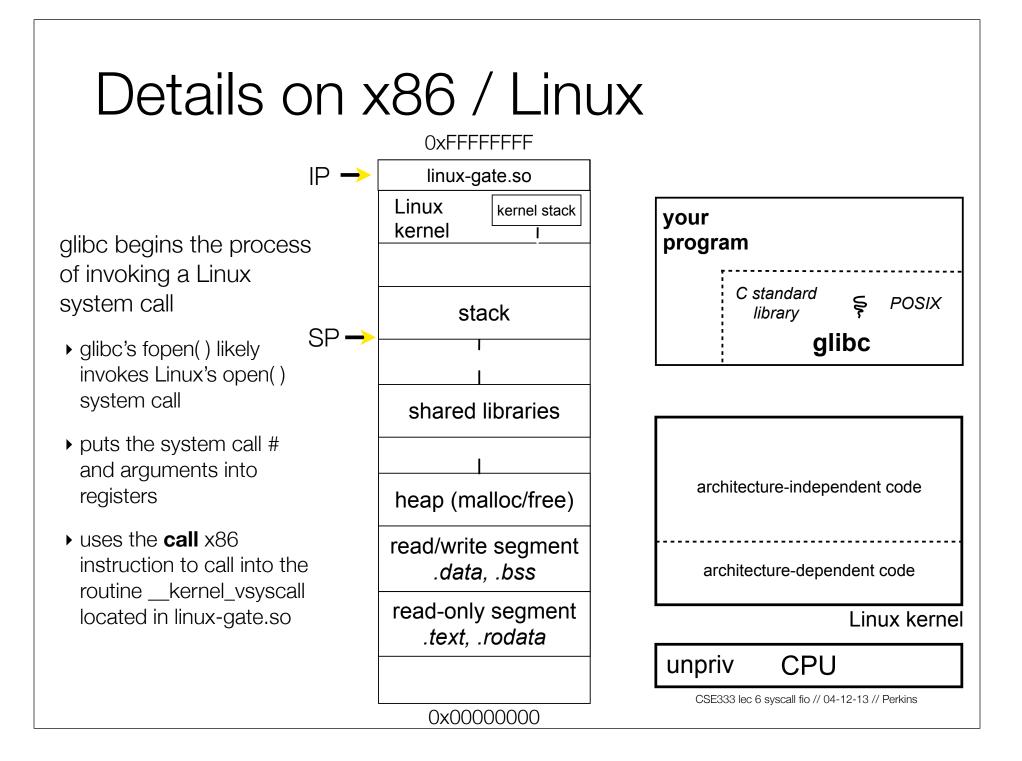
Remember our process address space picture

- let's add some details

UXFFFFFFF	
linux-gate.so	
Linux kernel stack kernel	your program
stack	C standard POSIX library glibc
I shared libraries	
I	architecture-independent code
heap (malloc/free)	
read/write segment .data, .bss	architecture-dependent code
read-only segment .text, .rodata	Linux kerne
	CPU
0x00000000	CSE333 lec 6 syscall fio // 04-12-13 // Perkins







Details on x86 / Linux **OxFFFFFFF** IP → linux-gate.so Linux kernel stack your kernel linux-gate.so is a *vdso* program ► a virtual dynamically C standard ຸ linked shared object POSIX stack library SP -> glibc ▶ is a kernel-provided shared library, i.e., is not associated with a .so file, shared libraries but rather is conjured up by the kernel and plunked into a process's architecture-independent code heap (malloc/free) address space provides the intricate read/write segment machine code needed to .data, .bss architecture-dependent code trigger a system call read-only segment Linux kernel .text, .rodata unpriv CPU CSE333 lec 6 syscall fio // 04-12-13 // Perkins 0x0000000

Details on x86 / Linux **OxFFFFFFF** linux-gate.so linux-gate.so eventually $SP \rightarrow$ Linux kernel stack your invokes the SYSENTER $IP \rightarrow$ kernel program x86 instruction C standard POSIX SYSENTER is x86's "fast stack library system call" instruction glibc it has several side-effects. shared libraries - causes the CPU to raise its privilege level architecture-independent code - traps into the Linux heap (malloc/free) kernel by changing the SP, IP to a previously read/write segment determined location architecture-dependent code .data, .bss ş read-only segment - changes some Linux kernel .text, .rodata segmentation related registers (see cse451) CPU priv CSE333 lec 6 syscall fio // 04-12-13 // Perkins 0x0000000

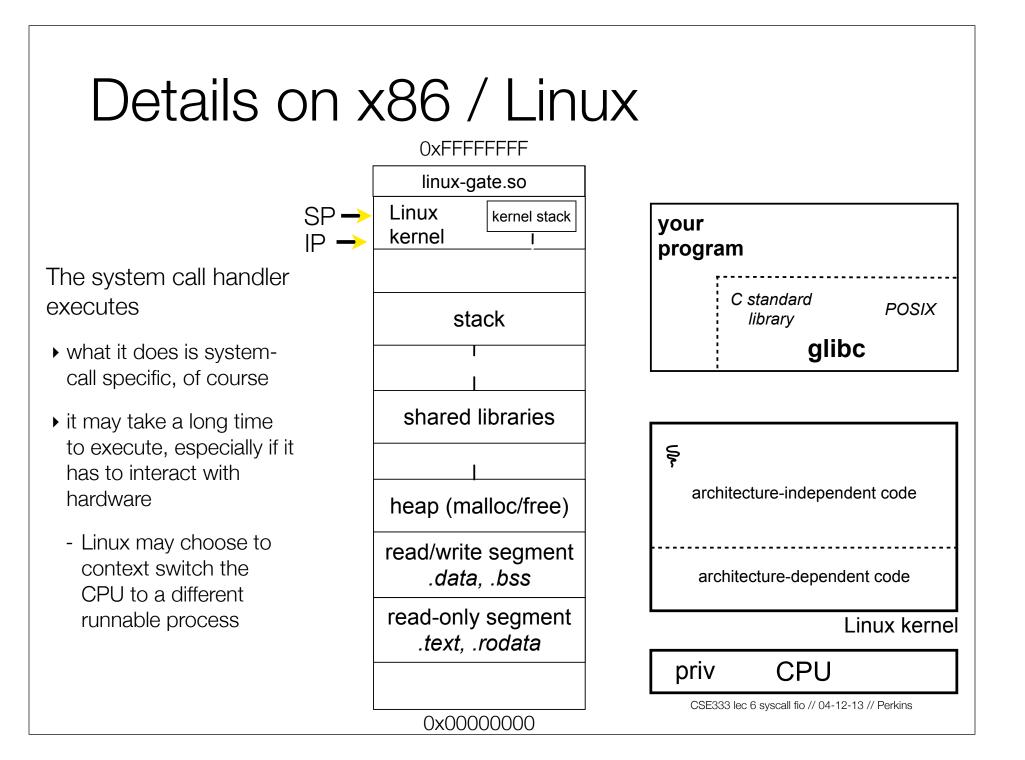
The kernel begins executing code at the SYSENTER entry point

- ▶ is in the architecturedependent part of Linux
- ▶ it's job is to:
 - look up the system call number in a system call dispatch table
 - call into the address stored in that table entry; this is Linux's system call handler
 - for open, the handler is named sys_open, and is system call #5

	0xFFFF	FFFF				
	linux-gate.so					
SP → IP →	Linux kernel	kernel stack	your progra	am		
	sta	ck			andard orary glik	POS)C
				•		
	shared libraries					
			- Vir-			
	heap (malloc/free) read/write segment . <i>data, .bss</i>		arc	hitectu	re-indepen	dent code
			aro	chitect	ure-depend	ent code
	read-only <i>.text, .r</i>	-				Linux ke
			priv		CPU	
	0x0000	00000	CSE	333 lec 6 s	syscall fio // 04-12	2-13 // Perkins

POSIX

Linux kernel



SP -> IP ->

Eventually, the system call handler finishes

- returns back to the system call entry point
 - places the system call's return value in the appropriate register
 - calls SYSEXIT to return to the user-level code

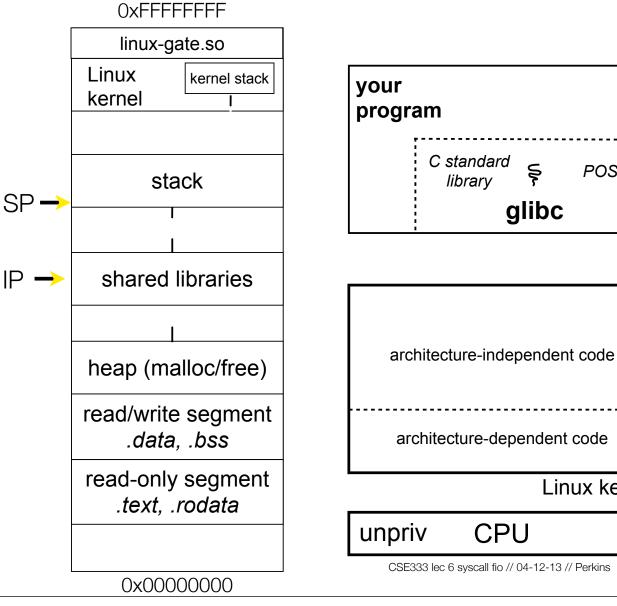
OxFFFFFFF	
linux-gate.so	
Linux kernel stack kernel	your program
stack	C standard library glibc
I	
shared libraries	
l heap (malloc/free)	architecture-independent code
read/write segment .data, .bss	s architecture-dependent code
read-only segment .text, .rodata	Linux ke
	priv CPU
0x0000000	CSE333 lec 6 syscall fio // 04-12-13 // Perkins

POSIX

Linux kernel

SYSEXIT transitions the processor back to usermode code

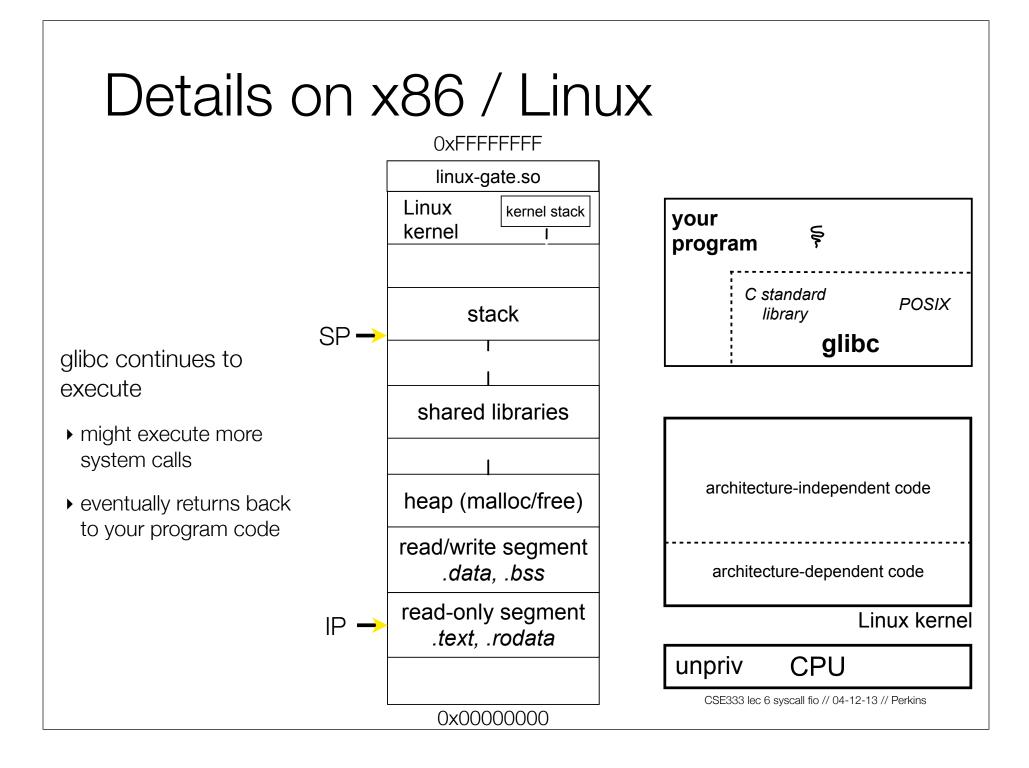
- has several side-effects
 - restores the IP, SP to user-land values
 - sets the CPU back to unprivileged mode
 - changes some segmentation related registers (see cse451)
- returns the processor back to glibc



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POSIX

Linux kernel



If you're curious

Download the Linux kernel source code

- get version 2.6.34.8
- available from http://www.kernel.org/

Take a look at:

- arch/x86/kernel/syscall_table_32.S [system call table]
- arch/x86/kernel/entry_32.S [SYSENTER entry point and more]
- arch/x86/vdso/vdso32/sysenter.S [user-land vdso]

And: <u>http://articles.manugarg.com/systemcallinlinux2_6.html</u>

Also...

man, section 2: Linux system calls

- man 2 intro
- man 2 syscalls (or look online here)

man, section 3: glibc / libc library functions

- man 3 intro (or look online here)

The book: The Linux Programming Interface by Michael Kerrisk (keeper of the Linux man pages)

- If you want a copy: go to the book web site (man7.org/tlpl), get discount code there, then order from the publisher
 - Book + ebook for cost of printed copy from Amazon CSE333 lec 6 syscall fio // 04-12-13 // Perkins

strace

A useful Linux utility that shows the sequence of system calls that a process makes:

bash\$ strace ls 2>&1 | less

```
[005c7424] execve("/bin/ls", ["ls"], [/* 47 vars */]) = 0
[003caffd] brk(0)
                                        = 0 \times 9376000
[003cc3c3] mmap2(NULL, 4096, PROT READ|PROT WRITE, MAP PRIVATE|MAP ANONYMOUS, -1, 0) =
0xb7800000
[003cc2c1] access("/etc/ld.so.preload", R OK) = -1 ENOENT (No such file or directory)
[003cc184] open("/etc/ld.so.cache", O RDONLY) = 3
[003cc14e] fstat64(3, {st mode=S IFREG|0644, st size=92504, ...}) = 0
[003cc3c3] mmap2(NULL, 92504, PROT READ, MAP PRIVATE, 3, 0) = 0xb77e9000
[003cc1bd] close(3)
[003cc184] open("/lib/libselinux.so.1", O RDONLY) = 3
[003cc204] read(3, "\177ELF\1\1\1\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\3\0\3\0\1\0\0\"..., 512) = 512
[003cc14e] fstat64(3, {st mode=S IFREG|0755, st size=122420, ...}) = 0
[003cc3c3] mmap2(0x6d6000, 125948, PROT READ|PROT EXEC, MAP PRIVATE|MAP DENYWRITE, 3, 0) =
0x6d6000
[003cc3c3] mmap2(0x6f3000, 8192, PROT READ|PROT WRITE, MAP PRIVATE|MAP FIXED|MAP
DENYWRITE, 3, 0x1c) = 0x6f3000
[003cc1bd] close(3)
                                         = 0
[003cc184] open("/lib/librt.so.1", O RDONLY) = 3
[003cc204] read(3, "\177ELF\1\1\1\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\3\0\3\0\1\0\0\0\200X[\0004\0\0\0"...,
512) = 512
... etc.
```

strace

A useful Linux utility that shows the sequence of system calls that a process makes:

```
bash$ strace ls 2>&1 | less
[00110424] open(".", O RDONLY|O NONBLOCK|O LARGEFILE|O DIRECTORY|O CLOEXEC) = 3
                                        = \overline{0}x1 (flags FD CLOEXEC)
[00110424] fcnt164(3, F GETFD)
[00110424] getdents64(3, /* 6 entries */, 32768) = 184
[00110424] getdents64(3, /* 0 entries */, 32768) = 0
[00110424] close(3)
                                        = 0
[00110424] fstat64(1, {st mode=S IFIF0|0600, st size=0, ...}) = 0
[00110424] mmap2(NULL, 4096, PROT READ|PROT WRITE, MAP PRIVATE|MAP ANONYMOUS, -1, 0) =
0xb77ff000
[00110424] write(1, "bomstrip.py\nmountlaptop.sh\nteste"..., 43
bomstrip.py
mountlaptop.sh
tester
tester.c
) = 43
[00110424] close(1)
                                        = 0
[00110424] munmap(0xb77ff000, 4096)
                                        = 0
[00110424] close(2)
                                        = 0
[00110424] exit group(0)
                                        = ?
```

Let's do some file I/O...

We'll start by using C's standard library

- these functions are implemented in glibc on Linux
- they are implemented using Linux system calls

C's stdio defines the notion of a stream

- a stream is a way of reading or writing a sequence of characters from/to a device
 - a stream can be either *text* or *binary;* Linux does not distinguish
 - a stream is *buffered* by default; libc reads ahead of you
 - three streams are provided by default: **stdin**, **stdout**, **stderr**
 - you can open additional streams to read/write to files

Using C streams

```
printf(...) is equivalent
#include <stdio.h>
                                             fread example.c
                                                                   to fprintf(stdout, ...)
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <errno.h>
#define READBUFSIZE 128
int main(int argc, char **argv) {
  FILE *f;
  char readbuf[READBUFSIZE];
  size t readlen;
                                                                    stderr is a stream for
                                                                    printing error output
  if (argc != 2) {
    fprintf(stderr, "usage: ./fread example filename\n");
                                                                 to a console
    return EXIT FAILURE; // defined in stdlib.h
  }
                                                                    fopen opens a
  // Open, read, and print the file
                                                                     stream to read or
  f = fopen(argv[1], "rb"); // "rb" --> read, binary mode
                                                                 ← write a file
  if (f == NULL) {
    fprintf(stderr, "%s -- ", argv[1]);
                                                                     perror writes a string
    perror("fopen failed -- ");
    return EXIT FAILURE;
                                                                    describing the last
  }
                                                                    error to stderr
  // Read from the file, write to stdout.
  while ((readlen = fread(readbuf, 1, READBUFSIZE, f)) > 0)
                                                                 stdout is for printing
    fwrite(readbuf, 1, readlen, stdout);
                                                                    non-error output to
  fclose(f);
  return EXIT SUCCESS; // defined in stdlib.h
                                                                    the console
                                                                2333 lec 6 syscall fio // 04-12-13 // Perkins
```

Writing is easy too

see cp_example.c

A gotcha

By default, stdio turns on *buffering* for streams

- data written by fwrite() is copied into a buffer allocated by stdio inside your process's address space
- at some point, the buffer will be drained into the destination
 - when you call fflush() on the stream
 - when the buffer size is exceeded (often 1024 or 4096 bytes)
 - for stdout to a console, when a newline is written ("line buffered")
 - when you call fclose() on the stream
 - when your process exits gracefully (exit() or return from main())

Why is this a gotcha?

What happens if...

- your computer loses power before the buffer is flushed?
- your program assumes data is written to a file, and it signals another program to read it?

What are the performance implications?

- data is *copied* into the stdio buffer
 - consumes CPU cycles and memory bandwidth
 - can potentially slow down high performance applications, like a web server or database ("zero copy")

What to do about it

Turn off buffering with setbuf()

- this, too, may cause performance problems
 - e.g., if your program does many small fwrite()'s, each of which will now trigger a system call into the Linux kernel

Use a different set of system calls

- POSIX provides open(), read(), write(), close(), and others
- no buffering is done at the user level

but...what about the layers below?

- the OS caches disk reads and writes in the FS *buffer cache*
- disk controllers have caches too!

Exercise 1

Write a program that:

- uses argc/argv to receive the name of a text file
- reads the contents of the file a line at a time
- parses each line, converting text into a uint32_t
- builds an array of the parsed uint32_t's
- sorts the array
- prints the sorted array to stdout
 - hints: use "man" to read about getline, sscanf, realloc, and qsort

bash\$ cat in.txt 1213 3231 000005 52 bash\$ ex1 in.txt 5 52 1213 3231 bash\$

Exercise 2

Write a program that:

- loops forever; in each loop, it:
 - prompts the user to input a filename
 - reads from stdin to receive a filename
 - opens and reads the file, and prints its contents to stdout, in the format shown on the right
- hints:
 - use "man" to read about fgets
 - or if you're more courageous, try "man 3 readline" to learn about libreadline.a, and google to learn how to link to it

See you on Monday!