

LECTURE 7 · CSE 333 · Summer 2026

System Calls; Intro to C++



Discussion: What incentives do students have to cheat? In what ways are they reasonable?

Reminders

Assessments:

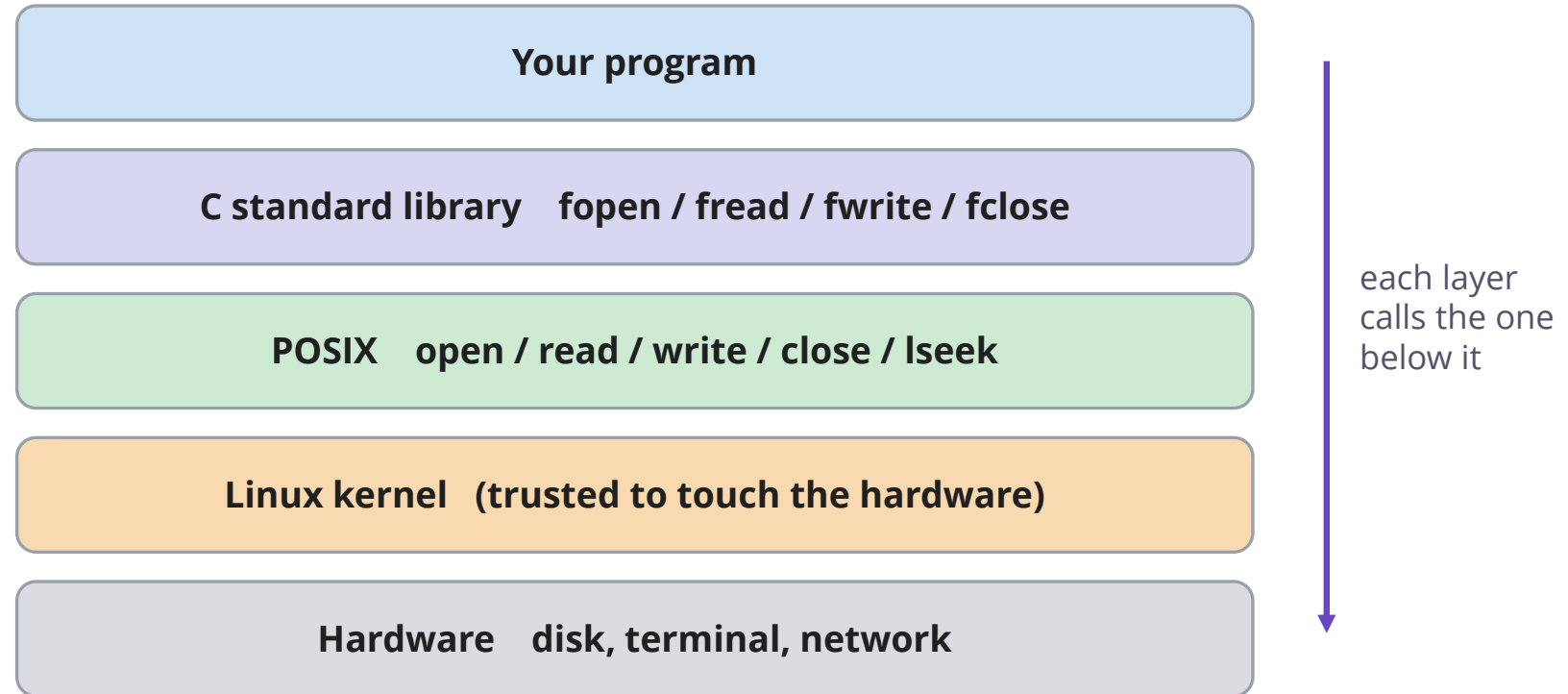
- Exercise 4 will be released today!
 - Due on Thursday at 11:59pm
 - Includes C and C++
- HW2 will be released early next week

General:

- C++
- Exams are scheduled
 - Midterm (7/27) from 9:40am to 10:40am in IEB G106
 - Final exam (8/18) from 1:30pm to 3:30pm in CSE2 G10

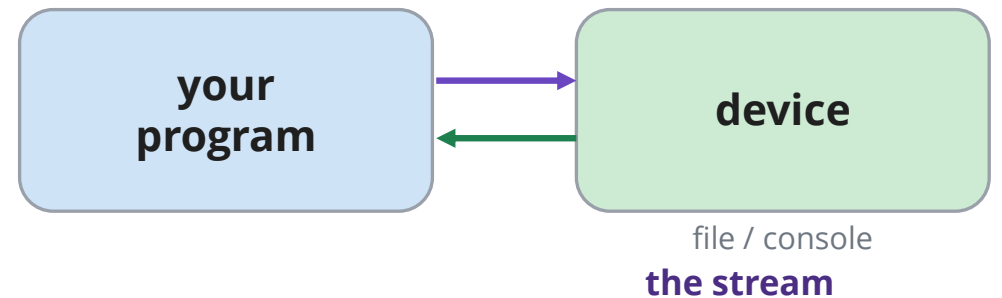
Review

The I/O software stack



Streams

- ❖ **A stream is a sequence of bytes** flowing to or from a device.
- ❖ The device can be anything: a file, the console, or a pipe. Same idea for all of them.
- ❖ Text or binary: it is all just bytes; Linux does not distinguish.
- ❖ **You do not read the whole file at once.** Bytes flow through the stream a chunk at a time.



fopen: open a file, get a stream

```
1 FILE* fopen(const char* filename, const char* mode);
```

```
1 FILE* fp = fopen("notes.txt", "r");
```

- ❖ **filename** is the path to the file you want.
- ❖ **mode** says what you intend to do: read, write, or append (next slide).
- ❖ Returns a **FILE*** you use for everything after, or **NULL** if it could not open.

Writing text: fprintf

```
1 int fprintf(FILE* stream, const char* fmt, ...);
```

```
1 fprintf(fp, "Score: %d\n", 42);  
2 fprintf(stderr, "Your program has crashed!\n");
```

- ❖ **It is just printf with a stream in front.** Same format string, same %-conversions.
- ❖ **In fact: `printf(...)` is exactly `fprintf(stdout, ...)`.**
- ❖ Great for human-readable output: logs, reports, CSV, config.

fclose: always close what you open

```
1 int fclose(FILE* stream);
```

- ❖ **Every fopen deserves an fclose.** You are done with the stream; hand it back.
- ❖ **Closing flushes buffered writes** to the file (more on buffering later), so the last bytes actually land.
- ❖ It frees resources. Open files are limited; leaking them is a real bug.
- ❖ Returns 0 on success, **EOF** on error.

The smallest complete program

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2  #include <stdlib.h>
3
4  int main() {
5      FILE* fp = fopen("notes.txt", "w");
6      if (fp == NULL) {
7          fprintf(stderr, "cannot open\n");
8          return EXIT_FAILURE;
9      }
10     fclose(fp);
11     return EXIT_SUCCESS;
12 }
```

❖ **Open, check, close.**

❖ mode "w" creates an empty notes.txt but not all modes will do that.

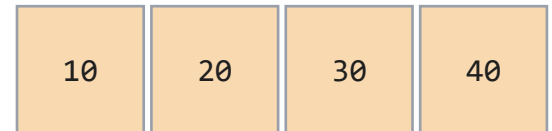
❖ **Everything else** goes between the open and the close.

Writing raw bytes: fwrite

```
1  size_t fwrite(ptr, size, count, stream);
```

```
1  int a[4] = {10, 20, 30, 40};  
2  fwrite(a, sizeof(int), 4, fp);
```

count = 4 items



each size = 4 bytes

- ❖ Writes **count** items of **size** bytes each: here 4 ints, 16 bytes total.
- ❖ Use it for binary data: arrays, structs, whole buffers, in one call.
- ❖ Returns the number of items written (should be count; less means trouble).

Reading raw bytes: fread

```
1  size_t fread(ptr, size, count, stream);
```

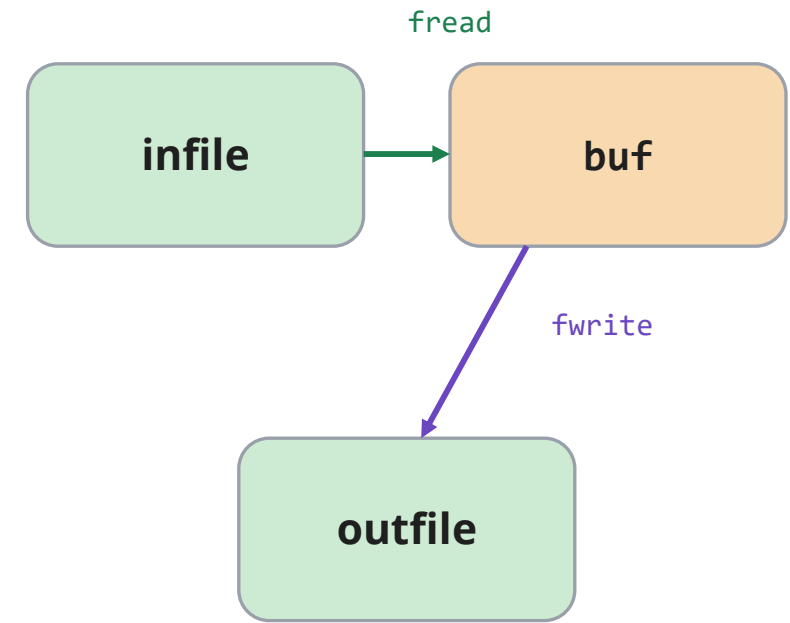
```
1  int a[4];  
2  size_t got = fread(a, sizeof(int), 4, fp);
```

- ❖ **The exact mirror of fwrite:** same ptr, size, count, stream.
- ❖ Copies bytes from the stream into your buffer at ptr.
- ❖ **Returns how many items it actually read.** Fewer than count means end-of-file (or an error), so always check **got**.

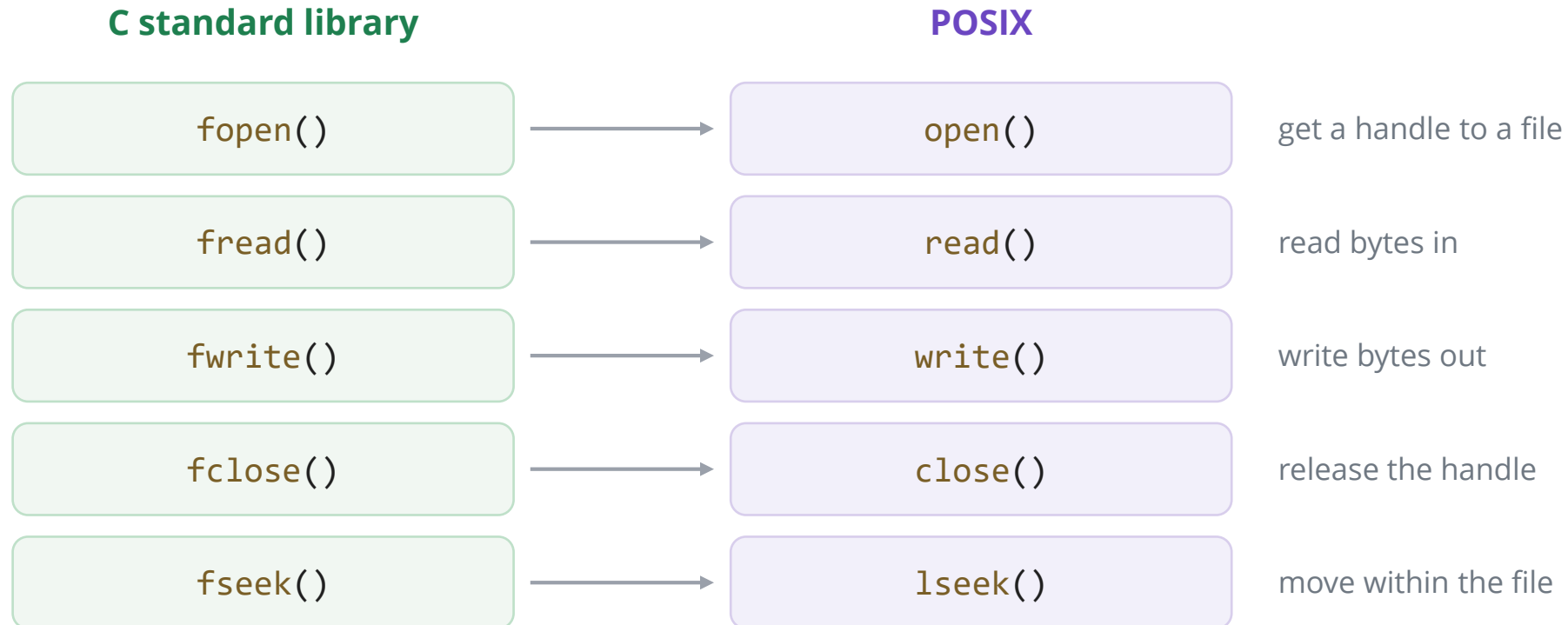
Example: copying a file

cp_example.c

```
1 FILE* fin = fopen(argv[1], "rb");
2 if (fin == NULL) { return EXIT_FAILURE; }
3 FILE* fout = fopen(argv[2], "wb");
4 if (fout == NULL) {
5     fclose(fin);
6     return EXIT_FAILURE;
7 }
8 while ((n = fread(buf, 1, SIZE, fin)) > 0) {
9     fwrite(buf, 1, n, fout);
10 }
11 fclose(fin);
12 fclose(fout);
13 return EXIT_SUCCESS;
```



From C streams to POSIX calls



Same jobs, but POSIX is **lower level, unbuffered, and less convenient**. No `FILE*`, no automatic buffer, and you handle more edge cases yourself.

open / close and file descriptors

opening a file

```
1  #include <fcntl.h>    // open()
2  #include <unistd.h>   // close()
3
4  int fd = open("foo.txt", O_RDONLY);
5  if (fd == -1) {
6      perror("open failed");
7      exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
8  }
9  // ... use fd ...
10 close(fd);
```

- ❖ You get back a **file descriptor**: a small **int**, not a `FILE*`.
- ❖ **-1** means the open failed (check `errno`).

file descriptor table (per process)

0	stdin
1	stdout
2	stderr
3	foo.txt

← open
returned 3

0, 1, 2 are already open for every process: stdin, stdout, stderr. Your first open gets the lowest free number, 3.

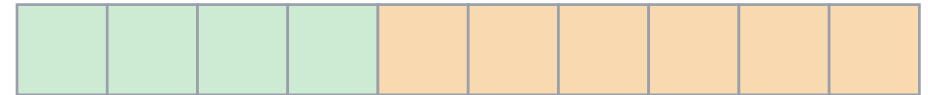
Reading exactly n bytes

readN.c

```
1  int bytes_left = n;
2  while (bytes_left > 0) {
3      result = read(fd, buf + (n - bytes_left), bytes_left);
4      if (result == -1) {
5          if (errno != EINTR) break;    // a real error
6          continue;                  // EINTR: just retry
7      } else if (result == 0) {
8          break;                      // EOF
9      }
10     bytes_left -= result;
11 }
```

buf as the loop runs (n = 10):

buf (size n = 10)



buf + (n - bytes_left)

bytes_left = 6 green = read, orange = todo

First read returns 4 (a short read). Those 4 bytes land at the front, and the cursor moves to buf + 4. bytes_left drops from 10 to 6.

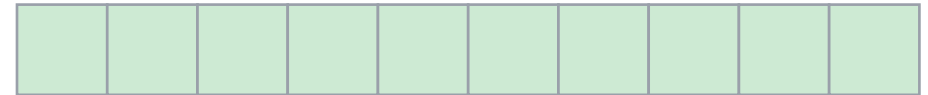
Reading exactly n bytes

readN.c

```
1  int bytes_left = n;
2  while (bytes_left > 0) {
3      result = read(fd, buf + (n - bytes_left), bytes_left);
4      if (result == -1) {
5          if (errno != EINTR) break;    // a real error
6          continue;                    // EINTR: just retry
7      } else if (result == 0) {
8          break;                        // EOF
9      }
10     bytes_left -= result;
11 }
```

buf as the loop runs (n = 10):

buf (size n = 10)



buf + (n - bytes_left)

bytes_left = 0 green = read, orange = todo

Later reads fill the rest. When bytes_left hits 0 the loop ends and buf holds all n bytes, assembled from however many reads it took.

write()

```
1 ssize_t write(int fd, const void* buf, size_t count);
```

WriteAll: write all n bytes

```
1 int bytes_left = n;
2 while (bytes_left > 0) {
3     result = write(fd, buf + (n - bytes_left), bytes_left);
4     if (result == -1) {
5         if (errno != EINTR) break;    // a real error
6         continue;                   // EINTR: just retry
7     }
8     bytes_left -= result;
9 }
```

❖ **write can be short too.** It may accept fewer bytes than you handed it, especially to pipes and sockets.

❖ **Same approach as reading:** loop, advance by what actually got written, retry on EINTR.

❖ No EOF case. Writing does not hit end-of-file, so the loop is a touch simpler than read's.

❖ **Learn this pattern once.** ReadAll and WriteAll show up all over systems code (and HW2).

What's the difference?

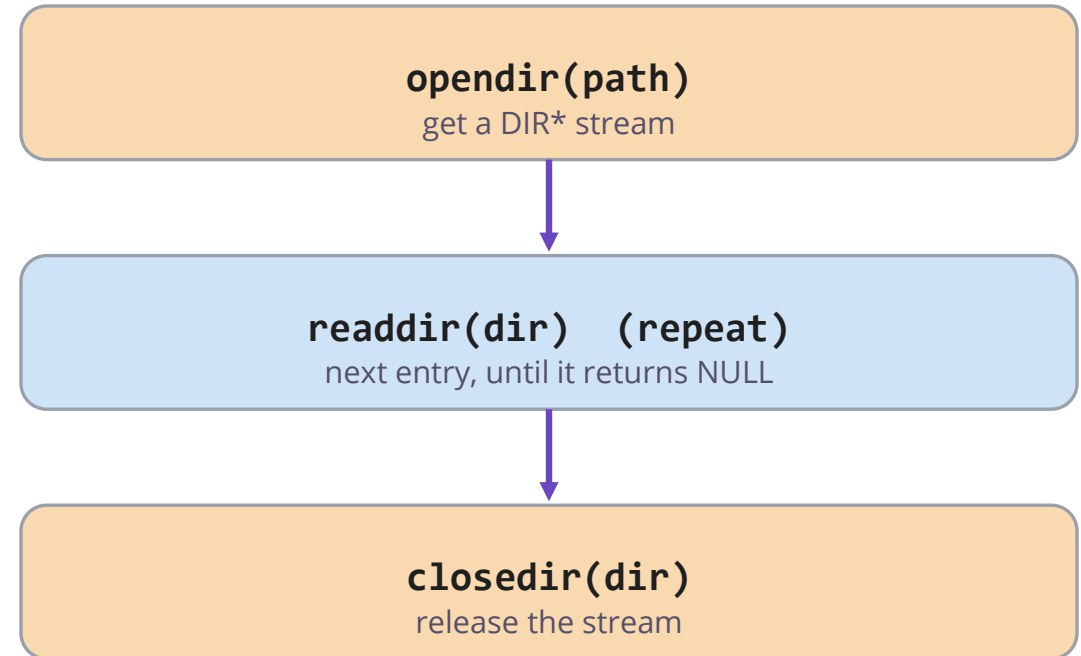
```
1 FILE* fp = fopen("out.txt", "w");  
2 fwrite("hi", 1, 2, fp); // returns 2  
3 // the power cuts out right here
```

```
1 int fd = open("foo.txt", O_RDONLY);  
2 char* data = "hi";  
3 write(fd, "hi", strlen(data)); // returns 2  
// the power cuts out right here
```

Section Review

A directory is just a special file

- ❖ A directory is a file whose contents are a list of entries (names plus some metadata)
- ❖ So POSIX gives you directory calls that mirror open / read / close
- ❖ **You do not read the bytes yourself:** the library hands you one entry at a time



opendir(): get a directory stream

```
1 DIR* opendir(const char* name);
```

- ❖ **name** is the directory to open; relative or absolute paths both work
 - A trailing '/' is allowed but not required
- ❖ **Returns a DIR***, a handle to the directory stream (like FILE* for a file)
- ❖ **On error returns NULL** and sets errno

readdir(): one entry at a time

```
1 struct dirent* readdir(DIR* dirp);
```

- ❖ **dirp** is the stream to read from
- ❖ **Returns a struct dirent*** for the next entry in the directory
- ❖ **Returns NULL** at the end of the stream, or on error
 - So the usual loop is: call readdir until it returns NULL
- ❖ Each call advances to the next entry; you do not index into it

struct dirent

```
1 struct dirent {  
2     ino_t      d_ino;      // inode number  
3     off_t      d_off;      // not really an offset  
4     unsigned short d_reclen; // length of this record  
5     unsigned char d_type;   // file type (see note)  
6     char        d_name[NAME_MAX + 1]; // the name  
7 };
```

- ❖ **d_name** is what you almost always want
- ❖ The rest is bookkeeping the kernel uses

d_type is probably not what you think (not a file extension)

- ❖ **It is the entry's file type** (DT_REG, DT_DIR, DT_LNK, ...), not a general field. Not every filesystem fills it in; it can be DT_UNKNOWN, in which case use stat() to find the type.

closedir(): release the stream

```
1  int closedir(DIR* dirp);
```

- ❖ **dirp** is the directory stream to close
- ❖ **Returns 0** on success, **-1** on error (errno set)
- ❖ **Always close what you opened**, just like fclose

Example: list a directory

```
1  #include <dirent.h>    // opendir, readdir, closedir
2  #include <...>
3
4  int main(int argc, char** argv) {
5      DIR* dir = opendir(argv[1]);
6      if (dir == NULL) {
7          perror("opendir");
8          return EXIT_FAILURE;
9      }
10
11     struct dirent* entry;
12     while ((entry = readdir(dir)) != NULL) {
13         printf("%s\n", entry->d_name);
14     }
15     closedir(dir);
16     return EXIT_SUCCESS;
17 }
```

❖ Open the directory named on the command line

❖ **Guard the NULL:** report with perror and bail out

❖ Next: loop over the entries and print each name

Example: list a directory

```
1  #include <dirent.h>    // opendir, readdir, closedir
2  #include <...>
3
4  int main(int argc, char** argv) {
5      DIR* dir = opendir(argv[1]);
6      if (dir == NULL) {
7          perror("opendir");
8          return EXIT_FAILURE;
9      }
10
11     struct dirent* entry;
12     while ((entry = readdir(dir)) != NULL) {
13         printf("%s\n", entry->d_name);
14     }
15     closedir(dir);
16     return EXIT_SUCCESS;
17 }
```

- ❖ readdir in the loop condition: stop when it returns NULL
- ❖ **Print entry->d_name** each time
- ❖ Then closedir to release the stream

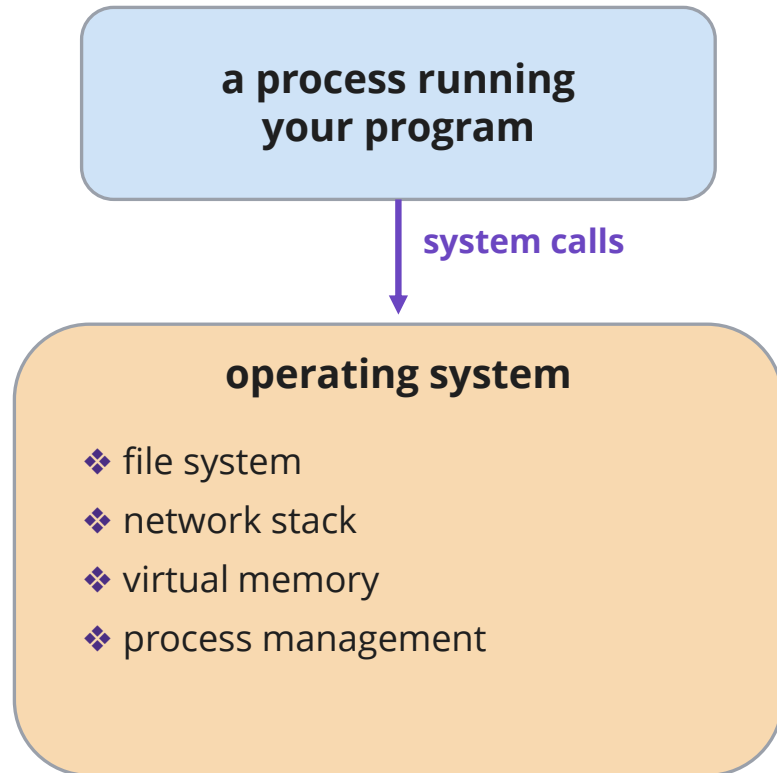
```
$ ./list .
$ .
$ ..
$ list.c
$ Makefile
```

System Calls

What is an operating system?

- ❖ **Talks to the hardware.** The OS is trusted to drive devices directly; your program is not. It is also what gets ported to new hardware, so your program stays portable.
- ❖ **Manages the resources.** It allocates, schedules, and protects the CPU, memory, disk, and screen, and decides which program gets what and when.
- ❖ **Abstracts the mess.** Raw devices are ugly and all different. The OS hides them behind clean, portable ideas like files and disk blocks.

The OS offers an API



File system

`open()`, `read()`, `write()`, `close()`, ...

Network stack

`connect()`, `listen()`, `read()`, `write()`, ...

Virtual memory

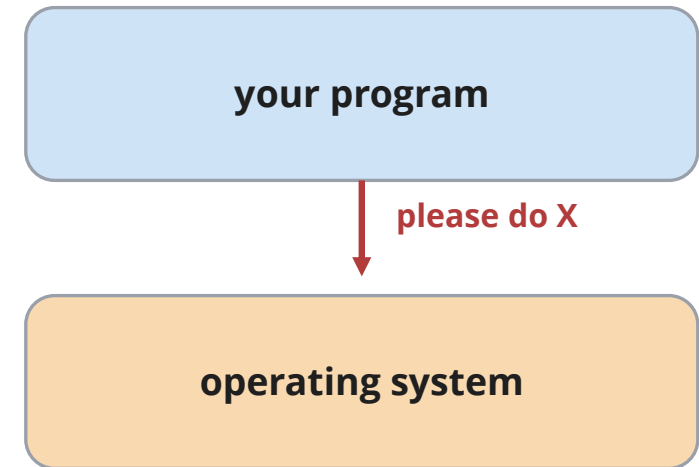
`brk()`, `mmap()`, `shm_open()`, ...

Process mgmt.

`fork()`, `wait()`, `exec()`, `nice()`, ...

What is a system call?

- ❖ **Your program cannot touch the hardware directly.** Not the disk, not the network card, not the screen.
- ❖ When it needs one of those, it asks the operating system to do it. That request is a **system call**.
- ❖ Think of a bank teller: you cannot walk into the vault, so you hand over a slip and wait while they fetch what you asked for.
- ❖ **read and write are exactly this.** Today we open the hood and watch one request happen.



Syscalls are everywhere

```
1  int main() {  
2      printf("hello\n");  
3      return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
4  }
```

```
$ strace ./hello  
$ execve("./hello", ...) = 0  
$ brk(NULL) = ...  
$ mmap(..., MAP_ANON, ...) = ...  
$ openat(..., "libc.so.6", ...) = 3  
$ read(3, "\177ELF...", 832) = 832  
$ write(1, "hello\n", 6) = 6  
$ exit_group(0) = ?
```

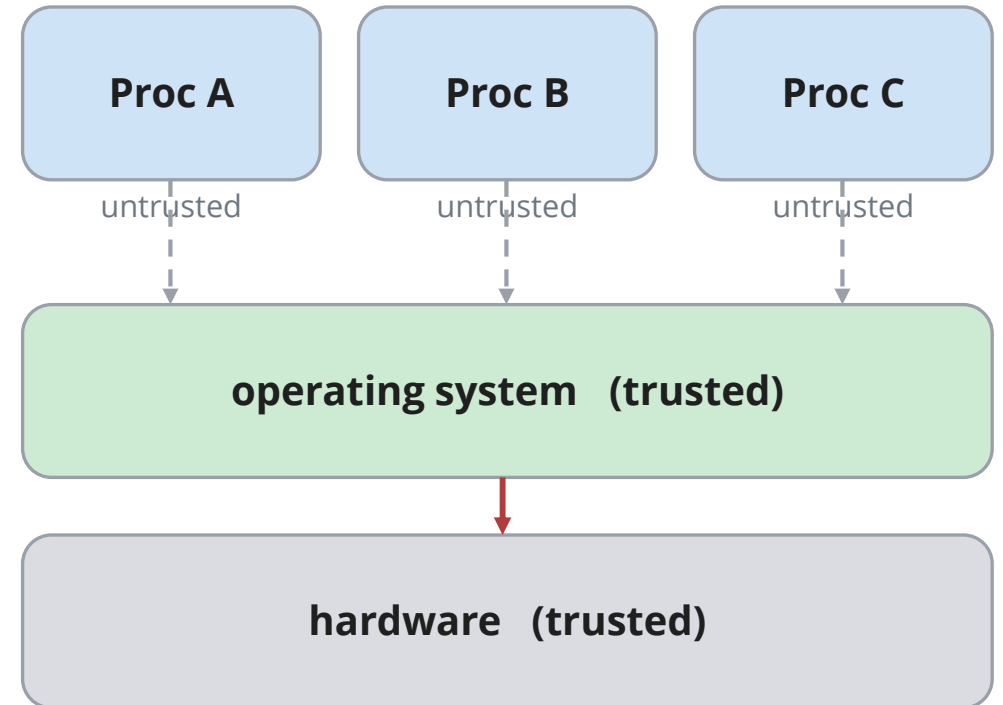
- ❖ **strace** lists every system call a process makes.
- ❖ Your one `printf` becomes a single **`write(1, ...)`**, the highlighted line.
- ❖ All the noise above it is startup: mapping memory and loading the C library, itself done with syscalls.
- ❖ **Every interaction with the outside world** (files, console, network, memory, processes) goes through a system call.

Why not touch the hardware directly?

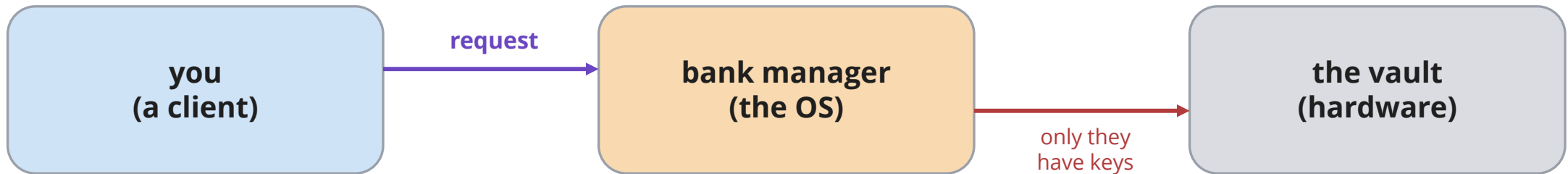
- ❖ Your program knows exactly what it wants: write these bytes to that disk.
- ❖ **So why can't it just run the instruction** that talks to the disk itself, and skip asking the OS?
- ❖ **What would go wrong** if every program could drive the hardware directly?

Two CPU modes: user and kernel

- ❖ **User code runs unprivileged.** The CPU is in a restricted mode; hardware-touching instructions are forbidden.
- ❖ **The OS runs privileged.** Only it may talk to devices directly.
- ❖ **Isolation.** The OS keeps processes out of each other's memory, with controlled sharing through names like files.
- ❖ **The only door in** is a system call, which safely switches the CPU into privileged mode inside the OS.

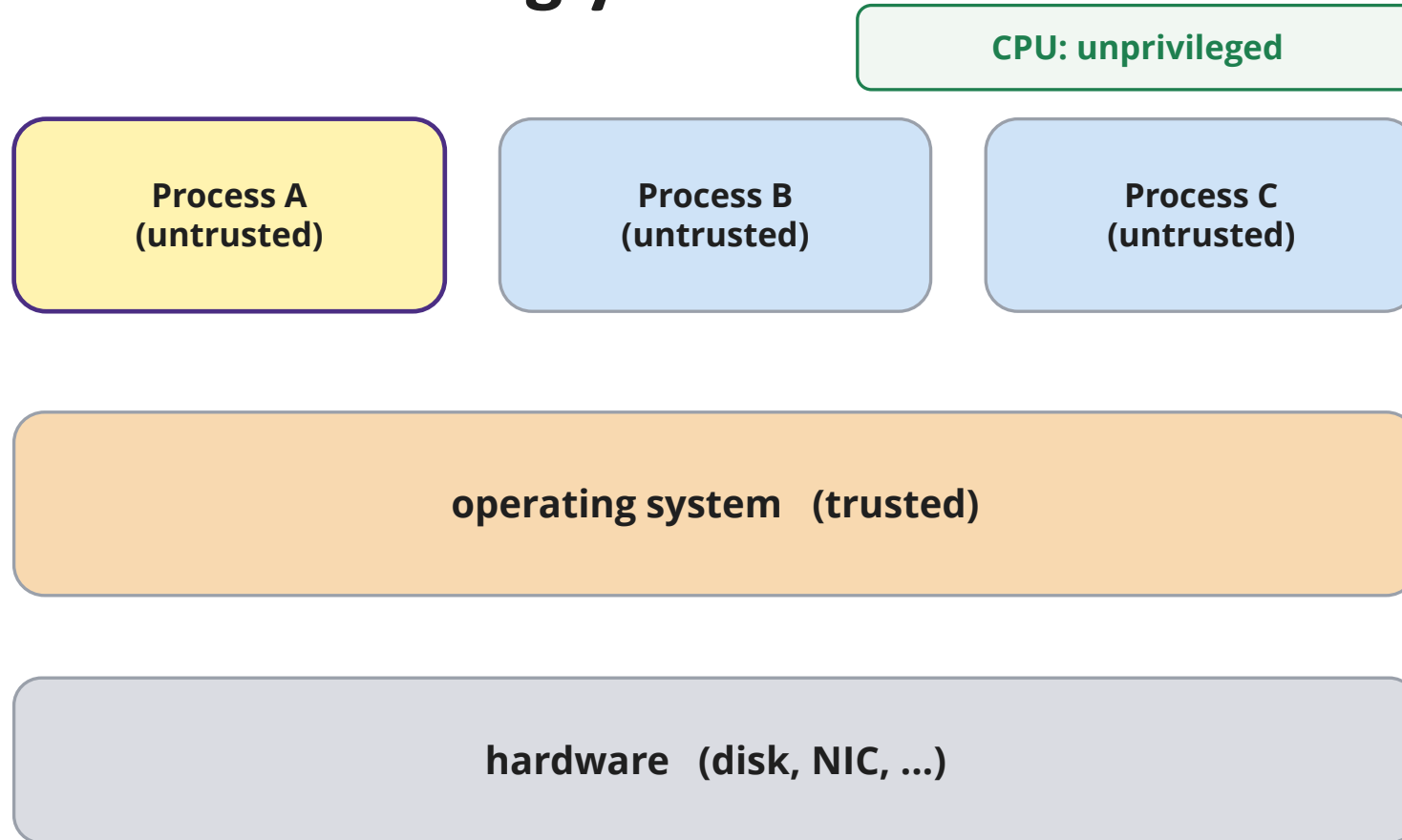


Analogy: the bank vault



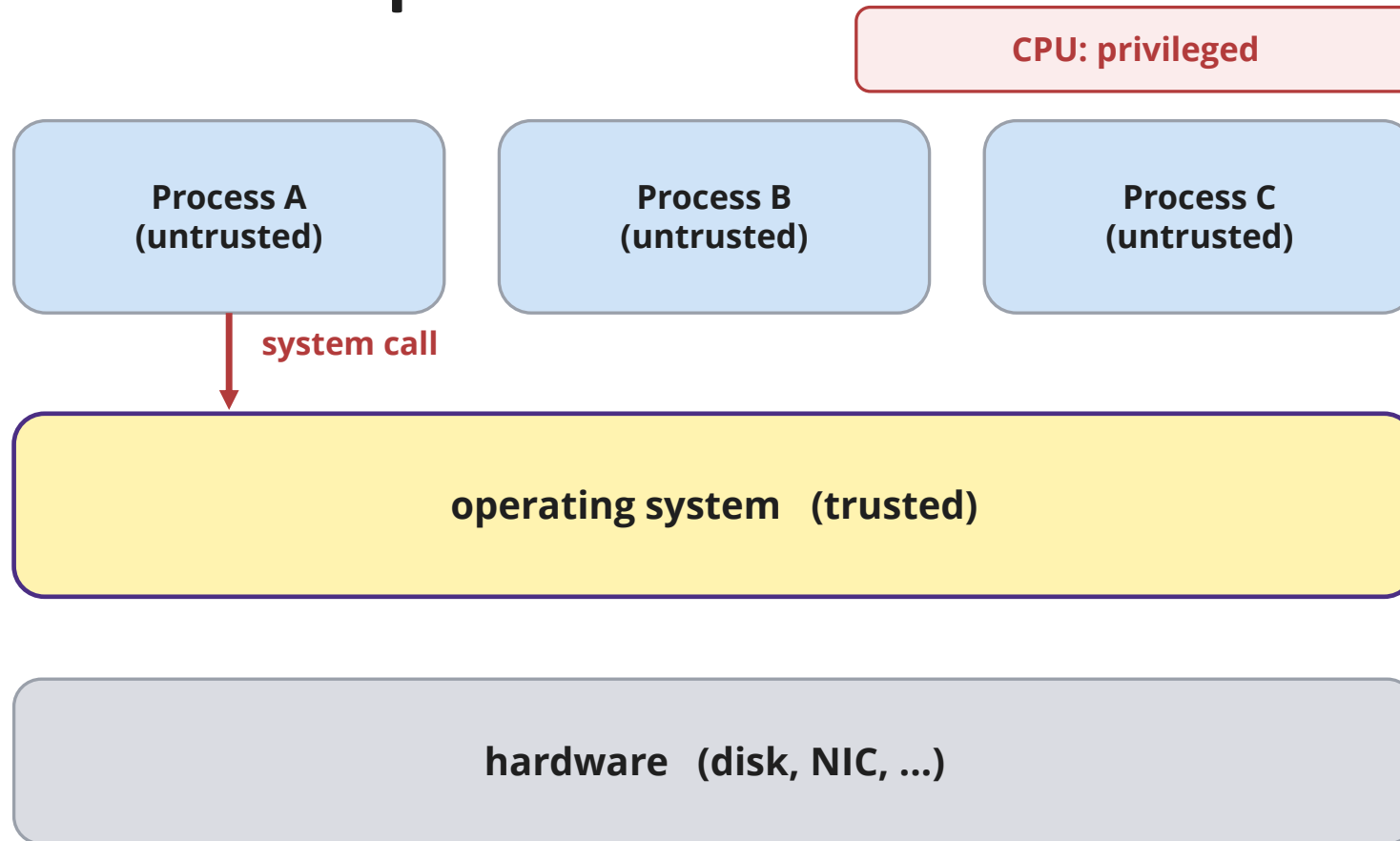
- ❖ **You cannot enter the vault.** Only the manager has the keys, just as only the OS may touch the hardware.
- ❖ You ask; they fetch. You wait in the lobby while the manager goes to your box, which keeps you from messing with other boxes.
- ❖ **It takes time.** Walking to the vault, finding the key, and coming back is overhead, exactly like the cost of a system call.

System call trace: Running your code



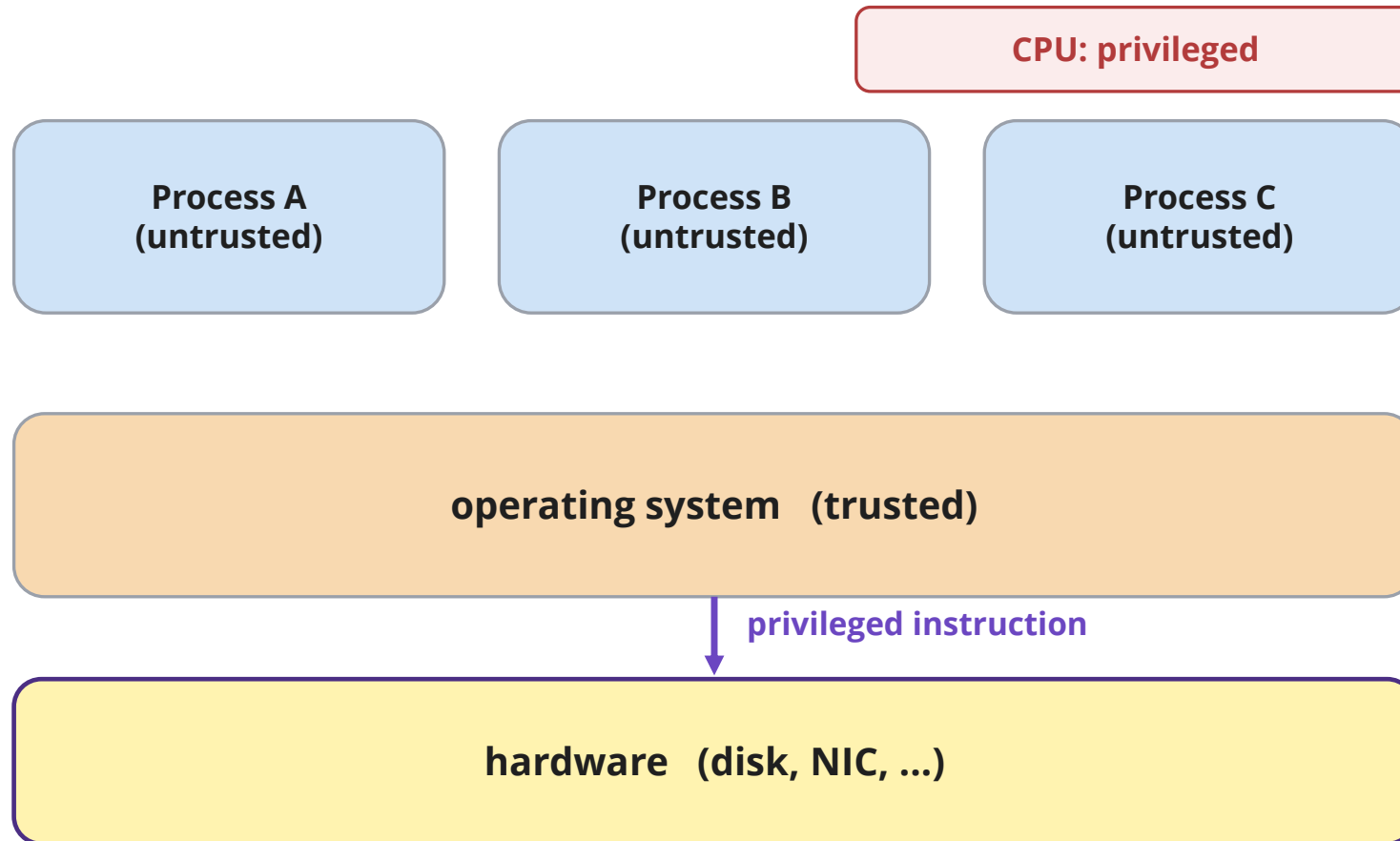
A CPU is running user-level code in Process A. The CPU is in unprivileged mode, so it cannot touch hardware directly.

System call trace: Trap into the OS



Process A invokes a system call. The hardware switches the CPU to privileged mode and traps into the OS, which runs the matching system-call handler.

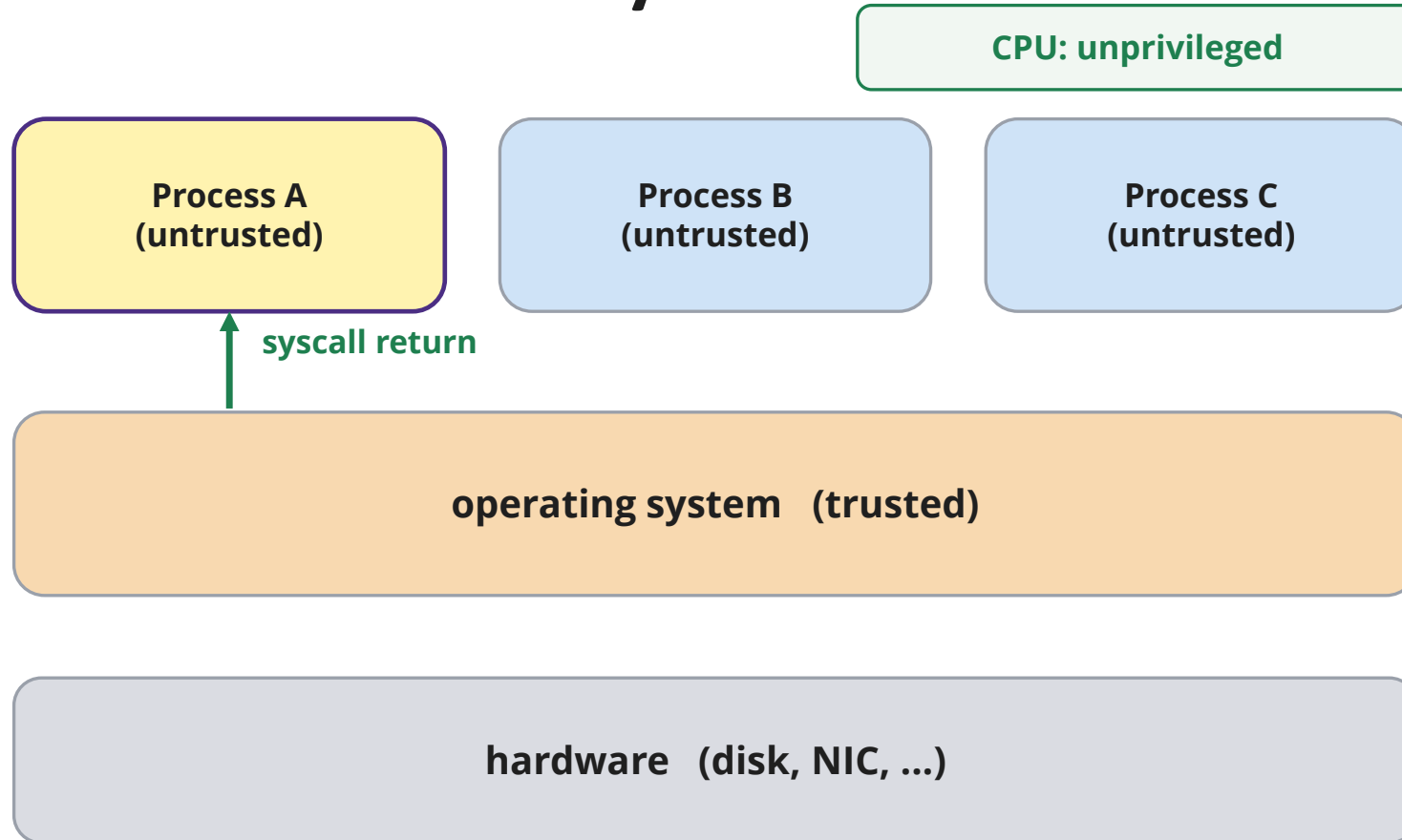
System call trace: The OS drives the hardware



Because the CPU is now privileged, the OS can run privileged instructions that talk directly to hardware, like the disk.

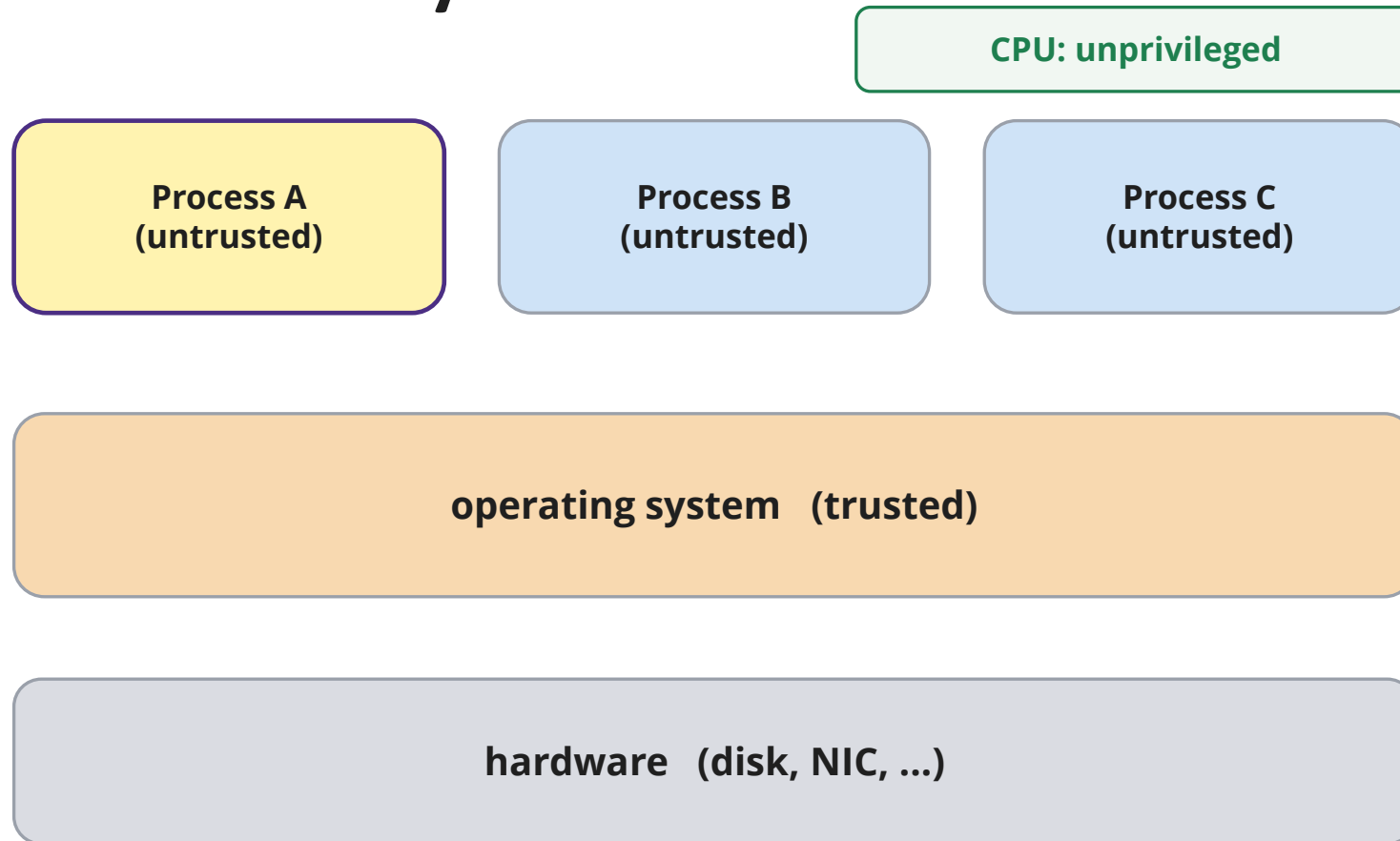
This is the slow part: hardware waits can be long, so the OS may run another process meanwhile.

System call trace: Return to your code



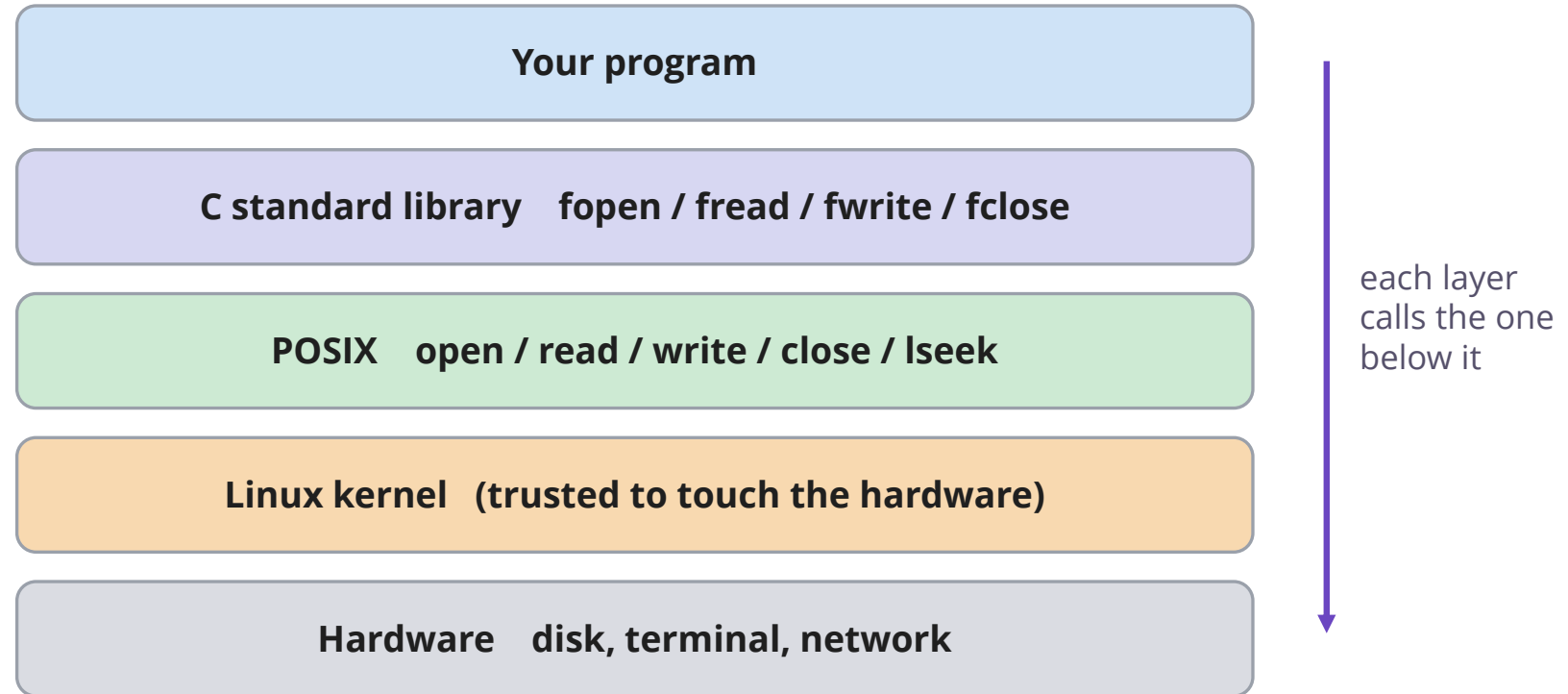
When the handler finishes (possibly after a long hardware wait), the OS sets the CPU back to unprivileged mode and returns into Process A's code.

System call trace: Carry on



Process A carries on with whatever code came after the system call, none the wiser about the mode switches that happened.

The I/O software stack



Intro to C++

Today: get to hello world, and contrast with C

- ❖ **Goal:** a first, practical look at C++, enough to read and write it. Not mastery, and not objects yet
- ❖ We write the smallest C++ program and line it up against the C you already know
- ❖ Next week, we will dive deeper into the trickier semantics of C++

Hello World in C

```
1  #include <stdio.h>    // for printf
2  #include <stdlib.h>   // for EXIT_SUCCESS
3
4  int main(int argc, char** argv) {
5      printf("Hello, World!\n");
6      return EXIT_SUCCESS;
7  }
```

```
$ gcc -Wall -g -std=c17 -o hello hello.c
```

- ❖ The C you already know, compiled with gcc
- ❖ **Reminder:** that printf becomes a write system call
- ❖ Now let's write the exact same thing in C++

Hello World in C++

```
1  #include <iostream>    // for cout, endl
2  #include <cstdlib>      // for EXIT_SUCCESS
3
4  int main(int argc, char** argv) {
5      std::cout << "Hello, World!" << std::endl;
6      return EXIT_SUCCESS;
7  }
```

❖ What changed?

```
$ g++ -Wall -g -std=c++17 -o hello hello.cc
```

Hello World in C++

```
1  #include <iostream>    // for cout, endl
2  #include <cstdlib>      // for EXIT_SUCCESS
3
4  int main(int argc, char** argv) {
5      std::cout << "Hello, World!" << std::endl;
6      return EXIT_SUCCESS;
7  }
```

- ❖ **Compile with g++**, and the file is **.cc**
- ❖ **Different include** (iostream), and a new-looking output line
- ❖ Same program, so let's compare the two side by side

```
$ g++ -Wall -g -std=c++17 -o hello hello.cc
```

C vs C++ at a glance

	C	C++
compiler	gcc	g++
source file	hello.c	hello.cc
I/O header	#include <stdio.h>	#include <iostream>
print	printf("%d\n", x);	cout << x << endl;
read	scanf("%d", &x);	cin >> x;
strings	char* + <string.h>	std::string
booleans	int flags / macros	bool (built in)

cout: printing in C++

```
1  int x = 5;
2  std::cout << "x is " << x << std::endl;
3  // chain values with <<, left to right
4  // endl adds a newline and flushes
```

- ❖ **cout** is C++'s stdout, in namespace **std**
- ❖ Chain as many values as you like with <<
- ❖ No % format string to get wrong

In C, you had to...

- ❖ `printf("%d %s", n, name);`
- ❖ Pick the right %-specifier for each type
- ❖ **Wrong specifier** = garbage or a crash

In C++, you get...

- ❖ `cout << n << " " << name;`
- ❖ No format string at all
- ❖ **Type-safe**: the right output for each type

std::string: a real string type

```
1  #include <string>
2  string s("Hello");    // construct from a C-string
3  s += ", World!";      // append; it grows for you
4  cout << s.length();   // 13: it knows its own size
```

- ❖ **Include <string>**
- ❖ Grows automatically, manages its own memory
- ❖ Supports +, +=, ==, and .length()

In C, you had to...

- ❖ **char buf[64];**
- ❖ strcpy / strcat into a fixed buffer
- ❖ **Overflow risk**, and you track the '\0' yourself



In C++, you get...

- ❖ **string s = "Hello";**
- ❖ s += ", World!"; just works
- ❖ **No overflow**, no manual terminator

Reading input, and a real bool

```
1  int num;
2  cin >> num;           // read an int
3  if (cin >> num) { ... } // true if it worked
4  string line;
5  getline(cin, line);    // read a whole line
```

- ❖ **cin** with >> reads input
- ❖ Use (cin >> x) as a condition to loop safely
- ❖ **Useful for Exercise 8**; bool is a real type now, use it

In C, you had to...

- ❖ `scanf("%d", &num);`
- ❖ Remember the &, and a format string
- ❖ **int flags** for true/false



In C++, you get...

- ❖ `cin >> num;`
- ❖ No &, and it can be a loop condition
- ❖ **bool** with true / false built in

Namespaces and using

```
1  std::cout << "Hello" << std::endl;    // fully qualified
2
3  using namespace std;                  // import ALL of std
4  using std::cout;                      // import just cout
5  cout << "Hello" << endl;              // now shorter
```

❖ **The standard library lives in namespace std**

❖ **using** lets you drop the std:: prefix

❖ **Style tip:** in headers, import only what you use, not the whole namespace

Stream manipulators (formatting)

```
1  #include <iomanip>    // for setw, hex, dec
2
3  cout << setw(4) << 5 << endl;    // "   5" (width 4)
4  cout << hex << 255 << endl;      // "ff" (base stays hex)
5  cout << dec << 255 << endl;      // "255" (back to base 10)
```

❖ **setw(x)**: width of the NEXT field only (not persistent)

❖ **hex / dec / oct**: number base, sticks until you change it

❖ From <iomanip>

Surprisingly complex!

```
1  #include <iostream>    // for cout, endl
2  #include <cstdlib>      // for EXIT_SUCCESS
3
4  int main(int argc, char** argv) {
5      std::cout << "Hello, World!" << std::endl;
6      return EXIT_SUCCESS;
7  }
```

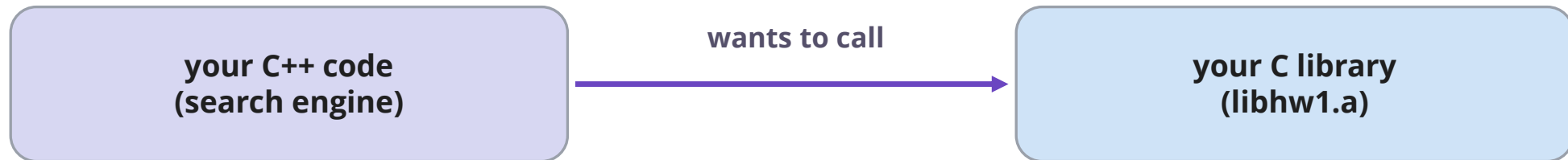
- ❖ **That one cout line is not simple:** cout is an object, and << is an overloaded operator
- ❖ C++ hides a lot behind friendly syntax
- ❖ **We learn how it works** in the classes lectures. For now, just use it

Takeaway: When C++ looks simple, remember how much is going on under one line

Interoperability

You already have C you want to reuse

- ❖ **C is roughly a subset of C++**, so it is tempting to just call your C code from C++
- ❖ **Homework 2:** your C++ search engine links against libhw1.a, the LinkedList and HashTable you wrote in C
- ❖ So: can we take a C header, include it in a C++ file, and have it just work?



A tiny C library

arith.h

```
1 // two plain C functions
2 int Add(int a, int b);
3 int Max(int a, int b);
```

arith.c

```
1 #include "arith.h"
2
3 int Add(int a, int b) { return a + b; }
4 int Max(int a, int b) {
5     return a > b ? a : b;
6 }
```

- ❖ Nothing fancy: two ordinary C functions
- ❖ **Header arith.h** declares them; **arith.c** defines them
- ❖ This is exactly the shape of your HW1 code: a .h of declarations, a .c of definitions
- ❖ We will hold onto this header and try to use it two ways

Baseline: use it from C

use_c.c

```
1  #include <stdio.h>
2  #include <stdlib.h>    // for EXIT_SUCCESS
3  #include "arith.h"
4
5  int main(int argc, char** argv) {
6      printf("%d\n", Add(2, 3));
7      return EXIT_SUCCESS;
8  }
```

```
$ gcc -o use_c use_c.c arith.c
$ ./use_c
5
```

- ❖ Include the header, call Add, compile both .c files together
- ❖ **Works perfectly.** This is the world you already live in
- ❖ Now let's include that same header from a C++ file instead

Include the same header from C++

use.cc

```
1  #include <iostream>
2  #include <cstdlib>
3  #include "arith.h"    // the SAME header
4  using namespace std;
5  int main(int argc, char** argv) {
6      cout << Add(2, 3) << endl;
7      return EXIT_SUCCESS;
8  }
```

```
$ g++ -c use.cc
$ gcc -c arith.c
$ g++ -o use use.o arith.o
use.o: undefined reference to `Add(int, int)'
```

- ❖ It compiles, **but fails to link**
- ❖ Same header, same call... why?
- ❖ **Short version:** C++ looked for a different symbol name than the one in arith.o

The fix: extern "C" in the header

arith.h (guarded)

```
1  #ifndef ARITH_H_
2  #define ARITH_H_
3
4  #ifdef __cplusplus
5  extern "C" {          // C++ only
6  #endif
7
8  int Add(int a, int b);
9  int Max(int a, int b);
10
11 #ifdef __cplusplus
12 }
13 #endif
14
15 #endif // ARITH_H_
```

- ❖ **extern "C"** tells C++: link these with plain C names
- ❖ **The __cplusplus guard means:**
 - a C++ compiler sees the extern "C" wrapper
 - a C compiler skips it (it is not valid C)
- ❖ **One header**, used unchanged by both gcc and g++

Rebuild: now it links

```
$ g++ -c use.cc      # sees extern "C", wants plain 'Add'
$ gcc -c arith.c     # defines plain 'Add'
$ g++ -o use use.o arith.o
$ ./use
5
```

- ❖ **Each file is compiled by its own compiler:** arith.c with gcc, use.cc with g++
- ❖ Thanks to the guard, both agree on the symbol name Add, so the linker matches them
- ❖ **Link the object files together with g++** (let the C++ driver do the final link)

Takeaway: Guard the header once and the same C library links cleanly into both C and C++ programs.

Can we wrap every function?

No: only C-compatible functions

- ❖ No overloaded functions (two would collide on one C name)
- ❖ No function templates
- ❖ No class member functions

extern "C" fixes linkage, not types

- ❖ One unmangled symbol per name, that is all it gives you
- ❖ You still cannot hand a C function a `std::string`, a reference, or a class
- ❖ Parameters must be things C understands

- ❖ **Rule of thumb:** wrap plain C-style functions with C-style parameters. Like, your HW1!
- ❖ Going the other way (calling true C++ features from C) does not work, and that is fine for us

Reminders

Assessments:

- Exercise 4 released shortly today! Due on Thursday at 11:59pm

General:

- C++
- Exams are scheduled
 - Midterm (7/27) from 9:40am to 10:40am in IEB G106
 - Final exam (8/18) from 1:30pm to 3:30pm in CSE2 G10

Questions?

Thanks for coming - see you next lecture!