# DPST1092 24T3 - Files

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## What are Files and Directories?

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- file systems manage persistent stored data e.g. on magnetic disk (HDD or SSD)
- On Unix-like systems:
  - a *file* is sequence (array) of zero or more bytes.
  - no meaning for bytes associated with file
    - file metadata doesn't record that it is e.g. ASCII, MP4, JPG, ... Unix-like files are just bytes
  - > a *directory* is an object containing zero or more files or directories.
- file systems maintain metadata for files & directories, e.g. permissions

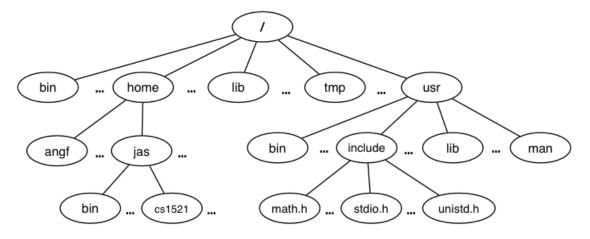
# **Unix-like Files & Directories**

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- Unix-like filenames are sequences of 1 or more bytes.
  - filenames can contain any byte except 0x00 and 0x2F
  - ▶ 0x00 bytes (ASCII '\0') used to terminate filenames
  - **0x2F** bytes (ASCII '/') used to separate components of pathnames.
  - maximum filename length, depends on file system, typically 255
- Two filenames can not be used they have a special meaning:
  - current directory
  - .. parent directory
- Some programs (shell, ls) treat filenames starting with specially.
- Unix-like directories are sets of files or directories

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# Unix/Linux File System



• Unix/Linux file system is tree-like

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- Exception: if you follow symbolic links it is a graph.
  - > and you may infinitely loop attempting to traverse a file system
  - but only if you follow symbolic links

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# Unix/Linux Pathnames

- Files & directories accessed via pathnames, e.g: /home/z5555555/lab07/main.c
- absolute pathnames start with a leading / and give full path from root
   e.g. /usr/include/stdio.h, /cs1521/public\_html/
- every process (running program) has a *current working directory* (CWD)
   this is an absolute pathname
- shell command pwd prints current working directory
- relative pathname do not start with a leading /
   e.g. ../../another/path/prog.c, ./a.out, main.c
- relative pathnames appended to current working directory of process using them
- Assume process current working directory is /home/z5555555/lab07/
  - main.c translated to absolute path /home/z5555555/lab07/main.c
  - .../a.out translated to absolute path /home/z55555555/lab07/../a.out
  - which is equivalent to absolute path /home/z5555555/a.out

# Everything is a File

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- Originally files only managed data stored on a magnetic disk.
- Unix philosophy is: *Everything is a File*.
- File system used to access:
  - files
  - directories (folders)
  - storage devices (disks, SSD, ...)
  - peripherals (keyboard, mouse, USB, ...)
  - system information
  - inter-process communication
  - network
  - ► ...

# **File Permissions**

Every file and directory in linux has read, write and execute permissions (access rights) for each of the following user groups:

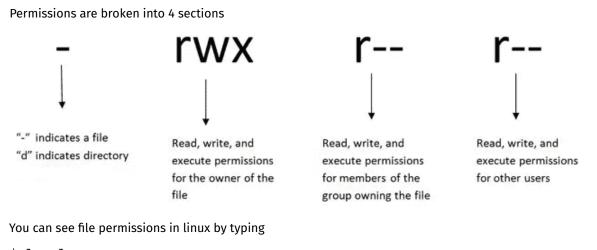
- user: the file's owner
- group: the members of the file's group
- other: everyone else

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**File Permissions** 

read, write and execute have slightly different meanings for files vs directories:

- read: For a normal file, read permission allows a user to view the contents of the file. For a directory, read permission allows a user to view the names of the file in the directory eg use ls
- write: For a normal file, write permission allows a user to modify and delete the file. For a directory, write permission allows files within the directory to be created, deleted or renamed.
- execute: For a normal file, execute permission allows a user to execute a file. For a directory it means a user may enter the directory eg cd into it. It is also necessary to be able to access(read, write, execute) items in the directory.



\$ ls -l

# **File Permissions**

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You can think of permissions as a set of bits, and then each 3 bits as an octal digit. eg

rwx r-x r-x 111 101 101 7 5 5

You can use the chmod command to set the permissions of a file or directory using the desired 3 digit octal code. eg.

\$ chmod 700 f.txt

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# **Default Permissions**

The permissions given to newly created files and directories depend upon the default permissions and the current umask.

The default permissions in octal for

- files is 0666
- directories is 0777

To find out your umask type

\$ umask

The umask has the effect of disabling certain permissions

When you create a file or directory on linux, the actual permission given to it will be

(default permissions) & ~(umask)

For example, if your umask is 0027, then if you create a file it will have permissions

0666 & ~(0027) = 0666 & (0750) = 0650

### File Metadata

Metadata for file system objects is stored in *inodes*, which hold

- location of file contents in file systems
- file type (regular file, directory, ...)
- file size in bytes
- file ownership
- file access permissions who can read, write, execute the file
- timestamps times of file was created, last accessed, last updated

File system implementations often add complexity to improve performance

• e.g. very small files might be stored in an inode itself

# **File Inodes**

- unix-like file systems effectively have a large array of inodes containg metadata
- an inode's index in this array is its *inode-number* (or *i-number*)
- inode-number uniquely identify files within a filesystem
   just a zid uniquely identifies a student within UNSW
- directories are effectively a list of (name, inode-number) pairs
- ls -i prints inode-numbers

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```
$ ls -i file.c
109988273 file.c
$
```

- note there is usually more than one file systems mounted on a Unix-like system
  - each file-systems has a separate set of **inode-numbers**
  - Files on different file-systems could have the same inode-number

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# File Access: Behind the Scenes

Access to files by name proceeds (roughly) as...

- open directory and scan for name
- if not found, "No such file or directory"
- if found as (name, inumber), access inode table inodes [inumber]
- collect file metadata and...
  - check file access permissions given current user/group if don't have required access, "Permission denied"
  - collect information about file's location and size
  - update access timestamp
- use data in inode to access file contents

### Hard Links & Symbolic Links

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File system links allow multiple paths to access the same file

- Hard links
  - multiple names referencing the same file (inode)
  - the two entries must be on the same filesystem
  - all hard links to a file have equal status
  - file destroyed when last hard link removed
  - can not create a (extra) hard link to directories
- Symbolic links (symlinks)
  - point to another path name
  - acessing the symlink (by default) accesses the file being pointed to
  - symbolic link can point to a directory
  - symbolic link can point to a pathname on another filesystems
  - symbolic links don't have permissions (just a pointer)

### Hard Links & Symbolic Links

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```
$ echo 'Hello Andrew' >hello
$ ln hello hola  # create hard link
$ ln -s hello selamat # create symbolic link
$ ls -l hello hola selamat
-rw-r--r-- 2 andrewt 13 Oct 23 16:18 hello
-rw-r--r-- 2 andrewt 13 Oct 23 16:18 hola
lrwxrwxrwx 1 andrewt 5 Oct 23 16:20 selamat -> hello
$ cat hello
Hello Andrew
$ cat selamat
Hello Andrew
```

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# stdio.h - C Standard Library I/O Functions

- system calls provide operations to manipulate files.
- libc provides a non-portable low-level API to manipulate files
- stdio.h provides a portable higher-level API to manipulate files.
- stdio.h is part of standard C library
- available in every C implementation that can do I/O
- stdio.h functions are portable, convenient & efficient
- use stdio.h functions for file operations unless you have a good reason not to
   e.g. program with special I/O requirements like a database implementation
- on Unix-like systems they will call open()/read()/write()/...
  - but with buffering for efficiency

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# stdio.h - fopen()

FILE \*fopen(const char \*pathname, const char \*mode)

- fopen() is stdio.h equivalent to open()
- mode is string of 1 or more characters including:
  - r open text file for reading.
  - ▶ w open text file for writing truncated to 0 zero length if it exists created if does not exist
  - a open text file for writing writes append to it if it exists created if does not exist
- fopen returns a FILE \* pointer
  - FILE is an opaque struct we can not access fields
  - FILE stores file descriptor
  - FILE may also for efficiency store buffered data,

# stdio.h - fclose()

#### int fclose(FILE \*stream)

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- fclose() is stdio.h equivalent to close()
- call **fclose()** as soon as finished with stream
- number of streams open at any time is limited (to maybe 1024)
- stdio functions for efficiency may delay calling write()
  - > only calls write() when it has enough data (perhaps 4096 bytes)
  - also calls write() if needed when program exits or fclose()
- so last data may not be written until **fclose** or program exit
  - good practice to call fclose as soon as finished using stream
- fflush(stream) forces any buffered data to be written

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stdio.h - read and writing

- fputs/fgets, fscanf/fprintf can not be used for binary data because may contain zero bytes
   can use text (ASCII/Unicode) but can not use to e.g. read a jpg
- scanf/fscanf/sscanf often avoided in serious code
  - but fine while learning to code

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### stdio.h - convenience functions for stdin/stdout

• as we often read/write to stdin/stdout stdio.h provides convenience functions, we can use:

```
int getchar() // fgetc(stdin)
int putchar(int c) // fputc(c, stdin)
int puts(char *s) // fputs(s,stdout)
int scanf(char *format, ...) // fscanf(stdin, format, ...)
int printf(char *format, ...) // fprintf(stdout, format, ...)
char *gets(char *s); // NEVER USE - major security vulnerability
// string may overflow array
// also NEVER USE %s with scanf - similarly major security vulnerability
scanf("%s", array);
```

## stdio.h - I/O to strings

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```
stdio.h provides useful functions which operate on strings
```

```
// sscanf like scanf, but input comes from char array **str**
int sscanf(const char *str, const char *format, ...);
// snprintf is like printf, but output goes to char array str
// handy for creating strings passed to other functions
// size contains size of str
int snprintf(char *str, size_t size, const char *format, ...);
// also sprintf - more convenient - but can overflow str
// major security vulnerability - DO NOT USE
int sprintf(char *str, const char *format, ...); // DO NOT USE
```

### stdio.h - using fputc to output bytes

```
char bytes[] = "Hello, stdio!\n"; // 15 bytes
// write 14 bytes so we don't write (terminating) 0 byte
for (int i = 0; i < (sizeof bytes) - 1; i++) {
    fputc(bytes[i], stdout);
}
// or as we know bytes is 0-terminated
for (int i = 0; bytes[i] != '\0'; i++) {
    fputc(bytes[i], stdout);
}
// or if you prefer pointers
for (char *p = &bytes[0]; *p != '\0'; p++) {
    fputc(*p, stdout);
}
```

source code for hello\_stdio.c

stdio.h - using fputs, fwrite & fprintf to output bytes

char bytes[] = "Hello, stdio!\n"; // 15 bytes

```
// fputs relies on bytes being 0-terminated
fputs(bytes, stdout);
// write 14 1 byte items
fwrite(bytes, 1, (sizeof bytes) - 1, stdout);
// %s relies on bytes being 0-terminated
fprintf(stdout, "%s", bytes);
// %s relies on bytes being 0-terminated
printf("%s", bytes);
```

source code for hello\_stdio.c

### stdio.h - creating a file

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```
// create file "hello.txt" containing 1 line: Hello, Zac!
// if the file already exists it will truncate the data
// in the file, (bascially overwriting it)
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    FILE *output_stream = fopen("hello.txt", "w");
    if (output_stream == NULL) {
        perror("hello.txt");
        return 1;
    }
    fprintf(output_stream, "Hello, Zac!\n");
    // fclose will flush data to file, best to close file ASAP
    // optional here as fclose occurs automatically on exit
    fclose(output_stream);
    return 0;
}
```

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```
stdio.h - reading a file
//Opens a file named "hello.txt" and reads each byte from the file
//and prints it to stdout
//The program closes the file at the end
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <error.h>
#include <errno.h>
int main(void){
    FILE *in = fopen("hello.txt", "r");
    if (in == NULL) {
        perror("hello.txt");
        return 1;
    }
    int ch;
    while ((ch = fgetc(in)) != EOF)
        fputc(ch,stdout); //Could just use putchar(ch);
   fclose(in);
   return 0;
```

### stdio.h - other operations

int fseek(FILE \*stream, long offset, int whence);

- fseek() is stdio equivalent to lseek(), just like lseek():
- offset is in units of bytes, and can be negative
- whence can be one of ...

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- SEEK\_SET set file position to offset from start of file
- SEEK\_CUR set file position to offset from current position
- SEEK\_END set file position to offset from end of file
- for example:

```
fseek(stream, 42, SEEK_SET); // move to after 42nd byte in file
fseek(stream, 58, SEEK_CUR); // 58 bytes forward from current position
fseek(stream, -7, SEEK_CUR); // 7 bytes backward from current position
fseek(stream, -1, SEEK_END); // move to before last byte in file
```

### Using fseek to read the last byte then the first byte of a file

```
FILE *input_stream = fopen(argv[1], "r");
// move to a position 1 byte from end of file
// then read 1 byte
fseek(input_stream, -1, SEEK_END);
printf("last byte of the file is 0x%02x\n", fgetc(input_stream));
// move to a position 0 bytes from start of file
// then read 1 byte
fseek(input_stream, 0, SEEK_SET);
printf("first byte of the file is 0x%02x\n", fgetc(input_stream));
source code for fseekc
```

• NOTE: important error checking is missing above

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### Using fseek to read bytes in the middle of a file

```
// move to a position 41 bytes from start of file
// then read 1 byte
fseek(input_stream, 41, SEEK_SET);
printf("42nd byte of the file is 0x%02x\n", fgetc(input_stream));
// move to a position 58 bytes from current position
// then read 1 byte
fseek(input_stream, 58, SEEK_CUR);
printf("100th byte of the file is 0x%02x\n", fgetc(input_stream));
```

source code for fseek.c

• NOTE: important error checking is missing above

### Using fseek to change a random file bit

```
FILE *f = fopen(argv[1], "r+"); // open for reading and writing
fseek(f, 0, SEEK_END);
                                    // move to end of file
long n_bytes = ftell(f);
                                    // get number of bytes in file
srandom(time(NULL));
                                    // initialize random number
                                    // generator with current time
long target_byte = random() % n_bytes; // pick a random byte
fseek(f, target_byte, SEEK_SET); // move to byte
int byte = fgetc(f); // read byte
int bit = random() % 8; // pick a random bit
int new_byte = byte ^ (1 << bit); // flip the bit</pre>
fseek(f, -1, SEEK_CUR); // move back to same position
fputc(new_byte, f);
                                  // write the byte
fclose(f);
```

source code for fuzz.c

• random changes to search for errors/vulnerabilities called fuzzing

### Operating system - What Does it Do.

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- Operating system sits between the user and the hardware.
- Operating system effectively provides a virtual machine to each user.
- This virtual machine is much simpler than a real machine
  - much easier for user to write code
  - difficult (bug-prone) code implemented by operating system
- The virtual machine interface can stay the same across different hardware.
  - > much easier for user to write portable code which works on different hardware
- Operating systems can coordinate/share access to resources between users.
- Operating systems can provide privileges/security.

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# Operating System - What Does it Need from Hardware.

- needs hardware to provide a privileged mode
  - > code running in privileged mode can access all hardware and memory
  - code running in privileged mode has unlimited access to memory
- needs hardware to provide a **non-privileged** mode which:
  - code running in non-privileged mode can not access hardware directly
  - code running in non-privileged mode has limited access to memory
  - provides mechanism to make requests to operating system
- operating system (kernel) code runs in privileged mode
- operating system runs user code in non-privileged mode
  - ▶ with memory access restrictions so user code can only memory allocated to it
- user code can make requests to operating system called system calls
  - a system call transfers execution to operating system code in privileged mode
  - > at completion of request operating system (usually) returns execution back to user code in non-privileged mode

# System Call - What is It

- system call allow programs to request hardware operations
- system call transfers execution to OS code in privileged mode
  - includes arguments specifying details of request being made
  - OS checks operation is valid & permitted
  - OS carries out operation
  - transfers execution back to user code in non-privileged mode
- different operating system have different system calls
  - e.g Linux system calls very different Windows system calls
- Linux provides 400+ system calls
- examples of operations that might be provided by system call:
  - read or write bytes to a file
  - request more memory
  - create a process (run a program)
  - terminate a process
  - send information via a network

# System Calls in mipsy

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- mipsy provides a virtual machine which can execute MIPS programs
- mipsy also provides a tiny operating system
- small number of mipsy system calls for I/O and memory allocation
- access is via the syscall instruction
  - MIPS programs running on real hardware also use syscall
  - on Linux syscall, passes execution to operating system code
  - Linux operating system code carries out request specified in \$v0 and \$a0
- mipsy system calls are designed for students writing tiny MIPS programs without library functions
  - e.g system call 1 print an integer, system call 5 read an integer
- system calls on real operating systems are more general
  - e.g. system call might be read **n** bytes, write **n** bytes
  - users don't normally access system calls directly
  - users call library functions e.g. printf & fgets which make system calls (often via other functions)

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# Experimenting with Linux System Calls

- like mipsy every Linux system call has a number, e.g write bytes to a file is system call 2
- Linux provides 400+ system calls

```
$ cat /usr/include/x86_64-linux-gnu/asm/unistd_64.h
...
#define __NR_read 0
#define __NR_write 1
#define __NR_open 2
#define __NR_close 3
#define __NR_stat 4
...
#define __NR_pidfd_getfd 438
#define __NR_faccessat2 439
#define __NR_process_madvise 440
```

System Calls to Manipulate files

Some important Unix system calls:

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- 0 read read some bytes from a file descriptor
- **1**-write- write some bytes to a file **descriptor**
- 2 open open a file system object, returning a file descriptor
- 3 close stop using a file descriptor
- 4 stat get file system metadata for a pathname
- 8 lseek move file descriptor to a specified offset within a file

### System Calls to Manipulate files

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System calls manipulate files as a stream of bytes accessed via a file descriptor

- file descriptors are small integers
- really index to a per-process array maintained by operating system

On Unix-like systems: a *file* is sequence (array) of zero or more bytes.

• no meaning for bytes associated with file - file metadata doesn't record that it is e.g. ASCII, MP4, JPG, ... - Unix-like files are just bytes

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The C function syscall allows you to make a Linux system call without writing assembler

- syscall itself is written partly/entirely in assembler e.g.: https://code.woboq.org/userspace/glibc/sysdeps/unix/sysv/linux/x86\_64/syscall.S.html
- syscall is not normally used by programmers in regular C code
  - most system calls have their own C wrapper functions, these wrapper function are safer & more convenient
  - e.g. the write system call has a wrapper C function called **write**
- we only use syscall to experiment & learn

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```
Using system calls to copy a file #1 - opening files
// cp <file1> <file2> with syscalls and no error handling
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
   // system call number 2 is open, takes 3 arguments:
   11
       1) address of zero-terminated string containing file pathname
   11
        2) bitmap indicating whether to write, read, ... file
   11
           O_WRONLY \mid O_CREAT == 0x41 == write to file, creating if necessary
    // 3) permissions if file will be newly created
           0644 == readable to everyone, writeable by owner
    //
   long read_file_descriptor = syscall(2, argv[1], 0_RDONLY,
                                                                         0);
   long write_file_descriptor = syscall(2, argv[2], 0_WRONLY | 0_CREAT | 0_TRUN(
```

source code for cp\_syscalls.c

```
Using system calls to copy a file #2 - copying the bytes
while (1) {
    // system call number 0 is read - takes 3 arguments:
    // 1) file descriptor
    11
       2) memory address to put bytes read
       3) maximum number of bytes read
    // returns number of bytes actually read
    char bytes[4096];
    long bytes_read = syscall(0, read_file_descriptor, bytes, 4096);
    if (bytes_read <= 0) {</pre>
        break;
    }
    // system call number 1 is write - takes 3 arguments:
    // 1) file descriptor
    // 2) memory address to take bytes from
    11
        3) number of bytes to written
    // returns number of bytes actually written
    syscall(1, write_file_descriptor, bytes, bytes_read);
source code for cp_syscalls.c
```

# C Library Wrappers for System Calls

- On Unix-like systems there are C library functions corresponding to each system call,
  - e.g. open, read, write, close
  - the syscall function is not used in normal coding
- These functions are not portable
  - > C used on many non-Unix operating systems with different system calls
- POSIX standardizes a few of these functions
  - some non-Unix systems provide implementations of these functions
- but better to use functions from standard C library, available everywhere
  - e.g fopen, fgets, fputc from stdio.h
  - on Unix-like systems these will call open, read, write
  - on other platforms, will call other low-level functions
- but sometimes we need to use lower level non-portable functions
  - e.g. a database implementation need more control over I/O operations
- documented in Unix Programmers Manual section 2 (e.g. man 2 open)

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### Extra Types for File System Operations

Unix-like (POSIX) systems add some extra file-system-related C types in these include files:

#include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/stat.h>

• off\_t - offsets within files

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- typically int64\_t signed to allow backward references
- **size\_t** number of bytes in some object
  - typically uint64\_t unsigned since objects can't have negative size
- **ssize\_t** sizes of read/written bytes
  - typically uint64\_t similar to size\_t, but signed to allow for error values
- struct stat file system object metadata
  - stores information about file, not its contents
  - requires other types: ino\_t, dev\_t, time\_t, uid\_t, ...

### C library wrapper for open system call

#### int open(char \*pathname, int flags)

- open file at **pathname**, according to **flags**
- flags is a bit-mask defined in <fcntl.h>
  - 0\_RDONLY open for reading
  - O\_WRONLY open for writing
  - O\_APPEND append on each write
  - O\_RDWR open object for reading and writing
  - O\_CREAT create file if doesn't exist
  - O\_TRUNC truncate to size 0
- flags can be combined e.g. (O\_WRONLY|O\_CREAT)
- if successful, return file descriptor (small non-negative int)
- if unsuccessful, return -1 and set errno to value indicating reason

## errno - why did that system call fail?

- C library has an interesting way of returning error information
- functions typically return -1 to indicate error
- and set errno to integer value indicating reason for error
- these integer values are #define-d in errno.h
- see man errno for more infomation
- convenient function perror() looks at errno and prints message with reason
- or **strerror()** converts errno integer value to string describing reason for error
- errno looks like an int global variable

## C library wrapper for read system call

#### ssize\_t read(int fd, void \*buf, size\_t count)

- read (up to) count bytes from fd into buf
  - buf should point to array of at least count bytes
  - read does (can) not check **buf** points to enough space
- if successful, number of bytes actually read is returned
- • returned, if no more bytes to read
- -1 returned if error and errno set to reason
- associated with a file descriptor is a *current position* in file
- next call to read() will return next bytes from file
- repeated calls to reads will yield entire contents of file
- can also modify this current position with **lseek()**

## C library wrapper for write system call

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#### ssize\_t write(int fd, const void \*buf, size\_t count)

- attempt to write count bytes from buf into stream identified by file descriptor fd
- if successful, number of bytes actually written is returned
- if unsuccessful, returns -1 and set errno
- does (can) not check buf points to count bytes of data
- associated with a file descriptor is a *current position* in file
- next call to write will follow bytes already written
- file often created by repeated calls to write
- can also modify this current position with lseek

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## Hello write!

```
// hello world implemented with libc
#include <unistd.h>
int main(void) {
    char bytes[13] = "Hello, Zac!\n";
    // write takes 3 arguments:
    // 1) file descriptor, 1 == stdout
    // 2) memory address of first byte to write
    // 3) number of bytes to write
    write(1, bytes, 12); // prints Hello, Zac! on stdout
    return 0;
}
```

source code for hello\_libc.c

https://www.cse.unsw.edu.au/~dp1092/24T3/

https://www.cse.unsw.edu.au/~dp1092/24T3/

### Using libc system call wrappers to copy a file // cp <file1> <file2> implemented with libc and no error handling int main(int argc, char \*argv[]) { // open takes 3 arguments: // 1) address of zero-terminated string containing pathname of file to oper // 2) bitmap indicating whether to write, read, ... file // 3) permissions if file will be newly created // 0644 == readable to everyone, writeable by owner int read\_file\_descriptor = open(argv[1], 0\_RDONLY); int write\_file\_descriptor = open(argv[2], 0\_WRONLY | 0\_CREAT | 0\_TRUNC, 0644)

source code for cp\_libc.c

## Using libc system call wrappers to copy a file

```
while (1) {
    // read takes 3 arguments:
   // 1) file descriptor
// 2) memory address to put bytes read
    // 3) maximum number of bytes read
    // returns number of bytes actually read
    char bytes[4096];
    ssize_t bytes_read = read(read_file_descriptor, bytes, 4096);
    if (bytes_read <= 0) {</pre>
        break;
    }
    // write takes 3 arguments:
    // 1) file descriptor
    // 2) memory address to take bytes from
    // 3) number of bytes to written
   // returns number of bytes actually written
   write(write_file_descriptor, bytes, bytes_read);
// good practice to close file descriptions as soon as finished using them
// not necessary needed here as program about to exit
close(read_file_descriptor);
close(write_file_descriptor);
source code for cp_libc.c
```

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# C library wrapper for close system call

int close(int fd)

- release open file descriptor **fd**
- if successful, return 0
- if unsuccessful, return -1 and set errno
  - could be unsuccessful if **fd** is not an open file descriptor
  - e.g. if **fd** has already been closed
- number of file descriptors may be limited (maybe to 1024)
  - limited number of file open at any time, so use close()

An aside: removing a file e.g. via rm

- removes the file's entry from a directory
- but the file (inode and data) persist until
  - > all references to the file (inode) from other directories are removed
  - all processes accessing the file close() their file descriptor
- after this, the operating system reclaims the space used by the files

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### C library wrapper for lseek system call

```
off_t lseek(int fd, off_t offset, int whence)
```

- change the current position in stream indicated by fd
- offset is in units of bytes, and can be negative
- whence can be one of ...
  - SEEK\_SET set file position to offset from start of file
  - SEEK\_CUR set file position to offset from current position
  - SEEK\_END set file position to offset from end of file
- seeking beyond end of file leaves a gap which reads as 0's
- seeking back beyond start of file sets position to start of file
- for example:

```
lseek(fd, 42, SEEK_SET); // move to after 42nd byte in file
lseek(fd, 58, SEEK_CUR); // 58 bytes forward from current position
lseek(fd, -7, SEEK_CUR); // 7 bytes backward from current position
lseek(fd, -1, SEEK_END); // move to before last byte in file
```

#### stdio.h - using fgetc to copy a file

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```
FILE *input_stream = fopen(argv[1], "r");
if (input_stream == NULL) {
    perror(argv[1]); // prints why the open failed
    return 1;
FILE *output_stream = fopen(argv[2], "w");
if (output_stream == NULL) {
    perror(argv[2]);
    return 1;
}
int c; // not char!
while ((c = fgetc(input_stream)) != EOF) {
    fputc(c, output_stream);
}
fclose(input_stream); // optional here as fclose occurs
fclose(output_stream); // automatically on exit
source code for cp_fgetc.c
```

```
Copving One Byte Per Time with System Calls
// copy bytes one at a time from pathname passed as
// command-line argument 1 to pathname given as argument 2
int read_file_descriptor = open(argv[1], 0_RDONLY);
int write_file_descriptor = open(argv[2], 0_WRONLY | 0_CREAT | 0_TRUNC, 0644);
while (1) {
    char bytes[1];
    ssize_t bytes_read = read(read_file_descriptor, bytes, 1);
    if (bytes_read <= 0) {
        break;
    }
    write(write_file_descriptor, bytes, 1);
}</pre>
```

source code for cp\_libc\_one\_byte.c

# I/O Performance & Buffering - Copying One Byte Per Time

```
$ clang -03 cp_libc_one_byte.c -o cp_libc_one_byte
$ dd bs=1M count=10 </dev/urandom >random_file
10485760 bytes (10 MB, 10 MiB) copied, 0.183075 s, 57.3 MB/s
$ time ./cp_libc_one_byte random_file random_file_copy
real 0m5.262s
user 0m0.432s
sys 0m4.826s
```

• much slower than previous version which copies 4096 bytes at a time

```
$ clang -03 cp_libc.c -o cp_libc
$ time ./cp_libc random_file random_file_copy
real 0m0.008s
user 0m0.001s
sys 0m0.007s
```

main reason - system calls are expensive

ttps://www.cse.unsw.edu.au/~dp1092/24T3

# I/O Performance & Buffering - stdio Copying 1 Byte Per Time

```
$ clang -03 cp_fgetc.c -o cp_fgetc
$ time ./cp_fgetc random_file random_file_copy
real 0m0.059s
user 0m0.042s
sys 0m0.009s
```

- at the user level copies 1 byte at time using fgetc/fputc
- much faster that coping 1 byte at time using read/write
- little slower than coping 4096 bytes at time using read/write
- how?

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# I/O Performance & Buffering - stdio buffering

- assume stdio buffering size (BUFSIZ) is 4096 (typical)
- first **fgetc()** calls requests 4096 bytes via **read()** 
  - returns 1 byte stores remaining 4095 bytes in an array, the input buffer
- next 4095 fgetc() calls return a byte from (input buffer) and do not to call read()
- 4097th **fgetc()** call requests 4096 bytes via **read()**
- returns 1 byte, stores remaining 4095 bytes in the (input buffer)
- and so on
- first 4095 **fputc()** calls put bytes in an array, the (*output buffer*)
- 4096th fputc() calls write() for all 4096 bytes in the output buffer
- and so on
- output buffer\* emptied by exit or main returning
- program can explicitly force empty of output buffer with **fflush()** call

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### C library wrapper for stat system call

```
int stat(const char *pathname, struct stat *statbuf)
```

- returns metadata associated with pathname in statbuf
- metadata returned includes:
  - inode number
  - type (file, directory, symbolic link, device)
  - size of file in bytes (if it is a file)
  - permissions (read, write, execute)
  - times of last access/modification/status-change
- returns -1 and sets errno if metadata not accessible

```
int fstat(int fd, struct stat *statbuf)
```

• same as stat() but gets data via an open file descriptor

int lstat(const char \*pathname, struct stat \*statbuf)`

same as stat() but doesn't follow symbolic links

### definition of struct stat

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```
struct stat {
    dev_t st_dev;    /* ID of device containing file */
    ino_t st_ino;    /* Inode number */
    mode_t st_mode;    /* File type and mode */
    nlink_t st_nlink;    /* Number of hard links */
    uid_t st_uid;    /* User ID of owner */
    gid_t st_gid;    /* Group ID of owner */
    dev_t st_rdev;    /* Device ID (if special file) */
    off_t st_size;    /* Total size, in bytes */
    blksize_t st_blksize;    /* Block size for filesystem I/O */
    blkcnt_t st_blocks;    /* Number of 512B blocks allocated */
    struct timespec st_atim;    /* Time of last access */
    struct timespec st_ctim;    /* Time of last status change */
};
```

### st\_mode field of struct stat

**st\_mode** is a bitwise-or of these values (& others):

S_IFLNK	0120000	symbolic link
S_IFREG	0100000	regular file
S_IFBLK	0060000	block device
S_IFDIR	0040000	directory
S_IFCHR	0020000	character device
S_IFIFO	0010000	FIFO
S_IRUSR	0000400	owner has read permission
S_IWUSR	0000200	owner has write permission
S_IXUSR	0000100	owner has execute permission
S_IRGRP	0000040	group has read permission
S_IWGRP	0000020	group has write permission
S_IXGRP	0000010	group has execute permission
S_IROTH	0000004	others have read permission
S_IWOTH	0000002	others have write permission
S_IXOTH	0000001	others have execute permission

### Using stat

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source code for stat.c

### mkdir

int mkdir(const char \*pathname, mode\_t mode)

- create a new directory called pathname with permissions mode
- if **pathname** is e.g. a/b/c/d

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- all of the directories a, b and c must exist
- directory c must be writeable to the caller
- directory d must not already exist
- the new directory contains two initial entries
  - . is a reference to itself
  - .. is a reference to its parent directory
- returns 0 if successful, returns -1 and sets errno otherwise

#### for example:

```
mkdir("newDir", 0755);
```

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# Example of using mkdir to create directories

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <sys/stat.h>
// create the directories specified as command-line arguments
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    for (int arg = 1; arg < argc; arg++) {
        if (mkdir(argv[arg], 0755) != 0) {
            perror(argv[arg]); // prints why the mkdir failed
            return 1;
        }
    }
    source code for mkdirc
</pre>
```

# Other useful Linux (POSIX) functions

```
chmod(char *pathname, mode_t mode) // change permission of file/...
unlink(char *pathname) // remove a file/directory/...
rename(char *oldpath, char *newpath) // rename a file/directory
chdir(char *path) // change current working directory
getcwd(char *buf, size_t size) // get current working directory
link(char *oldpath, char *newpath) // create hard link to a file
symlink(char *target, char *linkpath) // create a symbolic link
```

# changing file permissions

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```
// first argument is mode in octal
mode_t mode = strtol(argv[1], &end, 8);
// check first argument was a valid octal number
if (argv[1][0] == '\0' || end[0] != '\0') {
    fprintf(stderr, "%s: invalid mode: %s\n", argv[0], argv[1]);
    return 1;
}
for (int arg = 2; arg < argc; arg++) {
    if (chmod(argv[arg], mode) != 0) {
        perror(argv[arg]); // prints why the chmod failed
        return 1;
    }
}
```

```
source code for chmod.c
```

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# removing files

```
// remove the specified files
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    for (int arg = 1; arg < argc; arg++) {
        if (unlink(argv[arg]) != 0) {
            perror(argv[arg]); // prints why the unlink failed
            return 1;
        }
    }
    source code for m.c
</pre>
```

```
$ acc rm.c
$ ./a.out rm.c
$ ls -l rm.c
ls: cannot access 'rm.c': No such file or directory
```

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### renaming a file

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```
// rename the specified file
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    if (argc != 3) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Usage: %s <old-filename> <new-filename>\n",
                 argv[0]);
        return 1;
    }
    char *old_filename = argv[1];
    char *new_filename = argv[2];
    if (rename(old_filename, new_filename) != 0) {
        fprintf(stderr, "%s rename %s %s:", argv[0], old_filename,
                 new_filename);
        perror("");
        return 1;
    }
    return 0;
}
source code for rename.c
```

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# cd-ing up one directory at a time

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```
// use repeated chdir("..") to climb to root of the file system
char pathname[PATH_MAX];
while (1) {
    if (getcwd(pathname, sizeof pathname) == NULL) {
        perror("getcwd");
        return 1;
    }
    printf("getcwd() returned %s\n", pathname);
    if (strcmp(pathname, "/") == 0) \{
        return 0;
    7
    if (chdir("..") != 0) {
        perror("chdir");
        return 1;
    }
}
```

```
making a 1000-deep directory (advanced)
for (int i = 0; i < 1000;i++) {</pre>
    char dirname[256];
    snprintf(dirname, sizeof dirname, "d%d", i);
    if (mkdir(dirname, 0755) != 0) {
        perror(dirname);
        return 1;
    }
    if (chdir(dirname) != 0) {
        perror(dirname);
        return 1;
    }
    char pathname[1000000];
    if (getcwd(pathname, sizeof pathname) == NULL) {
        perror("getcwd");
        return 1;
    }
    printf("\nCurrent directory now: %s\n", pathname);
source code for nest_directories.
```

creating 1000 hard links to a file - creating the file (advanced)

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    char pathname[256] = "hello.txt";
    // create a target file
    FILE *f1;
    if ((f1 = fopen(pathname, "w")) == NULL) {
        perror(pathname);
        return 1;
    }
    fprintf(f1, "Hello Andrew!\n");
    fclose(f1);
source code for many_links.
```

https://www.cse.unsw

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creating 1000 hard links to a file -checking the file (advanced)

```
for (int i = 0; i < 1000; i++) {
    printf("Verifying '%s' contains: ", pathname);
    FILE *f2;
    if ((f2 = fopen(pathname, "r")) == NULL) {
        perror(pathname);
        return 1;
    }
    int c;
    while ((c = fgetc(f2)) != EOF) {
        fputc(c, stdout);
    }
    fclose(f2);
suure code for many Linksc</pre>
```

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# creating 1000 hard links to a file (creating a link)



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## **POSIX functions to access directory contents**

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int closedir(DIR \*dirp);

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#include <sys/types.h>
#include <dirent.h>
// open a directory stream for directory name
DIR \*opendir(const char \*name);
// return a pointer to next directory entry
struct dirent \*readdir(DIR \*dirp);
// close a directory stream