
UNIX SYSTEM PROGRAMMING IN OCAML

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Abstract This document is an introductory course on Unix system programming, with an emphasis on communications between processes. The main novelty of this work is the use of the OCaml language, a dialect of the ML language, instead of the C language that is customary in systems programming. This gives an unusual perspective on systems programming and on the ML language.

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Introduction

These course notes originate from a system programming course Xavier Leroy taught in 1994 to the first year students of the Master's program in fundamental and applied mathematics and computer science at the École Normale Supérieure. This earliest version used the Caml-Light [1] language. For a Master's course in computer science at the École Polytechnique taught from 2003 to 2006, Didier Rémy adapted the notes to use the OCaml language. During these years, Gilles Roussel, Fabrice Le Fessant and Maxence Guesdon helped to teach the course and also contributed to this document. The new version also brought additions and updates. In ten years, some orders of magnitude have shifted by a digit and the web has left its infancy. For instance, the HTTP relay example, now commonplace, may have been a forerunner in 1994. But, most of all, the OCaml language gained maturity and was used to program real system applications like Unison [18].

Tradition dictates that Unix system programming must be done in C. For this course we found it more interesting to use a higher-level language, namely OCaml, to explain the fundamentals of Unix system programming.

The OCaml interface to Unix system calls is more abstract. Instead of encoding everything in terms of integers and bit fields as in C, OCaml uses the whole power of the ML type system to clearly represent the arguments and return values of system calls. Hence, it becomes easier to explain the semantics of the calls instead of losing oneself explaining how the arguments and the results have to be en/decoded. (See, for example, the presentation of the system call `wait`, page 42.)

Furthermore, due to the static type system and the clarity of its primitives, it is safer to program in OCaml than in C. The experienced C programmer may see these benefits as useless luxury, however they are crucial for the inexperienced audience of this course.

A second goal of this exposition of system programming is to show OCaml performing in a domain out of its usual applications in theorem proving, compilation and symbolic computation. The outcome of the experiment is rather positive, thanks to OCaml's solid imperative kernel and its other novel aspects like parametric polymorphism, higher-order functions and exceptions. It also shows that instead of applicative and imperative programming being mutually exclusive, their combination makes it possible to integrate in the same program complex symbolic computations and a good interface with the operating system.

These notes assume the reader is familiar with OCaml and Unix shell commands. For any question about the language, consult the OCaml System documentation [2] and for questions about Unix, read section 1 of the Unix manual or introductory books on Unix like [5, 6].

This document describes only the programmatic interface to the Unix system. It presents neither its implementation, neither its internal architecture. The internal architecture of BSD 4.3 is described in [8] and of System v in [9]. Tanenbaum's books [13, 14] give an overall view of network and operating system architecture.

The Unix interface presented in this document is part of the OCaml System available as free software at <http://caml.inria.fr/ocaml/>.

1 Generalities

1.1 Modules `Sys` and `Unix`

Functions that give access to the system from OCaml are grouped into two modules. The first module, `Sys`, contains those functions common to Unix and other operating systems under which OCaml runs. The second module, `Unix`, contains everything specific to Unix.

In what follows, we will refer to identifiers from the `Sys` and `Unix` modules without specifying which modules they come from. That is, we will suppose that we are within the scope of the directives `open Sys` and `open Unix`. In complete examples, we explicitly write `open`, in order to be truly complete.

The `Sys` and `Unix` modules can redefine certain identifiers of the `Pervasives` module, hiding previous definitions. For example, `Pervasives.stdin` is different from `Unix.stdin`. The previous definitions can always be obtained through a prefix.

To compile an OCaml program that uses the Unix library, do this:

```
ocamlc -o prog unix.cma mod1.ml mod2.ml mod3.ml
```

where the program `prog` is assumed to comprise of the three modules `mod1`, `mod2` and `mod3`. The modules can also be compiled separately:

```
ocamlc -c mod1.ml
ocamlc -c mod2.ml
ocamlc -c mod3.ml
```

and linked with:

```
ocamlc -o prog unix.cma mod1.cmo mod2.cmo mod3.cmo
```

In both cases, the argument `unix.cma` is the Unix library written in OCaml. To use the native-code compiler rather than the bytecode compiler, replace `ocamlc` with `ocamlopt` and `unix.cma` with `unix.cmxa`.

If the compilation tool `ocamlbuild` is used, simply add the following line to the `_tags` file:

```
<prog.{native,byte}> : use_unix
```

The Unix system can also be accessed from the interactive system, also known as the “`toplevel`”. If your platform supports dynamic linking of C libraries, start an `ocaml` `toplevel` and type in the directive:

```
#load "unix.cma";;
```

Otherwise, you will need to create an interactive system containing the pre-loaded system functions:

```
ocamlmktop -o ocamlunix unix.cma
```

This `toplevel` can be started by:

```
./ocamlunix
```

1.2 Interface with the calling program

When running a program from a shell (command interpreter), the shell passes *arguments* and an *environment* to the program. The arguments are words on the command line that follow the name of the command. The environment is a set of strings of the form `variable=value`, representing the global bindings of environment variables: bindings set with `setenv var=val` for the `csh` shell, or with `var=val; export var` for the `sh` shell.

The arguments passed to the program are in the string array `Sys.argv`:

```
val argv : string array
```

The environment of the program is obtained by the function `Unix.environment`:

```
val environment : unit -> string array
```

A more convenient way of looking up the environment is to use the function `Sys.getenv`:

```
val getenv : string -> string
```

`Sys.getenv v` returns the value associated with the variable name `v` in the environment, raising the exception `Not_found` if this variable is not bound.

Example As a first example, here is the `echo` program, which prints a list of its arguments, as does the Unix command of the same name.

```
let echo () =
  let len = Array.length Sys.argv in
  if len > 1 then
    begin
      print_string Sys.argv.(1);
      for i = 2 to len - 1 do
        print_char ' ';
        print_string Sys.argv.(i);
      done;
      print_newline ();
    end;
  echo ();;
```

* * *

A program can be terminated at any point with a call to `exit`:

```
val exit : int -> 'a
```

The argument is the return code to send back to the calling program. The convention is to return 0 if all has gone well, and to return a non-zero code to signal an error. In conditional constructions, the `sh` shell interprets the return code 0 as the boolean “true”, and all non-zero codes as the boolean “false”. When a program terminates normally after executing all of the expressions of which it is composed, it makes an implicit call to `exit 0`. When a program terminates prematurely because an exception was raised but not caught, it makes an implicit call to `exit 2`. The function `exit` always flushes the buffers of all channels open for writing. The function `at_exit` lets one register other actions to be carried out when the program terminates.

```
val at_exit : (unit -> unit) -> unit
```

The last function to be registered is called `first`. A function registered with `at_exit` cannot be unregistered. However, this is not a real restriction: we can easily get the same effect with a function whose execution depends on a global variable.

1.3 Error handling

Unless otherwise indicated, all functions in the `Unix` module raise the exception `Unix_error` in case of error.

```
exception Unix_error of error * string * string
```

The second argument of the `Unix_error` exception is the name of the system call that raised the error. The third argument identifies, if possible, the object on which the error occurred; for example, in the case of a system call taking a file name as an argument, this file name will be in the third position in `Unix_error`. Finally, the first argument of the exception is an error code indicating the nature of the error. It belongs to the variant type `error`:

```
type error = E2BIG | EACCES | EAGAIN | ... | EUNKNOWNERR of int
```

Constructors of this type have the same names and meanings as those used in the POSIX convention and certain errors from UNIX98 and BSD. All other errors use the constructor `EUNKNOWNERR`.

Given the semantics of exceptions, an error that is not specifically foreseen and intercepted by a `try` propagates up to the top of a program and causes it to terminate prematurely. In small applications, treating unforeseen errors as fatal is a good practice. However, it is appropriate to display the error clearly. To do this, the `Unix` module supplies the `handle_unix_error` function:

```
val handle_unix_error : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a -> 'b
```

The call `handle_unix_error f x` applies function `f` to the argument `x`. If this raises the exception `Unix_error`, a message is displayed describing the error, and the program is terminated with `exit 2`. A typical use is

```
handle_unix_error prog ();;
```

where the function `prog : unit -> unit` executes the body of the program. For reference, here is how `handle_unix_error` is implemented.

```
1 open Unix;;
2 let handle_unix_error f arg =
3   try
4     f arg
5   with Unix_error(err, fun_name, arg) ->
6     prerr_string Sys.argv.(0);
7     prerr_string ": \"";
8     prerr_string fun_name;
9     prerr_string "\" failed";
10    if String.length arg > 0 then begin
11      prerr_string " on \"";
```

```

12     prerr_string arg;
13     prerr_string "\"";
14     end;
15     prerr_string ": ";
16     prerr_endline (error_message err);
17     exit 2;;

```

Functions of the form `prerr_xxx` are like the functions `print_xxx`, except that they write on the error channel `stderr` rather than on the standard output channel `stdout`.

The primitive `error_message`, of type `error -> string`, returns a message describing the error given as an argument (line 16). The argument number zero of the program, namely `Sys.argv.(0)`, contains the name of the command that was used to invoke the program (line 6).

The function `handle_unix_error` handles fatal errors, i.e. errors that stop the program. An advantage of OCaml is that it requires all errors to be handled, if only at the highest level by halting the program. Indeed, any error in a system call raises an exception, and the execution thread in progress is interrupted up to the level where the exception is explicitly caught and handled. This avoids continuing the program in an inconsistent state.

Errors of type `Unix_error` can, of course, be selectively matched. We will often see the following function later on:

```

let rec restart_on_EINTR f x =
  try f x with Unix_error (EINTR, _, _) -> restart_on_EINTR f x

```

which is used to execute a function and to restart it automatically when it executes a system call that is interrupted (see section 4.5).

1.4 Library functions

As we will see throughout the examples, system programming often repeats the same patterns. To reduce the code of each application to its essentials, we will want to define library functions that factor out the common parts.

Whereas in a complete program one knows precisely which errors can be raised (and these are often fatal, resulting in the program being stopped), we generally do not know the execution context in the case of library functions. We cannot suppose that all errors are fatal. It is therefore necessary to let the error return to the caller, which will decide on a suitable course of action (e.g. stop the program, or handle or ignore the error). However, the library function in general will not allow the error to simply pass through, since it must maintain the system in a consistent state. For example, a library function that opens a file and then applies an operation to its file descriptor must take care to close the descriptor in all cases, including those where the processing of the file causes an error. This is in order to avoid a file descriptor leak, leading to the exhaustion of file descriptors.

Furthermore, the operation applied to a file may be defined by a function that was received as an argument, and we don't know precisely when or how it can fail (but the caller in general will know). We are thus often led to protect

the body of the processing with “finalization” code, which must be executed just before the function returns, whether normally or exceptionally.

There is no built-in finalize construct `try ... finalize` in the OCaml language, but it can be easily defined¹:

```
let try_finalize f x finally y =  
  let res = try f x with exn -> finally y; raise exn in  
  finally y;  
  res
```

This function takes the main body `f` and the finalizer `finally`, each in the form of a function, and two parameters `x` and `y`, which are passed to their respective functions. The body of the program `f x` is executed first, and its result is kept aside to be returned after the execution of the finalizer `finally`. In case the program fails, i.e. raises an exception `exn`, the finalizer is run and the exception `exn` is raised again. If both the main function and the finalizer fail, the finalizer’s exception is raised (one could choose to have the main function’s exception raised instead).

Note In the rest of this course, we use an auxiliary library `Misc` which contains several useful functions like `try_finalize` that are often used in the examples. We will introduce them as they are needed. To compile the examples of the course, the definitions of the `Misc` module need to be collected and compiled.

The `Misc` module also contains certain functions, added for illustration purposes, that will not be used in the course. These simply enrich the `Unix` library, sometimes by redefining the behavior of certain functions. The `Misc` module must thus take precedence over the `Unix` module.

Examples The course provides numerous examples. They can be compiled with OCaml, version `4.01.0`. Some programs will have to be slightly modified in order to work with older versions.

There are two kinds of examples: “library functions” (very general functions that can be reused) and small applications. It is important to distinguish between the two. In the case of library functions, we want their context of use to be as general as possible. We will thus carefully specify their interface and attentively treat all particular cases. In the case of small applications, an error is often fatal and causes the program to stop executing. It is sufficient to report the cause of an error, without needing to return to a consistent state, since the program is stopped immediately thereafter.

¹A built-in construct would not be less useful.

2 Files

The term “file” in Unix covers several types of objects:

- standard files: finite sets of bytes containing text or binary information, often referred to as “ordinary” files,
- directories,
- symbolic links,
- special files (*devices*), which primarily provide access to computer peripherals,
- named pipes,
- sockets named in the Unix domain.

The file concept includes both the data contained in the file and information about the file itself (also called meta-data) like its type, its access rights, the latest access times, etc.

2.1 The file system

To a first approximation, the file system can be considered to be a tree. The root is represented by `'/'`. The branches are labeled by (file) names, which are strings of any characters excluding `'\000'` and `'/'` (but it is good practice to also avoid non-printing characters and spaces). The non-terminal nodes are *directories*: these nodes always contain two branches `.` and `..` which respectively represent the directory itself and the directory’s parent. The other nodes are sometimes called *files*, as opposed to directories, but this is ambiguous, as we can also designate any node as a “file”. To avoid all ambiguity we refer to them as *non-directory files*.

The nodes of the tree are addressed by paths. If the start of the path is the root of the file hierarchy, the path is *absolute*, whereas if the start is a directory it is *relative*. More precisely, a *relative path* is a string of file names separated by the character `'/'`. An *absolute path* is a relative path preceded by the character `'/'` (note the double use of this character both as a separator and as the name of the root node).

The `Filename` module handles paths in a portable manner. In particular, `concat` concatenates paths without referring to the character `'/'`, allowing the code to function equally well on other operating systems (for example, the path separator character under Windows is `'\'`). Similarly, the `Filename` module provides the string values `current_dir_name` and `parent_dir_name` to represent the branches `.` and `..`. The functions `basename` and `dirname` return the prefix `d` and the suffix `b` from a path `p` such that the paths `p` and `d/b` refer to the same file, where `d` is the directory in which the file is found and `b` is the name of the file. The functions defined in `Filename` operate only on paths, independently of their actual existence within the file hierarchy.

In fact, strictly speaking, the file hierarchy is not a tree. First the directories `.` and `..` allow a directory to refer to itself and to move up in the hierarchy to

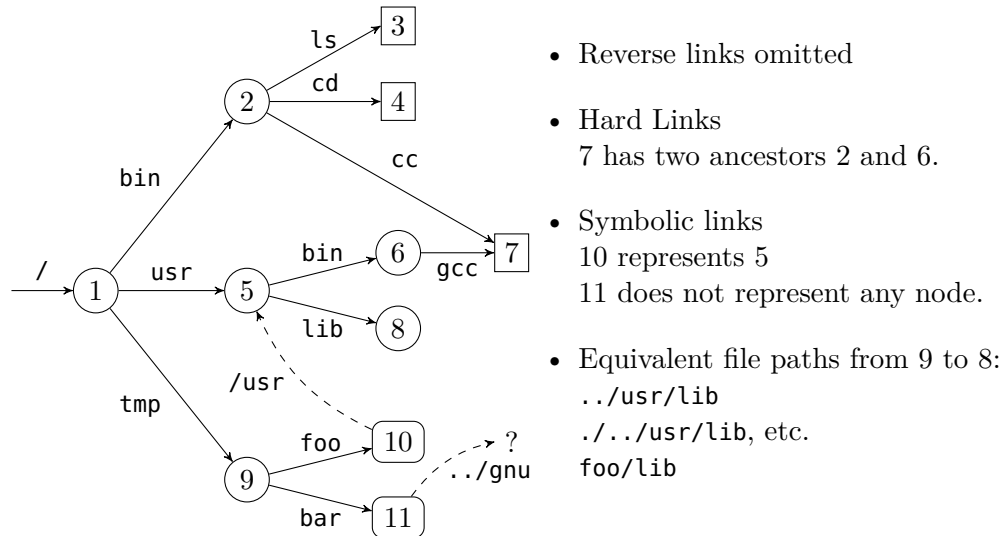


Figure 1 — An example of a file hierarchy

define paths leading from a directory to itself. Moreover, non-directory files can have many parents (we say that they have many *hard links*). Finally, there are also *symbolic links* which can be seen as non-directory files containing a path. Conceptually, this path can be obtained by reading the contents of the symbolic link like an ordinary file. Whenever a symbolic link occurs in the middle of a path we have to follow its path transparently. If s is a symbolic link whose value is the path l , then the path $p/s/q$ represents the file l/q if l is an absolute path or the file $p/l/q$ if l is a relative path.

Figure 1 gives an example of a file hierarchy. The symbolic link 11 corresponding to the path `/tmp/bar` whose path value is the relative path `../gnu`, does not refer to any existing file in the hierarchy (at the moment).

In general, a recursive traversal of the hierarchy will terminate if the following rules are respected:

- the directories `.` and `..` are ignored.
- symbolic links are not followed.

But if symbolic links are followed we are traversing a graph and we need to keep track of the nodes we have already visited to avoid loops.

Each process has a current working directory. It is returned by the function `getcwd` and can be changed with `chdir`. It is also possible to constrict the view of the file hierarchy by calling `chroot p`. This makes the node p , which should be a directory, the root of the restricted view of the hierarchy. Absolute file paths are then interpreted according to this new root p (and of course `..` at the new root is p itself).

2.2 File names and file descriptors

There are two ways to access a file. The first is by its *file name* (or *path name*) in the file system hierarchy. Due to hard links, a file can have many different names. Names are values of type `string`. For example the system calls `unlink`, `link`, `symlink` and `rename` all operate at the file name level.

```
val unlink : string -> unit
val link : string -> string -> unit
val symlink : string -> string -> unit
val rename : string -> string -> unit
```

Their effect is as follows:

- `unlink f` erases the file `f` like the Unix command `rm -f f`.
- `link f1 f2` creates a hard link named `f2` to the file `f1` like the command `ln f1 f2`.
- `symlink f1 f2` creates a symbolic link named `f2` to the file `f1` like the command `ln -s f1 f2`.
- `rename f1 f2` renames the file `f1` to `f2` like the command `mv f1 f2`.

The second way of accessing a file is by a file descriptor. A descriptor represents a pointer to a file along with other information like the current read/write position in the file, the access rights of the file (is it possible to read? write?) and flags which control the behavior of reads and writes (blocking or non-blocking, overwrite, append, etc.). File descriptors are values of the abstract type `file_descr`.

Access to a file via its descriptor is independent from the access via its name. In particular whenever we get a file descriptor, the file can be destroyed or renamed but the descriptor still points on the original file.

When a program is executed, three descriptors are allocated and tied to the variables `stdin`, `stdout` and `stderr` of the Unix module:

```
val stdin : file_descr
val stdout : file_descr
val stderr : file_descr
```

They correspond, respectively, to the standard input, standard output and standard error of the process.

When a program is executed on the command line without any redirections, the three descriptors refer to the terminal. But if, for example, the input has been redirected using the shell expression `cmd < f`, then the descriptor `stdin` refers to the file named `f` during the execution of the command `cmd`. Similarly, `cmd > f` and `cmd 2> f` respectively bind the descriptors `stdout` and `stderr` to the file named `f` during the execution of the command.

2.3 Meta-attributes, types and permissions

The system calls `stat`, `lstat` and `fstat` return the meta-attributes of a file; that is, information about the node itself rather than its content. Among other things, this information contains the identity of the file, the type of file, the access rights, the time and date of last access and other information.

```

val stat  : string -> stats
val lstat : string -> stats
val fstat : file_descr -> stats

```

The system calls `stat` and `lstat` take a file name as an argument while `fstat` takes a previously opened descriptor and returns information about the file it points to. `stat` and `lstat` differ on symbolic links : `lstat` returns information about the symbolic link itself, while `stat` returns information about the file that the link points to. The result of these three calls is a record of type `stats` whose fields are described in table 1.

Identification

A file is uniquely identified by the pair made of its device number (typically the disk partition where it is located) `st_dev` and its inode number `st_ino`.

Owners

A file has one user owner `st_uid` and one group owner `st_gid`. All the users and groups on the machine are usually described in the `/etc/passwd` and `/etc/groups` files. We can look up them by name in a portable manner with the functions `getpwnam` and `getgrnam` or by id with `getpwuid` and `getgrgid`.

```

val getpwnam : string -> passwd_entry
val getgrnam : string -> group_entry
val getpwuid : int -> passwd_entry
val getgrgid : int -> group_entry

```

The name of the user of a running process and all the groups to which it belongs can be retrieved with the commands `getlogin` and `getgroups`.

```

val getlogin : unit -> string
val getgroups : unit -> int array

```

The call `chown` changes the owner (second argument) and the group (third argument) of a file (first argument). If we have a file descriptor, `fchown` can be used instead. Only the super user can change this information arbitrarily.

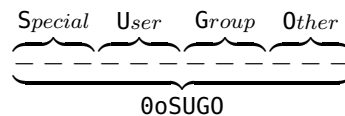
```

val chown : string -> int -> int -> unit
val fchown : file_descr -> int -> int -> unit

```

Access rights

Access rights are encoded as bits in an integer, and the type `file_perm` is just an abbreviation for the type `int`. They specify special bits and read, write and execution rights for the user owner, the group owner and the other users as vector of bits:



where in each of the user, group and other fields, the order of bits indicates read (r), write (w) and execute (x) rights. The permissions on a file are the union of all these individual rights, as shown in table 2.

Field name	Description
<code>st_dev : int</code>	The id of the device on which the file is stored.
<code>st_ino : int</code>	The id of the file (inode number) in its partition. The pair (<code>st_dev</code> , <code>st_ino</code>) uniquely identifies the file within the file system.
<code>st_kind : file_kind</code>	The file type. The type <code>file_kind</code> is an enumerated type whose constructors are: <code>S_REG</code> Regular file <code>S_DIR</code> Directory <code>S_CHR</code> Character device <code>S_BLK</code> Block device <code>S_LNK</code> Symbolic link <code>S_FIFO</code> Named pipe <code>S_SOCK</code> Socket
<code>st_perm : int</code>	Access rights for the file
<code>st_nlink : int</code>	For a directory: the number of entries in the directory. For others: the number of hard links to this file.
<code>st_uid : int</code>	The id of the file's user owner.
<code>st_gid : int</code>	The id of the file's group owner.
<code>st_rdev : int</code>	The id of the associated peripheral (for special files).
<code>st_size : int</code>	The file size, in bytes.
<code>st_atime : int</code>	Last file content access date (in seconds from January 1st 1970, midnight, GMT).
<code>st_mtime : int</code>	Last file content modification date (idem).
<code>st_ctime : int</code>	Last file state modification date: either a write to the file or a change in access rights, user or group owner, or number of links.

Table 1 — Fields of the `stats` structure

Bit (octal)	Notation <code>ls -l</code>	Access right
00100	--x-----	executable by the user owner
00200	-w-----	writable by the user owner
00400	r-----	readable by the user owner
0010	-----x--	executable by members of the group owner
0020	----w----	writable by members of the group owner
0040	---r----	readable by members of the group owner
001	-----x	executable by other users
002	-----w-	writable by other users
004	-----r--	readable by other users
001000	-----t	the bit <code>t</code> on the group (sticky bit)
002000	-----s--	the bit <code>s</code> on the group (<code>set-gid</code>)
004000	--s-----	the bit <code>s</code> on the user (<code>set-uid</code>)

Table 2 — Permission bits

For files, the meaning of read, write and execute permissions is obvious. For a directory, the execute permission means the right to enter it (to `chdir` to it) and read permission the right to list its contents. Read permission on a directory is however not needed to read its files or sub-directories (but we then need to know their names).

The special bits do not have meaning unless the `x` bit is set (if present without `x` set, they do not give additional rights). This is why their representation is superimposed on the bit `x` and the letters `S` and `T` are used instead of `s` and `t` whenever `x` is not set. The bit `t` allows sub-directories to inherit the permissions of the parent directory. On a directory, the bit `s` allows the use of the directory's `uid` or `gid` rather than the user's to create directories. For an executable file, the bit `s` allows the changing at execution time of the user's effective identity or group with the system calls `setuid` and `setgid`.

```
val setuid : int -> unit
```

```
val setgid : int -> unit
```

The process also preserves its original identities unless it has super user privileges, in which case `setuid` and `setgid` change both its effective and original user and group identities. The original identity is preserved to allow the process to subsequently recover it as its effective identity without needing further privileges. The system calls `getuid` and `getgid` return the original identities and `geteuid` and `getegid` return the effective identities.

```
val getuid : unit -> int
```

```
val geteuid : unit -> int
```

```
val getgid : unit -> int
```

```
val getegid : unit -> int
```

A process also has a file creation mask encoded the same way file permissions are. As its name suggests, the mask specifies prohibitions (rights to remove): during file creation a bit set to 1 in the mask is set to 0 in the permissions of the created file. The mask can be consulted and changed with the system call `umask`:

```
val umask : int -> int
```

Like many system calls that modify system variables, the modifying function returns the old value of the variable. Thus, to just look up the value we need to call the function twice. Once with an arbitrary value to get the mask and a second time to put it back. For example:

```
let m = umask 0 in ignore (umask m); m
```

File access permissions can be modified with the system calls `chmod` and `fchmod`:

```
val chmod : string -> file_perm -> unit  
val fchmod : file_descr -> file_perm -> unit
```

and they can be tested “dynamically” with the system call `access`:

```
type access_permission = R_OK | W_OK | X_OK | F_OK  
val access : string -> access_permission list -> unit
```

where requested access rights to the file are specified by a list of values of type `access_permission` whose meaning is obvious except for `F_OK` which just checks for the file’s existence (without checking for the other rights). The function raises an error if the access rights are not granted.

Note that the information inferred by `access` may be more restrictive than the information returned by `lstat` because a file system may be mounted with restricted rights — for example in read-only mode. In that case `access` will deny a write permission on a file whose meta-attributes would allow it. This is why we distinguish between “dynamic” (what a process can actually do) and “static” (what the file system specifies) information.

2.4 Operations on directories

Only the kernel can write in directories (when files are created). Thus opening a directory in write mode is prohibited. In certain versions of Unix a directory may be opened in read only mode and read with `read`, but other versions prohibit it. However, even if this is possible, it is preferable not to do so because the format of directory entries vary between Unix versions and is often complex. The following functions allow reading a directory sequentially in a portable manner:

```
val opendir   : string -> dir_handle  
val readdir   : dir_handle -> string  
val rewinddir : dir_handle -> unit  
val closedir  : dir_handle -> unit
```

The system call `opendir` returns a directory descriptor for a directory. `readdir` reads the next entry of a descriptor, and returns a file name relative to the directory or raises the exception `End_of_file` if the end of the directory is reached. `rewinddir` repositions the descriptor at the beginning of the directory and `closedir` closes the directory descriptor.

Example The following library function, in `Misc`, iterates a function `f` over the entries of the directory `dirname`.

```
let iter_dir f dirname =
  let d = opendir dirname in
  try while true do f (readdir d) done
  with End_of_file -> closedir d
```

* * *

To create a directory or remove an empty directory, we have `mkdir` and `rmdir`:

```
val mkdir : string -> file_perm -> unit
val rmdir : string -> unit
```

The second argument of `mkdir` determines the access rights of the new directory. Note that we can only remove a directory that is already empty. To remove a directory and its contents, it is thus necessary to first recursively empty the contents of the directory and then remove the directory.

2.5 Complete example: search in a file hierarchy

The Unix command `find` lists the files of a hierarchy matching certain criteria (file name, type and permissions etc.). In this section we develop a library function `Findlib.find` which implements these searches and a command `find` that provides a version of the Unix command `find` that supports the options `-follow` and `-maxdepth`.

We specify the following interface for `Findlib.find`:

```
val find :
  (Unix.error * string * string -> unit) ->
  (string -> Unix.stats -> bool) -> bool -> int -> string list ->
  unit
```

The function call

```
find handler action follow depth roots
```

traverses the file hierarchy starting from the roots specified in the list `roots` (absolute or relative to the current directory of the process when the call is made) up to a maximum depth `depth` and following symbolic links if the flag `follow` is set. The paths found under the root `r` include `r` as a prefix. Each found path `p` is given to the function `action` along with the data returned by `Unix.lstat p` (or `Unix.stat p` if `follow` is `true`). The function `action` returns a boolean indicating, for directories, whether the search should continue for its contents (`true`) or not (`false`).

The `handler` function reports traversal errors of type `Unix_error`. Whenever an error occurs the arguments of the exception are given to the handler function and the traversal continues. However when an exception is raised by the functions `action` or `handler` themselves, we immediately stop the traversal and let it propagate to the caller. To propagate an `Unix_error` exception without catching it like a traversal error, we wrap these exceptions in the `Hidden` exception (see `hide_exn` and `reveal_exn`).

Complete example: search in a file hierarchy

```
1  open Unix;;
2
3  exception Hidden of exn
4  let hide_exn f x = try f x with exn -> raise (Hidden exn);;
5  let reveal_exn f x = try f x with Hidden exn -> raise exn;;
6
7  let find on_error on_path follow depth roots =
8    let rec find_rec depth visiting filename =
9      try
10        let infos = (if follow then stat else lstat) filename in
11        let continue = hide_exn (on_path filename) infos in
12        let id = infos.st_dev, infos.st_ino in
13        if infos.st_kind = S_DIR && depth > 0 && continue &&
14          (not follow || not (List.mem id visiting))
15        then
16          let process_child child =
17            if (child <> Filename.current_dir_name &&
18              child <> Filename.parent_dir_name) then
19              let child_name = Filename.concat filename child in
20              let visiting =
21                if follow then id :: visiting else visiting in
22              find_rec (depth-1) visiting child_name in
23          Misc.iter_dir process_child filename
24        with Unix_error (e, b, c) -> hide_exn on_error (e, b, c) in
25    reveal_exn (List.iter (find_rec depth [])) roots;;
```

A directory is identified by the id pair (line 12) made of its device and inode number. The list `visiting` keeps track of the directories that have already been visited. In fact this information is only needed if symbolic links are followed (line 21).

It is now easy to program the `find` command. The essential part of the code parses the command line arguments with the `Arg` module.

```
let find () =
  let follow = ref false in
  let maxdepth = ref max_int in
  let roots = ref [] in
  let usage_string =
    ("Usage: " ^ Sys.argv.(0) ^ " [files...] [options...]") in
  let opt_list = [
    "-maxdepth", Arg.Int (:=) maxdepth, "max depth search";
    "-follow", Arg.Set follow, "follow symbolic links";
  ] in
  Arg.parse opt_list (fun f -> roots := f :: !roots) usage_string;
  let action p infos = print_endline p; true in
  let errors = ref false in
  let on_error (e, b, c) =
    errors := true; prerr_endline (c ^ ": " ^ Unix.error_message e) in
  Findlib.find on_error action !follow !maxdepth
  (if !roots = [] then [ Filename.current_dir_name ]
```

```

    else List.rev !roots);
  if !errors then exit 1;;

```

```

Unix.handle_unix_error find ();;

```

Although our `find` command is quite limited, the library function `FindLib.find` is far more general, as the following exercise shows.

Exercise 1 Use the function `FindLib.find` to write a command `find_but_CVS` equivalent to the Unix command:

```

find . -type d -name CVS -prune -o -print

```

which, starting from the current directory, recursively prints files without printing or entering directories whose name is `CVS`. Answer page 121.

* * *

Exercise 2 The function `getcwd` is not a system call but is defined in the Unix module. Give a “primitive” implementation of `getcwd`. First describe the principle of your algorithm with words and then implement it (you should avoid repeating the same system call). Answer page 121.

* * *

2.6 Opening a file

The `openfile` function allows us to obtain a descriptor for a file of a given name (the corresponding system call is `open`, however **`open`** is a keyword in OCaml).

```

val openfile :

```

```

  string -> open_flag list -> file_perm -> file_descr

```

The first argument is the name of the file to open. The second argument, a list of flags from the enumerated type `open_flag`, describes the mode in which the file should be opened and what to do if it does not exist. The third argument of type `file_perm` defines the file’s access rights, should the file be created. The result is a file descriptor for the given file name with the read/write position set to the beginning of the file.

The flag list must contain exactly one of the following flags:

`O_RDONLY` Open in read-only mode.

`O_WRONLY` Open in write-only mode.

`O_RDWR` Open in read and write mode.

These flags determine whether read or write calls can be done on the descriptor. The call `openfile` fails if a process requests an open in write (resp. read) mode on a file on which it has no right to write (resp. read). For this reason `O_RDWR` should not be used systematically.

The flag list can also contain one or more of the following values:

Opening a file

`O_APPEND` Open in append mode.
`O_CREAT` Create the file if it does not exist.
`O_TRUNC` Truncate the file to zero if it already exists.
`O_EXCL` Fail if the file already exists.

`O_NONBLOCK` Open in non-blocking mode.
`O_NOCTTY` Do not function in console mode.

`O_SYNC` Perform the writes in synchronous mode.
`O_DSYNC` Perform the data writes in synchronous mode.
`O_RSYNC` Perform the reads in synchronous mode.

The first group defines the behavior to follow if the file exists or not. With:

- `O_APPEND`, the read/write position will be set at the end of the file before each write. Consequently any written data will be added at the end of file. Without `O_APPEND`, writes occur at the current read/write position (initially, the beginning of the file).
- `O_TRUNC`, the file is truncated when it is opened. The length of the file is set to zero and the bytes contained in the file are lost, and writes start from an empty file. Without `O_TRUNC`, the writes are made at the start of the file overwriting any data that may already be there.
- `O_CREAT`, creates the file if it does not exist. The created file is empty and its access rights are specified by the third argument and the creation mask of the process (the mask can be retrieved and changed with `umask`).
- `O_EXCL`, `openfile` fails if the file already exists. This flag, used in conjunction with `O_CREAT` allows to use files as *locks*¹. A process which wants to take the lock calls `openfile` on the file with `O_EXCL` and `O_CREAT`. If the file already exists, this means that another process already holds the lock and `openfile` raises an error. If the file does not exist `openfile` returns without error and the file is created, preventing other processes from taking the lock. To release the lock the process calls `unlink` on it. The creation of a file is an atomic operation: if two processes try to create the same file in parallel with the options `O_EXCL` and `O_CREAT`, at most one of them can succeed. The drawbacks of this technique is that a process must busy wait to acquire a lock that is currently held and the abnormal termination of a process holding a lock may never release it.

Example Most programs use `0o666` for the third argument to `openfile`. This means `rw-rw-rw-` in symbolic notation. With the default creation mask of `0o022`, the file is thus created with the permissions `rw-r--r--`. With a more lenient mask of `0o002`, the file is created with the permissions `rw-rw-r--`.

* * *

¹This is not possible if the lock file is located on a NFS partition, because NFS does not implement the option `O_CREAT` of `open` correctly.

Example To read from a file:

```
openfile filename [O_RDONLY] 0
```

The third argument can be anything as `O_CREAT` is not specified, 0 is usually given.

To write to an empty a file without caring about any previous content:

```
openfile filename [O_WRONLY; O_TRUNC; O_CREAT] 0o666
```

If the file will contain executable code (e.g. files created by `ld`, scripts, etc.), we create it with execution permissions:

```
openfile filename [O_WRONLY; O_TRUNC; O_CREAT] 0o777
```

If the file must be confidential (e.g. “mailbox” files where `mail` stores read messages), we create it with write permissions only for the user owner:

```
openfile filename [O_WRONLY; O_TRUNC; O_CREAT] 0o600
```

To append data at the end of an existing file or create it if it doesn’t exist:

```
openfile filename [O_WRONLY; O_APPEND; O_CREAT] 0o666
```

* * *

The `O_NONBLOCK` flag guarantees that if the file is a named pipe or a special file then the file opening and subsequent reads and writes will be non-blocking.

The `O_NOCTTY` flag guarantees that if the file is a control terminal (keyboard, window, etc.), it won’t become the controlling terminal of the calling process.

The last group of flags specifies how to synchronize read and write operations. By default these operations are not synchronized. With:

- `O_DSYNC`, the data is written synchronously such that the process is blocked until all the writes have been done physically on the media (usually a disk).
- `O_SYNC`, the file data and its meta-attributes are written synchronously.
- `O_RSYNC`, with `O_DSYNC` specifies that the data reads are also synchronized: it is guaranteed that all current writes (requested but not necessarily performed) to the file are really written to the media before the next read. If `O_RSYNC` is provided with `O_SYNC` the above also applies to meta-attributes changes.

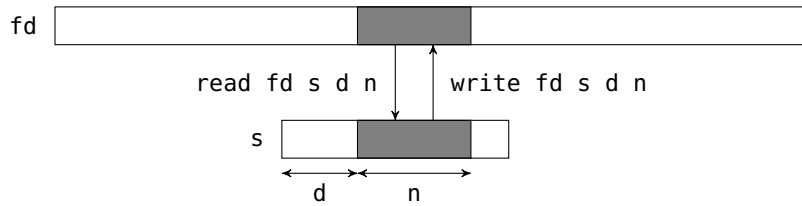
2.7 Reading and writing

The system calls `read` and `write` read and write bytes in a file. For historical reasons, the system call `write` is provided in OCaml under the name `single_write`:

```
val read : file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> int
val single_write : file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> int
```

The two calls `read` and `single_write` have the same interface. The first argument is the file descriptor to act on. The second argument is a string which will hold the read bytes (for `read`) or the bytes to write (for `single_write`). The third argument is the position in the string of the first byte to be written or read. The fourth argument is the number of the bytes to be read or written. In fact the third and fourth argument define a sub-string of the second argument (the sub-string should be valid, `read` and `single_write` do not check this).

Reading and writing



`read` and `single_write` return the number of bytes actually read or written.

Reads and write calls are performed from the file descriptor's current read/write position (if the file was opened in `O_APPEND` mode, this position is set at the end of the file prior to any write). After the system call, the current position is advanced by the number of bytes read or written.

For writes, the number of bytes actually written is usually the number of bytes requested. However there are exceptions: (i) if it is not possible to write the bytes (e.g. if the disk is full) (ii) the descriptor is a pipe or a socket open in non-blocking mode (iii) due to OCaml, if the write is too large.

The reason for (iii) is that internally OCaml uses auxiliary buffers whose size is bounded by a maximal value. If this value is exceeded the write will be partial. To work around this problem OCaml also provides the function `write` which iterates the writes until all the data is written or an error occurs. The problem is that in case of error there's no way to know the number of bytes that were actually written. Hence `single_write` should be preferred because it preserves the atomicity of writes (we know exactly what was written) and it is more faithful to the original Unix system call (note that the implementation of `single_write` is described in section 5.7).

Example Assume `fd` is a descriptor open in write-only mode.

```
write fd "Hello world!" 3 7
```

writes the characters "lo worl" in the corresponding file, and returns 7.

* * *

For reads, it is possible that the number bytes actually read is smaller than the number of requested bytes. For example when the end of file is near, that is when the number of bytes between the current position and the end of file is less than the number of requested bytes. In particular, when the current position is at the end of file, `read` returns zero. The convention "zero equals end of file" also holds for special files, pipes and sockets. For example, `read` on a terminal returns zero if we issue a `ctrl-D` on the input.

Another example is when we read from a terminal. In that case, `read` blocks until an entire line is available. If the line length is smaller than the requested bytes `read` returns immediately with the line without waiting for more data to reach the number of requested bytes. (This is the default behavior for terminals, but it can be changed to read character-by-character instead of line-by-line, see section 2.13 and the type `terminal_io` for more details.)

Example The following expression reads at most 100 characters from standard input and returns them as a string.

```
let buffer = String.create 100 in
let n = read stdin buffer 0 100 in
String.sub buffer 0 n
```

* * *

Example The function `really_read` below has the same interface as `read`, but makes additional read attempts to try to get the number of requested bytes. It raises the exception `End_of_file` if the end of file is reached while doing this.

```
let rec really_read fd buffer start length =
  if length <= 0 then () else
  match read fd buffer start length with
  | 0 -> raise End_of_file
  | r -> really_read fd buffer (start + r) (length - r);;
```

* * *

2.8 Closing a descriptor

The system call `close` closes a file descriptor.

```
val close : file_descr -> unit
```

Once a descriptor is closed, all attempts to read, write, or do anything else with the descriptor will fail. Descriptors should be closed when they are no longer needed; but it is not mandatory. In particular, and in contrast to `Pervasives`' channels, a file descriptor doesn't need to be closed to ensure that all pending writes have been performed as write requests made with `write` are immediately transmitted to the kernel. On the other hand, the number of descriptors allocated by a process is limited by the kernel (from several hundreds to thousands). Doing a `close` on an unused descriptor releases it, so that the process does not run out of descriptors.

2.9 Complete example: file copy

We program a command `file_copy` which, given two arguments `f1` and `f2`, copies to the file `f2` the bytes contained in `f1`.

```
open Unix;;

let buffer_size = 8192;;
let buffer = String.create buffer_size;;

let file_copy input_name output_name =
  let fd_in = openfile input_name [O_RDONLY] 0 in
  let fd_out = openfile output_name [O_WRONLY; O_CREAT; O_TRUNC] 0o666 in
  let rec copy_loop () = match read fd_in buffer 0 buffer_size with
    | 0 -> ()
    | r -> ignore (write fd_out buffer 0 r); copy_loop ()
  in
  copy_loop ();
  close fd_in;
  close fd_out;;
```

```
let copy () =
  if Array.length Sys.argv = 3 then begin
    file_copy Sys.argv.(1) Sys.argv.(2);
    exit 0
  end else begin
    prerr_endline
      ("Usage: " ^ Sys.argv.(0) ^ " <input_file> <output_file>");
    exit 1
  end;;

handle_unix_error copy ();;
```

The bulk of the work is performed by the the function `file_copy`. First we open a descriptor in read-only mode on the input file and another in write-only mode on the output file.

If the output file already exists, it is truncated (option `O_TRUNC`) and if it does not exist it is created (option `O_CREAT`) with the permissions `rw-rw-rw-` modified by the creation mask. (This is unsatisfactory: if we copy an executable file, we would like the copy to be also executable. We will see later how to give a copy the same permissions as the original.)

In the `copy_loop` function we do the copy by blocks of `buffer_size` bytes. We request `buffer_size` bytes to read. If `read` returns zero, we have reached the end of file and the copy is over. Otherwise we write the `r` bytes we have read in the output file and start again.

Finally, we close the two descriptors. The main program `copy` verifies that the command received two arguments and passes them to the function `file_copy`.

Any error occurring during the copy results in a `Unix_error` caught and displayed by `handle_unix_error`. Example of errors include inability to open the input file because it does not exist, failure to read because of restricted permissions, failure to write because the disk is full, etc.

Exercise 3 Add an option `-a` to the program, such that `file_copy -a f1 f2` appends the contents of `f1` to the end of the file `f2`. Answer page 121.

* * *

2.10 The cost of system calls and buffers

In the example `file_copy`, reads were made in blocks of 8192 bytes. Why not read byte per by byte, or megabyte per by megabyte? The reason is efficiency.

Figure 2 shows the copy speed of `file_copy`, in bytes per second, against the size of blocks (the value `buffer_size`). The amount of data transferred is the same regardless of the size of the blocks. For small block sizes, the copy speed is almost proportional to the block size. Most of the time is spent not in data transfers but in the execution of the loop `copy_loop` and in the calls to `read` and `write`. By profiling more carefully we can see that most of the time is spent in the calls to `read` and `write`. We conclude that a system call, even if it has not much to do, takes a minimum of about 4 micro-seconds (on the machine that was

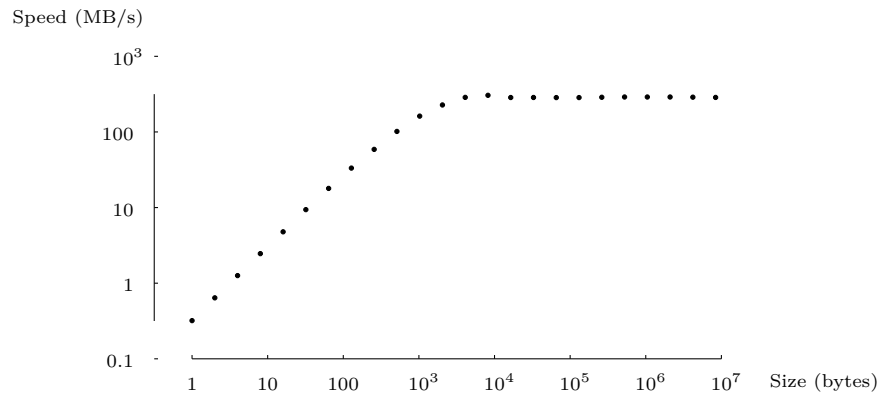


Figure 2 — Copy speed as a function of block size

used for the test — a 2.8 GHz Pentium 4), let us say from 1 to 10 microseconds. For small input/output blocks, the duration of the system call dominates.

For larger blocks, between 4KB and 1MB, the copy speed is constant and maximal. Here, the time spent in system calls and the loop is small relative to the time spent on the data transfer. Also, the buffer size becomes bigger than the cache sizes used by the system and the time spent by the system to make the transfer dominates the cost of a system call².

Finally, for very large blocks (8MB and more) the speed is slightly under the maximum. Coming into play here is the time needed to allocate the block and assign memory pages to it as it fills up.

The moral of the story is that, a system call, even if it does very little work, costs dearly — much more than a normal function call: roughly, 2 to 20 microseconds for each system call, depending on the architecture. It is therefore important to minimize the number of system calls. In particular, read and write operations should be made in blocks of reasonable size and not character by character.

In examples like `file_copy`, it is not difficult to do input/output with large blocks. But other types of programs are more naturally written with character by character input or output (e.g. reading a line from a file, lexical analysis, displaying a number etc.). To satisfy the needs of these programs, most systems provide input/output libraries with an additional layer of software between the application and the operating system. For example, in OCaml the `Pervasives` module defines the abstract types `in_channel` and `out_channel`, similar to file descriptors, and functions on these types like `input_char`, `input_line`, `output_char`, or `output_string`. This layer uses buffers to group sequences of character by character reads or writes into a single system call to read or write. This results in better performance for programs that proceed character by character. Moreover this additional layer makes programs more portable: we just need to implement

²In fact, OCaml limits the size of data transfers to 16KB (in the current version) and repeats write system calls to make the complete transfer — see the discussion in section 5.7. But this limit is bigger than the size of system caches and it is not observable.

this layer with the system calls provided by another operating system to port all the programs that use this library on this new platform.

2.11 Complete example: a small input/output library

To illustrate the buffered input/output techniques, we implement a fragment of OCaml Pervasives library. Here is the interface:

```
exception End_of_file
```

```
type in_channel
```

```
val open_in : string -> in_channel
```

```
val input_char : in_channel -> char
```

```
val close_in : in_channel -> unit
```

```
type out_channel
```

```
val open_out : string -> out_channel
```

```
val output_char : out_channel -> char -> unit
```

```
val close_out : out_channel -> unit
```

We start with the “input” part. The abstract type `in_channel` is defined as follows:

```
open Unix;;
```

```
type in_channel =
```

```
  { in_buffer: string;
```

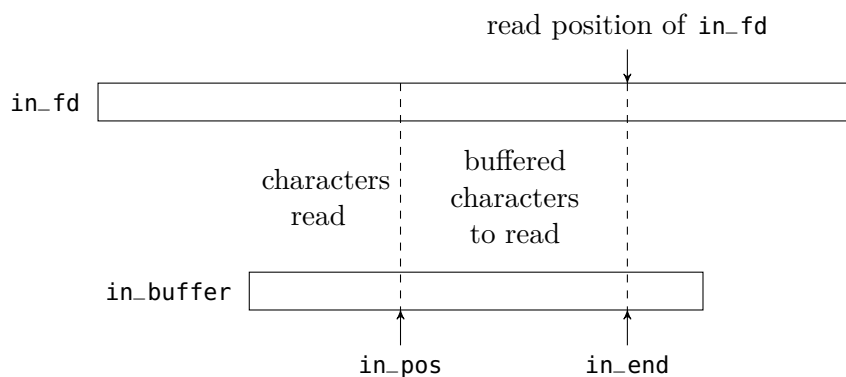
```
    in_fd: file_descr;
```

```
    mutable in_pos: int;
```

```
    mutable in_end: int };;
```

```
exception End_of_file
```

The character string of the `in_buffer` field is, literally, the buffer. The field `in_fd` is a (Unix) file descriptor, opened on the file to read. The field `in_pos` is the current read position in the buffer. The field `in_end` is the number of valid characters preloaded in the buffer.



The fields `in_pos` and `in_end` will be modified in place during read operations; we therefore declare them as **mutable**.

```

let buffer_size = 8192;;
let open_in filename =
  { in_buffer = String.create buffer_size;
    in_fd = openfile filename [O_RDONLY] 0;
    in_pos = 0;
    in_end = 0 };;

```

When we open a file for reading, we create a buffer of reasonable size (large enough so as not to make too many system calls; small enough so as not to waste memory). We then initialize the field `in_fd` with a Unix file descriptor opened in read-only mode on the given file. The buffer is initially empty (it does not contain any character from the file); the field `in_end` is therefore initialized to zero.

```

let input_char chan =
  if chan.in_pos < chan.in_end then begin
    let c = chan.in_buffer.[chan.in_pos] in
      chan.in_pos <- chan.in_pos + 1;
    c
  end else begin
    match read chan.in_fd chan.in_buffer 0 buffer_size
    with 0 -> raise End_of_file
      | r -> chan.in_end <- r;
          chan.in_pos <- 1;
          chan.in_buffer.[0]
    end;;

```

To read a character from an `in_channel`, we do one of two things. Either there is at least one unread character in the buffer; that is to say, the field `in_pos` is less than the field `in_end`. We then return this character located at `in_pos`, and increment `in_pos`. Or the buffer is empty and we call `read` to refill the buffer. If `read` returns zero, we have reached the end of the file and we raise the exception `End_of_file`. Otherwise, we put the number of characters read in the field `in_end` (we may receive less characters than we requested, thus the buffer may be only partially refilled) and we return the first character read.

```

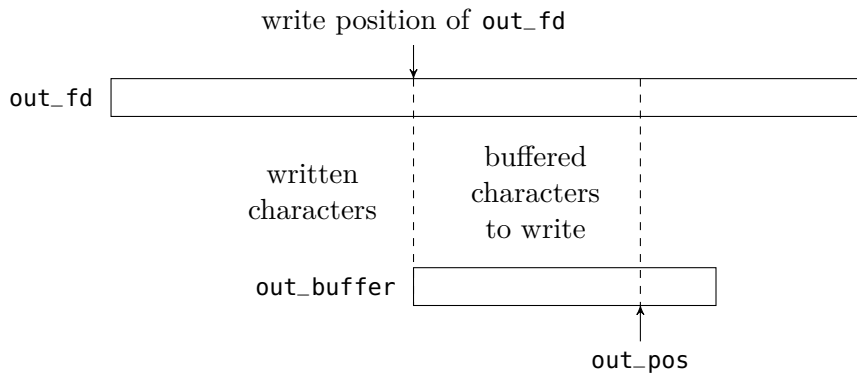
let close_in chan =
  close chan.in_fd;;

```

Closing an `in_channel` just closes the underlying Unix file descriptor.

The “output” part is very similar to the “input” part. The only asymmetry is that the buffer now contains incomplete writes (characters that have already been buffered but not written to the file descriptor), and not reads in advance (characters that have buffered, but not yet read).

Complete example: a small input/output library



```
type out_channel =  
  { out_buffer: string;  
    out_fd: file_descr;  
    mutable out_pos: int };;  
  
let open_out filename =  
  { out_buffer = String.create 8192;  
    out_fd = openfile filename [O_WRONLY; O_TRUNC; O_CREAT] 0o666;  
    out_pos = 0 };;  
  
let output_char chan c =  
  if chan.out_pos < String.length chan.out_buffer then begin  
    chan.out_buffer.[chan.out_pos] <- c;  
    chan.out_pos <- chan.out_pos + 1  
  end else begin  
    ignore (write chan.out_fd chan.out_buffer 0 chan.out_pos);  
    chan.out_buffer.[0] <- c;  
    chan.out_pos <- 1  
  end;;  
  
let close_out chan =  
  ignore (write chan.out_fd chan.out_buffer 0 chan.out_pos);  
  close chan.out_fd;;
```

To write a character on an `out_channel`, we do one of two things. Either the buffer is not full and we just store the character in the buffer at the position `out_pos` and increment that value. Or the buffer is full and we empty it with a call to `write` and then store the character at the beginning of the buffer.

When we close an `out_channel`, we must not forget to write the buffer contents (the characters from 0 to `out_pos - 1`) to the file otherwise the writes made on the channel since the last time the buffer was emptied would be lost.

Exercise 4 Implement the function:

```
val output_string : out_channel -> string -> unit
```

which behaves like a sequence of `output_char` on each character of the string, but is more efficient. Answer page 121.

* * *

2.12 Positioning

The system call `lseek` allows to set the current read/write position of a file descriptor.

```
val lseek : file_descr -> int -> seek_command -> int
```

The first argument is the file descriptor and the second one the desired position. The latter is interpreted according to the value of the third argument of type `seek_command`. This enumerated type specifies the kind of position:

- SEEK_SET** Absolute position. The second argument specifies the character number to point to. The first character of a file is at position zero.
- SEEK_CUR** Position relative to the current position. The second argument is an offset relative to the current position. A positive value moves forward and a negative value moves backwards.
- SEEK_END** Position relative to the end of file. The second argument is an offset relative to the end of file. As for **SEEK_CUR**, the offset may be positive or negative.

The value returned by `lseek` is the resulting absolute read/write position.

An error is raised if a negative absolute position is requested. The requested position can be located after the end of file. In that case, a `read` returns zero (end of file reached) and a `write` extends the file with zeros until that position and then writes the supplied data.

Example To position the cursor on the 1000th character of a file:

```
lseek fd 1000 SEEK_SET
```

To rewind by one character:

```
lseek fd (-1) SEEK_CUR
```

To find out the size of a file:

```
let file_size = lseek fd 0 SEEK_END in ...
```

* * *

For descriptors opened in `O_APPEND` mode, the read/write position is automatically set at the end of the file before each write. Thus a call `lseek` is useless to set the write position, it may however be useful to set the read position.

The behavior of `lseek` is undefined on certain type of files for which absolute access is meaningless: communication devices (pipes, sockets) but also many special files like the terminal. In most Unix implementations a call to `lseek` on these files is simply ignored: the read/write position is set but read/write operations ignore it. In some implementations, `lseek` on a pipe or a socket triggers an error.

Exercise 5 The command `tail` displays the last n lines of a file. How can it be implemented efficiently on regular files? What can we do for the other kind of files? How can the option `-f` be implemented (cf. `man tail`)? Answer page 122.

* * *

2.13 Operations specific to certain file types

In Unix, data communication is done via file descriptors representing either permanent files (files, peripherals) or volatile ones (pipes and sockets, see chapters 5 and 6). File descriptors provide a uniform and media-independent interface for data communication. Of course the actual implementation of the operations on a file descriptor depends on the underlying media.

However this uniformity breaks when we need to access all the features provided by a given media. General operations (opening, writing, reading, etc.) remain uniform on most descriptors but even, on certain special files, these may have an ad hoc behavior defined by the kind of peripheral and its parameters. There are also operations that work only with certain kind of media.

Normal files

We can shorten a normal file with the system calls `truncate` and `ftruncate`.

```
val truncate  : string -> int -> unit
val ftruncate : file_descr -> int -> unit
```

The first argument is the file to truncate and the second the desired size. All the data after this position is lost.

Symbolic links

Most operations on files “follow” symbolic links in the sense that they do not apply to the link itself but to the file on which the link points (for example `openfile`, `stat`, `truncate`, `opendir`, etc.).

The two system calls `symlink` and `readlink` operate specifically on symbolic links:

```
val symlink  : string -> string -> unit
val readlink : string -> string
```

The call `symlink f1 f2` creates the file `f2` as a symbolic link to `f1` (like the Unix command `ln -s f1 f2`). The call `readlink` returns the content of a symbolic link, i.e. the name of the file to which the link points.

Special files

Special files can be of “character” or “block” type. The former are character streams: we can read or write characters only sequentially. These are the terminals, sound devices, printers, etc. The latter, typically disks, have a permanent medium: characters can be read by blocks and even seeked relative to the current position.

Among the special files, we may distinguish:

<code>/dev/null</code>	This is the black hole which swallows everything we put into and from which nothing comes out. This is extremely useful for ignoring the results of a process: we redirect its output to <code>/dev/null</code> (see chapter 5).
<code>/dev/tty*</code>	These are the control terminals.
<code>/dev/pty*</code>	These are the pseudo-terminals: they are not real terminals but simulate them (they provide the same interface).
<code>/dev/hd*</code>	These are the disks.
<code>/proc</code>	Under Linux, system parameters organized as a file system. They allow reads and writes.

The usual file system calls on special files can behave differently. However, most special files (terminals, tape drives, disks, etc.) respond to `read` and `write` in the obvious manner (but sometimes with restrictions on the number of bytes written or read), but many ignore `lseek`.

In addition to the usual file system calls, special files which represent peripherals must be commanded and/or configured dynamically. For example, for a tape drive, rewind or fast forward the tape; for a terminal, choice of the line editing mode, behavior of special characters, serial connection parameters (speed, parity, etc.). These operations are made in Unix with the system call `ioctl` which group together all the particular cases. However, this system call is not provided by OCaml; it is ill-defined and cannot be treated in a uniform way.

Terminals

Terminals and pseudo-terminals are special files of type character which can be configured from OCaml. The system call `tcgetattr` takes a file descriptor open on a special file and returns a structure of type `terminal_io` which describes the status of the terminal according to the POSIX standard.

```
type terminal_io =
  { c_ignbrk : bool; c_brk_int : bool; ...; c_vstop : char }
```

```
val tcgetattr : file_descr -> terminal_io
```

This structure can be modified and given to the function `tcsetattr` to change the attributes of the peripheral.

```
val tcsetattr : file_descr -> setattr_when -> terminal_io -> unit
```

The first argument is the file descriptor of the peripheral. The last argument is a structure of type `terminal_io` describing the parameters of the peripheral as we want them. The second argument is a value of the enumerated type `setattr_when` that indicates when the change must be done: immediately (`TCSANOW`), after having transmitted all written data (`TCSADRAIN`) or after having read all the received data (`TCAFLUSH`). `TCSADRAIN` is recommended for changing write parameters and `TCSAFLUSH` for read parameters.

Example When a password is read, characters entered by the user should not be echoed if the standard input is connected to a terminal or a pseudo-terminal.

```
let read_passwd message =
  match
    try
      let default = tcgetattr stdin in
      let silent =
        { default with
          c_echo = false;
          c_echoe = false;
          c_echok = false;
          c_echonl = false;
        } in
      Some (default, silent)
    with _ -> None
  with
    | None -> input_line Pervasives.stdin
    | Some (default, silent) ->
      print_string message;
      flush Pervasives.stdout;
      tcsetattr stdin TCSANOW silent;
      try
        let s = input_line Pervasives.stdin in
        tcsetattr stdin TCSANOW default; s
      with x ->
        tcsetattr stdin TCSANOW default; raise x;;
```

The `read_passwd` function starts by getting the current settings of the terminal connected to `stdin`. Then it defines a modified version of these in which characters are not echoed. If this fails the standard input is not a control terminal and we just read a line. Otherwise we display a message, change the terminal settings, read the password and put the terminal back in its initial state. Care must be taken to set the terminal back to its initial state even after a read failure.

* * *

Sometimes a program needs to start another and connect its standard input to a terminal (or pseudo-terminal). OCaml does not provide any support for this³. To achieve that, we must manually look among the pseudo-terminals (in general, they are files with names in the form of `/dev/tty[a-z][a-f0-9]`) and find one that is not already open. We can then open this file and start the program with this file on its standard input.

Four other functions control the stream of data of a terminal (flush waiting data, wait for the end of transmission and restart communication).

```
val tcsendbreak : file_descr -> int -> unit
```

The function `tcsendbreak` sends an interrupt to the peripheral. The second argument is the duration of the interrupt (`0` is interpreted as the default value for the peripheral).

³The Cash library [3] supplies such functions.

```
val tcdrain : file_descr -> unit
```

The function `tcdrain` waits for all written data to be transmitted.

```
val tcflush : file_descr -> flush_queue -> unit
```

Depending on the value of the second argument, a call to the function `tcflush` discards the data written but not yet transmitted (`TCIFLUSH`), or the data received but not yet read (`TCOFLUSH`) or both (`TCIOFLUSH`).

```
val tcflow : file_descr -> flow_action -> unit
```

Depending on the value of the second argument, a call to the function `tcflow` suspends the data transmission (`TCOOFF`), restarts the transmission (`TCOON`), sends a control character `STOP` or `START` to request the transmission to be suspended (`TCIOFF`) or restarted (`TCION`).

```
val setsid : unit -> int
```

The function `setsid` puts the process in a new session and detaches it from the terminal.

2.14 Locks on files

Two processes can modify the same file in parallel; however, their writes may collide and result in inconsistent data. In some cases data is always written at the end and opening the file with `O_APPEND` prevents this. This is fine for `log` files but it does not work for files that store, for example, a database because writes are performed at arbitrary positions. In that case processes using the file must collaborate in order not to step on each others toes. A lock on the whole file can be implemented with an auxiliary file (see page 19) but the system call `lockf` allows for finer synchronization patterns by locking only parts of a file.

```
val lockf : file_descr -> lock_command -> int -> unit
```

2.15 Complete example: recursive copy of files

We extend the function `file_copy` (section 2.9) to support symbolic links and directories in addition to normal files. For directories, we recursively copy their contents.

To copy normal files we reuse the function `file_copy` we already defined.

```
open Unix
...
let file_copy input_name output_name =
...
```

The function `set_infos` below modifies the owner, the access rights and the last dates of access/modification of a file. We use it to preserve this information for copied files.

```
let set_infos filename infos =
  utimes filename infos.st_atime infos.st_mtime;
  chmod filename infos.st_perm;
```

Complete example: recursive copy of files

```
try  
  chown filename infos.st_uid infos.st_gid  
with Unix_error(EPERM,_,_) -> ()
```

The system call `utime` modifies the dates of access and modification. We use `chmod` and `chown` to re-establish the access rights and the owner. For normal users, there are a certain number of cases where `chown` will fail with a “permission denied” error. We catch this error and ignore it.

Here’s the main recursive function.

```
let rec copy_rec source dest =  
  let infos = lstat source in  
  match infos.st_kind with  
  | S_REG ->  
    file_copy source dest;  
    set_infos dest infos  
  | S_LNK ->  
    let link = readlink source in  
    symlink link dest  
  | S_DIR ->  
    mkdir dest 0o200;  
    Misc.iter_dir  
      (fun file ->  
        if file <> Filename.current_dir_name  
          && file <> Filename.parent_dir_name  
        then  
          copy_rec  
            (Filename.concat source file)  
            (Filename.concat dest file))  
      source;  
    set_infos dest infos  
  | _ ->  
    prerr_endline ("Can't cope with special file " ^ source)
```

We begin by reading the information of the `source` file. If it is a normal file, we copy its contents with `file_copy` and its information with `set_infos`. If it is a symbolic link, we read where it points to and create a link pointing to the same object. If it is a directory, we create a destination directory, then we read the directory’s entries (ignoring the entries about the directory itself or its parent) and recursively call `copy_rec` for each entry. All other file types are ignored, with a warning.

The main program is straightforward:

```
let copyrec () =  
  if Array.length Sys.argv <> 3 then begin  
    prerr_endline ("Usage: " ^ Sys.argv.(0) ^ " <source> <destination>");  
    exit 2  
  end else begin  
    copy_rec Sys.argv.(1) Sys.argv.(2);  
    exit 0  
  end
```

```
;;
handle_unix_error copyrec ();;
```

Exercise 6 Copy hard links cleverly. As written above `copy_rec` creates n duplicates of the same file whenever a file occurs under n different names in the hierarchy to copy. Try to detect this situation, copy the file only once and make hard links in the destination hierarchy. Answer page 122.

* * *

2.16 Complete example: Tape ARchive

The `tar` file format (for tape archive) can store a file hierarchy into a single file. It can be seen as a mini file system.

In this section we define functions to read and write `tar` files. We also program a command `readtar` such that `readtar a` displays the name of the files contained in the archive `a` and `readtar a f` extracts the contents of the file `f` contained in `a`. Extracting the whole file hierarchy of an archive and generating an archive for a file hierarchy is left as an exercise.

File format specification A `tar` archive is a set of records. Each record represents a file; it starts with a header which encodes the information about the file (its name, type, size, owners, etc.) and is followed by the contents of the file. The header is a block of 512 bytes structured as shown in table 3.

The file contents is stored right after the header, its size is rounded to a multiple of 512 bytes (the extra space is filled with zeros). Records are stored one after the other. If needed, the file is padded with empty blocks to reach at least 20 blocks.

Since `tar` archives are also designed to be written on brittle media and reread many years later, the header contains a `checksum` field which allows to detect when the header is damaged. Its value is the sum of all the bytes of the header (to compute that sum we assume that the `checksum` field itself is made of zeros).

The `kind` header field encodes the file type in a byte as follows⁴:

'\0' or '0'	'1'	'2'	'3'	'4'	'5'	'6'	'7'
REG	LINK	LNK	CHR	BLK	DIR	FIFO	CONT

Most of the cases correspond to the values of the Unix file type `file_kind` stored in the `st_kind` field of the `stats` structure. `LINK` is for hard links which must lead to another file already stored within the archive. `CONT` is for ordinary file, but stored in a contiguous area of memory (this is a feature of some file systems, we can treat it like an ordinary file).

The `link` header field stores the link when `kind` is `LNK` or `LINK`. The fields `major` and `minor` contain the major and minor numbers of the peripheral when `kind` is `CHR` or `BLK`. These three fields are not used in other cases.

⁴This field can also take different values to encode pathological cases, for example when the value of a field exceeds its size or in extensions of the `tar` format.

Offset	Length	Code Type	Name	Description
0	100	string	name	File name
100	8	octal	perm	File permissions
108	8	octal	uid	Id of user owner
116	8	octal	gid	Id of group owner
124	12	octal	size	File size (in bytes)
136	12	octal	mtime	Date of last modification
148	8	octal	checksum	Header checksum
156	1	character	kind	File type
157	100	octal	link	Link
257	8	string	magic	Signature ("ustar\032\032\0")
265	32	string	user	Name of user owner
297	32	string	group	Name of group owner
329	8	octal	major	Peripheral major number
337	8	octal	minor	Peripheral minor number
345	167			Padding

Note. Field lengths are in number of bytes. All fields are encoded with character strings terminated with the null character '\000'; except the fields `kind` and `size` in which '\000' optional.

Table 3 — Header structure

The value of the `kind` field is naturally represented by a variant type and the header by a record:

```

type kind =
  | REG | LNK of string | LINK of string | CHR of int * int
  | BLK of int * int | DIR | FIFO | CONT

type header =
  { name : string; perm : int; uid : int; gid : int; size : int;
    mtime : int; kind : kind; user : string; group : string }

```

Reading a header Reading a header is not very interesting, but it cannot be ignored.

```

exception Error of string * string
let error err mes = raise (Error (err, mes));;
let handle_error f s =
  try f s with
  | Error (err, mes) ->

```

```

    Printf.eprintf "Error: %s: %s" err mes;
    exit 2

let substring s offset len =
  let max_length = min (offset + len + 1) (String.length s) in
  let rec real_length j =
    if j < max_length && s.[j] <> '\000' then real_length (succ j)
    else j - offset in
  String.sub s offset (real_length offset);;

let integer_of_octal nbytes s offset =
  let i = int_of_string ("0o" ^ substring s offset nbytes) in
  if i < 0 then error "Corrupted archive" "integer too large" else i;;

let kind s i = match s.[i] with
| '\000' | '0' -> REG
| '1' -> LINK (substring s (succ i) 99)
| '2' -> LNK (substring s (succ i) 99)
| '3' -> CHR (integer_of_octal 8 s 329, integer_of_octal 8 s 329)
| '4' -> BLK (integer_of_octal 8 s 329, integer_of_octal 8 s 337)
| '5' -> DIR | '6' -> FIFO | '7' -> CONT
| _ -> error "Corrupted archive" "kind"

let header_of_string s =
{ name = substring s 0 99;
  perm = integer_of_octal 8 s 100;
  uid = integer_of_octal 8 s 108;
  gid = integer_of_octal 8 s 116;
  size = integer_of_octal 12 s 124;
  mtime = integer_of_octal 12 s 136;
  kind = kind s 156;
  user = substring s 265 32;
  group = substring s 297 32; }

let block_size = 512;;
let total_size size =
  block_size + ((block_size - 1 + size) / block_size) * block_size;;

An archive ends either at the end of file where a new record would start or on a
complete, but empty, block. To read a header we thus try to read a block which
must be either empty or complete. For that we reuse the really_read function
defined earlier. The end of file should not be reached when we try to read a
block.

let buffer_size = block_size;;
let buffer = String.create buffer_size;;

let end_of_file_error () =
  error "Corrupted archive" "unexpected end of file"
let without_end_of_file f x =

```

```
try f x with End_of_file -> end_of_file_error ()

let read_header fd =
  let len = read fd buffer 0 buffer_size in
  if len = 0 || buffer.[0] = '\000' then None
  else begin
    if len < buffer_size then
      without_end_of_file (really_read fd buffer len) (buffer_size - len);
      Some (header_of_string buffer)
    end;;
```

Reading an archive To perform an operation in an archive, we need to read the records sequentially until we find the target of the operation. Usually we just need to read the header of each record without its contents but sometimes we also need to get back to a previous one to read its contents. As such we keep, for each record, its header and its location in the archive:

```
type record = { header : header; offset : int; descr : file_descr };;
```

We define a general iterator that reads and accumulates the records of an archive (without their contents). To remain general, the accumulating function *f* is abstracted. This allows to use the same iterator function to display records, destroy them, etc.

```
let fold f initial fd =
  let rec fold_aux offset accu =
    ignore (without_end_of_file (lseek fd offset) SEEK_SET);
    match without_end_of_file read_header fd with
    Some h ->
      let r =
        { header = h; offset = offset + block_size; descr = fd } in
      fold_aux (offset + total_size h.size) (f r accu)
    | None -> accu in
  fold_aux 0 initial;;
```

The function *fold_aux* starts from a position *offset* with a partial result *accu*. It moves to *offset* where a record should start, reads a header, constructs the record *r* and starts again at the end of the record with the new (less partial) result *f r accu*. It stops when there's no header: the end of the archive was reached.

Display the record names We just display the name of records without keeping them:

```
let list tarfile =
  let fd = openfile tarfile [ O_RDONLY ] 0o0 in
  let add r () = print_string r.header.name; print_newline () in
  fold add () fd;
  close fd
```

Display the contents of a record The command `readtar a f` must look for the file `f` in the archive and, if it is a regular file, display its contents. If `f` is a hard link on `g` in the archive, we follow the link and display `g` since even though `f` and `g` are represented differently in the archive they represent the same file. The fact that `g` or `f` is a link on the other or vice versa depends only on the order in which the files were traversed when the archive was created. For now we do not follow symbol links.

Hard link resolution is done by the following mutually recursive functions:

```
let rec find_regular r list = match r.header.kind with
  | REG | CONT -> r
  | LINK name -> find_file name list
  | _ -> error r.header.name "Not a regular file"

and find_file name list = match list with
  | r :: rest ->
    if r.header.name = name then find_regular r rest
    else find_file name rest
  | [] -> error name "Link not found (corrupted archive)";;
```

The function `find_regular` finds the regular file corresponding to the record `r`. If `r` is a regular file itself, `r` is returned. If `r` is a hard link the function looks for the regular file in the archive's previous records stored in `list` with the function `find_file`. In all other cases, the function aborts.

Once the record is found we just need to display its contents. After positioning the descriptor at the start of the record's contents this operation is very similar to the `file_copy` example.

```
let copy_file file output =
  ignore (lseek file.descr file.offset SEEK_SET);
  let rec copy_loop len =
    if len > 0 then
      match read file.descr buffer 0 (min buffer_size len) with
        | 0 -> end_of_file_error ()
        | r -> ignore (write output buffer 0 r); copy_loop (len-r) in
    copy_loop file.header.size
```

We now just need to combine these functions correctly.

```
exception Done
let find_and_copy tarfile filename =
  let fd = openfile tarfile [ O_RDONLY ] 0o0 in
  let found_or_collect r accu =
    if r.header.name = filename then begin
      copy_file (find_regular r accu) stdout;
      raise Done
    end else r :: accu in
  try
    ignore (fold found_or_collect [] fd);
    error "File not found" filename
  with
    | Done -> close fd
```

Complete example: Tape ARchive

We read the records in the archive (but not their contents) until we find the record with the target name. We then call the function `find_regular` to find the record that actually contains the file. This second, backward, search must succeed if the archive is well-formed. The first search may however fail if the target name is not in the archive. In case of failure, the program takes care to distinguish between these two cases.

Here is the main function which implements the command `readtar`:

```
let readtar () =
  let nargs = Array.length Sys.argv in
  if nargs = 2 then list Sys.argv.(1)
  else if nargs = 3 then find_and_copy Sys.argv.(1) Sys.argv.(2)
  else
    prerr_endline ("Usage: " ^ Sys.argv.(0) ^ " <tarfile> [ <source> ]");;

handle_unix_error (handle_error readtar) ();;
```

Exercise 7 Extend the command `readtar` so that it follows symbolic links in the sense that if the link points to a file of the archive that file's contents should be extracted. Answer page 123.

* * *

Exercise 8 Write a command `untar` such that `untar a` extracts and creates all the files in the archive `a` (except special files) restoring if possible the information about the files (owners, permissions) as found in the archive.

The file hierarchy should be reconstructed in the current working directory of the `untar` command. If the archive tries to create files outside a sub-directory of the current working directory this should be detected and prohibited. Non-existent directories not explicitly mentioned in the archive should be created with the user's default permissions. Answer page 125.

* * *

Exercise 9 Write a program `tar` such that `tar -xvf a f1 f2 ...` constructs the archive `a` containing the list of files `f1`, `f2`, etc. and their sub-directories. Answer page 127.

* * *

3 Processes

A process is a program executing on the operating system. It consists of a program (machine code) and a state of the program (current control point, variable values, call stack, open file descriptors, etc.).

This section presents the Unix system calls to create new processes and make them run other programs.

3.1 Creation of processes

The system call `fork` creates a process.

```
val fork : unit -> int
```

The new *child process* is a nearly perfect clone of the *parent process* which called `fork`. Both processes execute the same code, are initially at the same control point (the return from `fork`), attribute the same values to all variables, have identical call stacks, and hold open the same file descriptors to the same files. The only thing which distinguishes the two processes is the return value from `fork`: zero in the child process, and a non-zero integer in the parent. By checking the return value from `fork`, a program can thus determine if it is in the parent process or the child and behave accordingly:

```
match fork () with  
| 0 ->  (* code run only in the child *)  
| pid -> (* code run only in the parent *)
```

The non-zero integer returned by `fork` in the parent process is the *process id* of the child. The process id is used by the kernel to uniquely identify each process. A process can obtain its process id by calling `getpid`.

The child process is initially in the same state as the parent process (same variable values, same open file descriptors). This state is not shared between the parent and the child, but merely duplicated at the moment of the `fork`. For example, if one variable is bound to a reference before the `fork`, a copy of that reference and its current contents is made at the moment of the `fork`; after the `fork`, each process independently modifies its “own” reference without affecting the other process.

Similarly, the open file descriptors are copied at the moment of the `fork`: one may be closed and the other kept open. On the other hand, the two descriptors designate the same entry in the file table (residing in system memory) and share their current position: if one reads and then the other, each will read a different part of the file; likewise, changes in the read/write position by one process with `lseek` are immediately visible to the other.

3.2 Complete Example: the command `leave`

The command `leave hhmm` exits immediately, but forks a background process which, at the time `hhmm`, reports that it is time to leave.

```

1  open Sys;;
2  open Unix;;
3
4  let leave () =
5    let hh = int_of_string (String.sub Sys.argv.(1) 0 2)
6    and mm = int_of_string (String.sub Sys.argv.(1) 2 2) in
7    let now = localtime(time ()) in
8    let delay = (hh - now.tm_hour) * 3600 + (mm - now.tm_min) * 60 in
9
10   if delay <= 0 then begin
11     print_endline "Hey! That time has already passed!";
12     exit 0
13   end;
14   if fork () <> 0 then exit 0;
15   sleep delay;
16   print_endline "\007\007\007Time to leave!";
17   exit 0;;
18
19 handle_unix_error leave ();;

```

The program begins with a rudimentary parsing of the command line, in order to extract the time provided. It then calculates the delay in seconds (line 9). The `time` call returns the current date, in seconds from the epoch (January 1st 1970, midnight). The function `localtime` splits this duration into years, months, days, hours, minutes and seconds. It then creates a new process using `fork`. The parent process (whose return value from `fork` is a non-zero integer) terminates immediately. The shell which launched `leave` thereby returns control to the user. The child process (whose return value from `fork` is zero) continues executing. It does nothing during the indicated time (the call to `sleep`), then displays its message and terminates.

3.3 Awaiting the termination of a process

The system call `wait` waits for one of the child processes created by `fork` to terminate and returns information about how it did. It provides a parent-child synchronization mechanism and a very rudimentary form of communication from the child to the parent.

```

val wait : unit -> int * process_status
val waitpid : wait_flag list -> int -> int * process_status

```

The primitive system call is `waitpid` and the function `wait ()` is merely a shortcut for the expression `waitpid [] (-1)`. The behavior of `waitpid [] p` depends on the value of `p`:

- If $p > 0$, it awaits the termination of the child with id equal to p .
- If $p = 0$, it awaits any child with the same group id as the calling process.
- If $p = -1$, it awaits any process.
- If $p < -1$, it awaits a child process with group id equal to $-p$.

Awaiting the termination of a process

The first component of the result is the process id of the child caught by `wait`. The second component of the result is a value of type `process_status`:

<code>WEXITED r</code>	The child process terminated normally via <code>exit</code> or by reaching the end of the program; <code>r</code> is the return code (the argument passed to <code>exit</code>).
<code>WSIGNALED s</code>	The child process was killed by a signal (<code>ctrl-C</code> , <code>kill</code> , etc., see chapter 4 for more information about signals); <code>s</code> identifies the signal.
<code>WSTOPPED s</code>	The child process was halted by the signal <code>s</code> ; this occurs only in very special cases where a process (typically a debugger) is currently monitoring the execution of another (by calling <code>ptrace</code>).

If one of the child processes has already terminated by the time the parent calls `wait`, the call returns immediately. Otherwise, the parent process blocks until some child process terminates (a behavior called “rendezvous”). To wait for n child processes, one must call `wait n` times.

The command `waitpid` accepts two optional flags for its first argument: the flag `WNOHANG` indicates not to wait if there is a child that responds to the request but has not yet terminated. In that case, the first result is `0` and the second undefined. The flag `WUNTRACED` returns the child processes that have been halted by the signal `sigstop`. The command raises the exception `ECHILD` if no child processes match `p` (in particular, if `p` is `-1` and the current process has no more children).

Example The function `fork_search` below performs a linear search in an array with two processes. It relies on the function `simple_search` to perform the linear search.

```
1  open Unix;;
2  exception Found;;
3
4  let simple_search cond v =
5    try
6      for i = 0 to Array.length v - 1 do
7        if cond v.(i) then raise Found
8      done;
9      false
10   with Found -> true;;
11
12  let fork_search cond v =
13    let n = Array.length v in
14    match fork () with
15    | 0 ->
16      let found = simple_search cond (Array.sub v (n/2) (n-n/2)) in
17      exit (if found then 0 else 1)
18    | _ ->
19      let found = simple_search cond (Array.sub v 0 (n/2)) in
20      match wait () with
```

```

21         | (pid, WEXITED retcode) -> found || (retcode = 0)
22         | (pid, _)                -> failwith "fork_search";;

```

After the `fork`, the child process traverses the upper half of the table, and exits with the return code 1 if it found an element satisfying the predicate `cond`, or 0 otherwise (lines 16 and 17). The parent process traverses the lower half of the table, then calls `wait` to sync with the child process (lines 21 and 22). If the child terminated normally, it combines its return code with the boolean result of the search in the lower half of the table. Otherwise, something horrible happened, and the function `fork_search` fails.

* * *

In addition to the synchronization between processes, the `wait` call also ensures recovery of all resources used by the child processes. When a process terminates, it moves into a “zombie” state, where most, but not all, of its resources (memory, etc.) have been freed. It continues to occupy a slot in the process table to transmit its return value to the parent via the `wait` call. Once the parent calls `wait`, the zombie process is removed from the process table. Since this table is of fixed size, it is important to call `wait` on each forked process to avoid leaks.

If the parent process terminates before the child, the child is given the process number 1 (usually `init`) as parent. This process contains an infinite loop of `wait` calls, and will therefore make the child process disappear once it finishes. This leads to the useful “double fork” technique if you cannot easily call `wait` on each process you create (because you cannot afford to block on termination of the child process, for example).

```

match fork () with
| 0 -> if fork () <> 0 then exit 0;
      (* do whatever the child should do *)
| _ -> wait ();
      (* do whatever the parent should do *)

```

The child terminates via `exit` just after the second `fork`. The grandson becomes an orphan, and is adopted by `init`. In this way, it leaves no zombie processes. The parent immediately calls `wait` to reap the child. This `wait` will not block for long since the child terminates very quickly.

3.4 Launching a program

The system calls `execve`, `execv`, and `execvp` launch a program within the current process. Except in case of error, these calls never return: they halt the progress of the current program and switch to the new program.

```

val execve : string -> string array -> string array -> unit
val execv  : string -> string array -> unit
val execvp : string -> string array -> unit

```

The first argument is the name of the file containing the program to execute. In the case of `execvp`, this name is looked for in the directories of the search path (specified in the environment variable `PATH`).

Launching a program

The second argument is the array of command line arguments with which to execute the program; this array will be the `Sys.argv` array of the executed program.

In the case of `execve`, the third argument is the environment given to the executed program; `execv` and `execvp` give the current environment unchanged.

The calls `execve`, `execv`, and `execvp` never return a result: either everything works without errors and the process starts the requested program or an error occurs (file not found, etc.), and the call raises the exception `Unix_error` in the calling program.

Example The following three forms are equivalent:

```
execve "/bin/ls" [|"ls"; "-l"; "/tmp"|] (environment ())
execv  "/bin/ls" [|"ls"; "-l"; "/tmp"|]
execvp "ls"      [|"ls"; "-l"; "/tmp"|]
```

* * *

Example Here is a “wrapper” around the command `grep` which adds the option `-i` (to ignore case) to the list of arguments:

```
open Sys;;
open Unix;;
let grep () =
  execvp "grep"
    (Array.concat
      [ [|"grep"; "-i"|];
        (Array.sub Sys.argv 1 (Array.length Sys.argv - 1)) ] )
;;
handle_unix_error grep ();;
```

* * *

Example Here’s a “wrapper” around the command `emacs` which changes the terminal type:

```
open Sys;;
open Unix;;
let emacs () =
  execve "/usr/bin/emacs" Sys.argv
    (Array.concat [ [|"TERM=hacked-xterm"|]; (environment ()) ] );
handle_unix_error emacs ();;
```

* * *

The process which calls `exec` is the same one that executes the new program. As a result, the new program inherits some features of the execution environment of the program which called `exec`:

- the same process id and parent process
- same standard input, standard output and standard error
- same ignored signals (see chapter 4)

3.5 Complete example: a mini-shell

The following program is a simplified command interpreter: it reads lines from standard input, breaks them into words, launches the corresponding command, and repeats until the end of file on the standard input. We begin with the function which splits a string into a list of words. Please, no comments on this horror.

```

open Unix;;
open Printf;;

let split_words s =
  let rec skip_blanks i =
    if i < String.length s & s.[i] = ' '
    then skip_blanks (i+1)
    else i in
  let rec split start i =
    if i >= String.length s then
      [String.sub s start (i-start)]
    else if s.[i] = ' ' then
      let j = skip_blanks i in
      String.sub s start (i-start) :: split j j
    else
      split start (i+1) in
  Array.of_list (split 0 0);;

```

We now move on to the main loop of the interpreter.

```

let exec_command cmd =
  try execvp cmd.(0) cmd
  with Unix_error(err, _, _) ->
    printf "Cannot execute %s : %s\n%!"
      cmd.(0) (error_message err);
    exit 255

let print_status program status =
  match status with
  | WEXITED 255 -> ()
  | WEXITED status ->
    printf "%s exited with code %d\n%!" program status;
  | WSIGNALED signal ->
    printf "%s killed by signal %d\n%!" program signal;
  | WSTOPPED signal ->
    printf "%s stopped (???)\n%!" program;;

```

The function `exec_command` executes a command and handles errors. The return code 255 indicates that the command could not be executed. (This is not a standard convention; we just hope that few commands terminate with a return code of 255.) The function `print_status` decodes and prints the status information returned by a process, ignoring the return code of 255.

Complete example: a mini-shell

```
let minishell () =
  try
    while true do
      let cmd = input_line Pervasives.stdin in
      let words = split_words cmd in
      match fork () with
      | 0 -> exec_command words
      | pid_son ->
          let pid, status = wait () in
          print_status "Program" status
    done
  with End_of_file -> ()
;;

handle_unix_error minishell ();;
```

Each time through the loop, we read a line from `stdin` with the function `input_line`. This function raises the `End_of_file` exception when the end of file is reached, causing the loop to exit. We split the line into words, and then call `fork`. The child process uses `exec_command` to execute the command. The parent process calls `wait` to wait for the command to finish and prints the status information returned by `wait`.

Exercise 10 Add the ability to execute commands in the background if they are followed by `&`. Answer page 131.

* * *

4 Signals

Signals, or software interrupts, are external, asynchronous events used to alter the course of a program. These may occur at any time during the execution of a program. Because of this, they differ from other methods of inter-process communication, where two processes must be explicitly directed to wait for external messages; for example, by calling `read` on a pipe (see chapter 5).

The amount of information transmitted via a signal is minimal, just the type of signal, and although they were not originally intended for communication between processes, they do make it possible to transmit atomic information about the state of an external entity (e.g. the state of the system or another process).

4.1 Default behavior

When a process receives a signal, there are four possible outcomes:

- The signal terminates the process. Additionally, the system may write an image of the process state in a core file (a *core dump*, which may be later examined with a debugger).
- The signal suspends process execution, but retains it in memory. The parent process (usually the shell) is not terminated, and so may choose to continue the process or restart it in the background by sending the process additional signals.
- Nothing occurs: the signal is completely ignored.
- The signal triggers the execution of an associated function in the receiving process. Normal execution of the process resumes after the function returns.

There are several types of signals, each associated with a particular event. Table 4 lists some of them with their default behaviors.

The signals received by a process come from several possible sources:

- The user may send signals via the keyboard. By typing `ctrl-C`, the console operator sends the `sigint` signal to the processes controlled by her terminal (that were not already put in the background). In the same way, the `sigquit` signal is sent by typing `ctrl-\`¹. When the terminal is closed (either through voluntary disconnection or owing to a disconnected network link), the `sigup` signal is sent.
- The user may issue the shell command `kill`. This makes it possible to send a specific signal to a specific process. For example, `kill -KILL 194` sends the `sigkill` signal to the process with id 194, which causes the process to be killed.
- Another program may invoke the system call `kill` (the preceding example being a specific case).
- The system, for misbehaving processes. For example, a process attempting to divide by zero will receive a `sigfpe` signal.

¹These are the default keystrokes, but it is possible to change them by modifying the properties of the terminal, see section 2.13.

Name	Event	Default Behavior
<code>sig_hup</code>	Hang-up (end of connection)	Termination
<code>sig_int</code>	Interruption (<code>ctrl-C</code>)	Termination
<code>sig_quit</code>	Strong interruption (<code>ctrl-\</code>)	Term. & core dump
<code>sig_fpe</code>	Arithmetic error (division by zero)	Term. & core dump
<code>sig_kill</code>	Very strong interruption (cannot be ignored)	Termination
<code>sig_segv</code>	Memory protection violation	Term. & core dump
<code>sig_pipe</code>	Writing to a pipe without readers	Termination
<code>sig_alrm</code>	Timer interrupt	Ignored
<code>sig_tstp</code>	Temporary halt (<code>ctrl-Z</code>)	Suspension
<code>sig_cont</code>	Resuming a stopped process	Ignored
<code>sig_chld</code>	A child process died or was stopped	Ignored

Table 4 — Some signals and their default behaviors

- The system, to notify a process that its execution environment has been changed. For example, when a child process terminates, its parent will receive a `sig_chld` signal.

4.2 Using signals

The system call `kill` makes it possible to send a signal to a process.

val `kill` : `int -> int -> unit`

The first parameter is the process id of the destination process and the second the signal number to send. An error occurs if we attempt to send a signal to a process not owned by the user. A process may send signals to itself. When the `kill` system call returns, it is guaranteed that the signal was delivered to the destination process. If a process receives the same signal in rapid succession it will execute the code associated with the signal only once. Therefore a program cannot count the number of times it receives a signal, rather only the number of times it responds to it.

The system call `alarm` makes it possible to schedule interruptions based on the system clock.

val `alarm` : `int -> int`

The call `alarm s` returns immediately but causes the `sig_alrm` signal to be sent to the calling process at least `s` seconds later (note that there is no guarantee on the maximum wait time). The call returns the number of seconds remaining to an alarm scheduled by a previous call. If `s` is `0`, the effect is simply to cancel an earlier alarm.

4.3 Changing the effect of a signal

The system call `signal` makes it possible to modify the behavior of a process when it receives a signal of a certain type.

val `signal` : int -> signal_behavior -> signal_behavior

The first argument is the signal number and the second argument, a value of type `signal_behavior`, indicates the desired behavior for the signal. With:

`Signal_ignore` The signal is ignored.

`Signal_default` The default behavior occurs.

`Signal_handle f` The function `f` is invoked each time the signal is received.

Forking a process with the system call `fork` preserves signal behavior: the initial definitions for the child are those of the parent at the time when `fork` was executed. The `execve` system call sets all the behaviors to `Signal_default` except that signals ignored before are still ignored afterward.

Example Occasionally we want to log-off or end a session while allowing background tasks (large calculations, “spyware” programs, etc.) to continue to run. If this is desired, processes which normally exit on receiving `sighup` (sent at the time the user disconnects) should be prevented from doing so. The Unix command `nohup` does exactly this:

```
nohup cmd arg1 ... argn
```

executes the command `cmd arg1 ... argn` in a way unaffected by the signal `sighup` (certain shells execute `nohup` automatically for all processes launched as background tasks). Here’s how to implement this in three lines:

```
open Sys;;
signal sighup Signal_ignore;;
Unix.execvp argv.(1) (Array.sub argv 1 (Array.length argv - 1));;
```

The system call `execvp` preserves the fact that `sighup` is ignored.

* * *

Example Carefully exiting when a program is misbehaving. For example, a program like `tar` can try to save important information in a file or destroy the corrupted file before terminating. For this it is possible to include the following lines at the beginning of the program:

```
signal sigquit (Signal_handle quit);
signal sigsegv (Signal_handle quit);
signal sigfpe (Signal_handle quit);
```

where the function `quit` is of the form:

```
let quit _ =
  (* Try to save important information in a file *)
  exit 100;;
```

Signals

* * *

Example Capturing user-initiated interruptions. Some interactive programs need to return to a main control loop when a user presses `ctrl-C`. For this we just need to raise an exception when the `sigint` signal is received.

```
exception Break;;
let break _ = raise Break;;
...
let main_loop () =
  signal sigint (Signal_handle break);
  while true do
    try (* Read and evaluate user commands *)
      with Break -> (* Display "stopped" *)
    done;;
```

* * *

Example To carry out periodic tasks (animations, etc.) interleaved with the execution of the main program. For example, here is how to create “beep” sounds every 30 seconds, regardless of the activity of the main program (calculations or input/output).

```
let beep _ =
  output_char stdout '\007'; flush stdout;
  ignore (alarm 30);;
...
signal sigalrm (Signal_handle beep); ignore (alarm 30);;
```

* * *

Checkpoints

Signals are useful for asynchronous communication — indeed, it is their *raison d’être* — but this asynchronous nature also makes them one of the major difficulties of system programming.

The signal handling function is executed asynchronously and thus pseudo-concurrently with the main program of the process. As signal handling functions cannot return a value, they usually modify global variables. This can result in race conditions between the signal handler and the main program if they try to modify the same variable. As explained in the next section one solution is to temporarily block signals when this variable is accessed by the main program.

In fact, OCaml does not treat signals in a strictly asynchronous fashion. On receiving a signal, OCaml records the receipt of the signal but the signal handling function will only be executed at certain *checkpoints*. These are frequent enough to provide the illusion of asynchronous execution. The checkpoints typically occur during allocations, loop controls, or interactions with the system (particularly system calls). OCaml guarantees that a program that does not loop, does not allocate, and does not interact with the system will not have its execution interleaved with that of a signal handler. In particular, storing an unallocated value (integer, boolean, etc. — but not a float!) in a reference cell cannot result in the race condition described above.

4.4 How to mask signals

Signals may be blocked. Blocked signals are not ignored, but put on standby, generally to be delivered later. The `sigprocmask` system call makes it possible to change the mask for incoming signals:

```
val sigprocmask : sigprocmask_command -> int list -> int list
```

`sigprocmask cmd sigs` changes the list of blocked signals and returns the list of signals that were blocked before the execution of the function. This makes it possible to later reset the mask to its previous state. The argument `sigs` is a list of signals and `cmd` a value of type `sigprocmask_command` which determines the effect of the call:

`SIG_BLOCK` The signals `sigs` are added to the list of blocked signals.

`SIG_UNBLOCK` The signals `sigs` are removed from the set of blocked signals.

`SIG_SETMASK` The signals `sigs` are exactly the signals to be blocked.

A typical usage of `sigprocmask` is to mask certain signals temporarily.

```
let old_mask = sigprocmask cmd sigs in  
(* do something *)  
let _ = sigprocmask SIG_SETMASK old_mask
```

Often, one has to guard against possible errors by using the following pattern:

```
let old_mask = sigprocmask cmd sigs in  
let treat () = ((* do something *)) in  
let reset () = ignore (sigprocmask SIG_SETMASK old_mask) in  
Misc.try_finalize treat () reset ()
```

4.5 Signals and system calls

Certain system calls can be interrupted by unignored signals. These system calls are known as *slow* calls, which can take an arbitrary amount of time (for example terminal I/O, `select`, `system`, etc.). If an interruption occurs, the system call is not completed and raises the exception `EINTR`. However file I/O is not interruptible: although these operations can suspend the running process to execute another process for disk I/O, when this occurs the interruption will always be brief if the disk functions correctly. In particular, the throughput of data depends only on the system, and not another user's process.

Ignored signals are never delivered and a masked signal is not delivered until unmasked. But in all other cases we must protect our system calls against unwanted interruptions. A typical example is a parent waiting for the termination of a child. In this case, the parent executes `waitpid [] pid` where `pid` is the process id of the child. This is a blocking system call, it is thus *slow* and could be interrupted by the arrival of a signal, especially since the `sigchld` signal is sent to the parent when a child process dies.

The module `Misc` define the function `restart_on_EINTR` which makes it possible to repeat a system call when it is interrupted by a signal, i.e. when the `EINTR` exception is raised.

```
let rec restart_on_EINTR f x =
  try f x with Unix_error (EINTR, _, _) -> restart_on_EINTR f x
```

To wait on a child correctly, call `restart_on_EINTR (waitpid flags) pid`.

Example Children can also be recovered asynchronously in the signal handler of `sigchld`, especially when their return value does not matter to the parent. But when the process receives the `sigchld` signal, it is not possible to know the exact number of terminated processes, since if the signal is received several times within a short period of time the handler is invoked only once. This leads to the library function `Misc.free_children` function to handle the `sigchld` signal.

```
let free_children _ =
  try while fst (waitpid [ WNOHANG ] (-1)) > 0 do () done
  with Unix_error (ECHILD, _, _) -> ()
```

`free_children` executes `waitpid` in non-blocking mode (option `WNOHANG`) to recover any dead children and repeats until either there are only live children (zero is returned instead of a child id) or there are no children (`ECHILD` exception).

Note that it is not important to guard against the `EINTR` exception because `waitpid` is non-blocking when called with the `WNOHANG` option.

* * *

Example The function `system` in the `Unix` module is simply defined as:

```
let system cmd = match fork () with
| 0 -> begin try
  execv "/bin/sh" [| "/bin/sh"; "-c"; cmd |]
  with _ -> exit 127
end
| id -> snd (waitpid [] id);;
```

The specification of the `system` function in the C standard library states that the parent ignores `sigint` and `sigquit` signals and masks the `sigchld` signal during the command's execution. This makes it possible to stop or kill the child process without affecting the main program's execution.

We prefer to define the function `system` as a specialization of the more general function `exec_as_system` which does not necessarily go through the shell.

```
1 let exec_as_system exec args =
2   let old_mask = sigprocmask SIG_BLOCK [ sigchld ] in
3   let old_int = signal sigint Signal_ignore in
4   let old_quit = signal sigquit Signal_ignore in
5   let reset () =
6     ignore (signal sigint old_int);
7     ignore (signal sigquit old_quit);
8     ignore (sigprocmask SIG_SETMASK old_mask) in
9   let system_call () = match fork () with
10  | 0 ->
11    reset ();
12    (try exec args with _ -> exit 127)
13  | k ->
```

```
14         snd (restart_on_EINTR (waitpid [] k) k) in
15     try_finalize system_call () reset ();;
16
17 let system cmd =
18     exec_as_system (execv "/bin/sh") [| "/bin/sh"; "-c"; cmd |];;
```

Note that the signal changes must be made before the call to `fork` is executed because the parent could receive signals (e.g. `sigchld` if the child were to finish immediately) before it proceeds. These changes are reset for the child on line 11 before executing the command. Indeed, all ignored signals are preserved by `fork` and `exec` and their behavior is preserved by `fork`. The `exec` system call uses the default behavior of signals except if the calling process ignores a signal in which case it also does.

Finally, the parent must also reset the changes immediately after the call, even if an error occurs. This is why `try_finalize` is used on line 15.

* * *

4.6 The passage of time

Legacy approach to time

Since the earliest versions of Unix, time has been counted in seconds. For compatibility reasons, therefore, one can always measure time in seconds. The current time is defined as the number of seconds since January 1st, 1970 at 00:00:00 GMT. It is returned by the function:

```
val time : unit -> float
```

The `sleep` system call can pause the execution of a program for the number of seconds specified in its argument:

```
val sleep : int -> unit
```

However, this function is not primitive. It is programmable with more elementary system calls using the function `alarm` (see above) and `sigsuspend`:

```
val sigsuspend : int list -> unit
```

The `sigsuspend l` system call temporarily suspends the signals in the list `l` and then halts the execution of the program until the reception of a signal which is not ignored or suspended (on return, the signal mask is reset to its old value).

Example Now we may program the `sleep` function:

```
1 let sleep s =
2     let old_alarm = signal sigalrm (Signal_handle (fun s -> ())) in
3     let old_mask = sigprocmask SIG_UNBLOCK [ sigalrm ] in
4     let _ = alarm s in
5     let new_mask = List.filter (fun x -> x <> sigalrm) old_mask in
6     sigsuspend new_mask;
7     let _ = alarm 0 in
8     ignore (signal sigalrm old_alarm);
9     ignore (sigprocmask SIG_SETMASK old_mask);;
```

Initially, the behavior of the `sigalrm` signal does nothing. Note that “doing nothing” is the same as ignoring the signal. To ensure that the process will be awakened by the reception of the signal, the `sigalrm` signal is put in an unblocked state. Then the process is put on standby by suspending all other signals which were not already suspended (`old_mask`). After the alarm is signaled, the preceding modifications are erased. (Note that line 9 could be placed immediately after line 2 because the call to `sigsuspend` preserves the signal mask.)

* * *

Modern times

In more modern versions of Unix, time can also be measured in microseconds. In OCaml, time measured in microseconds is represented by a float. The `gettimeofday` function is the equivalent of the `time` function for modern systems.

```
val gettimeofday : unit -> float
```

Timers

In present-day Unix each process is equipped with three timers, each measuring time from a different perspective. The timers are identified by a value of type `interval_timer`:

```
ITIMER_REAL      Real time (sigalrm).
ITIMER_VIRTUAL   User time (sigvtime).
ITIMER_PROF      User time and system time (sigprof).
```

The state of a timer is described by the `interval_timer_status` type which is a record with two fields (each a float) representing time:

- The field `it_interval` is the period of the timer.
- The field `it_value` is the current value of the timer; when it turns 0 the signal `sigvtime` is sent and the timer is reset to the value in `it_interval`.

A timer is therefore inactive when its two fields are 0. The timers can be queried or modified with the following functions:

```
val getitimer : interval_timer -> interval_timer_status
val setitimer :
    interval_timer -> interval_timer_status -> interval_timer_status
```

The value returned by `setitimer` is the old value of the timer at the time of the modification.

Exercise 11 To manage several timers, write a module with the following interface:

```
module type Timer = sig
  open Unix
  type t
  val new_timer : interval_timer -> (unit -> unit) -> t
  val get_timer : t -> interval_timer_status
```

```
    val set_timer : t -> interval_timer_status -> interval_timer_status
end
```

The function `new_timer k f` should create a new timer of the timer-type `k` starting the action `f`, and inactive on creation; the function `set_timer t` should set the value of the timer `t` (and return the old value).

* * *

Date calculations

Modern versions of Unix also provide functions to handle dates, see the structure `tm` which allows dates and times to be expressed according to a calendar (year, month, etc.) and the conversion functions: `gmtime`, `localtime`, `mktime`, etc.

4.7 Problems with signals

Owing to their asynchronous nature, the use of signals for inter-process communication presents some limitations and difficulties:

- Very little information is transmitted — the signal’s type and nothing else.
- A signal may occur at any point during the execution of the program. Therefore, a signal handling function that accesses global variables must cooperate with the main program to avoid race conditions.
- The use of signals by the main program entails that long system calls made by the program may be interrupted, even if the signals keep their default behavior.
- Library functions must always consider the possibility of signal use and guard against system call interruption.

Signals offer only a limited form of asynchronous communication but carry all the difficulties and problems associated with it. If possible, it is therefore better not to use them. For example, to wait for a small amount of time, `select` can be used instead of alarms. But in certain situations signals must be taken into account (for example in command line interpreters).

Signals are possibly the least useful concept in the Unix system. On certain older versions of Unix (System V, in particular) the behavior of a signal is automatically reset to `Signal_default` when it is received. The signal handling function can of course register itself again. For example in the “beep” example on page 52, it would be necessary to write:

```
let rec beep _ =
  set_signal sigalrm (Signal_handle beep);
  output_char stdout '\007'; flush stdout;
  ignore (alarm 30);;
```

However the problem is that the signals that are received between the instant were the behavior is automatically reset to `Signal_default` and the moment were `set_signal` is invoked are not treated correctly and depending on the type of the signal they may be ignored or cause the process to die instead of invoking the signal handling function.

Other flavors of Unix (BSD or Linux) provide better support: the behavior associated with a signal is not altered when it is received, and during the handling of a signal other signals of the same type are put on hold.

5 Classical inter-process communication: pipes

So far, we have learned how to manage processes and how they can communicate with the environment by using files. In the remainder of the course we see how processes running in parallel can cooperate by communicating among themselves.

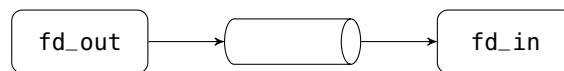
5.1 Pipes

Regular files are not a satisfactory communication medium for processes running in parallel. Take for example a reader/writer situation in which one process writes data and the other reads them. If a file is used as the communication medium, the reader can detect that the file does not grow any more (`read` returns zero), but it does not know whether the writer is finished or simply busy computing more data. Moreover, the file keeps track of all the data transmitted, requiring needless disk space.

Pipes provide a mechanism suitable for this kind of communication. A pipe is made of two file descriptors. The first one represents the pipe's output. The second one represents the pipe's input. Pipes are created by the system call `pipe`:

```
val pipe : unit -> file_descr * file_descr
```

The call returns a pair (`fd_in`, `fd_out`) where `fd_in` is a file descriptor open in *read mode* on the pipe's output and `fd_out` is file descriptor open in *write mode* on the pipe's input. The pipe itself is an internal object of the kernel that can only be accessed via these two descriptors. In particular, it has no name in the file system.



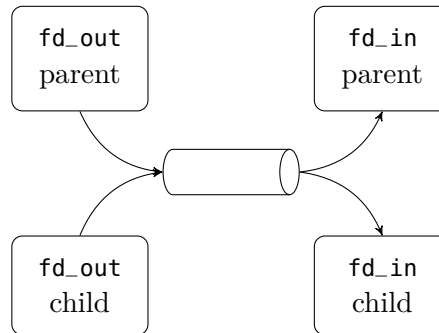
A pipe behaves like a queue (*first-in, first-out*). The first thing written to the pipe is the first thing read from the pipe. Writes (calls to `write` on the pipe's input descriptor) fill the pipe and block when the pipe is full. They block until another process reads enough data at the other end of the pipe and return when all the data given to `write` have been transmitted. Reads (calls to `read` on the pipe's output descriptor) drain the pipe. If the pipe is empty, a call to `read` blocks until at least a byte is written at the other end. It then returns immediately without waiting for the number of bytes requested by `read` to be available.

Pipes are useless if they are written and read by the same process (such a process will likely block forever on a substantial write or on a read on the empty pipe). Hence they are usually read and written by different processes. Since a pipe has no name, one of these processes must be created by forking the process that created the pipe. Indeed, the two file descriptors of the pipe, like any other file descriptors, are duplicated by the call to `fork` and thus refer to the same pipe in the parent and the child process.

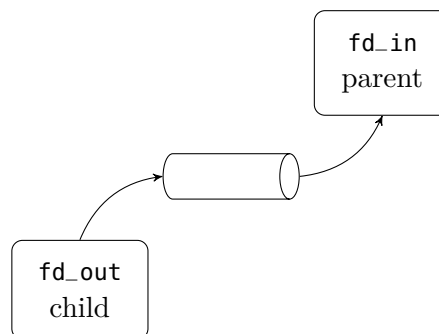
Example The following snippet of code is typical.

```
let (fd_in, fd_out) = pipe () in
match fork () with
| 0 -> close fd_in; ... write fd_out buffer1 offset1 count1 ...
| pid -> close fd_out; ... read fd_in buffer2 offset2 count2 ...
```

After the `fork` there are two descriptors open on the pipe's input, one in the parent and the other in the child. The same holds for the pipe's output.



In this example the child becomes the writer and the parent the reader. Consequently the child closes its descriptor `fd_in` on the pipe's output (to save descriptors and to avoid programming errors). This leaves the descriptor `fd_in` of the parent unchanged as descriptors are allocated in process memory and after the fork the parent's and child's memory are disjoint. The pipe, allocated in system memory, still lives as there's still the descriptor `fd_in` of the parent open in read mode on the pipe's output. Following the same reasoning the parent closes its descriptor on the pipe's input. The result is as follows:



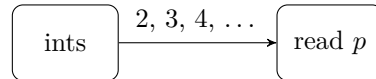
Data written by the child on `fd_out` is transmitted to `fd_in` in the parent.

* * *

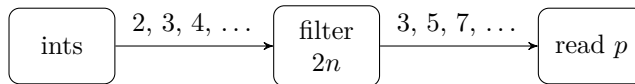
When all the descriptors on a pipe's input are closed and the pipe is empty, a call to `read` on its output returns zero: end of file. And when all the descriptors on a pipe's output are closed, a call to `write` on its input kills the writing process. More precisely the kernel sends the signal `sigpipe` to the process calling `write` and the default handler of this signal terminates the process. If the signal handler of `sigpipe` is changed, the call to `write` fails with an `EPIPE` error.

5.2 Complete example: parallel sieve of Eratosthenes

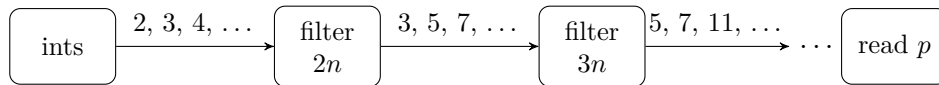
This is a classic example of parallel programming. The task of the program is to enumerate the prime numbers and display them interactively as they are found. The idea of the algorithm is as follows. A process enumerates on its output the integers from 2 onwards. We connect this process to a “filter” process that reads an integer p on its input and displays it.



Therefore, the first filter process reads $p = 2$. Then it creates a new filter process connected to its output and filters out the multiples of p it gets on its input; all numbers it reads that are not a multiple of p are rewritten on its output.



Hence the next process reads $p = 3$, which it displays and then starts to filter multiples of 3, and so on.



This algorithm cannot be directly implemented in Unix because it creates too many processes (the number of primes already found plus one). Most Unix systems limit the number of process to a few dozens. Moreover, on a uniprocessor machine, too many processes active simultaneously can bring the system to its knees because of the high costs incurred by switching process contexts. In the following implementation each process first reads n primes $p_1, \dots, p_n$ on its input before transforming itself in a filter that eliminate the multiples of $p_1, \dots, p_n$. In practice $n = 1000$ gives a reasonable slowdown on process creation.

We start with the process that enumerates integers from 2 to k .

```
open Unix;;
```

```
let input_int = input_binary_int
let output_int = output_binary_int
```

```
let generate k output =
  let rec gen m =
    output_int output m;
    if m < k then gen (m+1)
  in
  gen 2;;
```

To output and input the integers, the following functions are used:

```
val output_binary_int : out_channel -> int -> unit
val input_binary_int : in_channel -> int
```

The function `output_binary_int` from the standard library writes a four-byte binary representation of an integer on an `out_channel`. The integer can be read back by the function `input_binary_int` on an `in_channel`. Using these functions from the standard library has two advantages: first, there is no need to code the function converting integers to a bitwise representation¹; second, since these functions use buffered I/O, fewer system calls are performed, which results in better performance. The following functions create an `in_channel` or `out_channel` to buffer the I/O on the given descriptor:

```
val in_channel_of_descr : file_descr -> in_channel
val out_channel_of_descr : file_descr -> out_channel
```

They allow a program to perform buffered I/O on descriptors acquired indirectly or that are not the result of opening a file. These functions are not here to mix buffered I/O with non-buffered I/O; this is possible but very brittle and highly discouraged — particularly for input. Note also that it is possible but very risky to create more than one `in_channel` (for example) on the same descriptor.

We now continue with the filter process. It uses the auxiliary function `read_first_primes`. A call to `read_first_primes input count` reads `count` prime numbers on `input` (an `in_channel`) and eliminates multiples of the primes already read. These `count` primes are displayed as soon as they are read and we return them in a list.

```
1 let print_prime n = print_int n; print_newline ()
2
3 let read_first_primes input count =
4   let rec read_primes first_primes count =
5     if count <= 0 then first_primes else
6       let n = input_int input in
7       if List.exists (fun m -> n mod m = 0) first_primes then
8         read_primes first_primes count
9       else begin
10        print_prime n;
11        read_primes (n :: first_primes) (count - 1)
12      end
13   in
14   read_primes [] count;;
```

And here is the concrete filter function:

```
1 let rec filter input =
2   try
3     let first_primes = read_first_primes input 1000 in
4     let (fd_in, fd_out) = pipe () in
5     match fork () with
6     | 0 ->
7       close fd_out;
```

¹The representation used by these functions is unspecified but it is guaranteed to be platform-independent for a particular version of the language.

Complete example: parallel sieve of Eratosthenes

```
8       filter (in_channel_of_descr fd_in)
9   | p ->
10      close fd_in;
11      let output = out_channel_of_descr fd_out in
12      while true do
13          let n = input_int input in
14          if List.exists (fun m -> n mod m = 0) first_primes then ()
15          else output_int output n
16      done
17 with End_of_file -> ();;
```

The filter starts by calling `read_first_primes` to read the first 1000 prime numbers on its input (the `input` argument of type `in_channel`). Then we create a pipe and clone the process with `fork`. The child starts to filter the output of this pipe. The parent reads numbers on its input and writes each one to the pipe if it is not a multiple of one of the 1000 primes it initially read.

Finally, the main program just connects the integer generator to the first filter process with a pipe. Invoking the program `sieve k` enumerates the primes smaller than `k`. If `k` is omitted (or not an integer), it defaults to `max_int`.

```
1 let sieve () =
2   let len = try int_of_string Sys.argv.(1) with _ -> max_int in
3   let (fd_in, fd_out) = pipe () in
4   match fork () with
5   | 0 ->
6       close fd_out;
7       filter (in_channel_of_descr fd_in)
8   | p ->
9       close fd_in;
10      generate len (out_channel_of_descr fd_out);;
11
12 handle_unix_error sieve ();;
```

In this example we do not wait for the child before stopping the parent. The reason is that parent processes are *generators* for their children.

When `k` is given, the parent will terminate first and close the descriptor on the input of the pipe connected to its child. Since OCaml empties the buffers of descriptors open in write mode when a process stops, the child process will read the last integer provided by the parent. After that the child also stops etc. Thus, in this program children become orphaned and are temporarily attached to the process `init` before they die in turn.

If `k` is not given, all processes continue indefinitely until one or more are killed. The death of a process results in the death of its child as described above. It also closes the output of the pipe connected to its parent. This will in turn kill the parent at the next write on the pipe (the parent will receive a `sigpipe` signal whose default handler terminates the process).

Exercise 12 What needs to be changed so that the parent waits on the termination of its children? Answer page 131.

* * *

Exercise 13 Whenever a prime is found, the function `print_prime` evaluates `print_newline ()`. This performs a system call to empty the standard output buffer and artificially limits the execution speed of the program. In fact `print_newline ()` executes `print_char '\n'` followed by `flush Pervasives.stdout`. What can happen if `print_newline ()` is replaced by `print_char '\n'`? What needs to be added to solve the problem? Answer page 132.

* * *

5.3 Named pipes

On some Unix systems (System V, SunOS, Ultrix, Linux, BSD) pipes with a name in the file system can be created. These *named pipes* (also known as *fifo*) allow processes to communicate even if they are not in a parent/child relationship. This contrasts with regular pipes that limit communication between the pipe creator and its descendants.

The system call `mkfifo` creates a named pipe:

```
val mkfifo : string -> file_perm -> unit
```

The first argument is the name of the pipe, and the second one represents the requested access permissions.

Named pipes are opened with a call to `openfile` like any regular file. Reads and writes on a named pipe have the same semantics as those on regular ones. Opening a named pipe in read-only mode (resp. write-only mode) blocks until the pipe is opened by another process for writing (resp. reading); if this has already happened, there's no blocking. Blocking can be avoided altogether by opening the pipe with the flag `O_NONBLOCK`, but in this case reads and writes on the pipe won't block either. After the pipe is opened, the function `clear_nonblock` will change this flag to make further reads or writes on the pipe blocking. Alternatively, `set_nonblock` will make reads and writes non-blocking.

```
val clear_nonblock : file_descr -> unit
val set_nonblock : file_descr -> unit
```

5.4 Descriptor redirections

So far, we still do not know how to connect the standard input and output of processes with a pipe as the shell does to execute commands like `cmd1 | cmd2`. Indeed, the descriptors we get on the ends of a pipe with a call to `pipe` (or to `openfile` on a named pipe) are *new* descriptors, distinct from `stdin`, `stdout` or `stderr`.

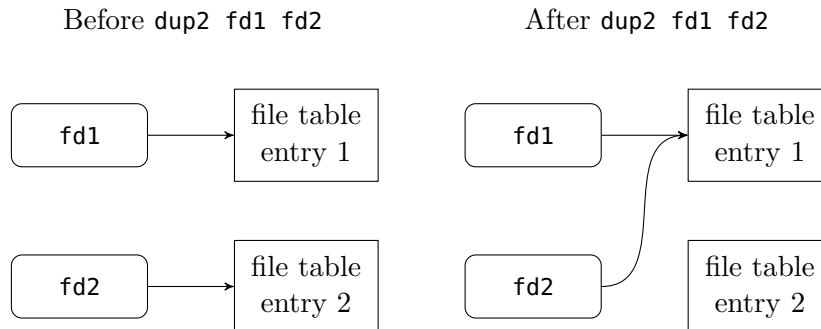
To address this problem, Unix provides the system call `dup2` (read: “*duplicate a descriptor to another descriptor*”) that gives one file descriptor another one's meaning. This can be done because there is a level of indirection between a file descriptor (an object of type `file_descr`) and the object in the kernel called a

Descriptor redirections

file table entry that points to the actual file or pipe and maintains its current read/write position.

```
val dup2 : file_descr -> file_descr -> unit
```

The effect of `dup2 fd1 fd2` is to update the descriptor `fd2` to refer to the file table entry pointed to by `fd1`. After the call, these two descriptors refer to same file or pipe, at the same read/write position.



Example Standard input redirection.

```
let fd = openfile "foo" [O_RDONLY] 0 in
dup2 fd stdin;
close fd;
execvp "bar" [|"bar"|]
```

After the call to `dup2`, the descriptor `stdin` points to the file `foo`. Any read on `stdin` will read from the file `foo` (so does any read on `fd`; but since we won't use it, we close it immediately). This setting on `stdin` is preserved by `execvp` and the program `bar` will execute with its standard input connected to the file `foo`. This is the way the shell executes commands like `bar < foo`.

* * *

Example Standard output redirection.

```
let fd = openfile "foo" [O_WRONLY; O_TRUNC; O_CREAT] 0o666 in
dup2 fd stdout;
close fd;
execvp "bar" [|"bar"|]
```

After the call to `dup2`, the descriptor `stdout` points to the file `foo`. Any write on `stdout` will write to the file `foo` (so does any write on `fd`; but since we won't use it we close it immediately). This setting on `stdout` is preserved by `execvp` and the program `bar` will execute with its standard output connected to the file `foo`. This is the way the shell executes commands like `bar > foo`.

* * *

Example Connecting the output of a program to the input of another.

```
let (fd_in, fd_out) = pipe () in
match fork () with
| 0 ->
```

```
dup2 fd_in stdin;
close fd_out;
close fd_in;
execvp "cmd2" [|"cmd2"|]
| - ->
dup2 fd_out stdout;
close fd_out;
close fd_in;
execvp "cmd1" [|"cmd1"|]
```

The program `cmd2` is executed with its standard input connected to the output of the pipe. In parallel, the program `cmd1` is executed with its standard output connected to the input of the pipe. Therefore whatever `cmd1` writes on its standard output is read by `cmd2` on its standard input.

What happens if `cmd1` terminates before `cmd2`? When `cmd1` terminates, all its open descriptors are closed. This means that there's no open descriptor on the input of the pipe. When `cmd2` has read all the data waiting in the pipe, the next read returns an end of file; `cmd2` will then do what it is assigned to do when it reaches the end of its standard input — for example, terminate.

Now, if `cmd2` terminates before `cmd1`, the last descriptor on the output of the pipe is closed and `cmd1` will get a signal (which by default kills the process) the next time it tries to write on its standard output.

* * *

Exercise 14 Implement some of the other redirections provided by the shell `sh`. Namely:

>> 2> 2>> 2>1 <<

Answer page 132.

* * *

Swapping two descriptors requires care. The naive sequence `dup2 fd1 fd2; dup2 fd2 fd1` does not work. Indeed, the second redirection has no effect since after the first one both descriptors `fd1` and `fd2` already point to the same file table entry. The initial value pointed by `fd2` was lost. This is like swapping the contents of two reference cells: a temporary variable is needed to save one of the two values. Here we can save one of the descriptors by copying it with the system call `dup`.

```
val dup : file_descr -> file_descr
```

The call to `dup fd` returns a new descriptor pointing on the same file table entry as `fd`. For example we can swap `stdout` and `stderr` with:

```
let tmp = dup stdout in
dup2 stderr stdout;
dup2 tmp stderr;
close tmp;;
```

After the swap, do not forget to close the temporary descriptor `tmp` to prevent a descriptor leak.

5.5 Complete example: composing N commands

We program a command `compose` such that

`compose cmd1 cmd2 ... cmd $n$`

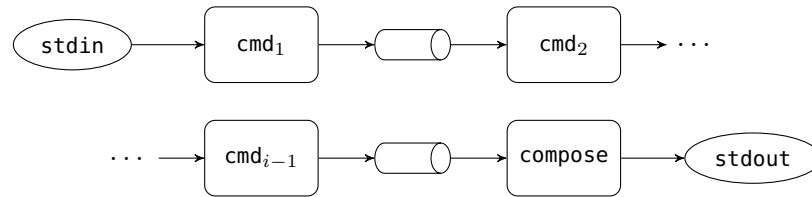
behaves like the shell command:

`cmd1 | cmd2 | ... | cmd $n$`

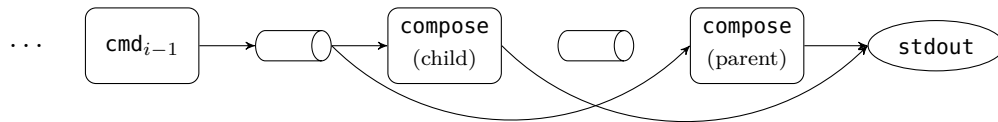
```
1  open Sys;;
2  open Unix;;
3
4  let compose () =
5      let n = Array.length Sys.argv - 1 in
6      for i = 1 to n - 1 do
7          let (fd_in, fd_out) = pipe () in
8          match fork () with
9              | 0 ->
10                 dup2 fd_out stdout;
11                 close fd_out;
12                 close fd_in;
13                 execv "/bin/sh" [| "/bin/sh"; "-c"; Sys.argv.(i) |]
14              | _ ->
15                 dup2 fd_in stdin;
16                 close fd_out;
17                 close fd_in
18      done;
19      match fork () with
20          | 0 -> execv "/bin/sh" [| "/bin/sh"; "-c"; Sys.argv.(n) |]
21          | _ ->
22              let rec wait_for_children retcode =
23                  try
24                      match wait () with
25                          | (pid, WEXITED n) -> wait_for_children (retcode lor n)
26                          | (pid, _)          -> wait_for_children 127
27                      with
28                          Unix_error(ECHILD, _, _) -> retcode in
29                  exit (wait_for_children 0)
30  ;;
31  handle_unix_error compose ();;
```

The bulk of the work is done by the **for** loop starting at line 6. For each command except the last one, we create a new pipe and a child process. The child connects the pipe's input to its standard output and executes the command. After the **fork** it inherits the standard input of its parent. The main process (the parent) connects the pipe's output to its standard input and continues the loop. Suppose (induction hypothesis) that at the beginning of the i th iteration, the situation is as follows:

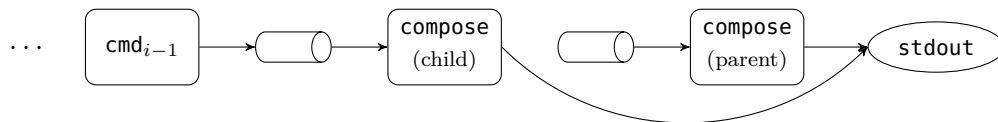
Classical inter-process communication: pipes



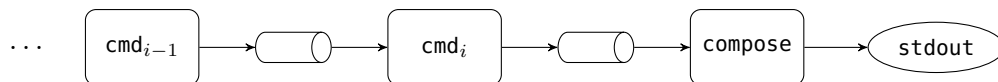
Rounded boxes represent processes. Their standard input is on the left, their standard output on the right. The ellipses represent the initial standard input and output of the `compose` process. Just after the call to `pipe` and `fork` we have:



When the parent calls `dup2`, we get:



When the child calls `dup2` and `execv`, we get:



and everything is ready for the next iteration.

The last command is forked after the loop because there's no need to create a new pipe: the process `compose` already has the right standard input (the output of the next to last command) and output (the one initially given to the command `compose`) for the child. Hence it is sufficient to `fork` and `exec`. The parent then waits for its children to terminate: it calls `wait` repeatedly until the error `ECHILD` (no child to wait for) is raised. The children's return codes are combined with a bitwise "or" (`lor` operator) to create a meaningful return code for `compose`: zero if all the children returned zero, different from zero otherwise.

Note that we execute commands through the shell `/bin/sh`. This prevents us from having to parse complex commands into tokens as in the following invocation:

```
compose "grep foo" "wc -l"
```

Adding this functionality to our program would complicate it needlessly.

5.6 Input/output multiplexing

In all the examples so far, processes communicate *linearly*: each process reads data coming from at most one other process. In this section we highlight and solve the problems occurring whenever a process needs to read data coming from *many* processes.

Input/output multiplexing

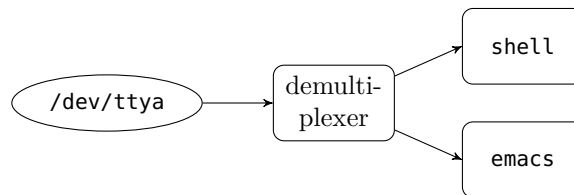
Consider the example of a multi-windowed terminal emulator. Suppose we have a computer, called the client, connected to a Unix machine by a serial port. We want to emulate, on the client, many terminal windows connected to different user processes on the Unix machine. For example, one window can be connected to a shell and another to a text editor. Outputs from the shell are displayed in the first window and those from the editor in the other. If the first window is active, keystrokes from the client's keyboard are sent to the input of the shell and if the second window is active they are sent to the input of the editor.

Since there's only a single physical link between the client and the Unix machine, we need to multiplex the virtual connections between windows and processes by interleaving the data transmissions. Here's the protocol we are going to use. On the serial port, we send messages with the following structure:

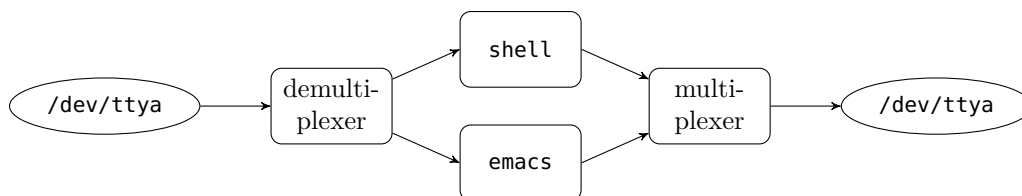
- One byte indicating the process number or window number of the receiver.
- One byte indicating the number N of bytes that are following.
- N bytes of data to send to the receiver.

On the Unix machine, user processes (shell, editor, etc.) are connected by a pipe to one or more auxiliary processes that read and write on the serial port and (de)multiplex the data. The serial port is a special file (`/dev/ttya`, for example), on which the auxiliary processes `read` and `write` to communicate with the client.

Demultiplexing (transmission from the client to the user processes) does not pose any particular problem. We just need a process that reads messages on the serial port and writes the extracted data on the pipe connected to the standard input of the receiving user process.



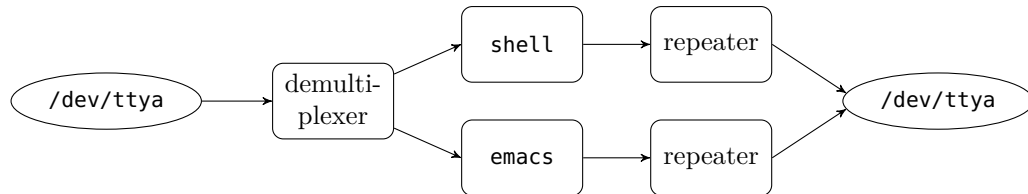
Multiplexing (transmission from user processes to the client) is more tricky. Let us try to mimic the demultiplexer: a process reads sequentially the output of the pipes connected to the standard output of the user processes and then writes the data it reads as message on the serial port by adding the receiving window number and the length of the data.



This does not work, because reading a pipe can block. For example, if we try to read the output of the shell but it has nothing to display at that moment, the multiplexer process will block, and waiting characters from the editor will be ignored. There's no way to know in advance on which pipes there is data

waiting to be displayed (in parallel algorithms, the situation where a process is perpetually denied access to a shared resource is called *starvation*).

Here is another approach: we associate with each user process a *repeater* process. The repeater reads the output of the pipe connected to the standard output of the user process, transforms the data into messages and writes the result directly on the serial port (each repeater process opens `/dev/ttya` in write mode).



Since each user process has its output transmitted independently, blocking problems are solved. However the protocol may not be respected. Two repeaters may try to write a message at the same time and the Unix kernel does not guarantee the atomicity of writes, i.e. that they are performed in a single un-interruptible operation. Thus the kernel may choose to write only a part of a message from a repeater to `/dev/ttya`, then write a full message from another repeater and finally write the remaining part of the first message. This will utterly confuse the demultiplexer on the client: it will interpret the second message as part of the data of the first and then interpret the rest of the data as a new message header.

To avoid this, repeater processes must synchronize so that at anytime at most one of them is writing on the serial port (in parallel algorithms we say that we need to enforce the mutual exclusion of repeaters on the access to the serial link). Technically, this can be done with concepts we have already seen so far: repeaters can create a specific file (the “lock”) with the `O_EXCL` flag before sending a message and destroy it after they are done writing to the serial port. However this technique is not very efficient because the lock creation and destruction costs are too high.

A better solution is to take the first approach (a single multiplexer process) and set the output of the pipes connected to the standard output of user processes in non-blocking mode with `set_nonblock`. A read on an empty pipe will not block but return immediately by raising the error `EAGAIN` or `EWOULDBLOCK`. We just ignore this error and try to read the output of the next user process. This will prevent starvation and avoid any mutual exclusion problem. However it is a very inefficient solution, the multiplexer process performs what is called “busy waiting”: it uses processing time even if no process is sending data. This can be alleviated by introducing calls to `sleep` in the reading loop; unfortunately, it is very difficult to find the right frequency. Short `sleeps` cause needless processor load when there is little data, and long `sleeps` introduce perceptible delays when there is a lot of data.

This is a serious problem. To solve it, the designers of BSD Unix introduced a new system call, `select`, which is now available on most Unix variants. A call to `select` allows a process to wait (passively) on one or more input/output events. An event can be:

- A read event: there is data to read on that descriptor.
- A write event: it is possible to write on that descriptor without blocking.
- An exceptional event: an exceptional condition is true on that descriptor. For example, on certain network connections high-priority data (*out-of-band data*) can be sent that overtakes normal data waiting to be sent. Receiving this kind of high-priority data is an exceptional condition.

The system call `select` has the following signature:

```
val select :  
  file_descr list -> file_descr list -> file_descr list ->  
  float -> file_descr list * file_descr list * file_descr list
```

The first three arguments are sets of descriptors represented by lists: the first argument is the set of descriptors to watch for read events; the second argument is the set of descriptors to watch for write events; the third argument is the set of descriptors to watch for exceptional events. The fourth argument is a timeout in seconds. If it is positive or zero, the call to `select` will return after that time, even if no event occurred. If it is negative, the call to `select` waits indefinitely until one of the requested events occurs.

The `select` call returns a triplet of descriptor lists: the first component is the list of descriptors ready for reading, the second component those ready for writing and the third one those on which an exceptional condition occurred. If the timeout expires before any event occurs, the three lists are empty.

Example The code below watches read events on the descriptors `fd1` and `fd2` and returns after 0.5 seconds.

```
match select [fd1; fd2] [] [] 0.5 with  
| [], [], [] -> (* the 0,5s timeout expired *)  
| fdl, [], [] ->  
  if List.mem fd1 fdl then  
    (* read from fd1 *);  
  if List.mem fd2 fdl then  
    (* read from fd2 *)
```

* * *

Example The following `multiplex` function is central to the multiplexer/demultiplexer of the multi-windowed terminal emulator described above.

To simplify, the multiplexer just sets the receiver of messages according to their provenance and the demultiplexer redirects data directly to the receiver number. In other words, we assume that either each sender talks to a receiver with the same number, or that the correspondence between them is magically established in the middle of the serial link by rewriting the receiver number.

The `multiplex` function takes a descriptor open on the serial port and two arrays of descriptors of the same size, one containing pipes connected to the standard input of the user processes, the other containing pipes connected to their standard output.

```

open Unix;;

let rec really_read fd buff start length =
  if length <= 0 then () else
    match read fd buff start length with
    | 0 -> raise End_of_file
    | n -> really_read fd buff (start+n) (length-n);;

let buffer = String.create 258;;

let multiplex channel inputs outputs =
  let input_fds = channel :: Array.to_list inputs in
  try
    while true do
      let (ready_fds, _, _) = select input_fds [] [] (-1.0) in
      for i = 0 to Array.length inputs - 1 do
        if List.mem inputs.(i) ready_fds then begin
          let n = read inputs.(i) buffer 2 255 in
          buffer.[0] <- char_of_int i;
          buffer.[1] <- char_of_int n;
          ignore (write channel buffer 0 (n+2));
          ()
        end
      done;
      if List.mem channel ready_fds then begin
        really_read channel buffer 0 2;
        let i = int_of_char(buffer.[0])
        and n = int_of_char(buffer.[1]) in
        if n = 0 then close outputs.(i) else
          begin
            really_read channel buffer 0 n;
            ignore (write outputs.(i) buffer 0 n);
            ()
          end
        end
      end
    done
  with End_of_file -> () ;;

```

The `multiplex` function starts by constructing a set of descriptors (`input_fds`) that contain the input descriptors (those connected to the standard output of the user processes) and the descriptor of the serial port. On each iteration of the `while` loop we call `select` to watch for pending reads in `input_fds`. We do not watch for any write or exceptional event and we do not limit the waiting time. When `select` returns, we test whether there is data waiting on an input descriptor or on the serial port.

If there is data on an input descriptor we read this input into a buffer, add a message header and write the result on the serial port. If `read` returns zero this indicates that the corresponding pipe was closed. The terminal emulator on the client will receive a message with zero bytes, signaling that the user process with

that number died; it can then close the corresponding window.

If there is data on the serial port, we read the two-byte message header which gives us the number *i* of the receiver and the number *n* of bytes to read. We then read *n* bytes on the channel and write them on the output *i* connected to the standard input of the corresponding user process. However, if *n* is 0, we close the output *i*. The idea is that the terminal emulator at the other end sends a message with *n* = 0 to indicate an end of file on the standard input of the receiving user process.

We get out of the loop when `really_read` raises the exception `End_of_file`, which indicates an end of file on the serial port.

* * *

5.7 Miscellaneous: write

The function `write` of the Unix module iterates the system call `write` until all the requested bytes are effectively written.

```
val write : file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> int
```

However, when the descriptor is a pipe (or a socket, see chapter 6), writes may block and the system call `write` may be interrupted by a signal. In this case the OCaml call to `Unix.write` is interrupted and the error `EINTR` is raised. The problem is that some of the data may already have been written by a previous system call to `write` but the actual size that was transferred is unknown and lost. This renders the function `write` of the Unix module useless in the presence of signals.

To address this problem, the Unix module also provides the “raw” system call `write` under the name `single_write`.

```
val single_write : file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> int
```

With `single_write`, if an error is raised it is guaranteed that no data is written.

The rest of this section shows how to implement this function. Fundamentally, it is just a matter of interfacing OCaml with C (more information about this topic can be found in the relevant section of the OCaml manual). The following code is written in the file `single_write.c`:

```
1 #include <errno.h>
2 #include <string.h>
3 #include <caml/mlvalues.h>
4 #include <caml/memory.h>
5 #include <caml/signals.h>
6 #include <caml/unixsupport.h>
7
8 CAMLprim value caml_single_write
9     (value fd, value buf, value vofs, value vlen) {
10     CAMLparam4(fd, buf, vofs, vlen);
11     long ofs, len;
12     int numbytes, ret;
13     char iobuf[UNIX_BUFFER_SIZE];
14     ofs = Long_val(vofs)
```

```

15   len = Long_val(vlen)
16   ret = 0;
17   if (len > 0) {
18       numbytes = len > UNIX_BUFFER_SIZE ? UNIX_BUFFER_SIZE : len;
19       memmove (iobuf, &Byte(buf, ofs), numbytes);
20       caml_enter_blocking_section ();
21       ret = write(Int_val(fd), iobuf, numbytes);
22       caml_leave_blocking_section ();
23       if (ret == -1) uerror("single_write", Nothing);
24   }
25   CAMLreturn (Val_int(ret));
26 }

```

The first two lines include standard C headers. The following four lines include C headers specific to OCaml installed by the distribution. The `unixsupport.h` header defines reusable C functions of the OCaml Unix library.

The most important line is the call to `write`. Since the call may block (if the descriptor is a pipe or a socket) we need to release the global lock on the OCaml runtime immediately before the call (line 20) and reacquire it right after (line 22). This makes the function compatible with the `Thread` module (see chapter 7): it allows other threads to execute during the blocking call.

During the system call OCaml may perform a garbage collection and the address of the OCaml string `buf` may move in memory. To solve this problem we copy `buf` into the C string `iobuf`. This has an additional cost, but only in the order of magnitude of 10% (and not 50% as one might think) because the overall cost of the function is dominated by the system call. The size of this C string is defined in `unix_support.h`. If an error occurs during the system call (indicated by a negative return value) it is propagated to OCaml by the function `uerror`, defined in the OCaml Unix library.

To access this code from OCaml, the file `unix.mli` declares:

```

external unsafe_single_write :
  file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> int = "caml_single_write"

```

But in practice we verify the arguments before calling the function:

```

let single_write fd buf ofs len =
  if ofs < 0 || len < 0 || ofs > String.length buf - len
  then invalid_arg "Unix.write"
  else unsafe_single_write fd buf ofs len

```

This function has been available in the `Unix` module since version 3.08. But if we had written the program above ourselves we would need to compile it as follows to use it (assuming the OCaml code is in the files `write.mli` and `write.ml`):

```

ocamlc -c single_write.c write.ml
ocamlc -custom -o prog unix.cma single_write.o write.cmo mod1.ml mod2.ml

```

It is often more practical to build a library `write.cma` containing both the C and the OCaml code:

```

ocamlc -custom -a -o write.cma single_write.o write.cmo

```

The library `write.cma` can then be used like `unix.cma`:

Miscellaneous: write

```
ocamlc -o main.byte unix.cma write.cma main.ml
```

The semantics of `single_write` is as close as possible to the system call `write`. The only remaining difference is when the original string is very long (greater than `UNIX_BUFFER_SIZE`); the call may then not write all the data and must be iterated. The atomicity of `write` (guaranteed for regular files) is thus not guaranteed for long writes. This difference is generally insignificant but one should be aware of it.

On top of this function we can implement a higher-level function `really_write`, analogous to the function `really_read` of the multiplexer example, that writes exactly the requested amount of data (but not atomically).

```
let rec really_write fd buffer offset len =  
  let n = restart_on_EINTR (single_write fd buffer offset) len in  
  if n < len then really_write fd buffer (offset + n) (len - n);;
```


6 Modern communication: sockets

Communication with pipes has some limitations. First, it is local to a machine: with named pipes, communicating processes must run on the same machine and what's more, with anonymous pipes, they must share a common ancestor. Furthermore, pipes are not very suitable for a particularly useful model of communication: the *client-server* model. In this model, only one program, the *server*, has direct access to a shared resource. The other programs, the *clients*, access the resource by connecting to the server. The server serializes and controls the access to the shared resource. (Example: the X-window windowing system — the shared resources are the screen, the keyboard and the mouse.)

The client-server model is difficult to implement with pipes. The major difficulty is to establish the connection between a client and the server. With anonymous pipes, it is impossible: the server and the client would need a common ancestor that allocated an arbitrarily large number of pipes in advance. With named pipes, the server could read connection requests on a particular pipe. These requests would contain the name of another named pipe created and used by the client to communicate with the server. The problem is to ensure the mutual exclusion of simultaneous connection requests performed by multiple clients.

Sockets are a generalization of pipes addressing these issues. The client-server model is shown in figure 3.

1. The server *U* creates a socket *s* on a port *p* known to the clients and waits for connections on it (1).
2. The client *A* creates a socket and connects to the server on the port *p* (2). On the server, the system allocates a new socket to communicate privately with the client *A* (3). In this example, the server forks off an auxiliary server *V* (4), closes its connection with the client *A* (represented by the dashed line) and lets its child *V* handle the connection with *A* (5).

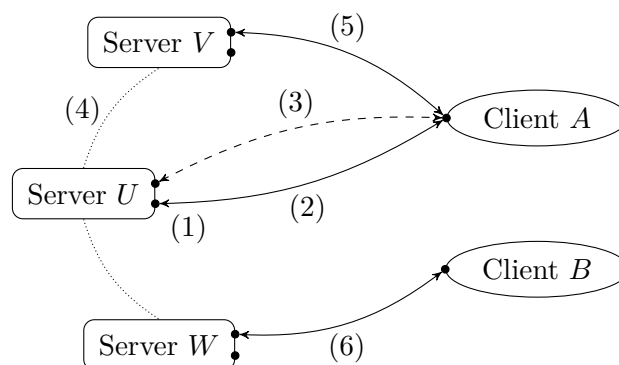


Figure 3 — Client-Server model

3. The server can then accept a new client B , establish another connection handled in parallel by another clone W (6), and so on.
4. The server can close its service by closing the file descriptor associated with the socket s . After a while the system frees the port p which can then be reused, for example to install another service.

In the model described above, the server U and the client A establish a private connection (3) to communicate without interference from other clients. For that reason, this mode of communication is referred to as the *connection-oriented* mode. If the transaction is short the server can handle the request directly (without forking) through the connection (3). In this case, the next client must wait for the server to be available, either because it is handling the connection (3), or because it explicitly manages several connections via multiplexing.

Sockets also allow a *connectionless* communication mode. In this mode, less frequently used, the server does not establish a private connection with the client, but responds directly to the client's requests. We will briefly comment on this model in section 6.10 but in the remainder of this chapter, we mainly describe *connection-oriented* communication.

6.1 Sockets

Sockets, an extension of pipes, were introduced in BSD 4.2. They are now found on all Unix machines connected to a network. Special system calls are provided to establish connections following the client-server model; they enable local and remote communication between processes in a (nearly) transparent way.

The *communication domain* of a socket limits the processes (and the format of their address) with which we can communicate on the socket. Different communication domains are available, for example:

- the Unix domain: an address is a name in the file system of a machine. Communication is limited to processes running on that machine (like with pipes).
- the Internet domain: an address is an address of a machine on the Internet network (addresses of the form 129.199.129.1, for example) and a port number on that machine. Communication is possible between processes running on any two machines connected to Internet.¹

The *communication type* of a socket indicates whether communication is reliable (no loss or duplication of data) and the way the data is sent and received (a stream of bytes, or a sequence of packets — small blocks of bytes). The communication type constrains the protocol used to transmit data. Different communication types are available, here are three of them with their properties:

¹ The Internet network is made of local networks, usually Ethernet networks, connected by specialized links. It connects millions of machines world-wide. In the Internet domain, there is no difference between programs that communicate with a neighboring machine, connected to the same Ethernet cable, and those that communicate with a machine on the other side of the planet, through a dozen routers and a satellite link.

Type	Reliable	Data representation
Stream	yes	byte stream
Datagram	no	packets
Segmented packets	yes	packets

The “stream” type is very similar to communication with pipes. It is used most frequently, in particular to transmit unstructured byte sequences (e.g. `rsh`). The “segmented packets” type transmits data as packets: each write delimits a packet, each read returns at most a packet. It is well suited for message-oriented communication. The “datagram” type is the closest to the hardware properties of an Ethernet network: data is transmitted with packets and there is no guarantee that they reach their destination. It is the most economical type in terms of network resources. Some programs use it to transmit data that is not of crucial importance (e.g. `biff`); others, to get more network performance but with the burden of managing data losses manually.

6.2 Socket creation

The `socket` system creates a new socket:

```
val socket : socket_domain -> socket_type -> int -> file_descr
```

The result is a file descriptor that represents the new socket. Initially, this descriptor is “disconnected”, it is not ready to accept any `read` or `write`.

The first argument is a value of type `socket_domain`, it specifies the socket’s communication domain:

`PF_UNIX` The Unix domain.

`PF_INET` The Internet domain.

The second argument, a value of type `socket_type`, specifies the desired communication type:

`SOCK_STREAM` Byte streams, reliable.

`SOCK_DGRAM` Packets, unreliable.

`SOCK_RAW` Direct access to the lower layers of the network.

`SOCK_SEQPACKET` Packets, reliable.

The third argument is the communication protocol to use. It is usually `0` which selects the default protocol for the given communication domain and type (e.g. UDP for `SOCK_DGRAM` or TCP for `SOCK_STREAM`). Other values allow to use special protocols, for example ICMP (*Internet Control Message Protocol*) used by the `ping` command to send packets which return automatically to the sender. The numbers for these special protocols are in the `/etc/protocols` file or in the `protocols` table of the NIS (*Network Information Service*) database, if any. The system call `getprotobyname` returns information about a protocol in a portable manner:

```
val getprotobyname : string -> protocol_entry
```

Given the name of a protocol the result is a record of type `protocol_entry`. The `p_proto` field of this record has the protocol number.

6.3 Addresses

Several socket operations use socket addresses, represented by the variant type `sockaddr`:

```
type sockaddr =  
  | ADDR_UNIX of string  
  | ADDR_INET of inet_addr * int
```

`ADDR_UNIX f` is an address in the Unix domain, `f` is the name of the corresponding file in the machine's file system. `ADDR_INET (a,p)` is an address in the Internet domain, `a` is the Internet address of a machine and `p` a port number on this machine.

Internet addresses are represented by the abstract type `inet_addr`. The following functions convert strings of the form `128.93.8.2` to values of type `inet_addr`, and vice versa:

```
val inet_addr_of_string : string -> inet_addr  
val string_of_inet_addr : inet_addr -> string
```

Another way to obtain internet addresses is to look them up by host name in the `/etc/hosts` table, the NIS database or in domain name servers. The system call `gethostbyname` does that. On modern machines, the domain name servers are consulted first and `/etc/hosts` is only used as a fallback but in general that may depend on the machine's configuration.

```
val gethostbyname : string -> host_entry
```

The argument is the host name to look for and the result a record of type `host_entry`. The `h_addr_list` field of this record is an array of Internet addresses corresponding to the machine (the same machine can be connected to multiple networks under different addresses).

Regarding port numbers, the most common services are listed in the table `/etc/services` which can be read in a portable manner using the `getservbyname` function:

```
val getservbyname : string -> string -> service_entry
```

The first argument is the service name ("`ftp`" for FTP servers, "`smtp`" for email, "`nntp`" for news servers, "`talk`" and "`ntalk`" for commands of that name, etc.) and the second argument is the name of the protocol: usually "`tcp`" if the service is using the stream connection type or "`udp`" for the datagram type. The result of `getservbyname` is a record of type `service_entry` whose `s_port` field contains the desired number.

Example To obtain the address of the FTP server `pauillac.inria.fr`:

```
ADDR_INET((gethostbyname "pauillac.inria.fr").h_addr_list.(0),  
          (getservbyname "ftp" "tcp").s_port)
```

* * *

6.4 Connection to a server

The system call `connect` establishes a connection with a server on a socket.

```
val connect : file_descr -> sockaddr -> unit
```

The first argument is a socket descriptor and the second argument is the server's address.

Once the connection is established, calls to `write` on the socket descriptor send data to the server and calls to `read` receive data from the server. Sockets behave like pipes for read and write operations. First, `read` blocks if no data is available and can return fewer bytes than requested. Second, whenever the server closes the connection `read` returns 0 and `write` sends a `sigpipe` signal to the calling process.

`connect` binds the socket to a local address chosen by the system. Sometimes, it is preferable to manually choose this address. This can be done by calling the function `bind` (see section 6.7) before `connect`.

The `netstat` Unix command lists the current connections on the machine and their status.

6.5 Disconnecting sockets

There are two ways to disconnect a socket. The first is to call `close` on the socket. This closes the read and write sides of the connection, and deallocates the socket. But sometimes this is too brutal, for example we may want to close the connection from the client to the server to indicate an end of file but keep the connection open in the other direction to get remaining data from the server. The system call `shutdown` allows to close the connection gradually.

```
val shutdown : file_descr -> shutdown_command -> unit
```

The first argument is the descriptor of the socket to close and the second a value of type `shutdown_command` indicating which direction to close:

<code>SHUTDOWN_RECEIVE</code>	Closes the socket for reading; <code>write</code> on the other end of the connection will send a <code>sigpipe</code> signal to the caller.
<code>SHUTDOWN_SEND</code>	Closes the socket for writing; <code>read</code> on the other end of the connection returns an end of file.
<code>SHUTDOWN_ALL</code>	Closes the socket for reading and writing; unlike <code>close</code> , the socket descriptor is not deallocated.

Note that disconnecting a socket can take some time whether done with `close` or `shutdown`.

6.6 Complete example: the universal client

We program a `client` command such that `client host port` establishes a connection on the port `port` of the machine named `host`, sends on the resulting socket the data it reads on its standard input and writes the data it receives on its standard output. For instance, the command

```
echo -e 'GET /~remy/ HTTP/1.0\r\n\r\n' | ./client pauillac.inria.fr 80
```

connects to the port 80 of pauillac.inria.fr and sends an HTTP request for the web page /~remy/.

This command is a “universal” client application in the sense that it factors out the code to establish a connection common to many clients and delegates the implementation of the specific protocol to the program that calls `client`.

The library function `Misc.retransmit fdin fdout` reads data on the descriptor `fdin` and writes it on `fdout`. It terminates, without closing the descriptors, when the end of file is reached on the input descriptor. Note that `retransmit` may be interrupted by a signal.

```
let retransmit fdin fdout =  
  let buffer_size = 4096 in  
  let buffer = String.create buffer_size in  
  let rec copy () = match read fdin buffer 0 buffer_size with  
    | 0 -> ()  
    | n -> ignore (write fdout buffer 0 n); copy ()  
  in  
  copy ();;
```

The serious matter starts here.

```
1 open Sys;;  
2 open Unix;;  
3  
4 let client () =  
5   if Array.length Sys.argv < 3 then begin  
6     prerr_endline "Usage: client <host> <port>";  
7     exit 2;  
8   end;  
9   let server_name = Sys.argv.(1)  
10  and port_number = int_of_string Sys.argv.(2) in  
11  let server_addr =  
12    try (gethostbyname server_name).h_addr_list.(0)  
13    with Not_found ->  
14      prerr_endline (server_name ^ ": Host not found");  
15      exit 2 in  
16  let sock = socket PF_INET SOCK_STREAM 0 in  
17  connect sock (ADDR_INET(server_addr, port_number));  
18  match fork () with  
19  | 0 ->  
20    Misc.retransmit stdin sock;  
21    shutdown sock SHUTDOWN_SEND;  
22    exit 0  
23  | _ ->  
24    Misc.retransmit sock stdout;  
25    close stdout;  
26    wait ();;  
27  
28  handle_unix_error client ();;
```

We start by determining the Internet address of the machine to which we want to connect. It can be specified by a host name or in numerical form, `gethostbyname` correctly handles both cases. Then, we create a socket of type stream in the Internet domain with the default protocol and connect it to the address of the machine.

The process is then cloned with `fork`. The child process copies the data from its standard input to the socket. Once the end of standard input is reached it closes the connection in the sending direction and terminates. The parent process copies the data it reads on the socket to its standard output. Once the end of file is reached on the socket, it closes the standard output, synchronizes with the child process and terminates.

The connection is closed either by the client or by the server:

- If the child client receives an end of file on its standard input, it closes the connection in the client to server direction and terminates. The server upon receiving the end of file on its socket should, possibly after some further processing, close the connection in the other direction. Thus the parent client eventually receives an end of file on the socket and terminates normally.
- If the server closes the connection. The parent client receives an end of file on the socket and waits on the child. The child client is killed by a `sigpipe` signal the next time it tries to write on the socket. This does not however report that the connection was lost. If that is needed we can ignore the `sigpipe` signal by inserting the following line after line 19:

```
ignore (signal sigpipe Signal_ignore)
```

and the write will raise an `EPIPE` error instead.

- If the parent or child client exits prematurely the socket will be closed for reading or writing. Whenever the server detects this information, it closes its side of the connection, which is eventually detected by the other part of the client.

6.7 Establishing a service

Having seen how a client connects to a server, we now show how a server can provide a service for clients. First we need to associate a particular address to a socket to make it reachable from the network. The system call `bind` does this:

```
val bind : file_descr -> sockaddr -> unit
```

The first argument is the socket descriptor and the second the address to bind. The constant Internet address `inet_addr_any` can be used to bind all the Internet addresses that the machine has (it may be on multiple sub-networks).

We then indicate that the socket can accept connections with the system call `listen`:

```
val listen : file_descr -> int -> unit
```

The first argument is the socket descriptor and the second is the number of request that can be put on hold while the server is busy (ranges from a few dozen to several hundreds for large servers). When the number of waiting clients exceeds this number, additional client connection requests fail.

Finally, connection requests on a socket descriptor are received via the system call `accept`:

```
val accept : file_descr -> file_descr * sockaddr
```

When the call returns the socket given in argument is still free and can accept more connection request. The first component of the result is a new descriptor connected to the client, everything written (resp. read) on that socket can be read (resp. is written) on the socket the client gave to `connect`. The second component of the result is the address of the client. It can be used to check that the client is authorized to connect (for example this is what the X server does, `xhost` can be used to add new authorizations), or to establish a second connection from the server to the client (as FTP does for each file transfer request).

The general structure of a TCP server is as follows.

```
let install_tcp_server_socket addr =  
  let s = socket PF_INET SOCK_STREAM 0 in  
  try  
    bind s addr;  
    listen s 10;  
    s  
  with z -> close s; raise z;;
```

The library function `Misc.install_tcp_server addr` creates a socket of type stream in the Internet domain with the default protocol and prepares it to accept new connection requests on the address `addr` with `bind` and `listen`. Given that this is a library function, we close the socket in case of an error.

```
let tcp_server treat_connection addr =  
  ignore (signal sigpipe Signal_ignore);  
  let server_sock = install_tcp_server_socket addr in  
  while true do  
    let client = restart_on_EINTR accept server_sock in  
    treat_connection server_sock client  
  done;;
```

The library function `Misc.tcp_server` creates a socket with `install_tcp_server` and enters an infinite loop. At each iteration of the loop it waits for a connection request with `accept` and treats it with the function `treat_connection`. Since this is a library function we restart the `accept` call if it is interrupted. We also ignore the signal `sigpipe` so that unexpected disconnection raise an `EPIPE` exception that can be caught by `treat_connection` rather than killing the server. Note that it in any case it is `treat_connection`'s duty to close the client descriptor at the end of the connection.

The function `treat_connection` is also given the descriptor of the server so that if it forks or or `double_forks` it can be closed by the child.

Now suppose we have the following, application specific, service function that talks to the client end ends by closing the connection:

```
let service (client_sock, client_addr) =  
  (* Handle the client on the descriptor client_sock *)  
  (* And when we are done: *)  
  close client_sock;;
```

The server itself can treat each connection sequentially. The following library function, in `Misc`, captures this pattern:

```
let sequential_treatment server service client = service client
```

However as the server cannot handle any other requests while serving a client, this scheme is only appropriate for quick services, where the `service` function always runs in a short, bounded, amount of time (for instance, a date server).

Most servers delegate the service to a child process: `fork` is called immediately after `accept` returns. The child process handles the connection and the parent process immediately retries to `accept`. We obtain the following library function in `Misc`:

```
let fork_treatment server service (client_sock, _ as client) =
  let treat () = match fork () with
    | 0 -> close server; service client; exit 0
    | k -> ()
  in
  try_finalize treat () close client_sock;;
```

Note that it is essential that the parent closes `client_sock` otherwise the close made by the child will not terminate the connection (besides the parent would also quickly run out of descriptors). The descriptor is also closed if the fork fails, for the server may eventually decide the error is not fatal and continue to operate.

Similarly, the child immediately closes the `server` descriptor on which the connection request was received. First, it does not need it. Second, the server may stop accepting new connections before the child has terminated. The call to `exit 0` is important since it ensures that the child terminates after the execution of the service and that it does not start to execute the server loop.

So far we ignored the fact that children will become zombie processes and that we need to recover them. There are two ways to do so. The simple approach is to have a grandchild process handle the connection using a double fork (see page 44). This gives the following library function, also in `Misc`:

```
let double_fork_treatment server service (client_descr, _ as client) =
  let treat () = match fork () with
    | 0 ->
      if fork () <> 0 then exit 0;
      close server; service client; exit 0
    | k ->
      ignore (restart_on_EINTR (waitpid []) k)
  in
  try_finalize treat () close client_descr;;
```

However with this approach the server loses all control on the grandchild process. It is better to have the processes handling services and the server in the same process group so that the whole group can be killed at once to terminate the service. For this reason servers usually keep the fork treatment but add children recovering code, for example in the handler of the `sigchld` signal (see the function `Misc.free_children` on page 54).

6.8 Tuning sockets

Sockets have numerous internal parameters that can be tuned: the size of the transfer buffer, the size of the minimum transfer, the behavior on closing, etc.

These parameters have different types, for this reason there are as many `getsockopt` and `setsockopt` OCaml functions as there are types. Consult the OCaml documentation of the function `getsockopt` and its variants to get a detailed list of those options and the POSIX reference for `getsockopt` and `setsockopt` for their exact meaning.

Example The following two parameters apply only to sockets of type stream in the Internet domain.

In the TCP protocol, the disconnection of a socket is negotiated and hence takes some time. Normally a call to `close` returns immediately, and lets the system negotiate the disconnection. The code below turns `close` on the socket `sock` into a blocking operation. It blocks either until all the sent data has been transmitted or until 5 seconds have passed.

```
setsockopt_optint sock SO_LINGER (Some 5);;
```

The `SO_REUSEADDR` option allows the `bind` system call to allocate a new socket on a local address immediately after the socket `sock` bound on that address is closed (there is however the risk to get packets intended for the old connection). This option allows to stop a server and restart it immediately, very useful for testing purposes.

```
setsockopt sock SO_REUSEADDR;;
```

* * *

6.9 Complete example: the universal server

We program a `server` command such that:

```
./server port cmd arg1 ... argn
```

receives connection requests on the port `port` and, for each connection, executes `cmd` with the arguments `arg1 ... argn` and the socket connection as its standard input and output. For example, if we execute:

```
./server 8500 grep foo
```

on the `pomero1` machine and the universal client (see section 6.6) on an other machine as follows:

```
./client pomero1 8500 < /etc/passwd
```

the client displays the same result as if we had typed:

```
grep foo < /etc/passwd
```

except that `grep` is executed on `pomero1`, and not on the local machine.

This command is a “universal” server in the sense that it factors out the code common to many server and delegates the implementation of the specific service and communication protocol to the `cmd` program it launches.

Complete example: the universal server

```
1  open Sys;;
2  open Unix;;
3
4  let server () =
5      if Array.length Sys.argv < 2 then begin
6          prerr_endline "Usage: client <port> <command> [arg1 ... argn]";
7          exit 2;
8      end;
9      let port = int_of_string Sys.argv.(1) in
10     let args = Array.sub Sys.argv 2 (Array.length Sys.argv - 2) in
11     let host = (gethostbyname(gethostname ())).h_addr_list.(0) in
12     let addr = ADDR_INET (host, port) in
13     let treat sock (client_sock, client_addr as client) =
14         (* log information *)
15         begin match client_addr with
16             | ADDR_INET(caller, _) ->
17                 prerr_endline ("Connection from " ^ string_of_inet_addr caller);
18             | ADDR_UNIX _ ->
19                 prerr_endline "Connection from the Unix domain (???)";
20         end;
21         (* connection treatment *)
22         let service (s, _) =
23             dup2 s stdin; dup2 s stdout; dup2 s stderr; close s;
24             execvp args.(0) args
25         in
26         Misc.double_fork_treatment sock service client in
27     Misc.tcp_server treat addr;;
28
29 handle_unix_error server ();;
```

The address given to `tcp_server` contains the Internet address of the machine running the program; the usual way to get it (line 11) is by calling `gethostname`. But in general many addresses are referencing the same machine. For instance, the address of the `pauillac` machine is `128.93.11.35`, it can also be accessed locally (provided we are already on the `pauillac` machine) with the address `127.0.0.1`. To provide a service on all the addresses pointing to this machine, we can use the constant Internet address `inet_addr_any`.

The service is handled by a “double fork”. The `service` function, executed by the child, redirects standard input and the two standard output on the connection socket and executes the requested command (note that the handling of the service cannot be done sequentially).

The connection is closed without any intervention of the `server` program. One of the following cases occurs:

- The client closes the connection in the client to server direction. The command launched by the server receives an end of file on its standard input. It finishes what it has to do, and calls `exit` when it is done. This closes the standard outputs which are the last descriptors open for writing on the connection and the client receives an end of file on its socket.

- The client ends prematurely and closes the connection in the server to client direction. The command launched by the server may then receive a `sigpipe` signal the next time it tries to write data on the connection. This may kill the process but is perfectly acceptable since nothing is now reading the output of this command.
- The command launched by the server exits before having read the end of file on its input. The client receives a `sigpipe` signal (or an `EPIPE` exception) when it tries to write on the connection.

Precautions

Writing a server requires more care than writing a client. While the client usually knows the server to which it connects, the server knows nothing about its clients and particularly if the service is public, the client can be “hostile”. The server must therefore guard itself against all pathological cases.

A typical attack is to open connections and leave them open without transmitting requests. After accepting the connection the server is blocked on the socket as long as the client stays connected. An attacker can saturate the service by opening a lot of unused connections. The server must be robust against these attacks: it must only accept a limited number of simultaneous connections to avoid system resources exhaustion and it must terminate connections that remain inactive for too long.

A sequential server handling connections without forking is immediately exposed to this blocking issue. It will be unresponsive for further request even though it does nothing. A solution for a sequential server is to multiplex the connections, but it can be tricky to implement. The solution with a parallel server is more elegant, but it still needs a timeout, for example by programming an alarm (see section 4.2).

6.10 Communication in connectionless mode

The TCP protocol used by most connections of type `SOCK_STREAM` works only in connection-oriented mode. Conversely, the UDP protocol used by most connections of type `SOCK_DGRAM` always works in connectionless mode, there is no established connection between the two machines. For this type of sockets, data is transmitted with the system calls `recvfrom` and `sendto`.

val `recvfrom` :

`file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> msg_flag list -> int * sockaddr`

val `sendto` :

`file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> msg_flag list -> sockaddr -> int`

Their interface is similar to `read` and `write`, they return the size of the transferred data. The call `recvfrom` also returns the address of the sending machine.

We can call `connect` on a socket of type `SOCK_DGRAM` to obtain a pseudo-connection. This pseudo-connection is just an illusion, the only effect is that the address passed in argument is memorized by the socket and becomes the address used for sending and receiving data (messages coming from other addresses are ignored). It is possible to call `connect` more than once to change the address or

disconnect the pseudo-connection by connecting to an invalid address like `0`. In contrast, doing this with a socket of type stream would generally issue an error.

6.11 Low level reads and writes

The system calls `recv` and `send` respectively generalize `read` and `write` but they work only on socket descriptors.

```
val recv : file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> msg_flag list -> int
val send : file_descr -> string -> int -> int -> msg_flag list -> int
```

Their interface is similar to `read` and `write` but they add a list of flags of type `msg_flag` whose semantics is:

<code>MSG_OOB</code>	Process out-of-band data.
<code>MSG_DONTROUTE</code>	Short-circuit the default routing table.
<code>MSG_PEEK</code>	Examines the data without reading it.

These primitives can be used in connection-oriented mode instead of `read` and `write` or in pseudo-connected mode instead of `recvfrom` and `sendto`.

6.12 High-level primitives

Examples like the universal client-server are so frequent that the `Unix` module provides higher-level functions to establish or use network services.

```
val open_connection : sockaddr -> in_channel * out_channel
val shutdown_connection : Pervasives.in_channel -> unit
```

The `open_connection` function opens a connection to the given address and creates a pair of `Pervasives` input/output channels on the resulting socket. Reads and writes on these channels communicate with the server but since the output channel is buffered we must flush it to ensure that a request has been really sent. The client can shutdown the connection abruptly by closing either of the channels (this will close the socket) or more “cleanly” by calling `shutdown_connection`. If the server closes the connection, the client receives an end of file on the input channel.

A service can be established with the `establish_server` function.

```
val establish_server :
  (in_channel -> out_channel -> unit) -> sockaddr -> unit
```

The function `establish_server f addr` establishes a service on the address `addr` and handles requests with the function `f`. Each connection to the server creates a new socket and forks. The child creates a pair of `Pervasives` input/output channels on the socket to communicate with the client and gives them to `f` to provide the service. Once `f` returns the child closes the socket and exits. If the client closes the connection cleanly, the child gets an end of file on the input channel and if it doesn't it may receive a `sigpipe` signal when `f` writes on the output channel. As for the parent, it has probably already handled another request! The `establish_server` function never terminates, except in case of

error (e.g. of the OCaml runtime or the system during the establishment of the service).

6.13 Examples of protocols

In simple cases (`rsh`, `rlogin`, ...), the data transmitted between a client and a server is naturally represented by two streams of bytes, one from the client to the server and the other in the reverse direction. In other cases, the data to transmit is more complex, and requires to be encoded and decoded to/from the streams of bytes. The client and the server must then agree on a precise transmission protocol, which specifies the format of requests and responses exchanged on the connection. Most protocols used by Unix commands are specified in documents called “RFC” (request for comments): these documents start as proposals open for discussion, and gradually become standards over time, as users adopt the described protocol.²

“Binary” protocols

Most binary protocols transmit data in a compact format, as close as possible to the in-memory representation, in order to minimize the encoding/decoding work needed for transmission and save network bandwidth. Typical examples of protocols of this type are the X-window protocol, which governs exchanges between the X server and X applications, and the NFS protocol (RFC 1094).

Binary protocols usually encode data as follows. An integer or floating point number is represented by its 1, 2, 4, or 8 bytes binary representation. A string by its length as an integer followed by its contents as bytes. A structured object (tuple, record) by the representation of its fields in order. A variable size structure (array, list) by its length as an integer followed by the representation of its elements. If the exact type of data being transmitted is known to a process it can easily recreate it in its memory. When different type of data is exchanged on a socket the data encoding can be preceded by an integer to identify the data that follows.

Example The `XFillPolygon` call of the X library, which draws and fills a polygon, sends a message with the following structure to the X server:

- the byte 69 (the code of the `FillPoly` command)
- a padding byte
- a 16 bit integer specifying the number n of vertices of the polygon
- a 32 bit integer identifying the window on which to draw
- a 32 bit integer identifying the “graphic context”
- a “form” byte, indicating whether the polygon is convex, etc.
- a byte indicating whether the coordinates of the vertices are absolute or relative
- $4n$ bytes encoding the coordinates of the polygon’s vertices by two 16 bit integers

* * *

²RFCs are available via anonymous FTP on numerous sites. In France: `ftp.inria.fr`, in the directory `rfc`. The reference site is `http://www.faqs.org/rfcs/`.

With binary protocols we must pay attention to the computer architecture of the communicating machines. In particular for multi-byte integers, *big-endian* machines store the most significant byte first (that is, in memory, at the lower-address) and *little-endian* machines store the least significant byte first. For instance, the 16 bit integer $12345 = 48 \times 256 + 57$ is represented by the byte 48 at the address n and the byte 57 at the address $n + 1$ on a big-endian machine, and by the byte 57 at the address n and the byte 48 at the address $n + 1$ on a little-endian machine. Hence protocols must precisely specify which convention they use when multi-bytes integers are transmitted. Another option is to allow both and have it specified in the header of the transmitted message.

The OCaml system helps to encode and decode data structures (a procedure called *marshalling*, *serialization* or *pickling* in the literature) by providing two functions to convert an OCaml value into a sequence of bytes and vice versa:

```
val output_value : out_channel -> 'a -> unit
val input_value : in_channel -> 'a
```

These function are defined to save values to a disk file and get them back but they can also be used to transmit any value on a pipe or a socket. They handle any OCaml values except functions, preserve sharing and circularities inside values and work correctly between machines of different endianness. More information can be found in the `Marshal` module.

Note that semantically, the type of `input_value` is incorrect. It is too general, it is not true that the result of `input_value` is of type `'a` for any type `'a`. The value returned by `input_value` belongs to a precise type, and not to all possible types. But this type cannot be determined at compile time, it depends on the content of the channel read at runtime. Type-checking `input_value` correctly requires an extension to the ML language known as dynamic objects: values are paired with a representation of their type allowing to perform runtime type checks. Consult [15] for a detailed presentation.

Example If the x-window protocol was written in OCaml, we would define a variant type `request` for requests sent to the server and a `reply` type for server responses:

```
type request =
  | FillPolyReq of (int * int) array * drawable * graphic_context
                                * poly_shape * coord_mode
  | GetAtomNameReq of atom
  | ...
and reply =
  | GetAtomNameReply of string
  | ...
```

The core of the server would be a loop that reads and decodes a request and responds by writing a reply:

```
(* Get a connection request on the descriptor s *)
let requests = in_channel_of_descr s
and replies  = out_channel_of_descr s in
try
  while true do
```

```
match input_value requests with
  ...
  | FillPoly(vertices, drawable, gc, shape, mode) ->
    fill_poly vertices drawable gc shape mode
  | GetAtomNameReq atom ->
    output_value replies (GetAtomNameReply(get_atom_name atom))
  | ...
done
with End_of_file -> (* end of the connection *)
```

The functions of the X library, linked with each application would have the following structure:

```
(* First establish a connection with the server on the descriptor s *)
...
let requests = out_channel_of_descr s
and replies = in_channel_of_descr s;;

let fill_poly vertices drawable gc shape mode =
  output_value requests
    (FillPolyReq(vertices, drawable, gc, shape, mode));;
let get_atom_name atom =
  output_value requests (GetAtomNameReq atom);
  match input_value replies with
  | GetAtomNameReply name -> name
  | _ -> fatal_protocol_error "get_atom_name";;

* * *
```

Remote procedure call Another typical incarnation of binary protocols is remote procedure calls (RPC). A user on machine A wants to call a function *f* on a machine B. This is obviously not directly possible. It can be programmed on a case by case basis using the system to open a connection to the machine B, execute the call and send the result back to the machine A.

But since this is a common situation, an RPC service can handle that (see figure 4). An RPC server runs on both machine A and B. A user on machine A requests the RPC server on the machine to execute a function on the distant machine B. The server on A relays the request to the RPC server on machine B which executes the call to *f*, sends the result back to the server on A which gives the result to the user. The point is that another user can call another function on B by going through the same server on A. The connection work is shared by the RPC service installed on the machines A and B and from the perspective of the users, everything happens as if these calls were simple function calls (dashed arrows).

“Text” protocols

Network services where the efficiency of the protocol is not crucial are often “text” protocols. A “text” protocol is in fact a small command language. Requests are command lines, the first word identifies the request type and the possible remaining words the command’s arguments. Responses are also made of one or

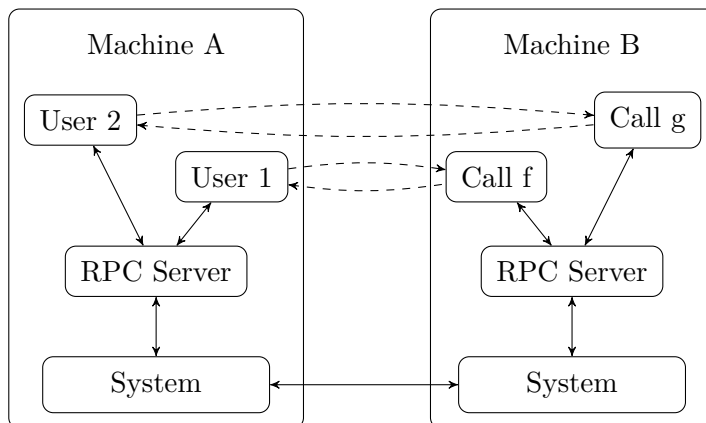


Figure 4 — Remote procedure call

more lines of text, often starting with a numerical code to identify the kind of response. Here are some “text” protocols:

Name	Descr.	Purpose
SMTP (Simple Mail Transfer Protocol)	RFC 821	Electronic mail
FTP (File Transfer Protocol)	RFC 959	File transfer
NTTP (Network News Transfer Protocol)	RFC 977	News reading
HTTP/1.0 (HyperText Transfer Protocol)	RFC 1945	Web navigation
HTTP/1.1 (HyperText Transfer Protocol)	RFC 2068	Web navigation

The great advantage of these protocols is that the exchanges between the server and the client are human readable. For example we can just use the `telnet` command to talk directly to the server. Invoke `telnet host service` where `host` is the host name on which the server is running the service `service` (e.g. `http`, `smtp`, `nnntp`, etc.) and then type in the requests as a client would, the server’s responses will be printed on standard output. This makes it easier to understand the protocol. However coding and decoding requests and responses is more involved than for binary protocols and the message size also tends to be larger which is less efficient.

Example Here is an example of an interactive dialog, in the shell, to send an email on an SMTP server. The lines preceded by `→` go from the client to the server, and are typed in by the user. The lines preceded by `←` go from the server to the client.

```

telnet margaux smtp
Trying 128.93.8.2 ...
Connected to margaux.inria.fr.
Escape character is '^]'.
← 220 margaux.inria.fr Sendmail 5.64+/AFUU-3 ready at Wed, 15 Apr 92 17:40:59

```

```
→ HELO pomerol.inria.fr
← 250 Hello pomerol.inria.fr, pleased to meet you
→ MAIL From:<god@heavens.sky.com>
← 250 <god@heavens.sky.com>... Sender ok
→ RCPT To:<xleroy@margaux.inria.fr>
← 250 <xleroy@margaux.inria.fr>... Recipient ok
→ DATA
← 354 Enter mail, end with "." on a line by itself
→ From: god@heavens.sky.com (Himself)
→ To: xleroy@margaux.inria.fr
→ Subject: Hello!
→
→ Is everything ok down there?
→ .
← 250 Ok
→ QUIT
← 221 margaux.inria.fr closing connection
    Connection closed by foreign host.
```

The commands `HELO`, `MAIL` and `RCPT` respectively send to the server: the name of the client machine, the address of the sender and the address of the recipient. The `DATA` command asks to send the body of the email. The body of the message is then entered and ended by a line containing the single character `'.'` (would the body of the email contain such a line, we just double the initial `'.'` on that line, this additional period is then suppressed by the server).

The responses from the server are all made of a 3 digit numerical code followed by a comment. Responses of the form `5xx` indicate an error and those with `2xx`, that everything is fine. When the client is a real program it only interprets the response code, the comment is only to help the person who develops the mail system.

* * *

6.14 Complete example: HTTP requests

The HTTP protocol (HyperText Transfer Protocol) is primarily used to read documents over the famous “world wide web”. This domain is a niche area of client-server examples: between the client that reads a page and the server that writes it there is a myriad of intermediary relays that act as virtual servers for the real client or delegated clients for the real server. These relay often provide additional service like caching, filtering, etc..

There are several versions of the HTTP protocol. To allow us to focus on the essentials, namely the architecture of clients or relays, we use the simple protocol inherited from the very first versions of the protocol. Even if dust-covered it is still understood by most servers. At the end of the section we describe a more modern, but also more complex, version which is needed to make real tools to explore the web. We do however leave the translation of the examples to this new version as an exercise.

Version 1.0 of the HTTP protocol specified in RFC 1945 defines simple requests of the form:

```
GET sp uri crlf
```

where *sp* represents a space and *crlf* the string `"\r\n"` (“return” followed by “linefeed”). The response to a simple request is also simple: the content of the URL is sent directly, without any headers and the end of the request is signaled by the end of file, which closes the connection. This form of request, inherited from version 0.9 of the protocol, limits the connection to a single request.

Fetching a URL

We write a `geturl` program that takes a single argument, a URL, retrieves the resource it denotes on the web and displays it.

The first task is to parse the URL to extract the name of the protocol (here, necessarily “http”), the address of the server, the optional port and the absolute path of the document on the server. This is done with `Str`, OCaml’s regular expression library.

```
open Unix;;

exception Error of string
let error err mes = raise (Error (err ^ ": " ^ mes));;
let handle_error f x = try f x with Error err -> prerr_endline err; exit 2

let default_port = "80";;

type regexp = { regexp : Str.regexp; fields : (int * string option) list; }

let regexp_match r string =
  let get (pos, default) =
    try Str.matched_group pos string
    with Not_found ->
      match default with Some s -> s | _ -> raise Not_found in
  try
    if Str.string_match r.regexp string 0 then
      Some (List.map get r.fields)
    else None
  with Not_found -> None;;

let host_regexp =
  { regexp = Str.regexp "\\([^\/:]*\\)\\(:\\([0-9]+\\)\\)?";
    fields = [ 1, None; 3, Some default_port; ] };;

let url_regexp =
  { regexp = Str.regexp "http://\\([^\/:]*\\)\\(:\\([0-9]+\\)\\)?\\)\\(/.*\\)";
    fields = [ 1, None; 3, None ] };;

let parse_host host = match regexp_match host_regexp host with
| Some (host :: port :: _) -> host, int_of_string port
| _ -> error host "Ill formed host";;
```

```
let parse_url url = match regexp_match url_regexp url with
| Some (host :: path :: _) -> parse_host host, path
| _ -> error url "Ill formed url";;
```

Sending a simple request is a trivial task, as the following function shows.

```
let send_get url sock =
  let s = Printf.sprintf "GET %s\r\n" url in
  ignore (write sock s 0 (String.length s));;
```

Note that the URL can be complete, with the address and port of the server, or just contain the requested path on the server.

Reading the response is even easier, since only the document is returned, without any additional information. If there's an error in the request, the error message returned by the server as an HTML document. Thus we just print the response with the function `Misc.retransmit` without indicating whether this is an error or the desired document. The rest of the program establishes the connection with the server.

```
let get_url proxy url fdout =
  let (hostname, port), path = match proxy with
  | None -> parse_url url
  | Some host -> parse_host host, url
  in
  let hostaddr =
    try inet_addr_of_string hostname
    with Failure _ ->
      try (gethostbyname hostname).h_addr_list.(0)
      with Not_found -> error hostname "Host not found"
  in
  let sock = socket PF_INET SOCK_STREAM 0 in
  Misc.try_finalize
    begin function () ->
      connect sock (ADDR_INET (hostaddr, port));
      send_get path sock;
      Misc.retransmit sock fdout
    end ()
    close sock;;
```

We conclude, as usual, by parsing the command line.

```
let geturl () =
  let len = Array.length Sys.argv in
  if len < 2 then
    error "Usage:" (Sys.argv.(0) ^ " [ proxy [:<port>] ] <url>")
  else
    let proxy, url =
      if len > 2 then Some Sys.argv.(1), Sys.argv.(2) else
        None, Sys.argv.(1)
    in
    get_url proxy url stdout;;
```

```
handle_unix_error (handle_error geturl) ();;
```

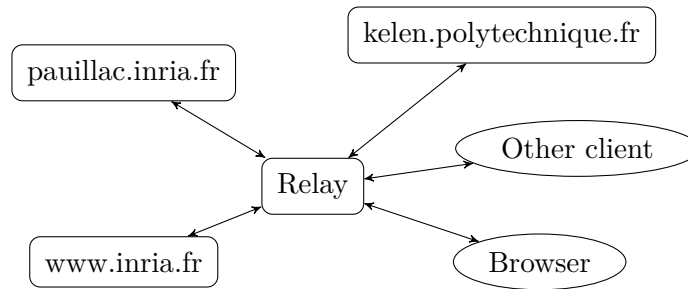


Figure 5 — HTTP relay

HTTP relay

We program an HTTP relay (or *proxy*), which is a server that redirects HTTP requests from a client to another server (or relay...) and forwards responses from that server back to the client.

The role of a relay is shown in in figure 5. When a client uses a relay, it addresses its requests to the relay rather than to the individual HTTP servers located around the world. A relay has multiple advantages. It can store the responses to the most recent or frequent requests and serve them without querying the remote server (e.g. to avoid network overload or if the server is down). It can filter the responses (e.g. to remove advertisements or image, etc.). It can also simplify the development of a program by making it see the whole world wide web through a single server.

The `proxy port` command launches the server on the port `port` (or if omitted, on the default port for HTTP). We reuse the code of the `get_url` function (we assume that the functions above are available in a `Url` module). It only remains to write the code to analyze the requests and set up the server.

open Unix

open Url

```

let get_regexp =
  { regexp = Str.regexp "^[Gg][Ee][Tt][ \t]+\(\.[^\t\\]\[ \t]*\r";
    fields = [ 1, None ] }
  
```

```

let parse_request line = match regexp_match get_regexp line with
  | Some (url :: _) -> url
  | _ -> error line "Ill formed request"
  
```

We establish the service with the `establish_server` function, thus we just need to define the function to handle a connection:

```

let proxy_service (client_sock, _) =
  let service () =
    try
      let in_chan = in_channel_of_descr client_sock in
      let line = input_line in_chan in
  
```

```
    let url = parse_request line in
    get_url None url client_sock
  with End_of_file ->
    error "Ill formed request" "End_of_file encountered"
in
Misc.try_finalize
  (handle_error service) ()
  close client_sock
```

and the rest of the program just establishes the service:

```
let proxy () =
  let http_port =
    if Array.length Sys.argv > 1 then
      try int_of_string Sys.argv.(1)
      with Failure _ -> error Sys.argv.(1) "Incorrect port"
    else
      try (getservbyname "http" "tcp").s_port
      with Not_found -> error "http" "Unknown service"
  in
  let treat_connection s = Misc.double_fork_treatment s proxy_service in
  let addr = ADDR_INET(inet_addr_any, http_port) in
  Misc.tcp_server treat_connection addr;;
```

```
handle_unix_error (handle_error proxy) ();;
```

The HTTP/1.1 protocol

Simple HTTP requests need one connection per request. This is inefficient because most requests on a server are followed by others (e.g. if a client gets a web page with images, it will subsequently request the images) and the time to establish a connection can easily exceed the time spent in handling the request itself (chapter 7 show how we can reduce this by handling the requests with threads rather than processes). Version 1.1 of the HTTP described in RFC 2068 uses complex requests that allow to make multiple requests on a single connection³.

In complex requests, the server precedes every response with a header describing the format of the response and possibly the size of the document transmitted. The end of the document is no longer indicated by an end of file, since we know its size. The connection can therefore stay open to handle more requests. Complex requests have the following form:

```
GET sp uri sp HTTP/1.1 crlf
header crlf
```

The *header* part defines a list of key-value fields with the following syntax:

```
field : value crlf
```

Superfluous spaces are allowed around the ':' separator and any space can always be replaced by a tab or a sequence of spaces. The header fields can also span

³The HTTP/1.0 protocol already allows complex requests but we prefer to describe the HTTP/1.1 protocol which deals exclusively with these.

Complete example: HTTP requests

several lines: in this case, and in this case only, the *crlf* end of line lexeme is immediately followed by a space *sp*. Finally, uppercase and lowercase letters are equivalent in the keyword of fields and in the values of certain fields.

Mandatory and optional fields depend on the type of request. For instance, a GET request must have a field indicating the destination machine:

Host : *hostname crlf*

For this type of request, we may also request, using the optional field **If-Modified**, that the document be returned only if it has been modified since a given date.

If-Modified : *date crlf*

The number of fields in the *header* is not fixed in advance but indicated by the end of the header: a line containing only the characters *crlf*.

Here is a complete request (on each line an implicit \n follows the \r):

```
GET /~remy/ HTTP/1.1\r
Host:pauillac.inria.fr\r
\r
```

A response to a complex request is also a complex response. It contains a status line, a header, and the body of the response, if any.

```
HTTP/1.1 sp status sp message crlf
header crlf
body
```

The fields of a response header have a syntax similar to that of a request but the required and optional fields are different (they depend on type of request and the status of the response — see the full documentation of the protocol).

The *body* of the response can be transmitted in a single block, in chunks or be empty:

- If the body is a single block the header contains a **Content-Length** field specifying in decimal ASCII notation the number of bytes in the body.
- If the body is transmitted in chunks, the header contains a **Transfer-Encoding** field with the value “chunked”. The body is then a set of chunks and ends with an empty chunk. A chunk is of the form:

```
size [ ; arg ] crlf
chunk crlf
```

where *size* is the size of the chunk in hexadecimal notation and *chunk* is a chunk of the response body of the given size (the part between *[* and *]* is optional and can safely be ignored). The last, empty, chunk is always of the following form:

```
0 crlf
header crlf crlf
```

- If the response does not contain a **Content-Length** field and that it is not chunked, the body is empty (for instance, a response to a request of type **HEAD** contains only a header).

Here is an example of a single block response:

```
HTTP/1.1 200 OK\r
Date: Sun, 10 Nov 2002 09:14:09 GMT\r
Server: Apache/1.2.6\r
Last-Modified: Mon, 21 Oct 2002 13:06:21 GMT\r
ETag: "359-e0d-3db3fbcd"\r
Content-Length: 3597\r
Accept-Ranges: bytes\r
Content-Type: text/html\r
\r
<html>
...
</html>
```

The status **200** indicates that the request was successful. A **301** means the URL was redirected to another URL defined in the **Location** field of the response. The **4XX** statuses indicate errors on the client side while **5XX** errors on the server side.

Exercise 15 Write a relay that works with the HTTP/1.1 protocol.

* * *

Exercise 16 Add a cache to the relay. Pages are saved on the hard drive and when a requested page is available in the cache, it is served unless too old. In that case the server is queried again and the cache updated.

* * *

Exercise 17 Write a program `wget` such that `wget u1 u2 ... un` makes the requests `u1`, `u2`, ..., `un` and saves the responses in the files `./m1/p1`, `./m2/p2`, ..., `./mn/pn` where `mi` and `pi` are respectively the name of the server and the absolute path of the request `ui`. The program should take advantage of the protocol to establish a single connection to a machine `m` when it is the same for consecutive requests. Permanent URL redirections should be followed. The following options can also be added:

- N Do not download the URL if the file `./mi/ui` does not exist or is older than the URL.
- r Download recursively all the URLs embedded in the responses which are documents in HTML format.

* * *

7 Threads

A *thread*, also called a *lightweight process*, is a flow of control that can execute in parallel with other threads in the same program.

This chapter describes the functions that allow a program to create threads (**Thread** module) and synchronize by means of locks (**Mutex** module), conditions (**Condition** module), and synchronous events (**Event** module).

7.1 Introduction

The creation of a thread is very different from the `fork` operation that creates a copy of the current process (and therefore a copy of the program). After a `fork`, the address spaces of the parent and child are totally disjoint, and the two processes can communicate only through system calls (like reading or writing a file or a pipe).

In contrast, all the threads within a program share the same address space. The only information that is not shared, and differentiates one thread from another, is the thread's identity and its execution stack (along with certain system information such as the signal mask, the state of locks and conditions, etc.) From this viewpoint, threads resemble coroutines. The threads within a given program are all treated in the same fashion, except for the initial thread that was created when the program started. When this thread terminates, so do all the other threads and therefore the program as a whole. (Whenever we speak of multiple threads, we will implicitly mean threads within a given program.)

But unlike coroutines, which pass control explicitly from one to another and cannot execute in parallel, threads can execute in parallel and can be scheduled preemptively by the system. From this viewpoint, threads resemble processes.

The common address space permits threads to communicate directly among themselves using shared memory. The fact that threads can execute in parallel means that they must synchronize their access to shared data, so that one finishes writing before the other begins reading. Although not necessary in principle, in practice this requires going through the operating system. Synchronization is often a difficult part of programming with threads. It can be done with locks and conditions, or in a higher-level fashion with events.

The advantages of threads over processes are the lower cost of creation and the ability to exchange large data structures simply by passing pointers rather than copying.

On the other hand, using threads incurs the cost of managing the synchronization among them, including the case of a fatal error in one of the threads. In particular, a thread must be careful to release its locks and preserve its invariant before stopping. Processes may also be preferable to threads when we cannot really benefit from the latter's advantages.

Implementation in OCaml To compile an application using native threads, use the following:

```
ocamlc -thread unix.cma threads.cma -o prog mod1.ml mod2.ml mod3.ml
```

```
ocamlopt -thread unix.cmx threads.cmx -o prog mod1.ml mod2.ml mod3.ml
```

If the `ocamlbuild` tool is used, all that is needed is to add the following to the `_tags` file:

```
<mod{1,2,3}.ml> : thread
<prog.{native,byte}> : use_unix, thread
```

If your installation does not support native threads, you can refer to section 7.8 or the manual for instructions how to use simulated “VM-level” threads. The text and examples in this chapter assume native threads and do not apply, in general, to VM-level threads.

7.2 Creation and termination of threads

The functions described in this section are defined in the `Thread` module.

The system call `create f v` creates a new thread that executes the function application `f v` and returns a *thread id* that the caller can use to control the newly-created thread.

```
val create : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a -> t
```

The function application executes concurrently with the other threads in the program. The thread terminates when the application returns and its result is simply ignored. If the thread terminates with an uncaught exception, the exception is not propagated to any other thread: a message is printed on the standard error output and the exception is otherwise ignored. (The other threads have proceeded independently and would not be able to receive the exception.)

A thread can also terminate prematurely with the system call `exit` of the `Thread` module, not to be confused with `Pervasives.exit` that terminates the entire program, i.e. all its threads.

```
val exit : unit -> unit
```

The initial thread of a program implicitly calls the `Pervasives.exit` function when it terminates.

When another thread terminates before the initial thread, it is deallocated immediately by the OCaml runtime library. It does not become a zombie as in the case of a Unix process created by `fork`.

The system call `self` returns the thread id of the calling thread.

```
val self : unit -> t
```

We already know enough to propose an alternative to the preceding model for the concurrent server that used “fork” (or “double fork”) — by using a thread rather than a child process. To establish such a server, we introduce a variant `Misc.co_treatment` of the function `Misc.fork_treatment` defined in section 6.7.

```
let co_treatment server_sock service (client_descr, _ as client) =
  try ignore (Thread.create service client)
  with exn -> close client_descr; raise exn;;
```

If the thread was successfully created, the treatment is handled entirely by the `service` function, including closing `client_descr`. Otherwise, we close the `client_descr` descriptor, the client is abandoned, and we let the main program handle the error.

Note that all the difficulty of the co-server is hidden in the `service` function, which must handle the connection robustly until disconnection. In the case of a concurrent server where the service is executed by another process, premature termination of the service due to a fatal error produces by default the desired behavior — closing the connection — because the system closes the file descriptors when a process exits. But in the case where the service is executed by a thread, the descriptors of the different threads are shared by default and not closed at the termination of the thread. It is therefore up to the thread to close its descriptors before exiting. In addition, a thread cannot call `Pervasives.exit` in the case of a fatal error during the handling of a service, because it would stop not only the service but also the entire server. Calling `Thread.exit` is often not a solution either, because we risk not having properly deallocated the thread's open resources, and in particular the connection.

One solution consists of raising an exception to signify a fatal stop (for example an `Exit` exception), causing finalization code to be executed as it is handled. For similar reasons, it is essential to block the `sigpipe` signal during the handling of a service by a thread, replacing the immediate termination of the thread by the raising of an `EPIPE` exception.

7.3 Waiting

The functions described in this section are defined in the `Thread` module.

The system call `join` allows one thread to wait for another to finish.

```
val join : t -> unit
```

The calling thread is suspended until the thread with the given thread id has terminated its execution. This function can also be used by the principal thread to wait for all the other threads to finish before terminating itself and the program. (The default behavior is to kill the other threads without waiting for them to terminate.)

Although this call is blocking and therefore “long”, it is restarted automatically when a signal is received: it is effectively interrupted by the signal, the handler is invoked, then the call is restarted. The call therefore does not return until the thread has really terminated, and the call never raises the `EINTR` exception. From the viewpoint of the OCaml programmer, it behaves as if the signal was received at the moment when the call returns.

A thread does not return, since it is executed asynchronously. But its action can be observed — luckily! — by its side effects. For example, one thread can place the result of a computation in a reference that another thread will consult after making sure that the calculation has finished. We illustrate this in the following example.

```
exception Exited
type 'a result = Value of 'a | Exception of exn
let eval f x = try Value (f x) with z -> Exception z
```

```

let coexec (f : 'a -> 'b) (x : 'a) : unit -> 'b =
  let result = ref (Exception Exited) in
  let p = Thread.create (fun x -> result := eval f x) x in
  function () -> match (join p; !result) with
    | Value v -> v
    | Exception exn -> raise exn;;

let v1 = coexec succ 4 and v2 = coexec succ 5 in v1 () + v2 ();;

```

The system can suspend one thread in order to give control temporarily to another, or because it is waiting for a resource being used by another thread (locks and conditions, for example) or by another process (file descriptors, for example). A thread can also suspend itself voluntarily. The `yield` function allows a thread to give up control explicitly, without waiting for preemption by the system.

```
val yield : unit -> unit
```

It is a hint for the thread scheduler, but it may have no effect, for example if no other thread can execute immediately, the system may give control back to the same thread.

Conversely, it is not necessary to execute `yield` to permit other threads to execute, because the system reserves the right to execute the `yield` command itself at any moment. In fact, it exercises this right sufficiently often to permit other threads to execute and to give the illusion that the threads are running in parallel, even on a uniprocessor machine.

Example We can revisit the example of section 3.3 and modify it to use threads rather than processes.

```

1 let rec psearch k cond v =
2   let n = Array.length v in
3   let slice i = Array.sub v (i * k) (min k (n - i * k)) in
4   let slices = Array.init (n/k) slice in
5   let found = ref false in
6   let pcond v = if !found then Thread.exit (); cond v in
7   let search v = if simple_search pcond v then found := true in
8   let proc_list = Array.map (Thread.create search) slices in
9   Array.iter Thread.join proc_list;
10  !found;;

```

The function `psearch k f v` searches with `k` threads in parallel for an array element satisfying the function `f`. The function `pcond` allows the search to be interrupted when an answer has been found. All the threads share the same reference `found`: they can therefore access it concurrently. No critical section is required, because if different threads write to this resource in parallel, they write the same value. It is important that the threads do not write the result of the search when it is false! For example, replacing line 7 by

```
let search v = found := !found && simple_search pcond v
```

or even:

```
let search v = let r = simple_search pcond v in found := !found && r
```

Waiting

would be incorrect.

* * *

The parallel search is interesting even on a uniprocessor machine if the comparison of elements could be blocked temporarily (for example by disk accesses or network connections). In this case, the thread performing the search passes control to another and the machine can therefore continue the computation on another part of the array and return to the blocked thread when its resource is free.

Access to certain elements can have significant latency, on the order of a second if information must be retrieved over the network. In this case, the difference in behavior between a sequential search and a parallel search becomes obvious.

Exercise 18 Parallelize quicksort on arrays. Answer page 132.

* * *

The other forms of suspension are tied to operating system resources. A thread can be suspended for a certain time by calling `delay s`. Once `s` seconds elapse, it can be restarted.

```
val delay : float -> unit
```

This primitive is provided for portability with VM-level threads, but `delay s` is simply an abbreviation for `ignore (Unix.select [] [] [] s)`. This call, unlike `join`, is not restarted when it is interrupted by a signal.

To synchronize a thread with an external operation, we can use the `select` command. Note that this will block only the calling thread and not the entire program. (The `Thread` module redefines this function, because in the case of simulated threads calling the one in the `Unix` module would block the whole program and therefore all the threads. It is therefore necessary to use `select` from the `Thread` module and not `Unix.select`, even if the two are equivalent in the case of native threads.)

Example To make the Sieve of Eratosthenes example of section 5.2 work with threads instead of by duplication of Unix processes, it suffices to replace the lines 5–16 of the function `filter` by:

```
let p = Thread.create filter (in_channel_of_descr fd_in) in
let output = out_channel_of_descr fd_out in
try
  while true do
    let n = input_int input in
    if List.exists (fun m -> n mod m = 0) first_primes then ()
    else output_int output n
  done;
with End_of_file ->
  close_out output;
  Thread.join p
```

and the lines 4–10 of the function `sieve` by:

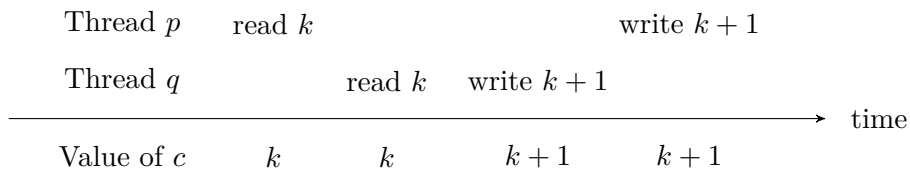


Figure 6 — Competition for access to a shared resource.

```
let k = Thread.create filter (in_channel_of_descr fd_in) in
let output = out_channel_of_descr fd_out in
generate len output;
close_out output;
Thread.join k;;
```

However, we cannot expect any significant gain from this example, which uses few processes relative to computation time.

* * *

7.4 Synchronization among threads: locks

The functions in this section are defined in the `Mutex` module (as in `Mutual exclusion`).

We mentioned above a problem of concurrent access to mutable resources. In particular, the following scenario illustrates the problem of access to shared resources. Consider a counter c and two processes p and q , each incrementing the counter in parallel.

Assume the scenario described in figure 6. Thread p reads the value of counter c , then gives control to q . In its turn, q reads the value of c , then writes the value $k+1$ to c . The thread p resumes control and writes the value $k+1$ to c . The final value of c is therefore $k+1$ instead of $k+2$.

This classic problem can be resolved by using locks that prevent arbitrary interleaving of p and q .

Locks are shared objects that can be held by at most a single thread within a program at a time. A lock is created by the function `create`.

```
val create : unit -> t
```

This function returns a new lock, initially not held by any thread. To acquire an existing lock, it is necessary to use the system call `lock` with the lock as argument. If the lock is held by another thread, the caller is frozen until the lock is released. A lock must be released explicitly by the thread that holds it with the system call `unlock`.

```
val lock : t -> unit
val unlock : t -> unit
```

The `lock` call behaves like `Thread.join` with respect to signals: if the thread receives a signal while executing `lock`, the signal will be noted (i.e. the OCaml

runtime will be notified that the signal has arrived), but the thread will continue to wait so that `lock` effectively returns only when the lock has been acquired, and never raises the `EINTR` exception. The real treatment of the signal by OCaml will happen only upon the return from `lock`.

We can also try to acquire a lock without blocking with the system call `trylock`

```
val try_lock : t -> bool
```

This function returns **true** if the lock has been acquired and **false** otherwise. In the latter case, execution is not suspended since the lock is not acquired. The thread can therefore do something else and eventually return and try its luck later.

Example Incrementing a global counter used by several threads poses a synchronization problem: the instants between reading the value of the counter and writing the incremented value are in a critical region, i.e. two threads cannot be in this region at the same time. The synchronization can easily be managed with a lock.

```
type counter = { lock : Mutex.t; mutable counter : int }
let newcounter () = { lock = Mutex.create (); counter = 0 }
let addtocounter c k =
  Mutex.lock c.lock;
  c.counter <- c.counter + k;
  Mutex.unlock c.lock;;
```

The sole read operation on the counter poses no problem. It can be performed in parallel with a modification of the counter: the result will simply be the value of the counter just before or just after the modification, both results being consistent.

* * *

A common pattern is to hold a lock temporarily during a function call. It is of course necessary to make sure to release the lock at the end of the call, whether the call succeeded or failed. We can abstract this behavior in a library function:

```
let run_with_lock l f x =
  Mutex.lock l; try_finalize f x Mutex.unlock l
```

In the preceding example, we could also have written:

```
let addtocounter c =
  Misc.run_with_lock c.lock (fun k -> c.counter <- c.counter + k)
```

Example An alternative to the model of the server with threads is to start a number of threads in advance which handle requests in parallel.

```
val tcp_farm_server :
  int -> (file_descr -> file_descr * sockaddr -> 'a) -> sockaddr -> unit
```

The `tcp_farm_server` function behaves like `tcp_server` but takes an additional argument which is the number of threads to start, each of which will become a

Complete example: HTTP relay

server at the same address. The advantage of a pool of threads is to reduce the time to handle each connection by eliminating the cost of creating a thread for it, since they are created once and for all.

```
let tcp_farm_server n treat_connection addr =
  let server_sock = Misc.install_tcp_server_socket addr in
  let mutex = Mutex.create () in
  let rec serve () =
    let client =
      Misc.run_with_lock mutex
        (Misc.restart_on_EINTR accept) server_sock in
    treat_connection server_sock client;
    serve () in
  for i = 1 to n-1 do ignore (Thread.create serve ()) done;
  serve ();;
```

The only precaution to take is to ensure mutual exclusion around the `accept` so that only one of the threads accepts a connection at a time. The idea is that the `treat_connection` function performs a sequential treatment, but it is not a requirement — we can effectively combine a pool of threads with the creation of new threads, which can be dynamically adjusted depending on the load.

* * *

Acquisition of a lock is an inexpensive operation when it succeeds without blocking. It is generally implemented with a single “test-and-set” instruction provided by all modern processors (plus other small costs that are involved, such as updating caches). However, when the lock is not available, the process must be suspended and rescheduled later, which involves a significant additional cost. We must therefore incur this penalty only for a real suspension of a process in order to give control to another, and not for its potential suspension during the acquisition of a lock. Consequently, we will almost always want to release a lock as soon as possible and take it back later if necessary, rather than simply holding onto the lock. Avoiding these two operations would have the effect of enlarging the critical region and therefore the frequency with which another thread finds itself effectively in competition for the lock and in need of suspension.

Locks reduce interleaving. In return, they increase the risk of deadlock. For example, there is a deadlock if a thread *p* waits for a lock *v* held by a thread *q* which itself waits for a lock *u* held by *p*. (In the worst case, a thread waits for a lock that it holds itself.) Concurrent programming is difficult, and guarding against deadlock is not always easy. A simple way of avoiding this situation that is often possible consists of defining a hierarchy among the locks and ensuring that the order in which the locks are acquired dynamically respects the hierarchy: a thread never acquires a lock unless that lock is dominated by all the other locks that the thread already holds.

7.5 Complete example: HTTP relay

We modify the HTTP relay developed in section 6.14 so that it services requests using threads.

Intuitively, it suffices to replace the `establish_server` function that creates a process clone with a function that creates a thread. We must however take certain

precautions. The challenge with threads is that they share the entire memory space. We must therefore ensure that the threads are not “stepping on each other’s toes” with one undoing what was just done by another. That typically happens when two threads modify the same mutable structure in parallel.

In the case of the HTTP server, there are several changes to make. Let us start by resolving problems with access to resources. The `proxy_service` function, described in section 6.14, handles the treatment of connections. Via the intermediary functions `parse_host`, `parse_url` and `parse_request`, it calls the `regexp_match` function which uses the `Str` library. However, this library is not re-entrant (the result of the last search is stored in a global variable). This example shows that we must beware of calls to innocent-looking functions that hide potential collisions. In this case we will not rewrite the `Str` library but simply sequentialize its use. It suffices to protect calls to this library with locks (and there is really no other choice). We must still take the precaution of releasing the lock when returning from the function abnormally due to an exception.

To modify the existing code as little as possible, we can just rename the definition of `regexp_match` in the `Url` module as `unsafe_regexp_match` and then define `regexp_match` as a protected version of `unsafe_regexp_match`.

```
let strlock = Mutex.create ();;
let regexp_match r string =
  Misc.run_with_lock strlock (unsafe_regexp_match r) string;;
```

The change is rather minimal. It should be noted that the `regexp_match` function includes both the expression matching and the extraction of the matched groups. It would definitely have been incorrect to protect the `Str.string_match` and `Str.matched_group` functions individually.

Another solution would be to rewrite the analysis functions without using the `Str` library. But there is no reason for such a choice, since synchronizing the library primitives is easy to do and does not turn out to be a source of inefficiency. Obviously, a better solution would be for the `Str` library to be re-entrant in the first place.

The other functions that are called are already re-entrant, in particular the `Misc.retransmit` function that allocates different buffers for each call.

However, there are still some precautions to take regarding error handling. The handling of a connection by a thread must be robust, as explained above. In particular, in case of error, the other threads must not be affected. In other words, the thread must terminate “normally”, properly closing the connection in question and going back to accepting other pending connections. We must first of all replace the call to `exit` in `handle_error` because it is essential not to kill the whole process. A call to `Thread.exit` would not be correct either, because thread termination does not close its (shared) descriptors, the way the system does for process termination. An error in the handling of a connection would leave the connection open. The solution consists of raising an `Exit` exception that allows the finalization code to do what is required. We must now protect `treat_connection` by catching all errors, in particular `Exit` but also `EPIPE`, which can be raised if the client closes the connection prematurely. We will take care of this by using a protected function.

```
let allow_connection_errors f s =
  try f s with Exit | Unix_error(EPIPE,-,-) -> ()
```

Conditions

```
let treat_connection s =  
  Misc.co_treatment s (allow_connection_errors proxy_service) in
```

Exercise 19 Rewrite the proxy for the HTTP/1.1 protocol using threads.

* * *

Exercise 20 Coroutines can be seen as a very particular kind of threads where each process must surrender control explicitly before another can execute. Give an implementation of coroutines using threads.

* * *

7.6 Conditions

The functions described in this section are defined in the `Condition` module.

Synchronization with locks is very simple, but it is not sufficient: locks allow waiting for shared data to be free, but do not allow waiting for the data to have a particular state. Let us replace the example of a counter by a (first-in/first-out) queue shared among several threads. Adding a value to the queue can be synchronized by using a lock as above, since no matter what the state of the queue, we can always add an element. But what about removing an element from the queue? What should be done when the queue is empty? We cannot hold the lock while waiting for the queue to be filled, because that would completely prevent another thread from filling the queue. So it must be released. But how can we know when the queue is no longer empty, except by testing it periodically? This solution, called “busy-waiting”, is definitely not satisfactory. Either it consumes computing cycles unnecessarily (period too short) or else it is not reactive enough (period too long).

Conditions provide a solution to this problem. A thread that holds a lock can wait for a condition object until another thread sends a signal on that condition. As with locks, conditions are passive structures that can be manipulated by synchronization functions. They can be created by the `create` function.

```
val create : unit -> t
```

A process p that *already holds* a lock v can wait on a condition c and the lock v with the system call `wait`. The process p informs the system that it is waiting on the condition c and the lock v , then releases the lock v and goes to sleep. It will not be woken up by the system until another thread q signals a change on the condition c and the lock v is available; the process p will then hold the lock v again.

```
val wait : t -> Mutex.t -> unit
```

Note: it is an error to call `wait c v` without holding the lock v . The behavior of `wait c v` with respect to signals is the same as for `Mutex.lock`.

When a thread signals a change on a condition, it can either ask for all threads waiting on that condition to be woken up (system call `broadcast`), or else for just one of them to be woken up (system call `signal`).

```
val signal : t -> unit
```

```
val broadcast : t -> unit
```

Sending a signal or a broadcast on a condition does not require holding a lock (unlike waiting), in the sense that it will not trigger a “system” error. However, it can sometimes be a programming error.

The choice between waking up one thread or all the threads depends on the problem. To consider the example of the queue again, if a thread adds an element to an empty queue, there is no need to wake up all the others, since only one will effectively be able to remove that element. On the other hand, if it adds a number of elements that is either not statically known or very large, it must wake up all the threads. Note that if adding an element to a non-empty queue does not send a signal, then adding an element to an empty queue must send a broadcast, since it could be followed immediately by another addition (without a signal) and therefore behave like a multiple addition. In summary, either send a signal on every addition, or send a broadcast only when adding to an empty queue. The choice between these two strategies is a bet on whether the queue is usually empty (first solution) or usually non-empty (second solution).

Often, one thread knows only an approximation of the reason why another thread is waiting on a condition. It will therefore signal the condition whenever the situation *might* be what the other thread is waiting for. An awakened thread, therefore, cannot assume that the condition it was waiting is now satisfied. It must, in general, re-test the state of its shared data, and if necessary wait on the condition again. This does not constitute busy-waiting, because it only happens when another thread signals the condition.

Here is another justification for this approach: when a thread has just produced a lot of some resource and wakes all the others using a **broadcast**, nothing prevents the first one that wakes up from being greedy and exhausting the entire resource. The second one to wake up must go back to sleep, hoping to be luckier next time.

We can now give a concrete solution for shared queues. The queue structure defined in the `Queue` module is extended with a lock and a `non_empty` condition.

```

1 type 'a t =
2   { queue : 'a Queue.t; lock : Mutex.t; non_empty : Condition.t }
3 let create () =
4   { queue = Queue.create ();
5     lock = Mutex.create (); non_empty = Condition.create () }
6
7 let add e q =
8   Mutex.lock q.lock;
9   if Queue.length q.queue = 0 then Condition.broadcast q.non_empty;
10  Queue.add e q.queue;
11  Mutex.unlock q.lock;;
12
13 let take q =
14  Mutex.lock q.lock;
15  while Queue.length q.queue = 0
16  do Condition.wait q.non_empty q.lock done;
17  let x = Queue.take q.queue in
18  Mutex.unlock q.lock; x;;

```

Addition never blocks, but we must not forget to signal the `non_empty` condition when the list is empty beforehand, because it is possible that someone is waiting on the condition.

Removal is a little more complicated: after acquiring the lock, we must try to remove an element from the queue. If the queue is empty, we must wait on the `non_empty` condition. When awakened, we try again, knowing that we already have the lock.

As explained above, the `broadcast q.non_empty` signal (line 9) is executed by a thread p already in possession of the lock `q.lock`. This implies that a reader thread q executing the `take` function cannot be between line 15 and 16 where it would have verified that the queue is empty but not yet have gone to sleep. In this case, the signal sent by p would be ineffective and ignored, since q has not gone to sleep yet; but q would then go to sleep and not be woken up, because p has already sent its signal. The lock therefore guarantees that either q is already asleep or else has not yet tested the state of the queue.

Exercise 21 Implement a variant in which the queue is bounded: addition to the queue becomes blocking when the size of the queue reaches a fixed value. (In a concurrent world, we might need this scheme to avoid having a producer that produces endlessly while the consumer is blocked.) Answer page 133.

* * *

7.7 Event-based synchronous communication

The functions described in this section are defined in the `Event` module.

Locks and conditions together allow all forms of synchronization to be expressed. However, their use is not always easy, as shown by the example of the initially simple queue whose synchronization code subsequently turned out to be subtle.

Event-based synchronous communication is a collection of higher-level communication primitives that tend to facilitate concurrent programming. The primitives in the `Event` module were initially developed by John Reppy as an extension of the *Standard ML* language called *Concurrent ML* [16]. In OCaml, these primitives are located above the more elementary synchronization of locks and conditions.

Communication occurs by sending *events* along *channels*. Channels are like “lightweight pipes”: they allow communication among threads in the same program and take care of synchronization between producers and consumers. A channel carrying values of type `'a` has the type `'a Event.channel`. Channels are homogeneous and therefore always carry values of the same type. A channel is created with the `new_channel` function.

```
val new_channel : unit -> 'a channel
```

Sending or receiving a message is not done directly, but through the intermediary of an event. An elementary event is “sending a message” or “receiving a message”. They are constructed by means of the following primitives:

```
val send : 'a channel -> 'a -> unit event
val receive : 'a channel -> 'a event
```

Construction of a message does not have an immediate effect: it just creates a data structure describing the action to be done. To make an event happen, the thread must synchronize with another thread wishing to make the complementary event happen. The `sync` primitive allows a thread to wait for the occurrence of the event passed as argument.

```
val sync : 'a event -> 'a
```

Thus, to send a value `v` on the channel `c`, we can execute `sync (send c v)`. The thread is suspended until the event occurs, that is to say until another thread is ready to receive a value on the channel `c`. In a symmetric fashion, a thread can wait for a message on channel `c` by performing `sync (receive c)`.

There is a competition among all the producers on one hand and all the consumers on the other. For example, if several threads try to send a message on a channel but only one is ready to read it, it is clear that only one producer will make the event occur. The others will remain suspended, without even noticing that another was “served” ahead of them.

The competition can also occur within the same thread. Multiple events can be combined by the `choose` primitive.

```
val choose : 'a event list -> 'a event
```

The resulting event is an offer, in parallel, of the events passed as arguments, and occurs when exactly one of them occurs. We distinguish between the offer of an event and its occurrence. The call `sync (choose [e1; e2])` synchronizes by offering a choice of two events `e1` and `e2`, but only one of the two events will effectively occur (the offer of the other event will be simultaneously canceled). The `wrap_abort` primitive allows to handle an event being canceled.

```
val wrap_abort : 'a event -> (unit -> unit) -> 'a event
```

The call `wrap_abort e f` creates an event that is equivalent to `e`, but if it is not chosen during synchronization, then the function `f` is executed. (This is only interesting when it is part of a complex event.)

A thread can try to synchronize on an event without blocking (somewhat like `Mutex.try_lock`) with `poll`.

```
val poll : 'a event -> 'a option
```

The call `poll e` offers the event `e` but if it cannot occur immediately, it cancels the offer rather than blocking and has no effect (or more exactly, behaves as if the expression `poll e` had been replaced by the value `None`). By contrast, if the event can happen immediately, then it behaves as if the thread had done `sync e`, except that the value `Some v` is returned rather than `v`.

Example In section 7.3 the example of the Sieve of Eratosthenes, the communication between different threads is done with pipes as in the original program, using system memory (the pipe) as intermediary. We may think that it is more efficient to communicate directly by using the memory of the process. A simple solution consists of replacing the pipe by a channel on which integers are sent.

Sending integers on the channel is not sufficient, because we must also be able to detect the end of the stream. The simplest is therefore to pass elements of the form `Some n` and to terminate by sending the value `None`. To minimize the changes, we use the code of the example in section 5.2. We simulate pipes and the functions for reading and writing pipes by channels and functions for reading and writing channels.

It is sufficient to take the previous version of the program and change the input/output functions to ones that read and write a channel, rather than an input/output buffer from the `Pervasives` library. For example, we can insert the following code at the beginning of the program just after the `open Unix;;` directive:

```
let pipe () = let c = Event.new_channel () in c, c
let out_channel_of_descr x = x
let in_channel_of_descr x = x

let input_int chan =
  match Event.sync (Event.receive chan) with
  | Some v -> v
  | None -> raise End_of_file
let output_int chan x = Event.sync (Event.send chan (Some x))
let close_out chan = Event.sync (Event.send chan None);;
```

However, if we compare the efficiency of this version with the previous one, we find that it is twice as slow. Communication of each integer requires a synchronization between two threads and therefore several system calls for acquiring and releasing locks. On the other hand, communication via pipes uses buffered I/O that allows several thousand integers to be exchanged with each system call.

To be fair, one should also provide buffered communication on channels, using the channel only to exchange a packet of integers. The child can accumulate the results in a private queue, to which it can therefore write without synchronization. When the queue is full, or upon an explicit request, it is emptied by synchronizing on the channel. The parent has its own queue that it receives by synchronizing and empties gradually.

Here is a solution:

```
type 'a buffered =
  { c : 'a Queue.t Event.channel;
    mutable q : 'a Queue.t;
    size : int }

let pipe () = let c = Event.new_channel () in c, c;;

let size = 1024;;
let out_channel_of_descr chan =
  { c = chan; q = Queue.create (); size = size };;
let in_channel_of_descr = out_channel_of_descr;;

let input_int chan =
  if Queue.length chan.q = 0 then begin
    let q = Event.sync (Event.receive chan.c) in
```

```

    if Queue.length q > 0 then chan.q <- q
    else raise End_of_file
end;
Queue.take chan.q;;

let flush_out chan =
  if Queue.length chan.q > 0 then Event.sync (Event.send chan.c chan.q);
  chan.q <- Queue.create ();;

let output_int chan x =
  if Queue.length chan.q = size then flush_out chan;
  Queue.add x chan.q

let close_out chan =
  flush_out chan;
  Event.sync (Event.send chan.c chan.q);;

```

This version allows us to regain efficiency comparable to (but not better than) the version with pipes.

Compared to the original version with processes and pipes, there are two potential advantages. First, threads are more lightweight and less costly to launch. Second, communication on a channel merely passes a pointer, without copying. But these advantages are not noticeable here, because the number of threads created and the data exchanged are not big enough compared to the cost of system calls and compute time.

In conclusion, we can say that communication between threads has a cost of up to one system call (if the process must be suspended) and the cost can be significantly reduced by buffering communication and sending larger structures less often.

* * *

Exercise 22 An HTTP server can be subjected to a high, bursty load. To improve response time, we can refine the architecture of an HTTP server by always keeping a dozen threads ready to handle new requests. This means that a thread does not handle only a single request, but a potentially infinite series of requests that it reads from a queue.

To avoid overloading the machine, we can limit the number of threads to a reasonable value beyond which the overhead of managing tasks exceeds the latency for servicing requests (time spent waiting for data on disk, etc.). After that, we can keep some connections waiting to be handled, and then finally we can refuse connections. When the load diminishes and the number of threads is above the “ideal” value, some of them are allowed to die and the others remain ready for the next requests.

Transform the example of section 7.5 into this architecture.

* * *

7.8 Implementation details

Implementation of threads in Unix The Unix system was not originally designed to provide support for threads. However, most modern Unix implemen-

tations now offer such support. Nevertheless, threads remain an add-on that is sometimes apparent. For example, when using threads it is strongly discouraged to use `fork` except when doing `exec` immediately afterward. In effect, `fork` copies the current thread, which becomes a crippled process that runs believing it has threads when in fact they do not exist. The parent continues to run normally as before. The special case of a call to `fork` where the child immediately launches another program does not cause the parent any problem. Luckily, since that is the only way to start other programs!

Inversely, one can do `fork` (not followed by `exec`), and then launch several threads in the child and the parent, without any problem.

Native and simulated implementation in OCaml When the underlying operating system has threads, OCaml can provide a native implementation of threads, leaving their management to the operating system as much as possible. Each thread then lives in a different Unix process but shares the same address space.

When the system does not provide support for threads, OCaml can emulate them. All the threads then execute in the same Unix process, and their management, including their scheduling, is handled by the OCaml runtime system. However, this implementation is only available when compiling to bytecode.

The OCaml system provides the same programming interface for the native and simulated versions of threads. The implementation of threads is therefore split: one implementation for the emulated version that includes its own task controller, and another implementation that is based on POSIX (1003.1c) threads and lifts the corresponding library functions to the level of the OCaml language. In the process, the OCaml language handles certain simple administrative tasks and ensures an interface identical to the emulated version. This guarantees that a program compilable on one Unix architecture remains compilable on another Unix architecture. However, whether threads are emulated or native can change the synchronization of calls to the C library, and therefore change, despite everything, the semantics of the program. It is therefore necessary to take certain precautions before believing that a program will behave the same way in these two versions. In this chapter, the discussion mainly concern these two implementations, but recall that by default, we have taken the viewpoint of a native implementation.

To use emulated threads, one must pass the `-vmthread` option instead of `-thread` to the `ocamlc` compiler. This option is not accepted by the `ocamlopt` compiler.

Sequentialization of OCaml code The implementation of threads in OCaml must face one of the peculiarities of the OCaml language: the automatic management of memory and its high consumption of allocated data. The solution adopted, which is the simplest and also generally the most efficient, is to sequentialize the execution of OCaml code in all threads: a lock in the runtime system prevents two threads from executing OCaml code simultaneously. This seems contrary to the whole idea of threads, but it is not, since the lock is released before blocking system calls and reacquired upon return. Other threads can therefore take control at that moment. A special case of such a system call is the call to `sched_yield`, performed at regular intervals to suspend the running

thread and give control to another.

On a multiprocessor machine, the only source of true parallelism comes from the execution of C code and system calls. On a uniprocessor machine, the fact that the OCaml code is sequentialized is not really noticeable.

The programmer cannot rely on this sequentialization, because one thread can give control to another at almost any moment. With one exception, the sequentialization guarantees memory coherence: two threads always have the same view of memory, except perhaps when they execute C code. In effect, the passing of the lock implies a synchronization of the memory: a read operation by one thread occurring after a write operation to the same address by another thread will always return the freshly-written value, with no need for additional synchronization.

Threads and signals Generally speaking, using signals is already delicate with a single thread due to their asynchronous character. It is even more so in the presence of multiple threads because of the addition of new difficulties: which thread should a signal be sent to? To all, to the primary one, or to the one currently running? What happens if one thread sends a signal to another? In fact, threads were implemented before answering these questions, and different implementations can behave differently with respect to signals.

The `Thread.join`, `Mutex.lock`, and `Condition.wait` functions despite being long system calls, are not interruptible by a signal. (They cannot therefore fail with the `EINTR` error.) If a signal is sent while waiting, it will be received and handled when the call returns.

The POSIX standard specifies that the signal handler is shared among all the threads and in contrast the signal mask is private to each thread and inherited upon creation of a thread. But the behavior of threads with respect to signals remains largely underspecified and therefore non-portable.

It is therefore preferable to avoid as much as possible the use of asynchronous signals (such as `sigalrm`, `sigvtalrm`, `sigchld`, etc.) with threads. These can be blocked and examined with `Thread.wait_signal`. We can dedicate a thread to signal handling and nothing else: it can wait for the reception of signals, undertake the necessary actions, and update certain information examined by other threads.

In addition, OCaml threads (since version 3.08) use the `sigvtalarm` signal internally to implement preemption of threads. This signal is therefore reserved and must not be used by the program itself, since there is a risk of interference.

Going further

We have shown how OCaml's `Sys`, `Unix`, and `Threads` modules can be used to program applications that interact with the operating system.

These modules allow the invocation of the most important Unix system calls directly from OCaml. Some of these calls were replaced by higher-level functions, either to facilitate programming or to maintain invariants needed by OCaml's runtime system. In any case, this higher-level access to the Unix system streamlines the development of applications.

Not every feature of the Unix system is available through these modules, however it is still possible to access the missing ones by writing C bindings.

Another useful library is `Cash` [3] which focuses on writing scripts directly in OCaml. This library completes the `Unix` module in two different ways. First, in addition to a few helper functions to write scripts, it provides, on top of the `Unix` module, a few system call variations to assist the programmer in process and pipe management. Second, it offers additional entry points to the Unix system.

Exercise answers

Exercise 1 (page 18)

```
let main () =
  let action p infos =
    let b = not (infos.st_kind = S_DIR || Filename.basename p = "CVS") in
    if b then print_endline p; b in
  let errors = ref false in
  let error (e,c,b) =
    errors:= true; prerr_endline (b ^ ": " ^ error_message e) in
  Findlib.find error action false max_int [ "." ];;
handle_unix_error main ()
```

Exercise 2 (page 18) Here are some hints. We move up from the current position towards the root and construct backwards the path we are looking for. The root can be detected as the only directory node whose parent is equal to itself (relative to the root `.` and `..` are equal). To find the name of a directory `r` we need to list the contents of its parent directory and detect the file that corresponds to `r`.

Exercise 3 (page 23) If the option `-a` is supplied, we need to do

```
openfile output_name [O_WRONLY; O_CREAT; O_APPEND] 0o666
```

instead of

```
openfile output_name [O_WRONLY; O_CREAT; O_TRUNC] 0o666
```

Parsing the new option from the command line is left to the reader.

Exercise 4 (page 27) The idea is to copy the string to output into the buffer. We need to take into account the case where there is not enough space in the buffer (in that case the buffer needs to be emptied), and also the case where the string is longer than the buffer (in that case it can be written directly). Here is a possible solution.

```
let output_string chan s =
  let avail = String.length chan.out_buffer - chan.out_pos in
  if String.length s <= avail then begin
    String.blit s 0 chan.out_buffer chan.out_pos (String.length s);
    chan.out_pos <- chan.out_pos + String.length s
  end
  else if chan.out_pos = 0 then begin
    ignore (write chan.out_fd s 0 (String.length s))
  end
  else begin
    String.blit s 0 chan.out_buffer chan.out_pos avail;
    let out_buffer_size = String.length chan.out_buffer in
    ignore (write chan.out_fd chan.out_buffer 0 out_buffer_size);
```

```

let remaining = String.length s - avail in
if remaining < out_buffer_size then begin
  String.blit s avail chan.out_buffer 0 remaining;
  chan.out_pos <- remaining
end else begin
  ignore (write chan.out_fd s avail remaining);
  chan.out_pos <- 0
end
end;;

```

Exercise 5 (page 28) A naive implementation of `tail` is to read the file sequentially from the beginning, keeping the last n lines read in a circular buffer. When we reach the end of file, we display the buffer. When the data comes from a pipe or a special file which does not implement `lseek`, there is no better way.

However if the data is coming from a normal file, it is better to read the file from the end. With `lseek`, we read the last 4096 characters. We scan them for the end of lines. If there are at least n of them, we output and display the corresponding lines. Otherwise, we start again by adding the next preceding 4096 characters, etc.

To add the option `-f`, we first proceed as above and then we go back at the end of the file and try to `read` from there. If `read` returns data we display it immediately and start again. If it returns `0` we wait some time (`sleep 1`) and try again.

Exercise 6 (page 34) For the files that have already been copied we keep a map from their identity (`st_dev`, `st_ino`) to their destination file name. Before each copy we consult the map to see if a file with the same identity was already copied. If that's the case we do a hard link on the destination file name instead of redoing the copy. To minimize the size of the map we remember only the files which have more than one name, i.e. those for which `st_nlink > 1`.

```

let copied_files = (Hashtbl.create 53 : ((int * int), string) Hashtbl.t)

let rec copy source dest =
  let infos = lstat source in
  match infos.st_kind with
  S_REG ->
    if infos.st_nlink > 1 then begin
      try
        let dest' =
          Hashtbl.find copied_files (infos.st_dev, infos.st_ino)
        in link dest' dest
      with Not_found ->
        Hashtbl.add copied_files (infos.st_dev, infos.st_ino) dest;
        file_copy source dest;
        set_infos dest infos
    end else begin
      file_copy source dest;
      set_infos dest infos
    end

```

end

| S_LNK -> ...

Exercise 7 (page 39) Behind this apparently trivial requirement are hidden difficulties. Symbolic links are arbitrary paths, they can point on directories (which is not allowed for hard links) and they may not correspond to files contained in the archive.

A simple solution is to recreate, in memory, the file hierarchy contained in the archive.

```
type info = File | Link of string list | Dir of (string * inode) list
and inode = { mutable record : record option; mutable info : info; }
```

Nodes of this in-memory file system are described by the `inode` type. The `info` field describes the file type, limited to ordinary files, symbolic links and directories. Paths are represented by lists of strings and directories by lists that associate a node to each file name in the directory. The `record` field stores the tar record associated to the node. This field is optional because intermediate directories are not always present in the archive; it is mutable because a file may appear more than once in the archive and the last occurrence takes precedence over the other.

```
let root () =
  let rec i =
    { record = None; info = Dir [ Filename.current_dir_name, i ] }
  in i
let link inode name nod = match inode.info with
  | File | Link _ -> error name "Not a directory"
  | Dir list ->
    try let _ = List.assoc name list in error name "Already exists"
    with Not_found -> inode.info <- Dir ((name, nod) :: list)

let mkfile inode name r =
  let f = { record = r; info = File } in
  link inode name f; f
let symlink inode name r path =
  let s = { record = r; info = Link path } in
  link inode name s; s
let mkdir inode name r =
  let d = mkfile inode name r in
  d.info <-
    Dir [ Filename.current_dir_name, d; Filename.parent_dir_name, inode ];
  d
```

As in Unix, each directory contains a link to itself and to its parent, except for the root directory (in contrast to Unix where it is its own parent). This allows us to detect and forbid any access outside the hierarchy contained in the archive.

```
let rec find link inode path = match inode.info, path with
  | _, [] -> inode
```

```

| Dir list, name :: rest ->
  let subnode = List.assoc name list in
  let subnode =
    match subnode.info with
    | Link q ->
      if link && rest = [] then subnode else find false inode q
    | _ -> subnode in
  find link subnode rest
| _, _ -> raise Not_found;;

```

The function `find` finds in the archive the node corresponding to `path` by starting from the initial node `inode`. If the search result is a link, the flag `link` indicates whether the link itself should be returned (true) or the file pointed by the link (false).

```

let rec mkpath inode path =
  match inode.info, path with
  | _, [] -> inode
  | Dir list, name :: rest ->
    let subnode =
      try List.assoc name list
      with Not_found -> mkdir inode name None in
    mkpath subnode rest
  | _, _ -> raise Not_found;;

```

The function `mkpath` traverses the path `path` creating missing nodes along the path.

```

let explode f =
  let rec dec f p =
    if f = Filename.current_dir_name then p
    else dec (Filename.dirname f) (Filename.basename f :: p) in
  dec (if Filename.basename f = "" then Filename.dirname f else f) [];

```

The function `explode` parses a Unix path into a list of strings. It removes the end “/” of directory names which are allowed in archives.

```

let add archive r =
  match r.header.kind with
  | CHR (_,_) | BLK (_,_) | FIFO -> ()
  | kind ->
    match List.rev (explode r.header.name) with
    | [] -> ()
    | name :: parent_rev ->
      let inode = mkpath archive (List.rev parent_rev) in
      match kind with
      | DIR -> ignore (mkdir inode name (Some r))
      | REG | CONT -> ignore (mkfile inode name (Some r))
      | LNK f -> ignore (symlink inode name (Some r) (explode f))
      | LINK f -> link inode name (find true archive (explode f))
      | _ -> assert false;;

```

The function `add` adds the record `r` to the archive. The archive, represented by its root node, is modified by a side effect.

```
let find_and_copy tarfile filename =
  let fd = openfile tarfile [ O_RDONLY ] 0 in
  let records = List.rev (fold (fun x y -> x :: y) [] fd) in
  let archive = root () in
  List.iter (add archive) records;
  let inode =
    try find false archive (explode filename)
    with Not_found -> error filename "File not found" in
  begin match inode.record with
  | Some ({ header = { kind = (REG | CONT) }} as r) -> copy_file r stdout
  | Some _ -> error filename "Not a regular file"
  | None -> error filename "Not found"
  end;
  close fd;;
```

We end as before.

```
let readtar () =
  let nargs = Array.length Sys.argv in
  if nargs = 2 then list Sys.argv.(1)
  else if nargs = 3 then find_and_copy Sys.argv.(1) Sys.argv.(2)
  else prerr_endline ("Usage: " ^ Sys.argv.(0) ^ " <tarfile> [ <source> ]");;
```

```
Printexc.print (handle_unix_error (handle_error readtar)) ();;
```

Exercise 8 (page 39) This exercise combines the previous exercise (exercise 2.16) and the recursive file copy (exercise 2.15).

One small difficulty is the management of permissions: we must create the archive's directories with write permission and set them to their actual value only after all the files were extracted.

Let us first write an auxiliary function for `mkpath p m` that creates the missing directories along the path `p` with permissions `m` (and such that `p` may be terminated by a superfluous `/`).

```
let warning mes = prerr_string mes; prerr_newline ();;
open Filename
let mkpath p perm =
  let normal_path =
    if basename p = "" then dirname p else p in
  let path_to_dir = dirname normal_path in
  let rec make p =
    try ignore (stat p)
    with Unix_error (ENOENT, _, _) ->
      if p = current_dir_name then ()
      else if p = parent_dir_name then
        warning "Ill formed archive: path contains \"..\""
      else begin
        make (dirname p);
```

```

        mkdir p perm
    end in
    make path_to_dir;;

```

We also define a function `set_infos` similar to the one used to copy files (section 2.15):

```

let set_infos header =
    chmod header.name header.perm;
    let mtime = float header.mtime in
    utimes header.name mtime mtime;
    begin match header.kind with
    | LNK f -> ()
    | _ -> chmod header.name header.perm
    end;
    try chown header.name header.uid header.gid
    with Unix_error(EPERM,_,_) -> ();;

```

The main function of the program is `untar_file_collect_dirs` which processes a single record and accumulates directories explicitly created by the archive:

```

let verbose = ref true;;
let default_dir_perm = 0o777;;
let default_file_perm = 0o666;;

let protect f x g y = try f x; g y with z -> g y; raise z
let file_exists f = try ignore (stat f); true with _ -> false;;

let untar_file_collect_dirs file dirs =
    let fh = file.header in
    if !verbose then begin print_string fh.name; print_newline () end;
    match fh.kind with
    | CHR (_,_) | BLK(_,_) | FIFO ->
        warning (fh.name ^ "Ignoring special files");
        dirs
    | DIR ->
        mkpath fh.name default_dir_perm;
        if file_exists fh.name then dirs
        else begin mkdir fh.name default_dir_perm; fh :: dirs end
    | x ->
        mkpath fh.name default_dir_perm;
        begin match x with
        | REG | CONT ->
            let flags = [ O_WRONLY; O_TRUNC; O_CREAT; ] in
            let out = openfile fh.name flags default_file_perm in
            protect (copy_file file) out close out
        | LNK f ->
            symlink f fh.name
        | LINK f ->
            begin
            try if (stat fh.name).st_kind = S_REG then unlink fh.name

```

```

        with Unix_error(.,.,.) -> ();
    end;
    Unix.link f fh.name;
| _ -> assert false
end;
set_infos fh;
dirs;;

```

The body of the program just iterates `untar_file_collect_dirs` on the records and finally updates the directories with the correct access rights.

```

let extract tarfile =
    let fd = openfile tarfile [ O_RDONLY ] 0 in
    let new_directories =
        fold untar_file_collect_dirs [] fd in
    List.iter set_infos new_directories;
    close fd;;

let untar () =
    let nargs = Array.length Sys.argv in
    if nargs = 2 then extract Sys.argv.(1)
    else prerr_endline ("Usage: " ^ Sys.argv.(0) ^ " <tarfile>");;
handle_unix_error untar ();;

```

Exercise 9 (page 39) We reuse the data structures already defined above and collect them in a `Tarlib` module. We define a warning function which does not stop the program or alter the return code of the program.

```

open Sys
open Unix
open Tarlib

```

```

let warning path message = prerr_endline (path ^ ": " ^ message)

```

We start with the function that writes a record header in a buffer. It's a tedious function but it must be done with care as a single error in a header can corrupt the entire archive. In particular we must pay attention to the limits imposed by the file format. For example the size of paths is limited to 99 bytes (There are extensions to the format to handle longer path but it's not the goal of this project).

```

let write_header_to_buffer source infos kind =
    let size = if kind = REG then infos.st_size else 0 in
    String.fill buffer 0 block_size '\000';
    let put len string offset =
        String.blit string 0 buffer offset (min (String.length string) len) in
    let put_int8 x = put 7 (Printf.sprintf "%07o" x) in
    let put_int12 x = put 11 (Printf.sprintf "%011o" x) in
    let put_char c offset = buffer.[offset] <- c in
    let put_path s offset =
        if String.length s <= 99 then put 99 s offset

```

```

    else raise (Error ("path too long", s)) in
  put_path (if kind = DIR then source ^ "/" else source) 0;
  put_int8 infos.st_perm 100;
  put_int8 infos.st_uid 108;
  put_int8 infos.st_gid 116;
  put_int12 size 124;
  put_int12 (int_of_float infos.st_mtime) 136;
  put 7 "ustar " 257;
  put 31 (getpuid infos.st_uid).pw_name 265;
  put 31 (getgrgid infos.st_gid).gr_name 297;
  (* Fields dev and rdev are only used for special files, which we omit *)
  put_char
    begin match kind with
    | REG -> '0'
    | LINK s -> put_path s 157; '1'
    | LNK s -> put_path s 157; '2'
    | DIR -> '5'
    | _ -> failwith "Special files not implemented"
    end 156;
  let rec sum s i =
    if i < 0 then s else sum (s + Char.code buffer.[i]) (pred i) in
  let checksum = sum (Char.code ' ' * 8) (block_size - 1) in
  put 8 (Printf.sprintf "%06o\000 " checksum) 148;;

```

The following function creates a record header for a file. `source` is the file name, `infos` is the stats information of the file and `kind` is the type of file.

```

let header source infos kind = {
  name = source;
  size = if kind = REG then infos.st_size else 0;
  perm = infos.st_perm;
  mtime = int_of_float infos.st_mtime;
  uid = infos.st_uid;
  gid = infos.st_gid;
  user = (getpuid infos.st_uid).pw_name;
  group = (getgrgid infos.st_gid).gr_name;
  kind = kind }

```

To write a file in the archive, we define a variant of `file_copy` which takes as an argument the number of bytes to copy and verifies that the end of file corresponds to that size. Otherwise, an error is raised: this handles the abnormal case where a file is modified during the archival process. To limit the archive's corruption to a single file we do not write beyond that size.

```

let write_file len source fdout =
  let fdin = openfile source [O_RDONLY] 0 in
  let error () = raise (Error ("File changed size", source)) in
  let rec copy_loop len =
    match read fdin buffer 0 buffer_size with
    0 ->
      close fdin; if len > 0 then error ()

```

```

| r ->
  let len = len - r in
  if len < 0 then (close fdin; error ());
  ignore (write fdout buffer 0 r); copy_loop len in
copy_loop len;;

```

```

let padding fd len =
  if len > 0 then ignore (write fd (String.make len '\000') 0 len);;

```

We now tackle the creation of the archive. The files already written in the archive are stored in a hashtable with their path so that they are not copied more than once. We also store the directories that were already written so as not to copy them again: it can happen that the archival root is already contained in another and we don't want to copy it again (even though that would be harmless).

The data needed to write an archive is a file descriptor pointing on the file to write, the file and directory cache (see above) and a size variable that remembers the current archive size (to pad it to a minimal size if needed). The archive type collects all this information in a record:

```

type archive =
  { regfiles : (int * int, string) Hashtbl.t;
    dirfiles : (int * int, bool) Hashtbl.t;
    fd : file_descr; st : stats; mutable size : int }

```

```

let try_new_dir archive dir =
  try Hashtbl.find archive.dirfiles dir
  with Not_found -> Hashtbl.add archive.dirfiles dir false; true

```

Here is the main function that writes an entire hierarchy starting from a file path given on the command line. This function is not difficult but needs some care with pathological cases. In particular we saw how to detect when a file is modified the archival. A sub case of this when the archive is being archived itself...

```

let verbose = ref true;;

let write_from archive file =
  if not (Filename.is_relative file) then
    raise (Error ("absolute path", file));
  let rec write_rec archive file =
    let source =
      if Filename.basename file = "" then Filename.dirname file else file in
    if !verbose then begin prerr_endline source end;
    let st = lstat source in
    if st.st_ino = archive.st.st_ino && st.st_dev = archive.st.st_dev
    then warning source "Skipping archive itself!"
    else
      let write_header kind =
        write_header_to_buffer source st kind;
        ignore (write archive.fd buffer 0 block_size) in
      match st.st_kind with

```

```

S_REG ->
  begin try
    if st.st_nlink = 1 then raise Not_found;
    let path =
      Hashtbl.find archive.regfiles (st.st_ino, st.st_dev) in
    write_header (LINK path);
  with Not_found ->
    if st.st_nlink > 1 then
      Hashtbl.add archive.regfiles (st.st_ino, st.st_dev) source;
      write_header REG;
      write_file st.st_size source archive.fd;
      let t =
        (block_size-1 + st.st_size) / block_size * block_size in
      padding archive.fd (t - st.st_size);
      archive.size <- archive.size + t + block_size;
    end
  | S_LNK ->
    write_header (LNK (readlink source));
  | S_DIR when try_new_dir archive (st.st_ino, st.st_dev) ->
    write_header DIR;
    Misc.iter_dir
      begin
        fun file ->
          if file = Filename.current_dir_name then ()
          else if file = Filename.parent_dir_name then ()
          else write_rec archive (source ^ "/" ^ file)
        end
      source
  | S_DIR ->
    warning source "Ignoring directory already in archive."
  | _ ->
    prerr_endline ("Can't cope with special file " ^ source) in
  write_rec archive file;;

```

We keep track of regular files that may have hard links in the `regfiles` table. It's not necessary for files that have a single link.

Here's the main function. In case of error, it is better to remove the erroneous archive.

```

let min_archive_size = 20 * block_size;;

let build_tarfile files =
  let fd, remove =
    if tarfile = "-" then stdout, ignore
    else openfile tarfile [ O_WRONLY; O_CREAT; O_TRUNC ] 0o666, unlink in
  try
    let arch =
      { regfiles = Hashtbl.create 13; dirfiles = Hashtbl.create 13;
        st = fst stat fd; fd = fd; size = 0 } in
    Array.iter (write_from arch) files;

```

```

padding fd (min_archive_size - arch.size);
close fd
with z ->
    remove tarfile; close fd; raise z;;

```

We end by parsing the command line arguments.

```

let usage () =
    prerr_endline "Usage: tar -cvf tarfile file1 [ file2 ... ] ";
    exit 2;;

let tar () =
    let argn = Array.length Sys.argv in
    if argn > 3 && Sys.argv.(1) = "-cvf" then
        build Sys.argv.(2) (Array.sub Sys.argv 3 (argn-3))
    else usage ();;

let _ =
    try handle_unix_error tar ()
    with Error (mes, s) ->
        prerr_endline ("Error: " ^ mes ^ ": " ^ s); exit 1;;

```

Exercise 10 (page 47) If the command line ends with `&`, we do not call `wait` in the parent process and immediately continue with the next iteration of the loop. But there is one difficulty: the parent may now have multiple children executing at the same time (the commands in the background which haven't terminated yet, plus the last synchronous command), and `wait` could synchronize with any of these children. Thus, for synchronous command, `wait` must be repeated until the recovered child is the one actually executing that command.

```

while true do
    let cmd = input_line Pervasives.stdin in
    let words, ampersand = parse_command_line cmd in
    match fork () with
    | 0 -> exec_command words
    | pid_son ->
        if ampersand then ()
        else
            let rec wait_for_son () =
                let pid, status = wait () in
                if pid = pid_son then
                    print_status "Program" status
                else
                    let p = "Background program " ^ (string_of_int pid) in
                    print_status p status;
                    wait_for_son () in
            wait_for_son ()
done

```

Exercise 12 (page 63) Of course the parent must wait on its child. However, before that the input of the pipe on which the child reads must be closed by the parent, otherwise the child will wait indefinitely for new integers from the parent. This leads to a deadlock (closing the channel empties the buffer before closing the corresponding descriptor, therefore no data is lost). Concretely, the line 10 of the `sieve` function needs to be replaced by:

```
let output = out_channel_of_descr fd_out in
generate len output;
close_out output;
ignore(waitpid [] p);;
```

Accordingly, we enclose the lines 12–16 of the `filter` function (represented by ... below) with the following lines:

```
try
...
with End_of_file ->
    close_out output;
    ignore (waitpid [] p)
```

Exercise 13 (page 64) Since the child process is an exact copy of the parent, I/O buffers of the standard library are duplicated when `fork` is executed. If the buffers are not emptied after each write, they must be emptied explicitly just before the call to `fork`. All is needed is to add `flush Pervasives.stdout` after the line 14 of the function `read_first_prime`.

Exercise 14 (page 66)

- For `>>`, the answer is similar to the `>` redirection, except that the file is opened with the flags `[O_WRONLY; O_APPEND; O_CREAT]`.
- For `2>`, the answer is similar to the `>` redirection, except that `dup2 fd stderr` is executed instead of `dup2 fd stdout`
- For `2>1`, we must call `dup2 stderr stdout` before executing the command.
- For `<<`, the shell `sh` must create a temporary file in `/tmp` containing the lines that follow `<<` and execute the command with its standard input redirected from this file. Another solution is to connect the command's standard input to the output of a pipe and let a child process write the lines following `<<` on the input of that pipe.

Exercise 18 (page 106) Quicksort lends itself well to parallelization, because the sorting is done recursively on independent sub-arrays. This can be delegated to threads whose only synchronization is to wait for all the threads to finish their sorting, in order for the sub-array to be sorted.

```
1 let qsort cmp arr =
2   let rec qsort lo hi =
3     if hi - lo > 0 then
4       begin
5         let mid = (lo + hi) lsr 1 in
```

```

6      if cmp arr.(mid) arr.(lo) then swap arr mid lo;
7      if cmp arr.(hi) arr.(mid) then
8          begin
9              swap arr mid hi;
10             if cmp arr.(mid) arr.(lo) then swap arr mid lo
11         end;
12     let pivot = arr.(mid) in
13     let i = ref (lo + 1) and j = ref (hi - 1) in
14     while !i < !j do
15         while not (cmp pivot arr.(!i)) do incr i done;
16         while not (cmp arr.(!j) pivot) do decr j done;
17         if !i < !j then swap arr !i !j;
18     done;
19     let u = Thread.create (qsort lo) (!i-1) in
20     let v = Thread.create (qsort (!i+1)) hi in
21     Thread.join u;
22     Thread.join v
23 end in
24 qsort 0 (Array.length arr - 1);;

```

It would be correct, but uninteresting, to exchange lines 20 and 21. In effect, that would wait for the lower portion of the array to be sorted before starting the sort of the upper portion. We would thus obtain the behavior of a sequential program, with the additional cost of threads but without obtaining any benefit.

In practice, we should limit parallelization to a reasonable factor and continue sequentially after that.

Exercise 21 (page 113) We must introduce an additional `non_full` condition. We also add a `size` field to allow queues of different sizes.

```

type 'a t =
  { queue : 'a Queue.t; size : int; lock : Mutex.t;
    non_empty : Condition.t; non_full : Condition.t; }

let create k =
  if k > 0 then
    { queue = Queue.create (); size = k; lock = Mutex.create ();
      non_empty = Condition.create (); non_full = Condition.create () }
  else failwith "Tqueue.create: empty size";;

```

Addition is a combination of the preceding versions of the `add` and `take` functions above.

```

let add x q =
  Mutex.lock q.lock;
  while Queue.length q.queue = q.size
  do Condition.wait q.non_full q.lock done;
  if Queue.is_empty q.queue then Condition.broadcast q.non_empty;
  Queue.add q x;
  Mutex.unlock q.lock;;

```

Exercise answers

Removal is symmetric to addition (and must now signal `non_full` when the queue is full beforehand), and is left to the reader. We get the behavior of unbounded queues by choosing `max_int` for `size`.

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