"How do I delete a line from a file?"

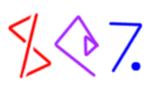
(Strategies for Lightweight Databases)

Mark Jason Dominus

Plover Systems Co.

mjd-tpc-lwdb+@plover.com

v1.2 (September, 2003)



FAQ

• perlfaq5 says:

How do I change one line in a file/delete a line in a file/insert a line in the middle of a file/append to the beginning of a file?

• This class will answer these questions

Next



Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

Next \$\sqrt{7}.

Next Lightweight Databases 3 Next Lightweight Databases 4

What We'll Do

- Plain text files
 - O The old 'copy the file' method
 - O seek and indexing
 - O Tie::File
- DBM files
 - O DB_File
- Various applications and case studies

Text Files

- Text files are used all the time for lightweight databases
 - O For example, Unix's /etc/passwd file
 - O Apache's analogous password files
 - O Databases and spreadsheets dumped into 'CSV' (comma-separated value) format
 - O Server log files

Next

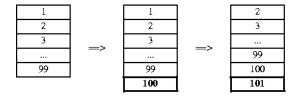




Next Lightweight Databases 5 Next Lightweight Databases 6

Rotating Log File

- Here's a typical problem:
 - O Append a line to the end of a log file
 - O But the log file should contain only the most recent 100 lines
 - O If it's longer than that, the old lines should be removed from the beginning



Deleting a User

- Another typical problem:
 - O User billg has been fired
 - O We want to remove his account
 - O We should delete his entry from the password file

\$**♦**7.

mjd:A2lJWJVp5BqDA isi:AlgDcdPxmSOMY tchrist:A3Jye3/wLzQNs lenhard:A4z2KThzpHppE gnat:A51FSA8JrmV6M oznoid:A61i7deQlD.82 rspier:B2lk7jM.0tjgk billg:B35TsiJGzy/3w

layer:B6/E4Qdz9Dsss maeda:KikFYFOSnGTwM

- The simplest and most often-cited solution is to copy the file
 - O Make the changes as you write the copy
 - O Then replace the original with the copy
- For example, deleting billg:

```
sub delete_user {
  my ($file, $target_user) = @_;
  open my $rfh, "<", $file or die ...;
  open my $wfh, ">", "$file.tmp" or die ...;
  while (<$rfh>) {
    my ($user) = split /:/;
    print $wfh unless $user eq $target_user;
  }
  close $rfh; close $wfh or die ...;
  rename "$file.tmp", $file or die ...;
}
```

• Or appending to a log file:

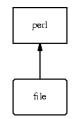
```
sub append_log {
  my ($file, @newrecs) = @_;
  open my $rfh, "<", $file or die ...;
  open my $wfh, ">", "$file.tmp" or die ...;
  my @recs = (<$rfh>, @newrecs);
  splice @recs, 0, @recs-$MAXRECS if @recs > $MAXRECS;
  print $wfh @recs;
  close $rfh; close $wfh or die ...;
  rename "$file.tmp", $file or die ...;
}
```

Copy the File

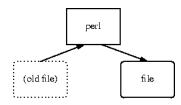
• Perl's -i option can make this easy:

```
perl -i -F: -lane 'print unless $F[0] eq "billg"' .users
```

• -i opens the original file for reading



- Then removes it
- The reopens the same name for writing



\$47.

- Redirects standard output into the new file
- Data written to STDOUT is captured in the file

Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

8

-i.bak

• Alternatively, you can have Perl leave behind a backup file

```
perl -i.bak -F: -lane 'print unless $F[0] eq "billg"' .users
```

- This is the same as -i
- Except Perl does not remove the original file
 - O Instead, it renames it to file.bak
- If Perl crashes partway through, the old data is still available in file.bak
 - O (Or if you decide you don't like the change.)

Using -i inside a program

```
perl -i.bak -F: -lane 'print unless $F[0] eq "billg"' .users
```

- That's all very well as a shell command
- What if you want to remove billg as part of a larger Perl program?
- Of course, one option is obviously:

```
system(qq{perl -i.bak -F: -lane
  'print unless \$F[0] eq "billg"' .users});
```

Next





Using -i inside a program

- Using the -i facilities from inside a program requires a little trick
- The files that -i operates on are the ones named in @ARGV
- The special \$^I variable holds the backup file suffix
 - O (Empty string if no backup)
- To engage -i, set up @ARGV and \$^I and run a while <> loop:

```
sub delete_user {
  my ($file, $target_user) = @_;
  local $^I = ".bak";
  local @ARGV = ($file);
  while (<>) {
    my ($user) = split /:/;
    print unless $user eq $target_user;
  }
}
```

- Now the opening and renaming are all implicit
- Use local so that \$^I and @ARGV recover their old values when the function is done

Problems with -i

- For casual tasks, -i is very handy
- But if Perl crashes or the system goes down in the middle, the data is lost
- Even if Perl *doesn't* crash, the file is in an inconsistent state while it's being rewritten
- Hair-raising example:

```
perl -i.bak -F: -lane 'print unless $F[0] eq "billg"' /etc/passwd
```

- Suppose perl gets swapped out just after it renames /etc/passwd
 - O Now the password file is empty
 - O Anyone can log in with no password
- We need a more reliable strategy

Novt



Next Lightweight Databases 13 Next Lightweight Databases 14

Copy With Changes

• This is something like what -i does:

```
sub delete_user {
  my ($file, $target_user) = @_;
  open my $rfh, "<", $file or die ...;
  rename $file, "$file.bak" or die ...;
  open my $wfh, ">", $file or die ...;
  while (<$rfh>) {
    my ($user) = split /:/;
    print $wfh unless $user eq $target_user;
  }
  close $rfh; close $wfh;
}
```

- The problem is that the rename is too soon
 - O We shouldn't replace the old contents with new so early
 - O We should wait until the complete new file is in place

Next



Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

Copy With Changes

• This version (which we saw earlier) is safer:

```
sub delete_user {
  my ($file, $target_user) = @_;
  open my $rfh, "<", $file or die ...;
  open my $wfh, ">", "$file.tmp" or die ...;
  while (<$rfh>) {
    my ($user) = split /:/;
    print $wfh unless $user eq $target_user;
  }
  close $rfh or die ...;
  close $wfh or die ...;
  rename "$file.tmp", $file or die ...;
}
```

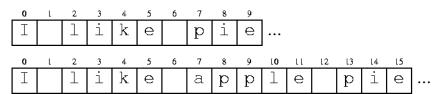
- rename is guaranteed to be atomic:
 - O At every instant, exactly one version of the file exists
 - O If the function fails, or Perl crashes, the old file is untouched
 - O At the moment the rename succeeds, the entire new file is in place
 - O (Warning: file.tmp and file must be on the same filesystem)
- Why doesn't -i do it this way?
 - O No good reason; coming in 5.10.

Essential Problem

- Unix filesystems treat files like a sequence of bytes
- The basic operations are:
 - O read a certain amount of data at the current position
 - O write a certain amount of data at the current position
 - O seek adjust the current position
 - O truncate the file to a certain length
- You can *overwrite* data in place:



Essential Problem



- But there is no option to *insert* or *remove* data
 - O To insert, you must copy the following data forward
 - O To remove, you must copy the following data backward

• (Other OSes may support more powerful operations)

Next



Essential Problem

- Moreover, byte-oriented operations are inconvenient for record-oriented programs
- Counting the number of bytes is easy:

```
my $n_bytes = -s $file;
```

• Counting the number of lines is hard:

```
open F, "<", $file;
while (<F>) {
   $n_lines++;
}
```

• Reading or writing at a certain byte position is easy:

```
seek F, $B_POSITION, SEEK_SET;
```

• Reading or writing at a certain line position is hard:

```
seek F, 0, SEEK_SET; $REC = 1;
<F> until $REC++ >= $L_POSITION;
```

• The copy-the-file technique is simple, but it always pays the maximum possible cost

Fundamental Operations

Read

```
read(FH, my($buffer), $length);
```

- The standard I/O library enables reading by records
 - O Data is read a block (4k or 8k) at a time into an internal buffer
 - O read and <...> copy data out of the buffer \$record = <FH>;

Write

```
print FH $buffer;
```

• Note the opposite of read is *not* write; it's print

Truncate

```
truncate FH, $length;
truncate $filename, $length;
```



Seek

• seek adjusts the current position of a filehandle

```
use Fcntl ':seek';  # For SEEK SET etc.
```

• Absolute position:

```
seek FH, $position, SEEK_SET;
```

• Relative position:

```
seek FH, $position, SEEK_CUR;
```

• Relative to the end of the file:

```
seek FH, $position, SEEK_END;
```

• tell returns the current absolute position:

```
my $position = tell FH;
# read, write, and seek FH here ...
seek FH, $position, SEEK_SET;
```

• This is guaranteed to put the handle back where it was at the time of the tell

Costs

- We'll see many different methods for searching and maintaining flat files
- They all have tradeoffs
- Some support quick searches
- Some support quick modifications
- There's always a tradeoff

Copy the file

Add record	S
Delete record	S
Modify record	S

- Here *S* is the size of the file
- This means that it takes about twice as long to deal with a file that is twice as big.

```
Successful search S/2 Unsuccessful search S
```

- On average, we only have to search half the file if the record is there
- But the whole file if not

20

Next Lightweight Databases 21 Next Lightweight Databases 22

Adding Records

Add record S

- With a plain flat text file, there's a shortcut for adding records
- Adding a record at the *end* of the file is very cheap

```
Append to beginning SAppend to middle SAppend to end 1
```

• The code looks like this:

```
sub add_user {
  my ($file, $new_user_data) = @_;
  local *F;
  open F, ">>", $file or return;
  print F $new_user_data, "\n";
}
```

Sorted Order

- If we keep the file in sorted order, searching is faster
- We can use a binary search
 - O This is the method we use for searching the telephone book
- Idea:
 - O Look at a record near the middle of the file
 - If the record is too early, look only at the last half of the file
 - If the record is too late, look only at the first half of the file
 - O Repeat on successively smaller segments of the file
 - O The standard Search::Dict module does this

\$**♦**7.



Next Lightweight Databases 23 Next Lightweight Databases 24

Binary Search

- Binary search is notoriously difficult to code
 - O There are a lot of funny edge cases
- If you write it yourself, test very carefully
- Or use Search::Dict
- Or the (carefully tested) code in your handouts

Next



Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

Binary Search

- This function gets a filehandle open to a sorted file
- It finds the first line in the file that is ge \$key
- Returns that line and leaves \$fh positioned at that line

```
sub search
 my (\$fh, \$key) = @_;
 my (\$lo, \$hi) = (0, -s \$fh);
 while (1) {
  my $mid = int(($lo + $hi)/2);
   if ($mid) {
  seek $fh, $mid-1, SEEK_SET;
      my $junk = <$fh>;
    } else {
      seek $fh, 0, SEEK_SET;
    my $start = tell $fh;
   my sec = seth>;
    return unless defined $rec;
    chomp $rec;
    if ($hi == $lo) {
      seek $fh, $start, SEEK_SET;
      return $rec
   if ($rec lt $key)
                         $10 = $mid+1
                         $hi = $mid
    else
```

• This is search1.pl in your handout

Next

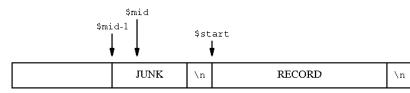
Binary Search

• What's with this?

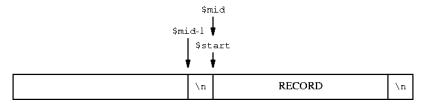
```
if ($mid) {
    seek $fh, $mid-1, SEEK_SET;
    my $junk = <$fh>;
} else ...

my $start = tell $fh;
my $rec = <$fh>;
```

- Well, we want the record that starts at or after \$mid
 - O But \$mid might point into the middle of a record



• We back up one space in case it *doesn't* point into the middle:



• Note: This trick only works when length(\$/) = 1

Binary Search

- search3.pl works for any value of \$/
- It's similar to the innards of Search::Dict
- It uses binary search only to locate the *block* that contains the target
- Then it does linear search on the block
- It's about 75% slower than search1.pl
- Also, it might fail if any of the records are longer than a disk block
- The code is at the back of your book



Next Lightweight Databases 27 Next Lightweight Databases 28

Sorted Order

• Here's a benchmark result comparing linear search against binary:

```
user sys total
Linear: 9.98 0.23 10.21
Binary: 0.01 0.04 0.05
```

- This is on ten randomly selected keys
- The target file contained 234,693 lines
- Here's 1000 searches with search1.pl and search3.pl:

```
NULL: 0.00 0.00
                    0.00
Search1: 3.00 0.44
Search3: 5.58 0.39
```

Sorted Order

- search2.pl in your handout is like search1.pl, but a little more general
- It takes a search function that compares records
 - O The function should return a negative value if the current record is too early

\$47.

- search2.pl finds the first record in the file that is not 'too early'
- For example, if your file is the password file, sorted on field 2:

```
search(\*PASSWD,
      sub { my ($uid) = (split /:/)[1];
            $uid <=> 119 });
```

• This locates the first record whose UID is at least 119



Sorted Order

- The big drawback of sorted files is that they're hard to update
- You can't just append a new record at the end
- Comparison:

	Unsorted	Sorted
Lookup Add Delete	Fast	Fast Slow Slow

- An alternative is a hybrid approach
 - O Have two files, one sorted, one unsorted
- For lookups, search the sorted file first, then the unsorted file
- To add records, append to the unsorted file
- Periodically merge the unsorted file into the sorted one

Modifying Records

- Modifying records in-place is tricky
- Because there might not be enough room for the new version
- Or the new version might not be big enough to fill all the space

Next



Overwriting Records

• Suppose we are replacing a record with another of *exactly* the same length



- Then we need not rewrite the entire file
- For example:

Next

```
sub uppercase_username {
  my ($fh, $username) = @_;
  seek $fh, 0, SEEK_SET;
  while (<$fh>) {
    my ($u, $rest) = split /:/, $_, 2;
    next unless $u eq $username;
    seek $fh, -length($_), SEEK_CUR;
    print $fh uc($u);
    return;
  }
}
```

- We search the file as usual
- When we find the record we want, we back up and overwrite it in place

Bytes vs. Positions

 This looks innocuous, but it opens a 55-gallon drum of worms:

```
seek $fh, -length($_), SEEK_CUR;
```

- Here we wanted to back up to the beginning of the current record
- This won't always work
- Seek positions don't always correspond to character offsets
- Consider a DOS file:

```
I like pie\r\n
Especially apple.\r\n
```

- After reading the first record, tell is likely to return 12
- But \$_ will contain "I like pie\n" (11 characters)
 - O The \r\n is translated to just \n on input
- The problem gets much worse with variable-length character encodings like UTF-8



Next



Bytes vs. Positions

- I could probably talk all day about the various problems that come up
- So instead, we'll have one slide
- This *always* works, no matter what:

```
my $position = tell FH;
# read and write FH here ...
seek FH, $position, SEEK_SET;
```

• This *always* works, no matter what:

```
seek FH, 0, SEEK_SET;
```

- Bytes and characters are the same on Unix systems when files have 8-bit encodings
 - O (Like ordinary text files, or files with ISO-8859 characters)
- Ditto for DOS/Windows systems **if** the filehandle is in *binary mode*:

```
binmode(FH);
```

Gappy Files

- If we need to modify variable-length records, we can do that
- Recall that the problems are:
 - 1. The new version of the record might not be big enough to fill all the space
 - 2. Or there might not be enough room for the new version in the old space
- (1) is easy to deal with: Just leave behind some padding characters
- (2) can't be dealt with; the record must move
 - O Replace it with padding and put the new record at the end
- You also have to fix your search function to ignore the padding
- Example code is in modify-in-place.pl; example data in MIP

Next





Next

Gappy Files

• Searching first:

```
sub find {
  my ($fh, $key) = @_;
  seek $fh, 0, SEEK_SET;
  my pos = 0;
  while (<$fh>) {
    chomp;
    next if /^\0*$/;
    if (index(\$\_, \$key) == 0) {
      seek $fh, $pos, SEEK_SET;
      return $_;
    $pos = tell $fh;
  return;
```

- This locates the first record that starts with \$key and returns it
 - O Also leaves \$fh positioned at the start of that record
- The key here is to ignore any line that is all NUL characters
 - O These represent 'gaps' from which data has been removed

Gappy Files

```
sub modify
  my ($fh, $rec) = @_;
  my $pos = tell $fh;
  chomp(my $oldrec = <$fh>);
  seek $fh, $pos, SEEK_SET;
  if (length $oldrec == length $rec) {
    # easy case
   print $fh $rec;
  } elsif (length $rec < length $oldrec) {</pre>
    my $shortfall = length($oldrec) - length($rec);
    my fill = "\0" x ($shortfall-1);
   print $fh $rec, "\n", $fill;
  ... continued ...
```

- In this case, the new record will fit in the old space
- Say we're changing tchrist: A3Jye3/wLzQNs\n to tom: A3Jye3/wLzQNs\n

\$47.

- O We actually change it to tom: A3Jye3/wLzQNs\ $n\0\0$
- O This is the same length
- find will ignore the \0\0\n 'gap'



Gappy Files

```
sub modify {
... continued ...
} else { # New record is too big
   my $fill = "\0" x length($oldrec);
   print $fh $fill;
   seek $fh, 0, SEEK_END; # New record goes at the end
   print $fh $rec, "\n";
}
```

- Here the new record won't fit
 - O We remove the old record entirely, and put the new one at the end
- Say we're changing gnat: A51FSA8JrmV6M\n to torkington: A51FSA8JrmV6M\n
 - O We replace gnat: A51FSA8JrmV6M\n with \0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\n
 - O We put torkington: A51FSA8JrmV6M\n at the end of the file
- find will ignore the $\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\0\n$ 'gap'
- A sufficiently clever implementation might put something else into the gap later

Gappy Files

• A variation: fill the gaps with newlines instead of NULs:

```
if (length $oldrec == length $rec) {
    # easy case
    print $fh $rec;
} elsif (length $rec < length $oldrec) {
    my $shortfall = length($oldrec) - length($rec);
    my $fill = "\n" x $shortfall;
    print $fh $rec, "\n", $fill;
} else { # New record is too big
    my $fill = "\n" x length($oldrec);
    print $fh $fill;
    seek $fh, 0, SEEK_END; # New record goes at the end
    print $fh $rec, "\n";
}</pre>
```

- Then have find ignore blank lines
 - O See mip2.pl in the handout

Next



Fixed-Length Records

- If all the records are the same length, it becomes easy to modify them
 - O The 'gappy files' code can dispense with the two hard cases
- Suppose the file has the following format:
 - O 8-character username
 - O 5-character user ID
 - O 13-character encrypted password
 - O 20-character surname
 - O 18-character given name
- Each record is exactly 64 bytes

```
billg 666 xyPXkPQTjCjnUGates William mjd 119 A12FMTJGN5wpYDominus Mark Jason longuser1234530Ubq7V0pV9doLongusername-EarwiggFeatherstonehaughs larry 1 ..qQYY3gYY0yAWall Larry
```

\$47.

• Note that fields may now contain spaces or any other data

Fixed-Length Records

```
billg 666 xyPXkPQTjCjnUGates William mjd 119 Al2FMTJGN5wpYDominus Mark Jason longuser1234530Ubq7V0pV9doLongusername-EarwiggFeatherstonehaughs larry 1 ..qQYY3gYY0yAWall Larry
```

• Code to search for a user now looks like this:

```
sub find_user {
  my ($fh, $user) = @;
  seek $fh, 0, SEEK_SET;
  while (read($fh, my($rec), 64) == 64) {
    my (@field) = unpack "A8 A5 A13 A20 A18", $rec;
    next unless $user eq $field[0];
    return @field;
  }
  return;
}
```

\$47.

- unpack gets a *format string* that describes the data format
- A8 is a space-padded alphabetic field of length 8
- Trailing spaces are trimmed off
- a8 is similar, but NUL-padded ("\0")



Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

40

Fixed-Length Records

```
while (read($fh, my($rec), 64) == 64) {
    ...
}
```

• Alternative: Starting in 5.6.0, you may say

```
sub find_user {
  my ($fh, $user) = @_;
  seek $fh, 0, SEEK_SET;
  local $/ = \64;
  while ($rec = <$fh>) {
    my (@field) = unpack "A8 A5 A13 A20 A18", $rec;
    next unless $user eq $field[0];
    return @field;
  }
  return;
}
```

Fixed-Length Records

- Searching takes just as long as with variable-length records
- The win is when we want to modify a record

```
sub modify_user_data {
  my ($fh, $user, @newdata) = @_;
  unless (find_user($fh, $user)) {
    seek $fh, 0, SEEK_END;  # Move to end of file
  }
  print $fh pack "A8 A5 A13 A20 A18", $user, @newdata;
}
```

- Before, modifying was difficult in general
 - O The only easy way was to copy the entire file
 - O Now modifying in-place is cheap

\$♦7.



Numeric Indices

- In some cases, we can speed up searching
- Suppose we want to look up usernames by UID
- Trick: Record number n holds information for user #n

```
0
      PLM/VF.estSxwSuper user
root
     ..qQYY3gYY0yAWall
                     Larry
larry 1
GARBAGEGARBAGEGARBAGEGARBAGEGARBAGEGARBAGEGARBAGEGARBAGEG
GARBAGEGARBAGEGARBAGEGARBAGEGARBAGEGARBAGEGARBAGEGARBAGEG
   119 A12FMTJGN5wpYDominus
                     Mark
billg 666 xyPXkPQTjCjnUGates
. . .
```

• Locating a user is now very fast:

```
sub find_user_by_uid {
  my ($fh, $uid) = @_;
  seek $fh, $uid * 64, SEEK_SET;
  if (read($fh, my($rec), 64) == 64) {
    my (@field) = unpack "A8 A5 A13 A20 A18", $rec;
    return @field;
  }
  return;
}
```

lastlog

43 Next

Unix lastlog records are stored in this way

```
sub get_lastlog_info {
  my $user = shift;
  $user = getpwnam($user) if $user =~ /\D/;
  return unless defined $user;
  open L, "<", "/var/log/lastlog" or return;
  seek L, 292 * $user, SEEK_SET;
  return unless read(L, my($buf), 292) == 292;
  my ($time, $tty, $host) = unpack "i a32 a256", $buf;
  return ($time, $tty, $host);
}</pre>
```

• To use:

% perl lastlog.pl www
www never logged in

• Complete code in lastlog.pl

\$ ₹ 7.

Indexing

- We can combine the speed of fixed-length records with the flexibility of variable-length records
- Idea: Make an *index* that records the position at which each record begins
- The index itself is fixed-length

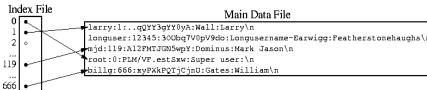


Next



Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

Indexing



• To look up a user by UID:

```
sub find_user_by_uid {
  my ($fh, $index_fh, $uid) = @_;
  seek $index_fh, $uid * 10, SEEK_SET;
  if (read($index_fh, my($rec), 10) == 10) {
    my ($offset) = unpack "AlO", $rec;
    seek $fh, $offset, SEEK_SET;
    my $record = <$fh>;
    return defined $record ? split /:/, $record : ();
  }
  return;
}
```

Indexing

- That's great, but where did the index file come from?
- Index files are easy to build:

```
sub build_index_for_users {
  my ($fh, $index_fh) = @_;
  seek $fh, 0, SEEK_SET;
  seek $index_fh, 0, SEEK_SET;
  truncate $index_fh, 0;  # Discard old index
  my $pos = tell $fh;
  while (<$fh>) {
    my $uid = (split /:/)[1];
    seek $index_fh, $uid * 10, SEEK_SET;
    print $index_fh, pack "A10", $pos;
    $pos = tell $fh;
  }
}
```

Next



Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

Void Fields

- There's a potential problem with the previous slide's code
- Suppose there is no user #2
- find_user_by_uid will go to the right place in the index
 - O It will read 10 nonsense bytes
 - O Then it will read from a nonsense position in the data file
- Solution: Fill nonsense fields with a special 'no such user' value:

```
sub build_index_for_users {
  my ($fh, $index_fh) = @;
  seek $fh, 0, SEEK_SET;
  my $pos = tell $fh;
  my @position;
  while (<$fh>) {
    my $uid = (split /:/)[1];
    $position[$uid] = $pos;
    $pos = tell $fh;
  }
```

• (Continued...)

Next Lightweight Databases 49 Next Lightweight Databases 50

Void Fields

• (Continued...)

```
seek $index_fh, 0, SEEK_SET;
truncate $index_fh, 0;  # Discard old index
for (@position) {
  if (defined) {
    print $index_fh pack("A10", $_);
    } else {
       print $index_fh "NoSuchUser";
    }
}
```

• find_user_by_uid then gets:

```
return if my $offset eq 'NoSuchUser';
```

Generic Text Indices

• Sometimes the index number is just the record number:

```
sub build_index_for_text {
  my ($fh, $index_fh) = @;
  seek $fh, 0, SEEK_SET;
  seek $index_fh, 0, SEEK_SET;
  truncate $index_fh, 0;  # Discard old index
  my $pos = tell $fh;
  while (<$fh>) {
    print $index_fh, pack "Al0", $pos;
    $pos = tell $fh;
  }
}
```

Next





Packed Offsets

• Instead of making index numbers 10-byte strings, use 4-byte machine integers:

```
print $index_fh, pack "N", $pos;
```

- Instead of "0 ", we use " \xspace x00 \xspace x00 \xspace x00 \xspace x00 \xspace x00 \xspace x
- Instead of "1 ", we use "\x00\x00\x00\x01"
- Instead of "10 ", we use " $\x00\x00\x00\x00$ "
- Instead of "1000000000", we use "\x3b\x9a\xca\x00"
 - O Benefit: Smaller index

Next

\$♦7.

Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

Tie::File

- Perl 5.6.1 introduced a new module called Tie::File
- It makes a file look like an array
- Each line in the file becomes an array element
- Reading or modifying the array reads or modifies the file
- I wrote it because I didn't like the answer to the FAQ question:

How do I change one line in a file?

• The answer wasn't as helpful as I would have liked:

Those are operations of a text editor. Perl is not a text editor.



52

Next Lightweight Databases 53 Next Lightweight Databases 54

Tie::File Examples

How do I change one line in a file?

```
tie @LINE, 'Tie::File', 'my_file.txt' or die ...;
for (@LINE) {
   if (/not a text editor/) {
      s/not/now/;
      last;
   }
}
```

Next

\$♦7.

Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

Tie::File Examples

How do I delete a line in a file?

```
for $n (reverse 0 .. $#LINE) {
    if (is_snide_answer_to_FAQ($LINE[$n])) {
        splice @LINE, $n, 1;
    }
}

or:

my $spliced = 0;
    for $n (0 .. $#LINE) {
        if (is_snide_answer_to_FAQ($LINE[$n - $spliced])) {
            splice @LINE, $n - $spliced, 1;
            $spliced++;
        }
}

or:

@snide = grep is_snide_answer_to_FAQ($LINE[$_])), 0..$#LINE;
    for (reverse @snide) { splice @LINE, $_, 1 }
```

\$ **₹ 7**.

Next Lightweight Databases 55 Next Lightweight Databases 56

Tie::File Examples

How do I insert a line in the middle of a file?

```
for my $n (0 .. $#LINE) {
   if ($LINE[$n] =~ /<!--insert here-->/) {
      splice @LINE, $n+1, 0, $new_html_text;
      last;
   }
}
untie @LINE;
```

Tie::File Examples

How do I append to the beginning of a file?

```
tie @LOG, 'Tie::File', 'DrainC.log' or die ...;
unshift @LOG, $new_record1, $new_record2, @more_new_records;
```

Next



Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

\$♦7.

Tie::File Examples

What Else?

```
tie @FILE, 'Tie::File', $file or die ...;
push @FILE, $new_last_record;
my $old_last_record = pop @FILE;
my $old_first_record = shift @FILE;
# Truncate or extend the file
$#FILE = 100;
# How long is the file?
$n_lines = @FILE;
# Overwrite the file
@FILE = qw(I like pie);
```

Next



Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

delete_user Revisited

• Here \$file refers to a tied array instead of a filehandle:

```
sub delete_user {
  my ($file, $target_user) = @_;
  for my $n (0 .. $#$file) {
    my ($user) = split /:/, $file->[$n];
    next unless $user eq $target_user;
    splice @$file, $n, 1;
    last;
  }
}
```

• Or we might even use this:

```
sub delete_user {
  my ($file, $target_user) = @_;
  @$file = grep !/^$target_user:/, @$file;
}
```

- Wasn't that easy?
- Downside: The short version reads the entire file into memory

uppercase_username Revisited

• This is even easier:

```
sub uppercase_username {
  my ($file, $username) = @_;
  for (@$file) {
    last if s/^$username:/\U$username:/;
  }
}
```

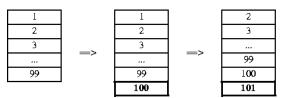
• It's also efficient

Next



Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

Rotating Log File



• Tie::File solution:

```
tie @LOG, 'Tie::File', '/etc/logfile';
sub log {
  push @LOG, @_;
  my $overflow = @LOG - 100;
  splice @LOG, 0, $overflow if $overflow > 0;
}
```

\$♦7.

Most Important Thing to Know About Tie::File General code is slower than special code

- It's for convenience, not performance
- I worked hard to make it reasonably fast
- But there's only so much that can be done

```
$FILE[0] =~ s/^x//;
```

- This is always going to have to read and rewrite the entire file
- Tie::File must perform reasonably well for many different types of applications
 - O This means it's slower than code custom-written for a single application

• For example:

```
sub uppercase_username {
 my ($file, $username) = @_;
 for (@$file) {
   last if s/^$username:/\U$username:/;
```

- This builds and maintains an offset table in case you visit any of the early records again
- If you don't, the time spent is wasted
- The first version of uppercase_username didn't have to do that

\$**♦**7.

Next

Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus



Indexing with Tie::File

- You can use an in-memory hash as an index into a Tie::File file
- Here, %index maps usernames to record numbers:

```
my %index;
my $NEXT_UNREAD = 0;
sub find_user {
    my ($file, $user) = @_;
    my $rec;

until (exists $index{$user}) {
        $rec = $file->[$NEXT_UNREAD];
        return unless defined $rec;
        my ($u) = unpack "A8", $rec;
        $index{$u} = $NEXT_UNREAD;
        $next_UNREAD++;
    }
    return unpack "A8 A5 A13 A20 A18", $file->[$index{$user}];
}
```

- Each time this is called, it checks the index for the user you asked for
 - O If the user is there, it uses Tie::File to retrieve the data quickly
 - O If not, it scans the file until it finds what you wanted

Caching

- Tie::File also maintains an internal read cache
- If you try to read the same record twice, it comes from the read cache

```
sub _fetch {
  my ($self, $n) = @_;

# check the record cache
  { my $cached = $self->{cache}->lookup($n);
    return $cached if defined $cached;
  }
  ...
  $self->{cache}->insert($n, $rec)
    if defined $rec && not $self->{flushing};
  $rec;
}
```

- This is supposed to cut down on I/O
- You can limit the amount of memory used for the cache:

```
tie @FILE, 'Tie::File', $myfile, memory => 200000000;
```

\$47.

• Default: 2 MiB

Next

Caching

• Donald E. Knuth, a famous wizard, is fond of saying:

Premature optimization is the root of all evil.



- The cache is a good example of this
- Many common uses of Tie::File have a very low (or zero) cache hit rate

```
for (@FILE) { s/.../ }
unshift @FILE, items...;
```

- As a result, the cache just slows things down
- The next release of Tie::File will leave the cache disabled by default
 - O It will enable the cache only if it believes this will help performance

Tie::File Modification

\$FILE[\$n] =~ s/this/that/;

- Tie::File knows how long each record is
- If you replace a record with one of the same length, it overwrites in place
- If the lengths differ, it must rewrite the tail of the file
 - O It uses a block copy algorithm for this
- Truncating the file is easy:

```
$#FILE = 12;
```

- This locates the end of record 12 (if necessary) and truncates the file accordingly
- The general problem is very complicated and interesting
 - O New improvements are always coming

\$**♦**7.

Next



Immediate vs. Deferred Writing

- By default, changes to the array are propagated to the file immediately
 - O This is called *immediate writing*
- In some cases, this will be intolerably slow:

```
for (@FILE) {
   s/^/>> /;
}
```

- This modifies record 0, rewriting 0 .. 1000
 - O Then it modifies record 1, rewriting 1 .. 1000
 - O Then it modifies record 2, rewriting 2 .. 1000
 - O This is intolerably slow

Next

Deferred Writing

• If performance is more important than immediate writing, you may disable it:

```
my $f_obj = tied(@FILE);
$f_obj->defer;
for (@FILE) {
    s/^/>> /;
}
$f_obj->flush;
```

- All writing is done in memory until you call ->flush
 - O (Or until the memory limit you specified is exceeded.)
 - O Then all the writing is done in one batch

```
tie @FILE, 'Tie::File', $myfile, dw_size => 500000;
```

\$47.

• Default: Whatever the memory limit is



Next

Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

68

Autodeferring

```
for (@FILE) {
   s/^/>> /;
}
```

- Loops like this are common
- Tie::File detects these and enables deferred writing automatically
- Then disables it again when you're done
- Unless you don't want that:

```
tie @FILE, 'Tie::File', $myfile, autodefer => 0;
```

Next



Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

Miscellaneous Features

• Read-only mode:

```
use Fcntl 'O_RDONLY';
tie @FILE, 'Tie::File', $myfile, mode => O_RDONLY;
```

• Change the record separator string:

```
tie @FILE, 'Tie::File', $myfile, recsep => ";;";
```

• Tie an open filehandle:

```
tie @FILE, 'Tie::File', \*STDIN, mode => O_RDONLY;
```

• Lock the file:

```
use Fcntl ':flock';
(tied @FILE)->flock(LOCK_EX);
```

• (Locking is another advantage over DB_File)

\$**♦**7.

DBM

Next

- Perl's tie feature is a generalization of *DBM files*
 - O (DBM is short for Data Base Manager, I think)
- Basic idea: A Perl data structure is backed by a disk file
 - O Reading the data structures reads the file
 - O Modifying the data structures writes the file
- This first appeared in perl 3

dbmopen %hash, \$filename, \$permissions;
dbmclose %hash;

\$ ◊ 7.

Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

DBM

dbmopen %hash, \$filename, \$permissions;

- There are several different libraries than can handle this association
- Which one did dbmopen use?
 - O Whichever one was compiled into Perl
 - O If you want to copy data from an NDBM file into an ODBM file, too bad
- This was one of the major motivations for the Perl 5 module system
- New syntax:

```
tie %hash, 'Package', ARGS...;
```

- The Package is a module responsible for implementing the association
- dbmopen %hash, \$file is now emulated as

```
tie %hash, 'AnyDBM_File';
```

• AnyDBM_File tries several popular modules until it finds one that works

Common DBM Implementations

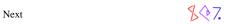
- There are five widely-used DBM libraries
 - O ODBM_File uses the original DBM library, called libdbm (1979)
 - O NDBM_File uses an improved version called libndbm (1985)
 - O GDBM_File uses the GNU project library, libgdbm (1990?)
 - O SDBM_File uses a new version called libsdbm (1991)
 - O DB_File uses the Berkeley DB library libdb (1993)
- When you build Perl, it looks for each of these
 - O It constructs and installs the tie modules for the ones you have
 - O Exception: Perl comes with libsdbm, so you always have SDBM_File

What DBM Does

- DBM libraries store data in a hashed database
- It's like a Perl hash, but on the disk
- Advantage over plain text files:
 - O Lookup is very fast
 - O (Insertion is much less fast because data might have to be moved around)
- Disadvantage:
 - O The file is full of binary gibberish

Next





What DBM Does

- DBM libraries provide functions for storing, fetching, and generating lists of keys
- The tie modules provide a glue layer between these libraries and Perl

- These libraries are an attempt to keep a hash on the disk
 - O Just as Tie::File is an attempt to keep an array on the disk
 - O As with Tie::File, there are a lot of interesting tradeoffs to be made

Small DBMs: odem, ndem, and sdem

- These all have the same major drawback:
- The amount of data is limited
- Typically, key size + value size must be less than about 1KB for each key

```
use Fcntl 'O_RDWR', 'O_CREAT';
use SDBM_File;

tie %h, "SDBM_File", "/tmp/sdbm", O_RDWR|O_CREAT, 0666
    or die $!;
$h{ouch} = "-" x 1024;
print "ok\n";
```

• Nope:

sdbm store returned -1, errno 22, key "ouch" at sdbm_fail line

Next



Small DBMs: odbm, ndbm, and sdbm

- Another problem is that these databases use *sparse storage*
- The hash isn't represented very efficiently on the disk

# Keys	File extent (ls -1)	Space used (ls -s)
1	1024	8
2	2048	8
4	4096	8
8	8192	48
16	120832	120
32	245760	208
64	441344	296
128	4251648	456
256	12701696	1456
512	21091328	2320
1024	33284096	4128
2048	536668160	11592
4096	1065409536	22272

- Even though we're not storing that much data, the file extents get huge
- Many systems can't handle a file with an extent greater than 2GiB.
- On these systems, O/N/SDBM are severely limited in the amount of data they can store
- (This output produced by sdbm_test.pl in your handout)

GDBM

- gdbm does not have these data size problems
- I used to use it all the time
- Now I don't; here's why
- In 1998 I was using it for a web user database for a major client
 - O The key was the user name and the value was the user's information
- We had about 320,000 registered users
- One day, the firstkey and nextkey routines stopped producing all the keys
 - O They would generate about 1,700 of the usernames and then stop
 - O I couldn't get the list of our users!



78

Next



GDBM

- I sent a detailed bug report to the GNU folks, offering to do whatever I could to help
- The reply said:

I have heard of this happening before. I was not able to find out why. Do you have a backup of earlier versions so you can get most of your keys out? If so, you might try to recover by moving to DB-2.? routines. They are still being updated an developed. gdbm has not had any active development in years.

- So I restored what I could from the backup tapes
- I switched to Berkeley DB
- I have not used GDBM since



DB_File

- The best choice
- Berkeley DB was good ten years ago and it has gotten better
- Basic usage is very simple:

```
use DB_File;
tie %hash, 'DB_File', $file or die ...;
```

• Optional arguments:

```
tie %hash, 'DB_File', $file, O_RDONLY;
tie %hash, 'DB_File', $file, O_CREAT | O_RDWR;
tie %hash, 'DB_File', $file, O_CREAT | O_RDWR, 0666;
```

\$47.

• Now use %hash just like any other hash

Next





Indexing Revisited

- Here's a hybrid approach to indexing
- The bulk of the data will be in a plain text file
- But the plain text file takes too long to search
- So we'll also have a DBM file that records record byte offsets
- Then we can locate records quickly
- Complete example code is in indexed.pl

Next



Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

Indexing Revisited

• Searching will be fast:

```
sub find {
  my ($fh, $dbm, $key) = @_;
  my $offset = $dbm->{$key};
  seek $fh, $offset, SEEK_SET;
  my $rec = <$fh>;
  return $rec;
}
```

- \$fh is a filehandle on the (plain text) data file
- \$dbm is a reference to the DBM hash with the offset information
- \$key is the key we want to look up
- We get the offset information from the DBM hash
- Seek the filehandle to the right position in the text file
- Read the right record instantly



Indexing Revisited

• Where did the offset information come from?

• \$fh and \$dbm are as before

Next

- \$key_function takes a record from the file and says what the key should be
- If the DBM eats the index, your homework is still intact

Indexing Revisited

• A typical use:

- The key function here takes a password file line and extracts the username
- We only need to call make_index once
 - O (Until the password file changes)
- After that, we can get as many fast lookups as we want:

```
print find(\*PASSWD, \%by_name, "mjd");
```

mjd:x:119:100:Mark Jason Dominus:/home/mjd:/bin/bash

\$**♦**7.



Indexing Revisited

• We can also build multiple indices:

• (All this also works with untied hashes)

Next

Ordered Hashes

• DB_File actually supports three different file types

```
tie %hash, 'DB_File', $file, O_CREAT O_RDWR, 0666, $DB_HASH;
tie %hash, 'DB_File', $file, O_CREAT O_RDWR, 0666, $DB_BTREE;
tie @array, 'DB_File', $file, O_CREAT O_RDWR, 0666, $DB_RECNO;
```

- The default is DB_HASH which we've seen already
- DB_RECNO associates a plain text file with an array
 - O But Tie::File may be preferable, for a number of reasons
 - O (See the handout)
- DB_BTREE uses a different data structure called a *B-tree*
 - O Also called a *VSAM file* by big-iron types
 - O Unlike a hash, it keeps the records in order
 - O For very large databases (1,000,000 records) lookup may be slower than hashes

\$ ◊ 7.

Ordered Hashes

```
tie %hash, 'DB_File', $file, O_CREAT O_RDWR, 0666, $DB_BTREE;
```

• By default, the ordering is lexicographic:

```
for (qw(red orange yellow green blue violet)) {
    $hash{$_} = length;
}
print join(" ", keys %hash), "\n";
```

blue green orange red violet yellow

• You may specify an alternative ordering:

```
use DB_File;
my $rev_btree = DB_File::BTREEINFO->new();
$rev_btree->{compare} =
    sub {
        my ($a, $b) = @_;
        reverse($a) cmp reverse($b)
    };
tie %hash, 'DB_File', $file, O_CREAT|O_RDWR, 0666, $rev_btree;
red orange blue green violet yellow
```

Partial Matching

```
blue 4
green 5
orange 6
red 3
violet 6
yellow 5
```

- Because the keys in a B-tree are in order, you can do limited partial matching
- As with Search::Dict, you can look for the first key that begins with some string

```
my $db = tied %hash;
my $k = "g";
$db->seq($k, $v, R_CURSOR);
print "$k => $v\n";
green 5
```

- Actually it produces the first key that is greater than or equal to \$k
 - O Under the appropriate comparison
- If there is no such key, \$k is unchanged, \$v is undef, and seq returns true

\$ ◊ 7.

Sequential Access

- ->seq provides generic sequential access to the keys
 - O In the user-defined order
- Note: C-style for loops coming up
- To scan the keys forwards:

Or backwards:

• Or just the keys between \$a and \$b:

Filters

- Suppose you want to store complex data structures in a DB_File
- This doesn't work:

```
hash{numbers} = [1, 4, 2, 8, 5, 7];
```

• The array is converted to a string, and the *string* is stored:

```
print $hash{numbers}, "\n";
ARRAY(0x8118d9c)

$aref = $hash{numbers};
print "@$aref\n";

Can't use string ("ARRAY(0x8118d9c)") as an ARRAY ref
   while "strict refs" in use...
```

- This is a drawback of all DBM implementations
 - O And indeed of the Unix operating system
 - O There's no OS support for storing anything except a lifeless byte sequence

Next



Filters

- We could use a serialization module like Storable
 - O It will convert arbitrary values to strings, and back:

```
use Storable;
$hash{numbers} = freeze [1, 4, 2, 8, 5, 7];
$aref = thaw $hash{numbers};
print "@$aref\n";
1 4 2 8 5 7
```

- This is kind of a pain
- DB_File will do it automatically:

```
my $db = tied %hash;
$db->filter_store_value(sub { $_ = Storable::freeze($_) });
$db->filter_fetch_value(sub { $_ = Storable::thaw($_) });
```

• Now this works:

```
$hash{numbers} = [1, 4, 2, 8, 5, 7];
$aref = $hash{numbers};
print "@$aref\n";
```

- freeze and thaw are called automatically
 - O Note that the filters use \$_ for input and output
- Similarly, filter_store_key and filter_fetch_key

BerkeleyDB

- The Berkeley DB library has many other fascinating features
 - O Not all are available through DB_File
- For example, there is a DB_Queue file type
 - O This is like an array
 - O But it is optimized for push and shift operations
 - O You might use this to store a log file
 - O When the log file exceeds a certain size, you shift the old records off the front
- There is an option to keep the values for duplicate keys in a user-defined order
- It supports transactions
- The BerkeleyDB module provides interfaces to this functionality
- It's worth skimming through the manual
- Check out http://www.sleepycat.com/docs/reftoc.html for a tutorial and overview

\$**♦**7.

Thank You!

• Any questions?

Next



Copyright © 2003 M. J. Dominus

Bonus Slides

- Classes change from year to year
- Some things move in, others come out
- There's never enough time to cover all the material I'd like to
- But you may as well see the deleted slides

Next



Tie::File Internals

- Inside, Tie::File uses a combination of several of the techniques we've seen
- It maintains an offset table internally

```
$z = $FILE[57];
```

- This checks the offsets table for <code>\$offsets[57]</code>
 - O If it's already present, Tie::File seeks to the right location and reads the record
 - O If not, Tie::File scans from the last known position up to line 57

```
sub _fetch {
   my ($self, $n) = @_;
   ...

if ($#{$self->{offsets}} < $n) {
    return if $self->{eof};
    my $0 = $self->_fill_offsets_to($n);
    # If it's still undefined, there is no such record,
    # so return 'undef'
    return unless defined $0;
}

my $fh = $self->{FH};
   # we can do this now that offsets is populated
   $self->_seek($n);
   my $rec = $self->_read_record;
   ...
   $rec;
}
```

Multiple Values

- Unlike a hash, a B-tree may store more than one value per key
- To enable this, use R_DUP:

- Ordinary hash assignment actually stores the new value in addition to the old one
- Hash retrieval recovers only the **first** stored value
- But ->seq will recover *all* the values:

```
$k = "red";
for ($fail = $db->seq($k, $v, R_CURSOR);
    ! $fail && $k eq "red";
    $fail = $db->seq($k, $v, R_NEXT)) {
    print "$k: $v\n";
}

red: apple
red: cherry
red: strawberry
red: raspberry
```

\$47.

Next

Multiple Values

- For a user-defined comparison, 'identical' keys might not be exactly the same
- Suppose the comparison is case-insensitive:

```
my $my_btree = DB_File::BTREEINFO->new();
$my_btree->{flags} = R_DUP;
$my_btree->{compare} = sub { 1c $_[0] cmp 1c $_[1] };
tie %hash, 'DB_File', $file, O_CREAT|O_RDWR, 0666, $my_btree;
```

• Then Red, red, and RED are all considered 'the same'

```
for (['Red', 'apple'], ['red', 'cherry'],
        ['RED', 'strawberry'], ['blUe', 'grape']) {
   my ($key, $value) = @$_;
   $hash{$key} = $value;
}
```

- Only the first of these three is actually stored
- The hash interface will report the duplicate keys:

```
print join(" ", keys %hash), "\n";
blue Red Red Red
```

Multiple Values

• Since the keys are insensitive, the hash interface can't distinguish them:

```
\label{eq:print $$ \pi^{\theta} \ \theta\ \
```

grape apple apple apple

• But ->seq can recover the values:

Red: apple
Red: cherry
Red: strawberry

Next





Multiple Values

- There are some special methods for dealing with duplicate keys
- This recovers a list of the values associated with the given key:

```
@a = $db->get_dup($Key);
```

• This is a count of the number of appearances of the key:

```
$n = $db->get_dup($Key);
```

- You can checks to see if the key is associated with a certain value
 - O If the pair is found, this returns **false** and positions the cursor at the specified pair

```
$failed = $db->find_dup($Key, $Value);
```

- You can then iterate over preceding or following key-value pairs with ->seq
- You can delete just one key-value pair:

```
$failed = $db->del_dup($Key, $Value);
```

• This returns **false** on success