File Systems

Operating Systems

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Lecture 10

File Concept I

- back to general principles: OS hides complexity from users
- how information is stored on devices is none of the user's business
- present the user with a logical view of stored information
- file: a named collection of related information recorded on a storage device
 - the smallest logical information unit: all stored data are in files
 - an example of "raw" data not using files: databases

File Concept II

- (normally) on high-capacity non-volatile storage
 - maintain data past program termination or failure
 - manipulate large quantities of data (larger than virtual memory)
 - sharing data between processes
- files may contain programs and/or data
- data files: numeric, alphabetic, alphanumeric, binary
- formatted or unformatted data
- file types: source code, object code, executables, text, graphics, sound, etc.

File Types

- different file types may be supported differently
 - complicates the OS implementation considerably
- type specified by extension, or by a combination of filesystem tests, "magic number" tests, and language tests (file(1))
 - filesystem tests (stat(2), sys/stat.h): empty or special files (sockets, symlinks, pipes, etc.
 - "magic number" tests: stored in a particular place near the beginning of the file, usually describes a binary format
 - if not special or binary, it is either "text" (ASCII etc.) or "character data" (EBCDIC etc.)

Determining File Type

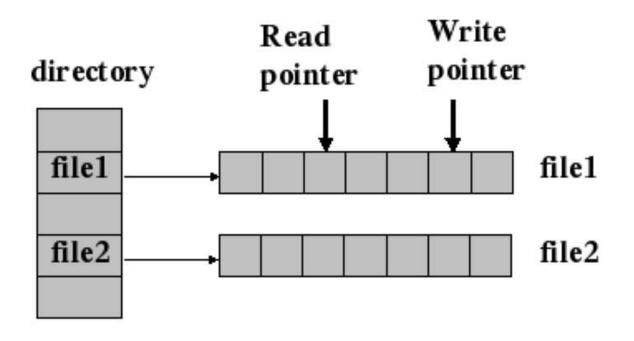
```
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/stat.h>
struct stat buf;
char
             *S;
if (lstat(filename, &buf) < 0)</pre>
  exit(EXIT FAILURE)
if
        (S ISREG(buf.st mode)) s = "regular";
else if (S ISDIR(buf.st mode)) s = "directory";
else if (S ISCHR(buf.st mode)) s = "character special";
else if (S ISBLK(buf.st mode)) s = "block special";
else if (S_ISFIFO(buf.st_mode)) s = "fifo";
else if (S ISLNK(buf.st mode)) s = "symbolic link";
else if (S_ISSOCK(buf.st_mode)) s = "socket";
                                 s = "unknown";
else
printf("%s\n", s);
```

File Attributes

- name: case-sensitive or not
- type: if different types are supported
- Iocation: storage device and location on the device
- size: in bytes, words, or blocks; possibly also the maximal allowed size
- access control information
- time, date, user: for creation, modification, access
 - security
 - usage monitoring and statistics
 - audit

Directory

- the attributes of all files are kept in a directory
- directory must also be kept on non-volatile storage
- on many systems (e.g., UNIX) directory is also kept in file(s), on others it is a special data structure



File Operations I

- a file is an abstract data type
- basic file operations
 - create: allocate space, make a directory entry, assign some of the attributes (e.g., access permissions)
 - write: a system call specifying the file name and the data to write; the filesystem provides the storage location to write to, must keep a write pointer per file
 - read: a system call that specifies the file name and the memory location to put the data in; the directory is searched, and the system needs a read pointer per file
 - usually a file is either read from or written to one current position pointer is enough

File Operations II

- basic file operations (cont.)
 - seek: the current position pointer is set to the given value; no actual I/O is performed
 - delete: release the space and erase the directory entry
 - truncate: sometimes we want to keep the file attributes but erase the contents of a file; instead of deleting and then recreating the file we reset the length to zero
- other common operations
 - rename: keep the data and the attributes, change the name
 - get/set attributes

File Operations III

- examples of compound operations
 - append: seek the end, write
 - overwrite: truncate, write
 - copy: create a new file, read from old, write to new
- optimizations
 - open: avoid searching the filesystem directory each time a file is accessed
 - keep an "open file table", use the table index ("file descriptor") throughout
 - some systems may open a file on first reference
 - usually there is open(2) and fopen(3) that returns a file descriptor or a pointer to the open file table entry
 - close: removes the file from the open file table

File Operations IV

open and close in multiuser environments (e.g., UNIX)

- several users may open a file at the same time
- 2 levels of file tables
 - per-process table containing the files that the process has open; stores the usage information on each file (e.g., the current position)
 - each entry in the process file table points to a global open file table that contains process-independent information: location, size, access times, etc.; also has open count
- other operations
 - lock: whole files or sections thereof (flock(2))
 - map: map file to virtual memory (mmap(2), munmap(2))

Access Methods

- sequential access record by record in order
 - by far the most common
- direct (a.k.a. relative, random) access
 - fixed length logical records, a program can skip a number of records forward or backward — similar to block access to disk
 - either include block number in read() and write()
 or use seek() to position correctly
 - user usually deals with blocks numbered relative to the beginning of the file
- indexed access
 - search the index, go directly to the record
 - index may be kept in memory (if small enough)

Directories And Directory Operations

- we store huge amounts of data need some structure
- physical disks and partitions, or logical volumes
- each logical partition stores information on its files
- operations
 - search (by name or pattern) (find(1)
 - s create/delete (mkdir(1), rmdir(1))
 - list a directory (ls(1), readdir(2))
 - s rename a file (mv(1), rename(2))
 - file system (ftw(3), nftw(3))

Reading Directory Contents

```
#include <unistd.h>
#include <limits.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <dirent.h>
```

char buf[PATH_MAX]; DIR *dp; struct dirent *dirp;

Directory Structure I

- single level directories
 - all files lumped together in one directory
 - not scalable
 - not suitable for multiple users (unique names etc.)
- two-level directories
 - let each user have a directory
 - still not scalable
 - what if users want to share files
 - other directories are needed for system files

Directory Structure II

- directory tree
 - root directory and subdirectories
 - current directory (pwd(1))
 - changing directories (cd, chdir(2))
 - directory stack (pushd, popd)
 - home directory for user
 - absolute and relative paths
 - do we delete non-empty directories?
 - how do we search for executables?

Directory Structure III

- acyclic graph directories
 - Inking files and directories
 - sharing a directory between two users
 - using different implementations
 - 🗴 etc.
 - hard links duplicating information
 - soft (symbolic) links the directory entry contains the target
- multiple names per file (aliases)
- deleting files dangling links, hard links especially problematic
- reference counting for hard links (unlink(2))

Directory Structure IV

- general graph directory
 - acyclic graphs are simple
 - easy to traverse
 - easy to count references
 - general graphs may have self-referencing structures
 - garbage collection
 - traverse the entire file system marking everything that can be accessed
 - make a second pass, freeing everything that is not marked
 - similar to garbage collection in Lisp, Java, etc.

Filesystem Hierarchy Standard I

- http://www.pathname.com/fhs/
- requirements and guidelines for file and directory placement for UNIX-like OS
- support for interoperability, system administration, documentation
- root filesystem: enough to boot, restore, repair
- /boot: static files for bootloader (e.g., kernel)
- /bin: essential command binaries (for all users)
- /dev: device files
- /etc host-specific configuration (scripts, but no binaries)

Filesystem Hierarchy Standard II

- /home: user home directories (optional)
- /lib: essential libraries and kernel modules
- /mnt: for temporary mounts
- /opt: add-on software and data
- /tmp: temporary files
- /sbin: system binaries (not for regular users)
- /usr: shareable, read-only data
 - > /usr/include: system headers
- other (non-UNIX) systems have their own rules that may or may not be observed

Access Control

- traditional UNIX
 - owner, group, all
 - read, write, execute
 - chmod(1), chown(1), chgrp(1)
 - directories must be executable for chdir(2)
 - watch write permissions on directories!
 - default permissions (umask)
- other operations may be controlled
 - append, delete, list, rename, copy, edit, etc.
 - on many systems these operations are implemented via read, write, execute, and control is exercised at the lower level only

Access Control II

- accell control lists
 - list allowed operations on a per-user basis
 - allows very fine-grained control
 - e.g., all members of group students except for users john and jane can read this file
 - difficult to use, maintain
 - directory entry is now of variable size more complicated space management
- other approaches
 - password protection for files or trees, possibly different passwords for different operations

Consistency Semantics

- what happens when users access a file simultaneously?
 - especially if multiple users modify the same file
- session: the series of file accesses between open and close
- UNIX semantics
 - writes to an open file are visible immediately to all the other users who have the file open
 - all users share the pointer to the current location in a file
 - ${\scriptstyle {\scriptstyle \bullet}}~$ single file image \rightarrow contention \rightarrow processes may be delayed

Consistency Semantics II

- session semantics (Andrew Filesystem)
 - writes to an open file are not visible to other users who have the file open
 - once a file is closed the changes made during the session are visible only in sessions starting later; already open sessions do not see the changes
 - multiple images \rightarrow no contention \rightarrow no delays
- immutable shared files
 - once a file is declared shared by its creator it cannot be modified
 - neither contents nor name may be changed
 - simple implementation

Mapping And Mounting

- Windows: mapping a drive
 - files on different devices have different namespaces
 - the full path name always contains the physical device where the file is stored
- UNIX: mounting
 - single directory tree, single namespace
 - a filesystem must be mounted before it can be accessed (like a file must be opened)
 - attach the root of the filesystem on a given device to a particular node of the mail filesystem tree
 - verify that there is a valid filesystem on the device

Filesystem Internal Organization I

- device drivers and interrupt handlers do basic block I/O
- the basic file system issues the appropriate I/O commands to the device driver
- the file organization module maps the file's logical blocks to the physical blocks on the disk
 - knows the location of the file
 - knows how the disk space was allocated
 - manages free space
- logical filesystem
 - works with the directory structure given a symbolic file name
 - handles access control, etc.

Filesystem Internal Organization II

- the layered structure allows
 - using more than one filesystem on a single machine
 - replace the physical filesystem with a layer calling a remote system
 - NFS on UNIX, Linux
 - CIFS (samba) on Windows, Linux
 - AFS, GPFS, etc.
 - implement "virtual" filesystems such as /proc, shared memory segments, etc.
- Linux VFS layer
 - presents a common interface to the upper software layers, specific filesystems override default file operations (like base and derived classes in OOP)

Metadata

- "data about data"
 - data location on disk
 - creation date/time
 - last modification date/time
 - last access date/time
 - ownership information
 - access control information
- the above info is often held in a specialized data structure (UNIX: inode) which is a part of direct
- the file name, the parent directory, etc. are included in the directory entry directly

Data Layout

- designed with two criteria in mind
 - availability
 - performance
- availability in presence of failures
 - minimal: power failure should not result in data loss
 - stronger: how much time is needed to "restart" a filesystem
 - metadata are stored differently from data, for availability
- performance through clever space allocation and caching

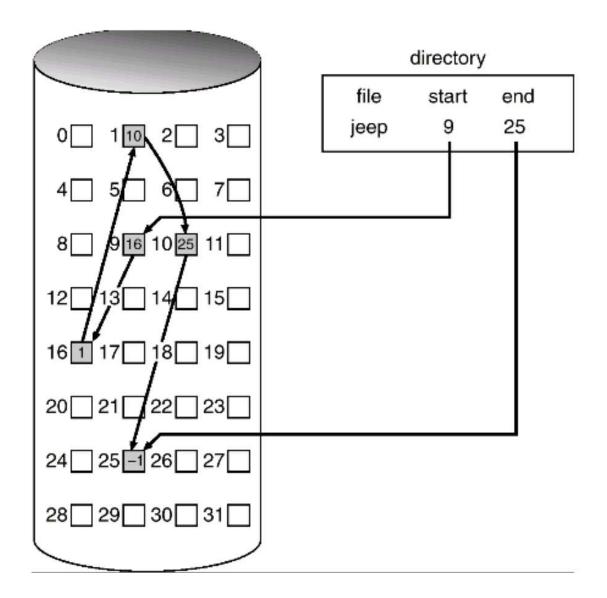
Space Allocation I

- contiguous allocation
 - each file occupies a contiguous set of blocks on disk
 - linear ordering \rightarrow no head movement for seeks when access is sequential \rightarrow good performance
 - algorithms similar to memory allocation (same problem)
 - external fragmentation is a problem
 - how much space will be needed for a file?
 - can relocate files dynamically into a larger hole
 - internal fragmentation
 - modification: allocation in extents

Space Allocation II

- linked allocation
 - each file is a linked list of blocks
 - a bit of overhead the address of the next block
 - reduce overhead by clustering blocks, at the cost of internal fragmentation
 - directory entry has a pointer to the first block initially nil (empty file)
 - free space management finds new blocks to add
 - efficient only for sequential access (random access to a linked list is lousy)
 - pointers can be damaged by bugs
 - Joubly-linked lists may help, but overhead is larger

Linked Allocation



Space Allocation III

- FAT: File Allocation Table
 - a variant of linked allocation (DOS, OS/2)
 - a table at the beginning of a partition
 - table indexed by block number, the value is the next block in the file
 - unused blocks have 0 value
 - a lot of disk seeks, unless the table is cached
 - better random access time

Space Allocation IV

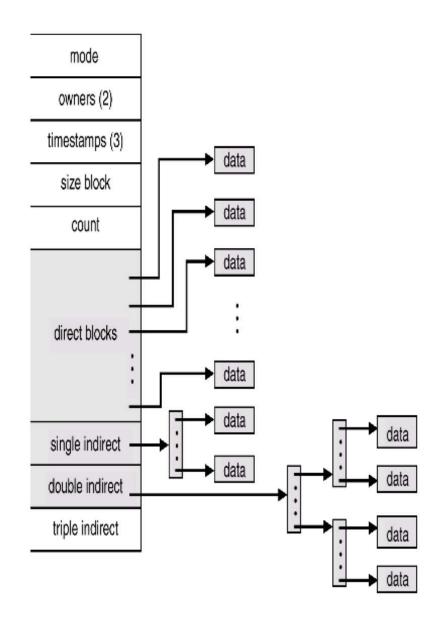
- indexed allocation
 - like linked allocation, but bring all pointers together into the index block
 - each file has an index block an array of disk block addresses
 - the *i*-th element contains the address of the *i*-th block
 - similar to paging
 - random access without external fragmentation
 - overhead is larger than for linked allocation
 - consider a small file how much space is needed for the block pointers?
 - the table may be multi-level

Inodes I

combined single level and multi-level indexing

- inode structure
- contains some metadata
- contains n (e.g., 12) direct block pointers
- pointers to single, double, and triple indirect blocks
- ${\scriptstyle \bullet}$ small files (up to $48\,{\rm K}$ for $4\,{\rm K}$ blocks) can be accessed directly, no need for a separate index block
- larger files will use the index tables
- can be cached in memory
- data blocks scattered over the disk
- Ioss of a directory entry can be disastrous cache inodes for reads, but write inode to disk before the newly allocated data blocks

Inodes II



Performance Considerations

space vs. speed

- speed favors allocation in large chunks
- space favors allocation in small chunks
- know thy workload!
- new types of data (e.g., video) shift the balance
- type of access (sequential or random) may be declared when the file is created
 - use linked allocation for sequential access
 - use contiguous allocation for direct (or sequential) access
 - maximal size must be declared
 - can convert from one type to another
- combine contiguous (for small files) and indexed allocation

Free Space Management

- bitmap
 - bit per block: 1 if free, 0 if allocated
 - many architectures have instructions to find the first
 0 or 1 in a bit sequence
 - must be kept in memory (and occasionally written to disk for recovery purposes)
 - need $20 \mathrm{M}$ for $80 \mathrm{G}$ disk
- Iinked list
 - normally sequential access is sufficient
 - FAT incorporates it as is
- grouping list free blocks in the 1st free block
- counting keep the number of consecutive free blocks following the current one