CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 18

File Systems, Naming, and Directories

November 1, 2006

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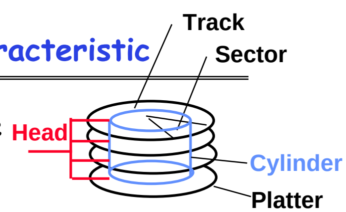
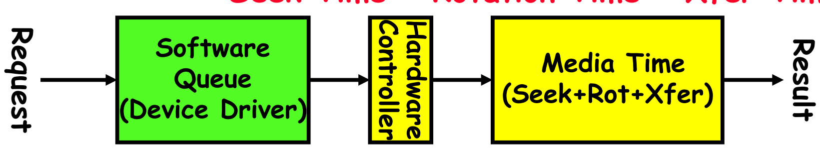
Review: Device Drivers

- Device Driver: Device-specific code in the kernel that interacts directly with the device hardware
  - Supports a standard, internal interface
  - Same kernel I/O system can interact easily with different device drivers
  - Special device-specific configuration supported with the `ioctl()` system call
- Device Drivers typically divided into two pieces:
  - Top half: accessed in call path from system calls
    - » implements a set of standard, cross-device calls like `open()`, `close()`, `read()`, `write()`, `ioctl()`, `strategy()`
    - » This is the kernel's interface to the device driver
    - » Top half will *start* I/O to device, may put thread to sleep until finished
  - Bottom half: run as interrupt routine
    - » Gets input or transfers next block of output
    - » May wake sleeping threads if I/O now complete

Review: Magnetic Disk Characteristic



- Cylinder: all the tracks under the head at a given point on all surface
- Read/write data is a three-stage process:
  - Seek time: position the head/arm over the proper track (into proper cylinder)
  - Rotational latency: wait for the desired sector to rotate under the read/write head
  - Transfer time: transfer a block of bits (sector) under the read-write head
- Disk Latency = Queueing Time + Controller time + Seek Time + Rotation Time + Xfer Time



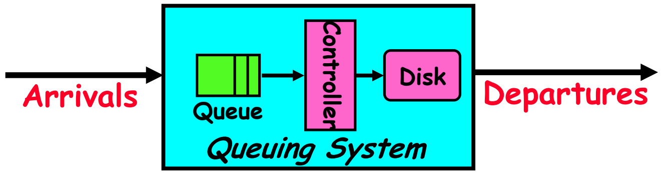
- Highest Bandwidth:
  - transfer large group of blocks sequentially from one track

Goals for Today

- Queuing Theory
- File Systems
  - Structure, Naming, Directories

Note: Some slides and/or pictures in the following are adapted from slides ©2005 Silberschatz, Galvin, and Gagne. Many slides generated from my lecture notes by Kubiatowicz.

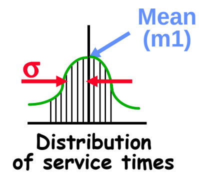
Introduction to Queuing Theory



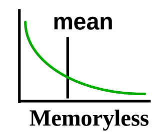
- What about queuing time??
  - Let's apply some queuing theory
  - Queuing Theory applies to long term, steady state behavior ⇒ Arrival rate = Departure rate
- Little's Law:
  Mean # tasks in system = arrival rate x mean response time
  - Observed by many, Little was first to prove
  - Simple interpretation: you should see the same number of tasks in queue when entering as when leaving.
- Applies to any system in equilibrium, as long as nothing in black box is creating or destroying tasks
  - Typical queuing theory doesn't deal with transient behavior, only steady-state behavior

Background: Use of random distributions

- Server spends variable time with customers
  - Mean (Average) m1 = $\Sigma p(T) \times T$
  - Variance $\sigma^2 = \Sigma p(T) \times (T-m1)^2 = \Sigma p(T) \times T^2 - m1$
  - Squared coefficient of variance: $C = \sigma^2/m1^2$
    Aggregate description of the distribution.

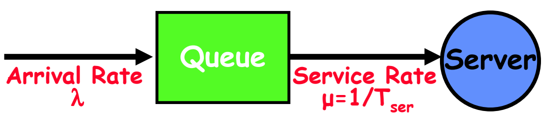


- Important values of C:
  - No variance or deterministic ⇒ C=0
  - "memoryless" or exponential ⇒ C=1
    » Past tells nothing about future
    » Many complex systems (or aggregates) well described as memoryless
  - Disk response times $C \approx 1.5$ (majority seeks < avg)



A Little Queuing Theory: Some Results

- Assumptions:
  - System in equilibrium; No limit to the queue
  - Time between successive arrivals is random and memoryless



- Parameters that describe our system:
  - λ: mean number of arriving customers/second
  - T_{ser}: mean time to service a customer ("m1")
  - C: squared coefficient of variance = $\sigma^2/m1^2$
  - μ: service rate = $1/T_{ser}$
  - u: server utilization ($0 \le u \le 1$): $u = \lambda/\mu = \lambda \times T_{ser}$
- Parameters we wish to compute:
  - T_q: Time spent in queue
  - L_q: Length of queue = $\lambda \times T_q$ (by Little's law)
- Results:
  - Memoryless service distribution (C = 1):
    » Called M/M/1 queue: $T_q = T_{ser} \times u/(1 - u)$
  - General service distribution (no restrictions), 1 server:
    » Called M/G/1 queue: $T_q = T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2}(1+C) \times u/(1 - u))$

A Little Queuing Theory: An Example

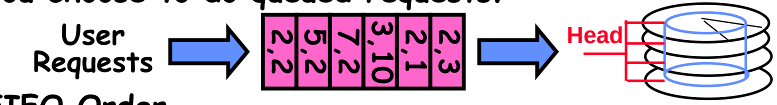
- Example Usage Statistics:
  - User requests 10 x 8KB disk I/Os per second
  - Requests & service exponentially distributed (C=1.0)
  - Avg. service = 20 ms (From controller+seek+rot+trans)
- Questions:
  - How utilized is the disk?
    » Ans: server utilization, $u = \lambda T_{ser}$
  - What is the average time spent in the queue?
    » Ans: T_q
  - What is the number of requests in the queue?
    » Ans: L_q
  - What is the avg response time for disk request?
    » Ans: $T_{sys} = T_q + T_{ser}$
- Computation:
  - λ (avg # arriving customers/s) = 10/s
  - T_{ser} (avg time to service customer) = 20 ms (0.02s)
  - u (server utilization) = $\lambda \times T_{ser}$ = 10/s x .02s = 0.2
  - T_q (avg time/customer in queue) = $T_{ser} \times u/(1 - u)$
    = 20 x 0.2/(1-0.2) = 20 x 0.25 = 5 ms (0 .005s)
  - L_q (avg length of queue) = $\lambda \times T_q$=10/s x .005s = 0.05
  - T_{sys} (avg time/customer in system) =$T_q + T_{ser}$= 25 ms

Administrivia

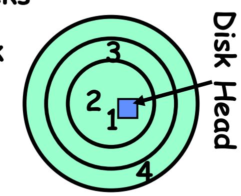
- Course Feedback Tomorrow in Section
  - Make sure to go to section!
- Group Evaluations *not* Optional
  - You will get a zero for project if you don't fill them out!
  - We use these for grading
- Feel free to ask questions in lectures and sections
- Visit my office hours
  - M/W 2-3
- Plan Ahead: this month will be difficult!!
  - Project deadlines every week

Disk Scheduling

- Disk can do only one request at a time; What order do you choose to do queued requests?



- FIFO Order
  - Fair among requesters, but order of arrival may be to random spots on the disk ⇒ Very long seeks
- SSTF: Shortest seek time first
  - Pick the request that's closest on the disk
  - Although called SSTF, today must include rotational delay in calculation, since rotation can be as long as seek
  - Con: SSTF good at reducing seeks, but may lead to starvation

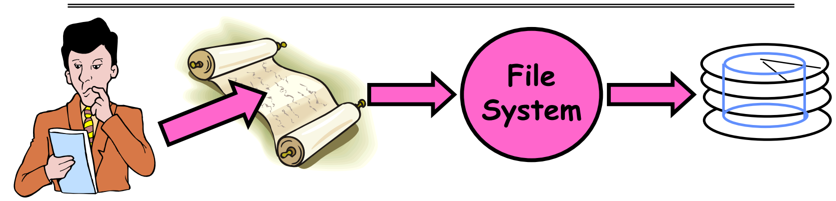


- SCAN: Implements an Elevator Algorithm: take the closest request in the direction of travel
  - No starvation, but retains flavor of SSTF
- S-SCAN: Circular-Scan: only goes in one direction
  - Skips any requests on the way back
  - Fairer than SCAN, not biased towards pages in middle

Building a File System

- File System: Layer of OS that transforms block interface of disks (or other block devices) into Files, Directories, etc.
- File System Components
  - Disk Management: collecting disk blocks into files
  - Naming: Interface to find files by name, not by blocks
  - Protection: Layers to keep data secure
  - Reliability/Durability: Keeping of files durable despite crashes, media failures, attacks, etc
- User vs. System View of a File
  - User's view:
    - » Durable Data Structures
  - System's view (system call interface):
    - » Collection of Bytes (UNIX)
    - » Doesn't matter to system what kind of data structures you want to store on disk!
  - System's view (inside OS):
    - » Collection of blocks (a block is a logical transfer unit, while a sector is the physical transfer unit)
    - » Block size ≥ sector size; in UNIX, block size is 4KB

Translating from User to System View



- What happens if user says: give me bytes 2—12?
  - Fetch block corresponding to those bytes
  - Return just the correct portion of the block
- What about: write bytes 2—12?
  - Fetch block
  - Modify portion
  - Write out Block
- Everything inside File System is in whole size blocks
  - For example, `getc()`, `putc()` ⇒ buffers something like 4096 bytes, even if interface is one byte at a time
- From now on, file is a collection of blocks

Disk Management Policies

- Basic entities on a disk:
  - File: user-visible group of blocks arranged sequentially in logical space
  - Directory: user-visible index mapping names to files (next lecture)
- Access disk as linear array of sectors. Two Options:
  - Identify sectors as vectors [cylinder, surface, sector]. Sort in cylinder-major order. Not used much anymore.
  - Logical Block Addressing (LBA). Every sector has integer address from zero up to max number of sectors.
  - Controller translates from address ⇒ physical position
    - » First case: OS/BIOS must deal with bad sectors
    - » Second case: hardware shields OS from structure of disk
- Need way to track free disk blocks
  - Link free blocks together ⇒ too slow today
  - Use bitmap to represent free space on disk
- Need way to structure files: File Header
  - Track which blocks belong at which offsets within the logical file structure
  - Optimize placement of files' disk blocks to match access and usage patterns

Designing the File System: Access Patterns

- How do users access files?
  - Need to know type of access patterns user is likely to throw at system
- Sequential Access: bytes read in order ("give me the next X bytes, then give me next, etc")
  - Almost all file access are of this flavor
- Random Access: read/write element out of middle of array ("give me bytes i—j")
  - Less frequent, but still important. For example, virtual memory backing file: page of memory stored in file
  - Want this to be fast – don't want to have to read all bytes to get to the middle of the file
- Content-based Access: ("find me 100 bytes starting with KUBI")
  - Example: employee records – once you find the bytes, increase my salary by a factor of 2
  - Many systems don't provide this; instead, databases are built on top of disk access to index content (requires efficient random access)

Designing the File System: Usage Patterns

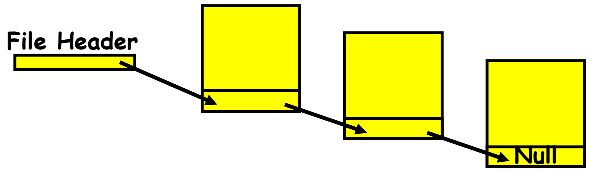
- Most files are small (for example, .login, .c files)
  - A few files are big – nachos, core files, etc.; the nachos executable is as big as all of your .class files combined
  - However, most files are small – .class's, .o's, .c's, etc.
- Large files use up most of the disk space and bandwidth to/from disk
  - May seem contradictory, but a few enormous files are equivalent to an immense # of small files
- Although we will use these observations, beware usage patterns:
  - Good idea to look at usage patterns: beat competitors by optimizing for frequent patterns
  - Except: changes in performance or cost can alter usage patterns. Maybe UNIX has lots of small files because big files are really inefficient?
- Digression, danger of predicting future:
  - In 1950's, marketing study by IBM said total worldwide need for computers was 7!
  - Company (that you haven't heard of) called "GenRad" invented oscilloscope; thought there was no market, so sold patent to Tektronix (bet you have heard of them!)

How to organize files on disk

- Goals:
  - Maximize sequential performance
  - Easy random access to file
  - Easy management of file (growth, truncation, etc)
- First Technique: Continuous Allocation
  - Use continuous range of blocks in logical block space
    - » Analogous to base+bounds in virtual memory
    - » User says in advance how big file will be (disadvantage)
  - Search bit-map for space using best fit/first fit
    - » What if not enough contiguous space for new file?
  - File Header Contains:
    - » First block/LBA in file
    - » File size (# of blocks)
  - Pros: Fast Sequential Access, Easy Random access
  - Cons: External Fragmentation/Hard to grow files
    - » Free holes get smaller and smaller
    - » Could compact space, but that would be *really* expensive
- Continuous Allocation used by IBM 360
  - Result of allocation and management cost: People would create a big file, put their file in the middle

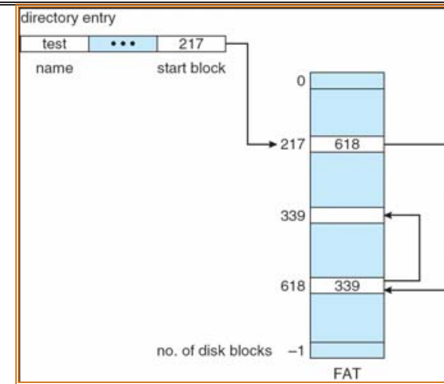
Linked List Allocation

- Second Technique: Linked List Approach
  - Each block, pointer to next on disk



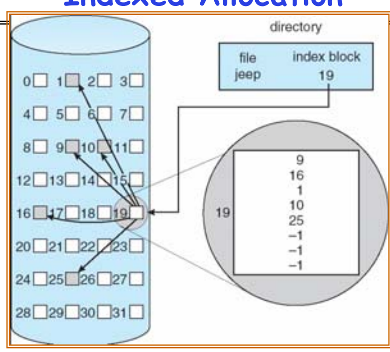
  - Pros: Can grow files dynamically, Free list same as file
  - Cons: Bad Sequential Access (seek between each block), Unreliable (lose block, lose rest of file)
  - Serious Con: Bad random access!!!!
  - Technique originally from Alto (First PC, built at Xerox)
    - » No attempt to allocate contiguous blocks

Linked Allocation: File-Allocation Table (FAT)



- MSDOS links pages together to create a file
  - Links not in pages, but in the File Allocation Table (FAT)
    - » FAT contains an entry for each block on the disk
    - » FAT Entries corresponding to blocks of file linked together
  - Access properties:
    - » Sequential access expensive unless FAT cached in memory
    - » Random access expensive always, but *really* expensive if FAT not cached in memory

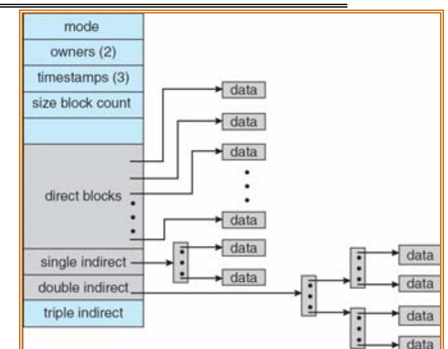
Indexed Allocation



- Third Technique: Indexed Files (Nachos, VMS)
  - System Allocates file header block to hold array of pointers big enough to point to all blocks
    - » User pre-declares max file size;
  - Pros: Can easily grow up to space allocated for index
    Random access is fast
  - Cons: Clumsy to grow file bigger than table size
    Still lots of seeks: blocks may be spread over disk

Multilevel Indexed Files (UNIX 4.1)

- Multilevel Indexed Files: Like multilevel address translation (from UNIX 4.1 BSD)
  - Key idea: efficient for small files, but still allow big files

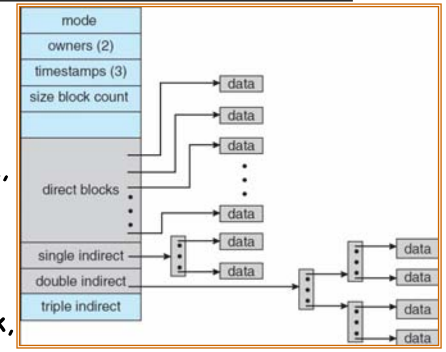


- File hdr contains 13 pointers
  - Fixed size table, pointers not all equivalent
  - This header is called an "inode" in UNIX
- File Header format:
  - First 10 pointers are to data blocks
  - Ptr 11 points to "indirect block" containing 256 block ptrs
  - Pointer 12 points to "doubly indirect block" containing 256 indirect block ptrs for total of 64K blocks
  - Pointer 13 points to a triply indirect block (16M blocks)

Multilevel Indexed Files (UNIX 4.1): Discussion

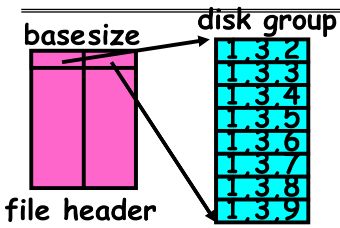
- Basic technique places an upper limit on file size that is approximately 16Gbytes
  - Designers thought this was bigger than anything anyone would need. Much bigger than a disk at the time…
  - Fallacy: today, EOS producing 2TB of data per day
- Pointers get filled in dynamically: need to allocate indirect block only when file grows > 10 blocks
  - On small files, no indirection needed

Example of Multilevel Indexed Files



- Sample file in multilevel indexed format:
  - How many accesses for block #23? (assume file header accessed on open)?
    - » Two: One for indirect block, one for data
  - How about block #5?
    - » One: One for data
  - Block #340?
    - » Three: double indirect block, indirect block, and data
- UNIX 4.1 Pros and cons
  - Pros: Simple (more or less)
    Files can easily expand (up to a point)
    Small files particularly cheap and easy
  - Cons: Lots of seeks
    Very large files must read many indirect block (four I/Os per block!)

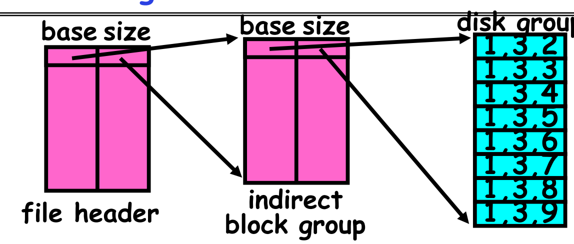
File Allocation for Cray-1 DEMOS



Basic Segmentation Structure:
Each segment contiguous on disk

- DEMOS: File system structure similar to segmentation
  - Idea: reduce disk seeks by
    - » using contiguous allocation in normal case
    - » but allow flexibility to have non-contiguous allocation
  - Cray-1 had 12ns cycle time, so CPU:disk speed ratio about the same as today (a few million instructions per seek)
- Header: table of base & size (10 "block group" pointers)
  - Each block chunk is a contiguous group of disk blocks
  - Sequential reads within a block chunk can proceed at high speed – similar to continuous allocation
- How do you find an available block group?
  - Use freelist bitmap to find block of 0's.

Large File Version of DEMOS



- What if need much bigger files?
  - If need more than 10 groups, set flag in header: BIGFILE
    - » Each table entry now points to an indirect block group
  - Suppose 1000 blocks in a block group ⇒ 80GB max file
    - » Assuming 8KB blocks, 8byte entries⇒
      (10 ptrs×1024 groups/ptr×1000 blocks/group)*8K =80GB
- Discussion of DEMOS scheme
  - Pros: Fast sequential access, Free areas merge simply
    Easy to find free block groups (when disk not full)
  - Cons: Disk full ⇒ No long runs of blocks (fragmentation), so high overhead allocation/access
  - Full disk ⇒ worst of 4.1BSD (lots of seeks) with worst of continuous allocation (lots of recompaction needed)

How to keep DEMOS performing well?

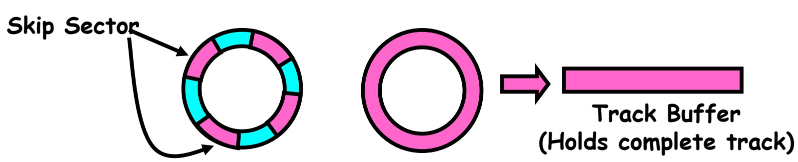
- In many systems, disks are always full
  - CS department growth: 300 GB to 1TB in a year
    - » That's 2GB/day! (Now at 3—4 TB!)
  - How to fix? Announce that disk space is getting low, so please delete files?
    - » Don't really work: people try to store their data faster
  - Sidebar: Perhaps we are getting out of this mode with new disks… However, let's assume disks full for now
- Solution:
  - Don't let disks get completely full: reserve portion
    - » Free count = # blocks free in bitmap
    - » Scheme: Don't allocate data if count < reserve
  - How much reserve do you need?
    - » In practice, 10% seems like enough
  - Tradeoff: pay for more disk, get contiguous allocation
    - » Since seeks so expensive for performance, this is a very good tradeoff

UNIX BSD 4.2

- Same as BSD 4.1 (same file header and triply indirect blocks), except incorporated ideas from DEMOS:
  - Uses bitmap allocation in place of freelist
  - Attempt to allocate files contiguously
  - 10% reserved disk space
  - Skip-sector positioning (mentioned next slide)
- Problem: When create a file, don't know how big it will become (in UNIX, most writes are by appending)
  - How much contiguous space do you allocate for a file?
  - In Demos, power of 2 growth: once it grows past 1MB, allocate 2MB, etc
  - In BSD 4.2, just find some range of free blocks
    - » Put each new file at the front of different range
    - » To expand a file, you first try successive blocks in bitmap, then choose new range of blocks
  - Also in BSD 4.2: store files from same directory near each other

Attack of the Rotational Delay

- Problem 2: Missing blocks due to rotational delay
  - Issue: Read one block, do processing, and read next block. In meantime, disk has continued turning: missed next block! Need 1 revolution/block!



  - Solution1: Skip sector positioning ("interleaving")
    - » Place the blocks from one file on every other block of a track: give time for processing to overlap rotation
  - Solution2: Read ahead: read next block right after first, even if application hasn't asked for it yet.
    - » This can be done either by OS (read ahead)
    - » By disk itself (track buffers). Many disk controllers have internal RAM that allows them to read a complete track
- Important Aside: Modern disks+controllers do many complex things "under the covers"
  - Track buffers, elevator algorithms, bad block filtering

How do we actually access files?

- All information about a file contained in its file header
  - UNIX calls this an "inode"
    - » Inodes are global resources identified by index ("inumber")
  - Once you load the header structure, all the other blocks of the file are locatable
- Question: how does the user ask for a particular file?
  - One option: user specifies an inode by a number (index).
    - » Imagine: open("14553344")
  - Better option: specify by textual name
    - » Have to map name→inumber
  - Another option: Icon
    - » This is how Apple made its money. Graphical user interfaces. Point to a file and click.
- Naming: The process by which a system translates from user-visible names to system resources
  - In the case of files, need to translate from strings (textual names) or icons to inumbers/inodes
  - For global file systems, data may be spread over globe⇒need to translate from strings or icons to some combination of physical server location and inumber

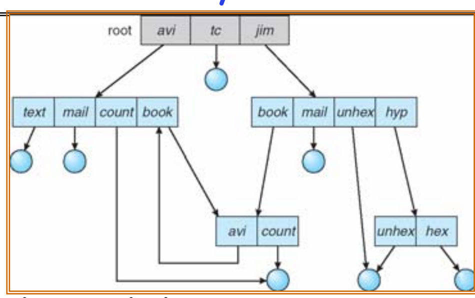
Directories

- **Directory**: a relation used for naming
  - Just a table of (file name, inumber) pairs
- How are directories constructed?
  - Directories often stored in files
    - » Reuse of existing mechanism
    - » Directory named by inode/inumber like other files
  - Needs to be quickly searchable
    - » Options: Simple list or Hashtable
    - » Can be cached into memory in easier form to search
- How are directories modified?
  - Originally, direct read/write of special file
  - System calls for manipulation: `mkdir`, `rmdir`
  - Ties to file creation/destruction
    - » On creating a file by name, new inode grabbed and associated with new file in particular directory

Directory Organization

- Directories organized into a hierarchical structure
  - Seems standard, but in early 70's it wasn't
  - Permits much easier organization of data structures
- Entries in directory can be either files or directories
- Files named by ordered set (e.g., /programs/p/list)

Directory Structure



- Not really a hierarchy!
  - Many systems allow directory structure to be organized as an acyclic graph or even a (potentially) cyclic graph
  - Hard Links: different names for the same file
    - » Multiple directory entries point at the same file
  - Soft Links: "shortcut" pointers to other files
    - » Implemented by storing the logical name of actual file
- **Name Resolution:** The process of converting a logical name into a physical resource (like a file)
  - Traverse succession of directories until reach target file
  - Global file system: May be spread across the network

Directory Structure (Con't)

- How many disk accesses to resolve "/my/book/count"?
  - Read in file header for root (fixed spot on disk)
  - Read in first data bock for root
    - » Table of file name/index pairs. Search linearly – ok since directories typically very small
  - Read in file header for "my"
  - Read in first data block for "my"; search for "book"
  - Read in file header for "book"
  - Read in first data block for "book"; search for "count"
  - Read in file header for "count"
- **Current working directory:** Per-address-space pointer to a directory (inode) used for resolving file names
  - Allows user to specify relative filename instead of absolute path (say CWD="/my/book" can resolve "count")

Where are inodes stored?

- In early UNIX and DOS/Windows' FAT file system, headers stored in special array in outermost cylinders
  - Header not stored anywhere near the data blocks. To read a small file, seek to get header, see back to data.
  - Fixed size, set when disk is formatted. At formatting time, a fixed number of inodes were created (They were each given a unique number, called an "inumber")

Where are inodes stored?

- Later versions of UNIX moved the header information to be closer to the data blocks
  - Often, inode for file stored in same "cylinder group" as parent directory of the file (makes an ls of that directory run fast).
  - Pros:
    - » Reliability: whatever happens to the disk, you can find all of the files (even if directories might be disconnected)
    - » UNIX BSD 4.2 puts a portion of the file header array on each cylinder. For small directories, can fit all data, file headers, etc in same cylinder⇒no seeks!
    - » File headers much smaller than whole block (a few hundred bytes), so multiple headers fetched from disk at same time

Summary

- Queuing Latency:
  - M/M/1 and M/G/1 queues: simplest to analyze
  - As utilization approaches 100%, latency → ∞

$$T_q = T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2}(1+C) \times u/(1 - u))$$

- File System:
  - Transforms blocks into Files and Directories
  - Optimize for access and usage patterns
  - Maximize sequential access, allow efficient random access
- File (and directory) defined by header
  - Called "inode" with index called "inumber"
- Multilevel Indexed Scheme
  - Inode contains file info, direct pointers to blocks,
  - indirect blocks, doubly indirect, etc..
- DEMOS:
  - CRAY-1 scheme like segmentation
  - Emphsized contiguous allocation of blocks, but allowed to use non-contiguous allocation when necessary
- Naming: the process of turning user-visible names into