CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 18

File Systems, Naming, and Directories

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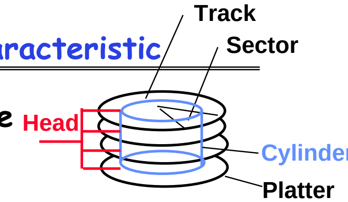
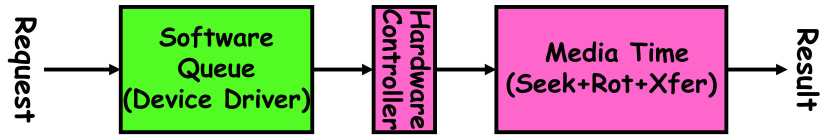
Review: Magnetic Disk Characteristic

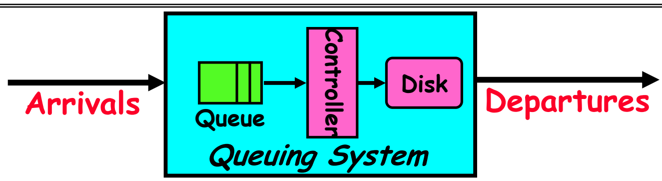


- Cylinder: all the tracks under the head at a given point on all surface
- Read/write data is a three-stage process:
  - Seek time: position the head/arm over the proper track (into proper cylinder)
  - Rotational latency: wait for the desired sector to rotate under the read/write head
  - Transfer 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

Review: Introduction to Queuing Theory



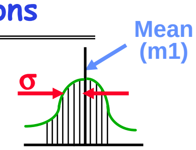
- What about queuing time??
  - Let's apply some queuing theory
  - Queuing Theory applies to long term, steady state behavior ⇒ Arrival rate = Departure rate
- Little's Law:
  Mean # tasks in system = arrival rate x mean response time
  - Observed by many, Little was first to prove
  - Simple interpretation: 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

Goals for Today

- Finishing Disk Performance
  - Hardware performance parameters
  - Queuing Theory
- File Systems
  - Structure, Naming, Directories

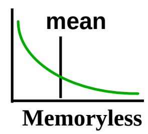
Note: Some slides and/or pictures in the following are adapted from slides ©2005 Silberschatz, Galvin, and Gagne

Background: Use of random distributions



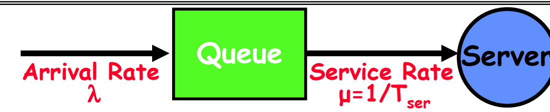
Distribution of service times

- 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 $\Rightarrow C=0$
  - "memoryless" or exponential $\Rightarrow C=1$
    - » Past tells nothing about future
    - » Many complex systems (or aggregates) well described as memoryless
  - Disk response times $C \approx 1.5$ (majority seeks < avg)



- Mean Residual Wait Time, m1(z):
  - Mean time must wait for server to complete current task
  - Can derive $m1(z) = \frac{1}{2}m1 \times (1 + C)$
    - » Not just $\frac{1}{2}m1$ because doesn't capture variance
  - $C = 0 \Rightarrow m1(z) = \frac{1}{2}m1$; $C = 1 \Rightarrow m1(z) = m1$

A Little Queuing Theory: Mean Wait Time



- 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)
- Basic Approach:
  - Customers before us must finish; mean time = $L_q \times T_{ser}$
  - *If something at server*, takes m1(z) to complete on avg
    - » m1(z): mean residual wait time at server= $T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2}(1+C)$
    - » *Chance something at server* = u ⇒ mean time is $u \times m1(z)$
- Computation of wait time in queue (T_q):
  - $T_q = L_q \times T_{ser} + u \times m1(z)$

A Little Queuing Theory: M/G/1 and M/M/1

- Computation of wait time in queue (T_q):

  $T_q = L_q \times T_{ser} + u \times m1(z)$ — Little's Law

  $T_q = \lambda \times T_q \times T_{ser} + u \times m1(z)$ — Defn of utilization (u)

  $T_q = u \times T_q + u \times m1(z)$

  $T_q \times (1 - u) = m1(z) \times u \Rightarrow T_q = m1(z) \times u/(1-u) \Rightarrow$

  $T_q = T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2}(1+C) \times u/(1 - u)$
- Notice that as $u \rightarrow 1$, $T_q \rightarrow \infty$!
- Assumptions so far:
  - System in equilibrium; No limit to the queue: works First-In-First-Out
  - Time between two successive arrivals in line are random and memoryless: (M for C=1 exponentially random)
  - Server can start on next customer immediately after prior finishes
- General service distribution (no restrictions), 1 server:
  - Called M/G/1 queue: $T_q = T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2}(1+C) \times u/(1 - u))$
- Memoryless service distribution ($C = 1$):
  - Called M/M/1 queue: $T_q = T_{ser} \times u/(1 - u)$

A Little Queuing Theory: An Example

- Example Usage Statistics:
  - User requests 10 × 8KB disk I/Os per second
  - Requests & service exponentially distributed (C=1.0)
  - Avg. service = 20 ms (controller+seek+rot+Xfertime)
- 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: $L_q = \lambda T_q$
  - What is the avg response time for disk request?
    - » Ans: $T_{sys} = T_q + T_{ser}$ (Wait in queue, then get served)
- 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 × .02s = 0.2

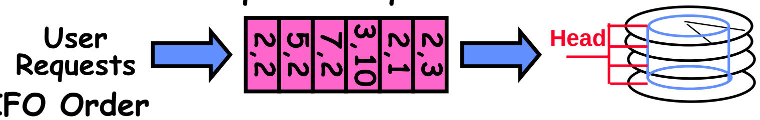
  T_q (avg time/customer in queue) = $T_{ser} \times u/(1 - u)$
  = 20 x 0.2/(1-0.2) = 20 × 0.25 = 5 ms (0 .005s)

  L_q (avg length of queue) = $\lambda \times T_q$=10/s × .005s = 0.05

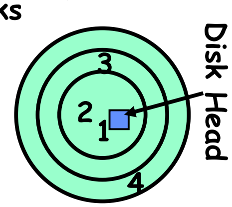
  T_{sys} (avg time/customer in system) =$T_q + T_{ser}$= 25 ms

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
- C-SCAN: Circular-Scan: only goes in one direction
  - Skips any requests on the way back
  - Fairer than SCAN, not biased towards pages in middle

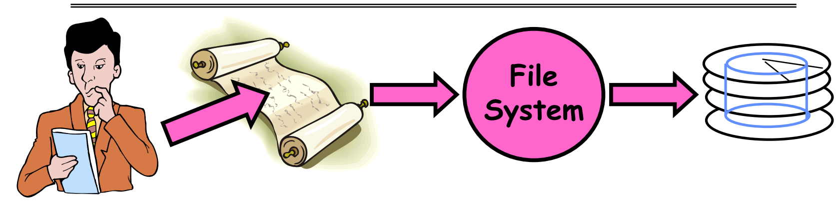
Administrivia

- My office hours
  - How many people would like me to have an office hour on Tuesday or Thursday?
- Better get started on Project 3
  - Design is due on Monday

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 blocks. Two Options:
  - Identify blocks as vectors [cylinder, surface, sector]. Sort in cylinder-major order. Not used much anymore.
  - Logical Block Addressing (LBA). Every block has integer address from zero up to max number of cylinders.
  - Controller translates from address ⇒ physical position
    - » First case: OS/BIOS must deal with bad blocks
    - » 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 KUBIATOWICZ")
  - 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

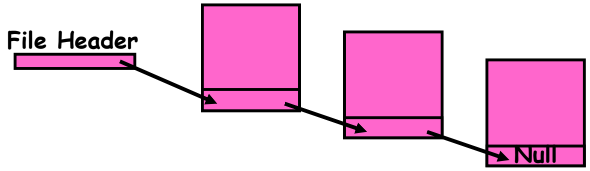
- Most files are small (for example, .login, .c files)
  - A few files are big – nachos, core files, etc.; the nachos executable is as big as all of your .class files combined
  - However, most files are small – .class's, .o's, .c's, etc.
- Large files use up most of the disk space and bandwidth to/from 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 sector/LBA in file
    - » File size (# of sectors)
  - 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

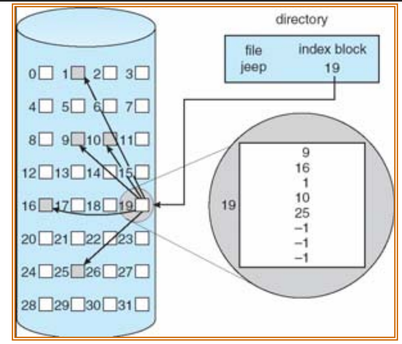
Linked List Allocation

- 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
- MSDOS used a similar linked approach
  - 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
  - Compare with Linked List Approach:
    - » Sequential access costs more unless FAT cached in memory
    - » Random access is better if FAT cached in memory

Indexed Allocation

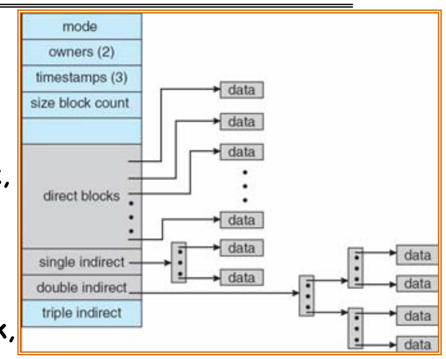


- Third Technique: Indexed Files (Nachos, VMS)
  - System Allocates file header block to hold array of pointers big enough to point to all blocks
    - » User pre-declares max file size;
  - Pros: Can easily grow up to space allocated for index
    Random access is fast
  - Cons: Clumsy to grow file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

Multilevel Indexed Files (UNIX 4.1)

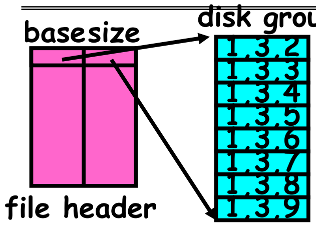
- Multilevel Indexed Files: Like multilevel address translation (from UNIX 4.1 BSD)
  - Key idea: efficient for small files, but still allow big files
  - File header contains 13 pointers
    - » Fixed size table, pointers not all equivalent
    - » This header is called an "inode" in UNIX
  - File Header format:
    - » First 10 pointers are to data blocks
    - » Block 11 points to "indirect block" containing 256 blocks
    - » Block 12 points to "doubly indirect block" containing 256 indirect blocks for total of 64K blocks
    - » Block 13 points to a triply indirect block (16M blocks)
- 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!)

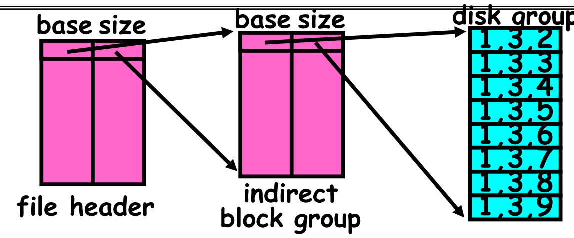
File Allocation for Cray-1 DEMOS



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?

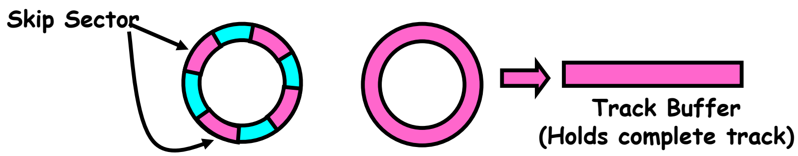
- In many systems, disks are always full
  - CS department growth: 300 GB to 1TB in a year
    - » That's 2GB/day! (Now at 3—4 TB!)
  - How to fix? Announce that disk space is getting low, so please delete files?
    - » Don't really work: people try to store their data faster
  - Sidebar: Perhaps we 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 4.2 (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: start 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!

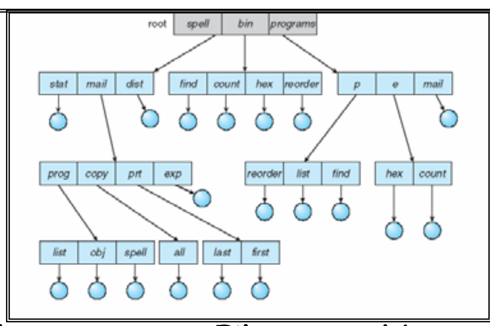


  - Solution1: Skip sector positioning ("interleaving:)
    - » Place the blocks from one file on every other block of a track: give time for processing to overlap rotation
  - Solution2: Read ahead: read next block right after first, even if application hasn't asked for it yet.
    - » This can be done 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



- Hierarchical name space: Files named by ordered set (e.g.: /programs/p/list)
- Directories: a special type of relation
  - Just a table of (file name, inumber) pairs
  - Question: how is the relation stored?
    - » Directories often stored just like files
    - » Can store inumber for directories or files in other directories
  - Question: how is the directory structured?
    - » Needs to be quickly searchable!

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*")
- 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 resources (such as files)