

CS162
Operating Systems and
Systems Programming
Lecture 18

Queueing Theory (Con't)
File Systems, Naming, and Directories

November 3rd, 2010
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<http://inst.eecs.berkeley.edu/~cs162>

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

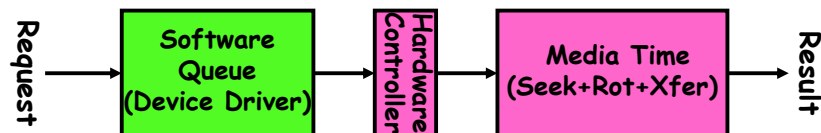
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Review: Disk Performance Model

- 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

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Goals for Today

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

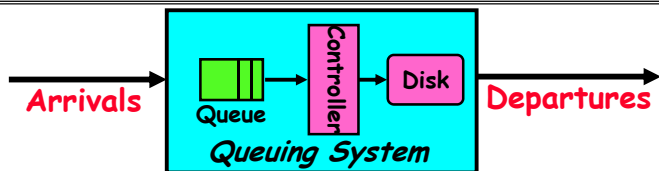
Note: Some slides and/or pictures in the following are adapted from slides ©2005 Silberschatz, Galvin, and Gagne. Many slides generated from my lecture notes by Kubiatowicz.

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Introduction to Queuing Theory



- What about queuing time??
 - Let's apply some queuing theory
 - Queuing Theory applies to long term, steady state behavior \Rightarrow Arrival rate = Departure rate
- Little's Law:
 - Mean # tasks in system = arrival rate \times 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**

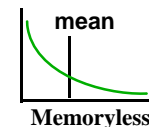
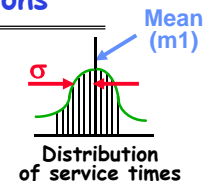
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Background: Use of random distributions

- Server spends variable time with customers
 - Mean (Average) $m1 = \sum p(T) \times T$
 - Variance $\sigma^2 = \sum p(T) \times (T - m1)^2 = \sum p(T) \times T^2 - m1^2$
 - Squared coefficient of variance: $C = \sigma^2 / m1^2$
- Important values of C:
 - No variance or deterministic $\Rightarrow C=0$
 - "memoryless" or exponential $\Rightarrow C=1$
 - \gg Past tells nothing about future
 - \gg 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 $m1(z) = \frac{1}{2} m1 \times (1 + C)$
 - \gg Not just $\frac{1}{2} m1$ because doesn't capture variance
 - $C = 0 \Rightarrow m1(z) = \frac{1}{2} m1$; $C = 1 \Rightarrow m1(z) = m1$

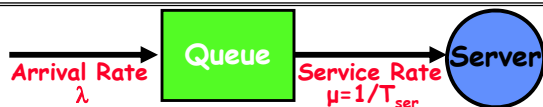


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A Little Queuing Theory: Mean Wait Time



- 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 ($0 \leq u \leq 1$): $u = \lambda / \mu = \lambda \times T_{ser}$
- 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 $\propto L_q \times T_{ser}$
 - If something at server, takes $m1(z)$ to complete on avg
 - $\gg m1(z)$: mean residual wait time at server = $T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2}(1+C)$
 - \gg Chance something at server = $u \Rightarrow$ mean time is $u \times m1(z)$
- Computation of wait time in queue (T_q):
 - $T_q = L_q \times T_{ser} + u \times m1(z)$

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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: $T_q = T_{ser} \times u / (1 - u)$

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A Little Queuing Theory: An Example

- **Example Usage Statistics:**
 - User requests $10 \times 8\text{KB}$ 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) = $\lambda \times T_{ser} = 10/s \times .02s = 0.2$
 - T_q (avg time/customer in queue) = $T_{ser} \times u / (1 - u)$
 $= 20 \times 0.2 / (1 - 0.2) = 20 \times 0.25 = 5 \text{ ms (0.005s)}$
 - L_q (avg length of queue) = $\lambda \times T_q = 10/s \times .005s = 0.05$
 - T_{sys} (avg time/customer in system) = $T_q + T_{ser} = 25 \text{ ms}$

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Queuing Theory Resources

- Handouts page contains Queuing Theory Resources:
 - Scanned pages from Patterson and Hennesey book that gives further discussion and simple proof for general eq.
 - A complete website full of resources
- Midterms with queuing theory questions:
 - Midterm IIs from previous years that I've taught
- Assume that Queuing theory is fair game for the final!

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Administrivia

- **Course feedback on Friday in Section**
 - Make sure to go to section!
- **Also on Friday: official vote on Midterm II**
 - No proxy votes. If you are not there, you cannot vote.
- **Group Evaluations not Optional**
 - You will get a zero for project if you don't fill them out!
 - We use these for grading
- **Regrade requests for Midterm I**
 - Must be in by beginning of next week
- **Check glookup to make sure that we have right grades**
 - Make sure that we don't have errors

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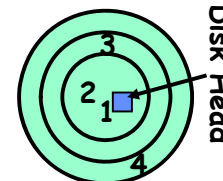
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Disk Scheduling

- 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 \Rightarrow 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



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Building a File System

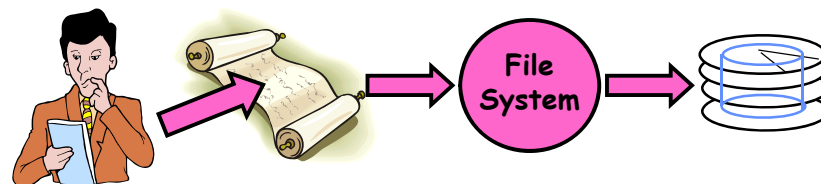
- **File System:** Layer of OS that transforms block interface of disks (or other block devices) into Files, Directories, etc.
- **File System Components**
 - **Disk Management:** collecting disk blocks into files
 - **Naming:** Interface to find files by name, not by blocks
 - **Protection:** Layers 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 \geq sector size; in UNIX, block size is 4KB

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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()` \Rightarrow buffers something like 4096 bytes, even if interface is one byte at a time
- **From now on, file is a collection of blocks**

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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 \Rightarrow 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 \Rightarrow 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**

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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)

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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!)

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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

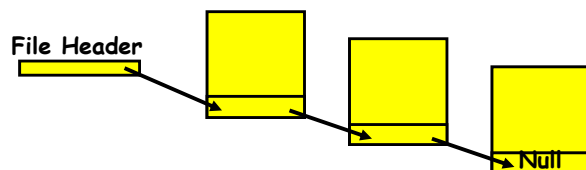
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Linked List Allocation

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



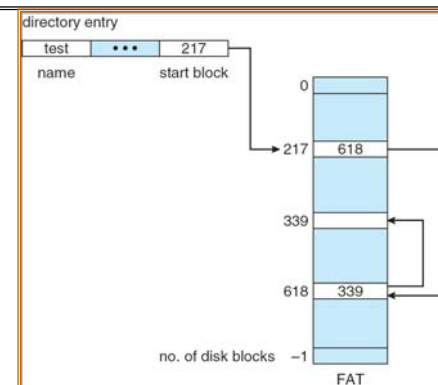
- Pros: Can grow files dynamically, Free list same as file
- Cons: Bad Sequential Access (seek between each block), Unreliable (lose block, lose rest of file)
- Serious Con: Bad random access!!!!
- Technique originally from Alto (First PC, built at Xerox)
 - » No attempt to allocate contiguous blocks

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Linked Allocation: File-Allocation Table (FAT)



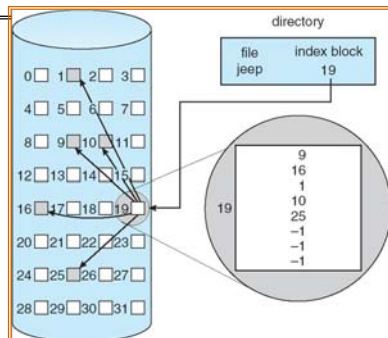
- MSDOS links pages together to create a file
 - Links not in pages, but in the File Allocation Table (FAT)
 - » FAT contains an entry for each block on the disk
 - » FAT Entries corresponding to blocks of file linked together
 - Access properties:
 - » Sequential access expensive unless FAT cached in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

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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

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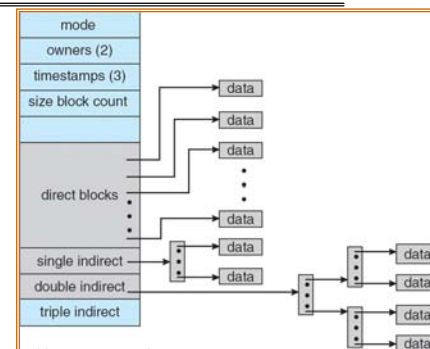
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Multilevel Indexed Files (UNIX 4.1)

- **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)

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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

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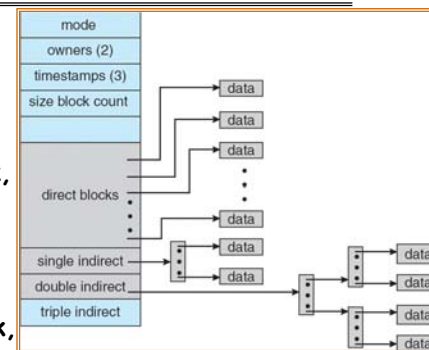
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Example of Multilevel Indexed Files

- **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



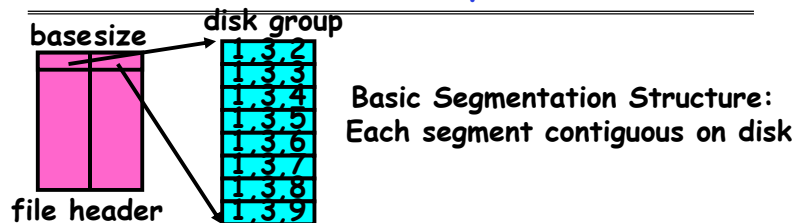
- UNIX 4.1 Pros and cons
 - Pros: Simple (more or less)
Files can easily expand (up to a point)
Small files particularly cheap and easy
 - Cons: Lots of seeks
Very large files must read many indirect blocks (four I/Os per block!)

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File Allocation for Cray-1 DEMOS



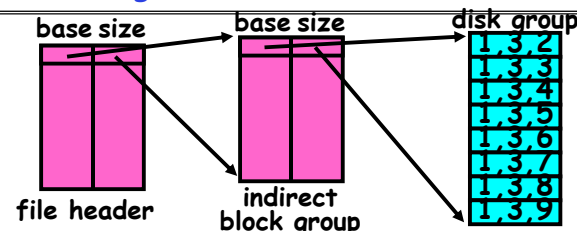
- DEMOS: File system structure similar to segmentation
 - Idea: reduce disk seeks by
 - » using contiguous allocation in normal case
 - » but allow flexibility to have non-contiguous allocation
 - Cray-1 had 12ns cycle time, so CPU:disk speed ratio about the same as today (a few million instructions 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.

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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 \Rightarrow 80GB max file
 - » Assuming 8KB blocks, 8byte entries \Rightarrow
 $(10 \text{ ptrs} \times 1024 \text{ groups/ptr} \times 1000 \text{ blocks/group}) \times 8K = 80GB$
- 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 \Rightarrow No long runs of blocks (fragmentation), so high overhead allocation/access
 - Full disk \Rightarrow worst of 4.1BSD (lots of seeks) with worst of continuous allocation (lots of recompaction needed)

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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

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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

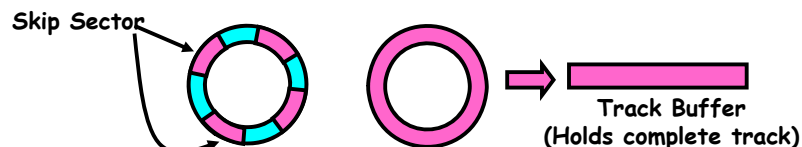
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Attack of the Rotational Delay

- **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**

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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 inumber/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

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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

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Directory Organization

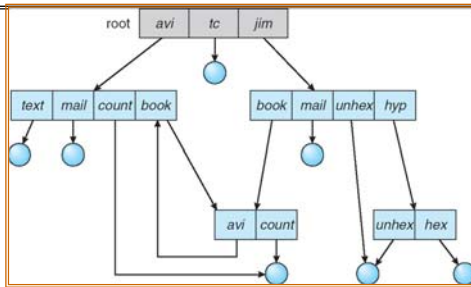
- **Directories organized into a hierarchical structure**
 - Seems standard, but in early 70's it wasn't
 - Permits much easier organization of data structures
- **Entries in directory can be either files or directories**
- **Files named by ordered set (e.g., /programs/p/list)**

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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

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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 block 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")

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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")

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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

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Summary

- **Queuing Latency:**
 - M/M/1 and M/G/1 queues: simplest to analyze
 - As utilization approaches 100%, latency $\rightarrow \infty$
$$T_q = T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2}(1+C) \times u/(1-u)$$
- **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
 - Emphasized 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)**