

#### **CIS 657 – Principles of Operating Systems**

Topic: Persistence – File and Directories

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### Acknowledgement

- Youjip Won (Hanyang University)
- OSTEP book by Remzi and Andrea Arpaci-Dusseau (University of Wisconsin)

### **Persistent Storage**

- Keep a data intact even if there is a power loss.
  - Hard disk drive
  - Solid-state storage device

- Two key abstractions in the virtualization of storage
  - File
  - Directory

#### **File**

A linear array of bytes

- Each file has low-level name as inode number
  - A user is not typically aware of this name.

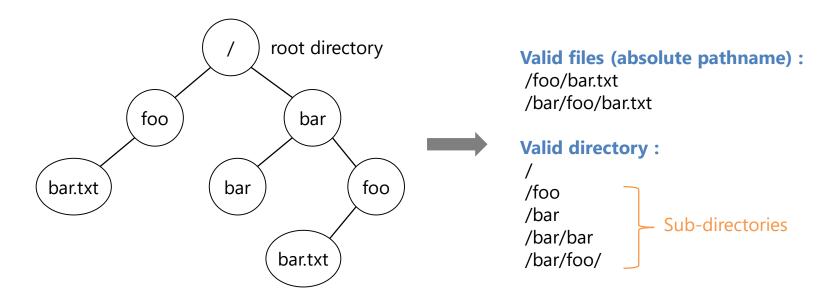
 Filesystem has a responsibility to store data persistently on disk.

#### **Directory**

- Directory is <u>like a file</u>, also has a low-level name.
  - It contains a list of (user-readable name, low-level name) pairs.
  - Each entry in a directory refers to either files or other directories.

- Example
  - A directory has an entry ("foo", "10")
    - A file "foo" with the low-level name "10"

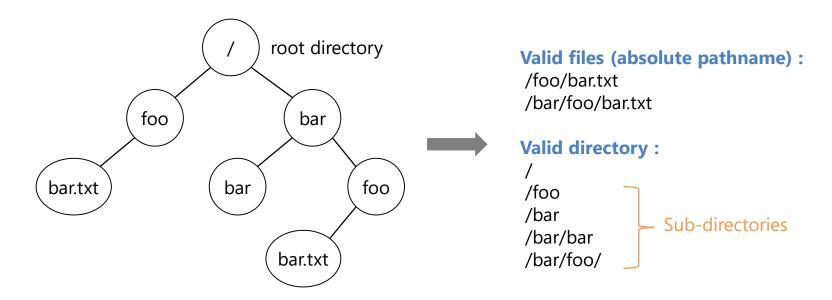
### **Directory Tree (Directory Hierarchy)**



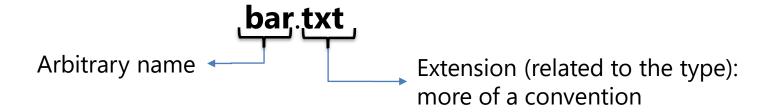
**An Example Directory Tree** 

Directories and files can have the same name as long as they are in different locations in the file-system tree

### **Directory Tree (Directory Hierarchy)**



**An Example Directory Tree** 



### **Creating Files**

• Use open () system call with O\_CREAT flag.

```
int fd = open("foo", O_CREAT | O_WRONLY | O_TRUNC);
```

- O CREAT : create file.
- O\_WRONLY: only write to that file while opened.
- O\_TRUNC: make the file size zero (remove any existing content), if the file already exists.
- open() system call returns file descriptor.

### **Creating Files**

• Use open () system call with O\_CREAT flag.

```
int fd = open("foo", O_CREAT | O_WRONLY | O_TRUNC);
```

- open() system call returns file descriptor.
  - File descriptor is an integer, and is used to access files.
  - Private per process
  - Think of it as an "opaque handle" or "a pointer" to manipulate files (e.g., read/write)

### **Creating Files**

```
struct proc {
    ...
    struct file *ofile [MAXFILE]; // Open files
    ...
};
```

- File descriptors are managed by OS on a perprocess basis
- Stored in proc structure (or PCB)
  - ofile array keeps track of which files are opened by this process
  - ofile[i] is a pointer to a struct file for fd i (more on this later)
    - ofile[0] is for stdin, ofile[1] is for stdout, ofile[2] is for stderr

An Example of reading and writing 'foo' file

```
prompt> echo hello > foo
prompt> cat foo
hello
prompt>
```

- echo: redirect the output of echo to the file foo
- cat: dump the contents of a file to the screen

How does the **cat** program access the file **foo**?

We can use **strace** to trace the **system calls**made by a program.

- open (file name, flags)
  - Return file descriptor (3 in example)
  - File descriptor 0, 1, 2, is for standard input/ output/ error.
- read (file descriptor, buffer pointer, the size of the buffer)
  - Return the number of bytes it read
- write (file descriptor, buffer pointer, the size of the buffer)
  - Return the number of bytes it write

- strace prints about system calls, not library calls
  - Program may not always <u>directly invoke</u> these system calls
  - E.g., write() can be invoked by printf()

- Writing a file (A similar set of read steps)
  - A file is opened for writing (open ()).
  - The write() system call is called.
    - Repeatedly called for larger files
  - close()

- An open file has a current offset.
  - Determine where the <u>next read</u> or <u>write</u> will begin reading from or writing to within the file.

- Update the current offset
  - Implicitly: After a read or write of N bytes takes place,
     N is added to the current offset.
  - Explicitly: lseek()

```
off_t lseek(int fildes, off_t offset, int whence);
```

- fildes:File descriptor
- offset: Position the file offset to a particular location within the file
- whence: Determine how the seek is performed

#### From the man page:

```
If whence is SEEK_SET, the offset is set to offset bytes. If whence is SEEK_CUR, the offset is set to its current location plus offset bytes.

If whence is SEEK_END, the offset is set to the size of the file plus offset bytes.
```

 Need to keep track of some essential information about the file (say, current offset)

All these file structures are stored in a system-wide Open File Table
 (OFT)

```
struct {
    ...
    struct file file[NFILE];
} oftable;
```

	Return	Current
System Calls	Code	Offset
<pre>fd = open("file", O_RDONLY);</pre>	3	0
read(fd, buffer, 100);	100	100
read(fd, buffer, 100);	100	200
read(fd, buffer, 100);	100	300
read(fd, buffer, 100);	0	300
close(fd);	0	_

- Each read() **increments** the offset
  - Making it easy of a process just keep reading the next chunk of the file
- At the end, read() **returns 0** indicating that it has reached the end of file

		OFT[10]	OFT[11]
	Return	Current	Current
System Calls	Code	Offset	Offset
<pre>fd1 = open("file", O_RDONLY);</pre>	3	0	_
<pre>fd2 = open("file", O_RDONLY);</pre>	4	0	0
read(fd1, buffer1, 100);	100	100	0
read(fd2, buffer2, 100);	100	100	100
close(fd1);	0	_	100
close(fd2);	0	_	_

- Two file descriptors are allocated (3 and 4) even if it is the same file
  - Each refers to a <u>different</u> entry in the **open file table** (say, 10 and 11)
- Each current offset is updated <u>independently</u>

	Return	Current
System Calls	Code	Offset
<pre>fd = open("file", O_RDONLY);</pre>	3	0
<pre>lseek(fd, 200, SEEK_SET);</pre>	200	200
read(fd, buffer, 50);	50	250
close(fd);	0	_

- **1seek**() sets the current offset to 200
- **read**() reads the next 50 bytes, and updates the current offset accordingly.

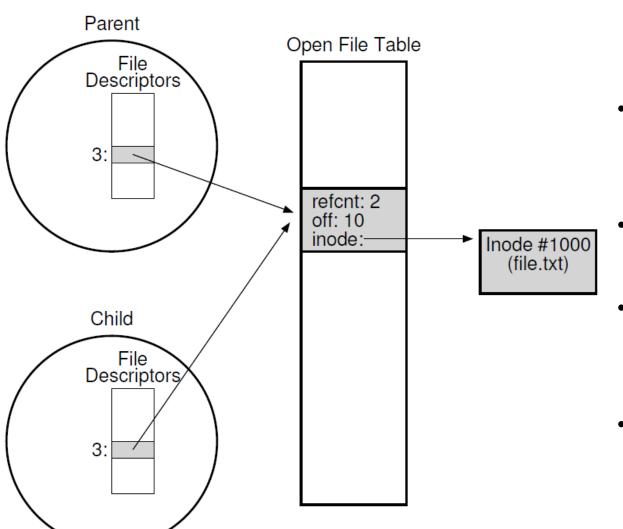
- The mapping of <u>file descriptor</u> to an <u>entry in the open</u> <u>file table</u> is a **one-to-one mapping**.
- Even if <u>some other process</u> reads the <u>same file</u> at the same time, each will have <u>its own entry</u> in the OFT
- Each <u>logical reading or writing</u> of a file is <u>independent</u>
  - Each has its own current offset while it accesses the given file.
- There are a few interesting cases where an OFT entry is shared.
  - E.g., in case of fork()

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
  int fd = open("file.txt", O_RDONLY);
  assert(fd >= 0);
 int rc = fork();
  if (rc == 0) {
    rc = lseek(fd, 10, SEEK SET);
   printf("child: offset %d\n", rc);
  } else if (rc > 0) {
    (void) wait(NULL);
   printf("parent: offset %d\n", (int) lseek(fd, 0, SEEK CUR));
  return 0;
```

**fork-seek.c**: The child adjusts the current offset via a call to **lseek**() and then exits. Finally the parent, after waiting for the child, <u>checks the current offset</u> and <u>prints</u>

```
prompt> ./fork-seek
child: offset 10
parent: offset 10
prompt>
```

why is this output?



- The child inherits

  ofile array from the

  parent
- ofile[3] of both processes points to the <u>same OFT entry</u>
- Both <u>update</u> the <u>same offset</u>
- When a OFT entry is shared, the reference count is incremented
- Only when both close the file (or exit), the OFT entry will be removed

### Writing Immediately with fsync()

- When a program calls write(), it is just telling the file system:
  - please write this data to persistent storage, <u>at some point in the future</u>
- The file system will buffer writes in memory for some time.
  - Ex) 5 seconds, or 30
  - Performance reasons
- At that later point in time, the write(s) will actually be issued to the storage device.
  - Writes seem to <u>complete quickly</u>.
  - However, in some rare cases data can be <u>lost</u> (e.g., the machine crashes).

### Writing Immediately with fsync()

- However, some applications require more than eventual guarantee.
  - Ex) DBMS requires force writes to disk from time to time.
- off\_t fsync(int fd)
  - Filesystem forces all dirty (i.e., not yet written) data to disk for the file referred to by the file description.
  - fsync() returns once all of theses writes are complete.

### Writing Immediately with fsync()

• An Example of fsync().

```
int fd = open("foo", O_CREAT | O_WRONLY | O_TRUNC);
assert (fd > -1)
int rc = write(fd, buffer, size);
assert (rc == size);
rc = fsync(fd);
assert (rc == 0);
```

 In some cases, this code needs to fsync() the directory that contains the file foo.

### **Renaming Files**

- rename (char\* old, char \*new)
  - Rename a file to different name.
  - It is implemented as an atomic call.
    - Ex) Change from foo to bar:

• Ex) How to update a file atomically (scenario: text editor):

```
int fint fd = open("foo.txt.tmp", O_WRONLY|O_CREAT|O_TRUNC);
write(fd, buffer, size); // write out new version of file
fsync(fd);
close(fd);
rename("foo.txt.tmp", "foo.txt");
```

### **Getting Information About Files**

- stat(), fstat(): Show the file metadata
  - Metadata is information about each file.
  - Ex) Size, Low-level name, Permission, ...
  - stat structure is below:

### **Getting Information About Files**

 To see stat information, you can use the command line tool stat.

 File system keeps this type of information in a inode structure (as a persistent data structure)

### **Removing Files**

- rm is Linux command to remove a file
  - rm calls unlink() to remove a file.

```
prompt> strace rm foo
...
unlink("foo") = 0 // return 0 upon success
...
prompt>
```

Why does it call unlink()? not "remove or delete"

We can get the answer later.

### **System Calls for Directories**

- There are system calls to make, read, and delete directories
- Note you can never write to a directory <u>directly</u>.
- Because the format of the directory is considered <u>file</u> <u>system metadata</u>, the file system considers itself responsible for the **integrity of directory data**;
- You can only update a directory indirectly
  - by, for example, creating files, directories, or other object types within it.
- In this way, the file system **makes sure** that directory contents are as expected.

### **Making Directories**

mkdir(): Make a directory

```
prompt> strace mkdir foo
...
mkdir("foo", 0777) = 0
prompt>
```

- When a directory is created, it is empty.
- Empty directory <u>have two entries</u>: . (itself), .. (parent)

```
prompt> ls -a
./ ../
prompt> ls -al
total 8
drwxr-x--- 2 remzi remzi 6 Apr 30 16:17 ./
drwxr-x--- 26 remzi remzi 4096 Apr 30 16:17 ../
```

### **Reading Directories**

A sample code to read directory entries (like ls).

- The information available within struct dirent

### **Deleting Directories**

- rmdir(): Delete a directory.
  - Require that the directory be empty.
    - I.e., Only has "." and ".." entries.
  - If you call rmdir() to a non-empty directory, it will fail.

#### **Hard Links**

- link(old pathname, new one)
  - Link a new file name to an old one
  - Create <u>another way</u> to refer to the same file
  - The command-line link program : ln

```
prompt> echo hello > file
prompt> cat file
hello
prompt> ln file file2 // create a hard link, link file to file2
prompt> cat file2
hello
```

- The way link works:
  - Create another name in the directory.
  - Refer it to the <u>same inode number</u> of the original file.
    - The *file is not copied* in any way.
  - Then, we now just have two human names (file and file2) that both refer to the same file.

• The result of link()

```
prompt> ls -i file file2
67158084 file # inode value is 67158084
67158084 file2 # inode value is 67158084
prompt>
```

- Two files have same inode number, but two human name (file, file2).
- There is no difference between file and file2.
  - Both just link to the underlying metadata about the file.

• Thus, to remove a file, we call unlink().

- link count (like ref count in struct file)
  - Track how many different file names have been linked to this inode.
  - When unlink() is called, the link count decrements.
  - If the link count reaches zero, the filesystem frees the inode and related data blocks, thus truly deletes the file

# Why does rm call unlink()?

- When we create a file, OS technically does two things
  - First, make a <u>inode</u> structure (holds all metadata say, size, disk blocks, and so on)
  - Second, <u>link</u> a <u>human-readable name</u> to that <u>file</u> (aka inode) and put that link into a directory

- The result of unlink()
  - stat() shows the reference count of a file.

```
prompt> stat file
... Inode: 67158084 Links: 1 ... /* Link count is 1 */
                              /* hard link file2 */
prompt> In file file2
prompt> stat file
... Inode: 67158084 Links: 2 ... /* Link count is 2 */
prompt> stat file2
... Inode: 67158084 Links: 2 ... /* Link count is 2 */
                               /* hard link file3 */
prompt> In file2 file3
prompt> stat file
... Inode: 67158084 Links: 3 ... /* Link count is 3 */
prompt> rm file
                               /* remove file */
prompt> stat file2
... Inode: 67158084 Links: 2 ... /* Link count is 2 */
prompt> rm file2
                               /* remove file2 */
prompt> stat file3
... Inode: 67158084 Links: 1 ... /* Link count is 1 */
prompt> rm file3
```

### Symbolic Links (soft link)

- Symbolic link is more useful than Hard link.
  - Hard Link cannot create to a directory.
  - Hard Link cannot create to a file to other partition.
    - Because inode numbers are only unique within a file system.

Create a symbolic link: ln -s

```
prompt> echo hello > file
prompt> ln -s file file2 # option -s : create a symbolic link
prompt> cat file2
hello
```

# **Symbolic Links**

- What is different between Symbolic link and Hard Link?
  - Symbolic links are a third type the file system knows about.

```
prompt> stat file
    ... regular file ...
prompt> stat file2
    ... symbolic link ... # Actually a file it self of a different type
```

The size of symbolic link (file2) is 4 bytes.

```
prompt> ls -al
  drwxr-x--- 2 remzi remzi 29 May 3 19:10 ./
  drwxr-x--- 27 remzi remzi 4096 May 3 15:14 ../  # directory
  -rw-r---- 1 remzi remzi 6 May 3 19:10 file  # regular file
  lrwxrwxrwx 1 remzi remzi 4 May 3 19:10 file2 -> file  # symbolic link
```

 A symbolic link holds the <u>pathname</u> of the linked-to file as the data of the link file.

### **Symbolic Links**

 If we link to a longer pathname, our link file would be bigger.

```
prompt> echo hello > alongerfilename
prompt> ln -s alongerfilename file3
prompt> ls -al alongerfilename file3
-rw-r---- 1 remzi remzi 6 May 3 19:17 alongerfilename
lrwxrwxrwx 1 remzi remzi 15 May 3 19:17 file3 -> alongerfilename
```

### **Symbolic Links**

### Dangling reference

 When remove a original file, symbolic link points noting.

```
prompt> echo hello > file
prompt> ln -s file file2
prompt> cat file2
hello
prompt> rm file  # remove the original file
prompt> cat file2
cat: file2: No such file or directory
```

# Making and Mounting a File System

- mkfs tool: Make a file system
  - Write an <u>empty file system</u>, starting with a root directory, on to a disk partition.
  - Input:
    - A device (such as a disk partition, e.g., /dev/sda2)
    - A file system type (e.g., ext3)

# **Making and Mounting a File System**

- mount()
  - Take an existing directory as a target mount point.
  - Make a new file system available in the directory tree at that point.

#### – Example)

```
prompt> mount -t ext3 /dev/sda2 /home/users
prompt> ls /home/users
a b
```

 The pathname /home/users/ now refers to the root of the newly-mounted directory.

# **Making and Mounting a File System**

mount program: show what is mounted on a system.

```
/dev/sda1 on / type ext3 (rw)
proc on /proc type proc (rw)
sysfs on /sys type sysfs (rw)
/dev/sda5 on /tmp type ext3 (rw)
/dev/sda7 on /var/vice/cache type ext3 (rw)
tmpfs on /dev/shm type tmpfs (rw)
AFS on /afs type afs (rw)
```

- ext3: A standard disk-based file system
- proc: A file system for accessing information about current processes
- tmpfs: A file system just for temporary files
- AFS: A distributed file system

### **Permission bits and Access Control**

Will be covered in the next lecture

### **Reading Material**

 Chapter 39 of OSTEP book – by Remzi and Andrea Arpaci-Dusseau (University of Wisconsin) <a href="http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~remzi/OSTEP/file-intro.pdf">http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~remzi/OSTEP/file-intro.pdf</a>

# **Questions?**