

File Systems 2

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Recap

- File system interface
 - file, directory, soft link, hard link
 - POSIX APIs
 - virtual file system (VFS)
 - four pillars: superblock, inode, dentry, file
- File system implementation
 - file allocation strategy

Five Questions To Ask Yourself After This Class

- What are the common on-disk file system data structures? What are their purposes?
- Can you describe steps a file system performs when you call `open()`, `read()` and `write()`
- How do file systems guarantee data integrity?
- What are the innovations in FFS?
- What are the challenges of designing a log-structured file system and how does LFS overcome them?

File System Implementations

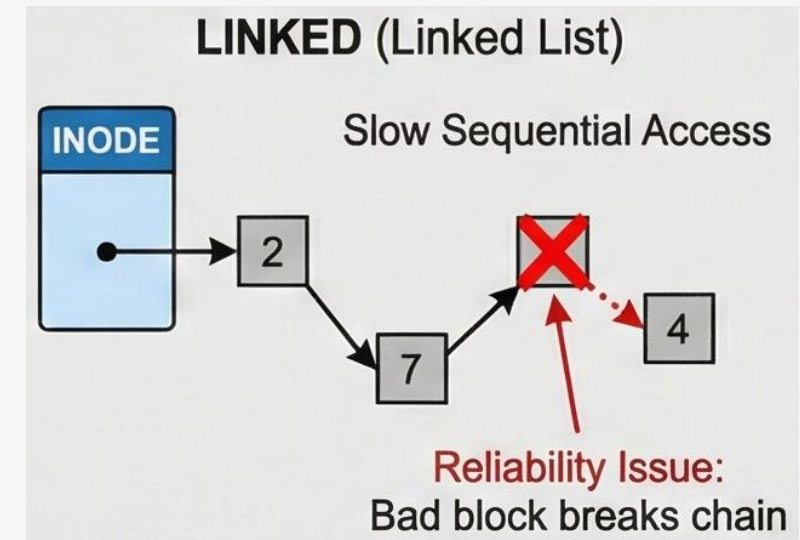
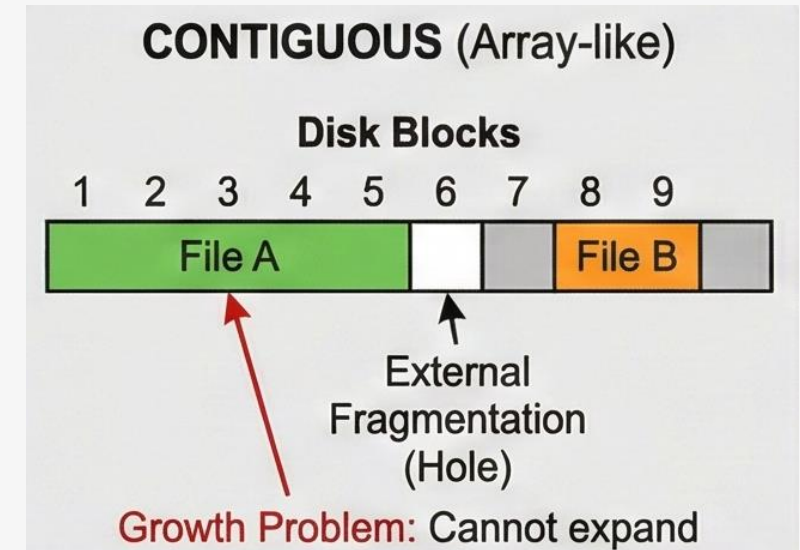
- Responsibilities of file systems
 - On-disk data structures

File System Responsibilities

- Map file data to blocks
 - how to organize data on disk?
 - how to find the blocks of a file?
 - how to store this information on disk?
- Track allocated and free space
 - which blocks are free?
 - how to find free blocks?

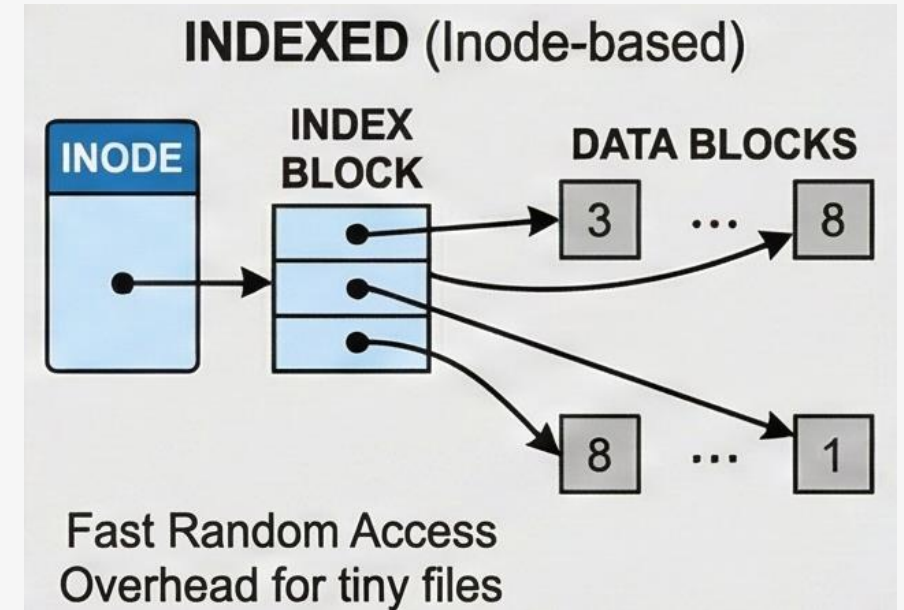
File Allocation Strategies

- How to assign blocks to a file
 - goal: maximize utilization (space) and minimize access time (speed)
- **Contiguous** (like array)
 - simple and high read performance
 - external fragmentation: deletions lead to holes
 - growth problem: move file each time
- **Linked allocation** (linked list)
 - poor read performance
 - reliability: one bad block -> no pointer to later blocks
 - overhead: pointer is 4 or 8 bytes
 - example: FAT (store all pointers in a table)



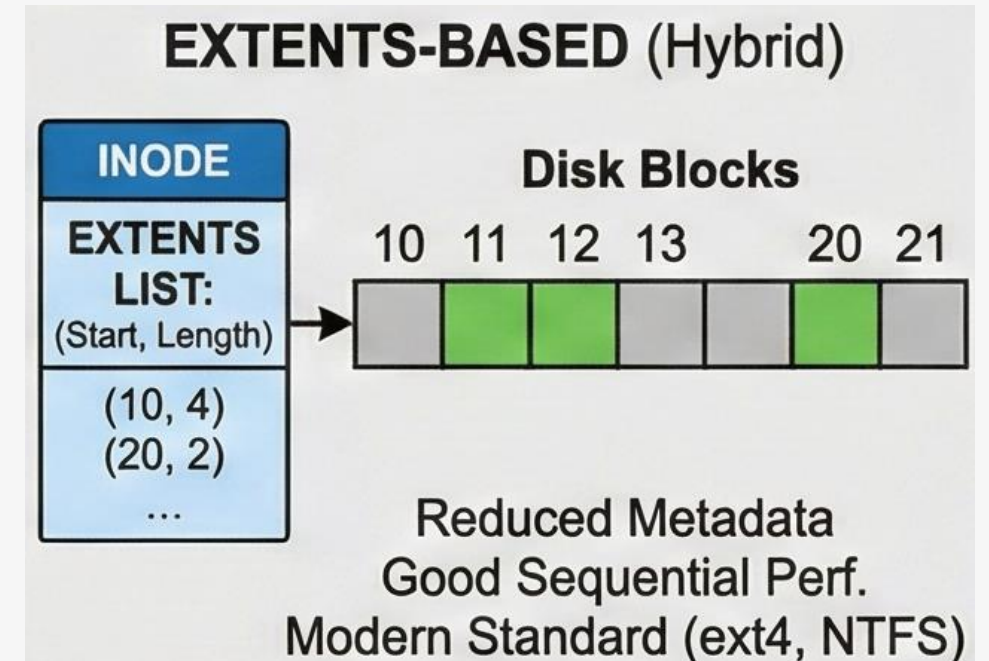
File Allocation Strategies

- Indexed allocation (inode)
 - a special block (Index Block): a list of pointers to data blocks
 - fast random access and no fragmentation
 - overhead: tiny file requires an index block
 - size limit: one index block has limited pointers, use multi-level indexing



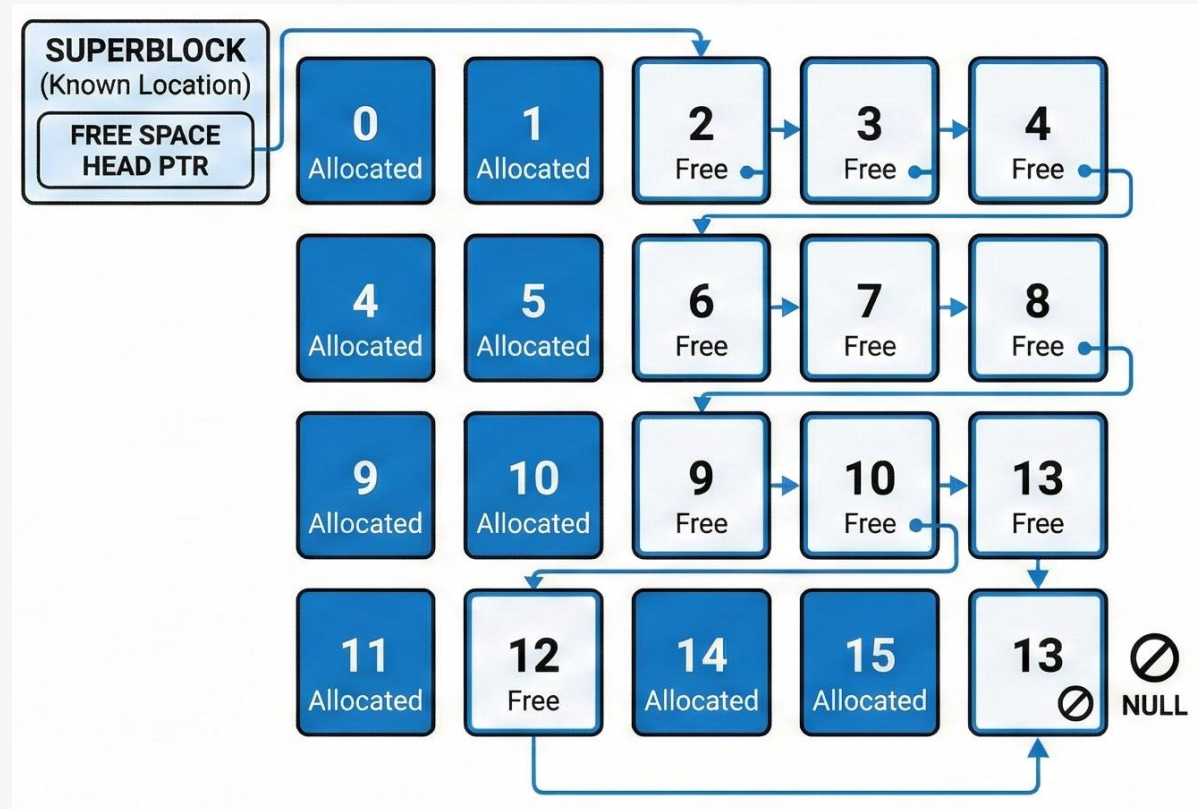
File Allocation Strategies

- Extents-based allocation
 - hybrid combining contiguous and indexed allocation
 - allocate chunks instead of blocks: store (start, length)
 - reduced metadata, good sequential performance, low fragmentation
 - modern standard: used in ext4, XFS, Btrfs and NTFS



Free Space Management

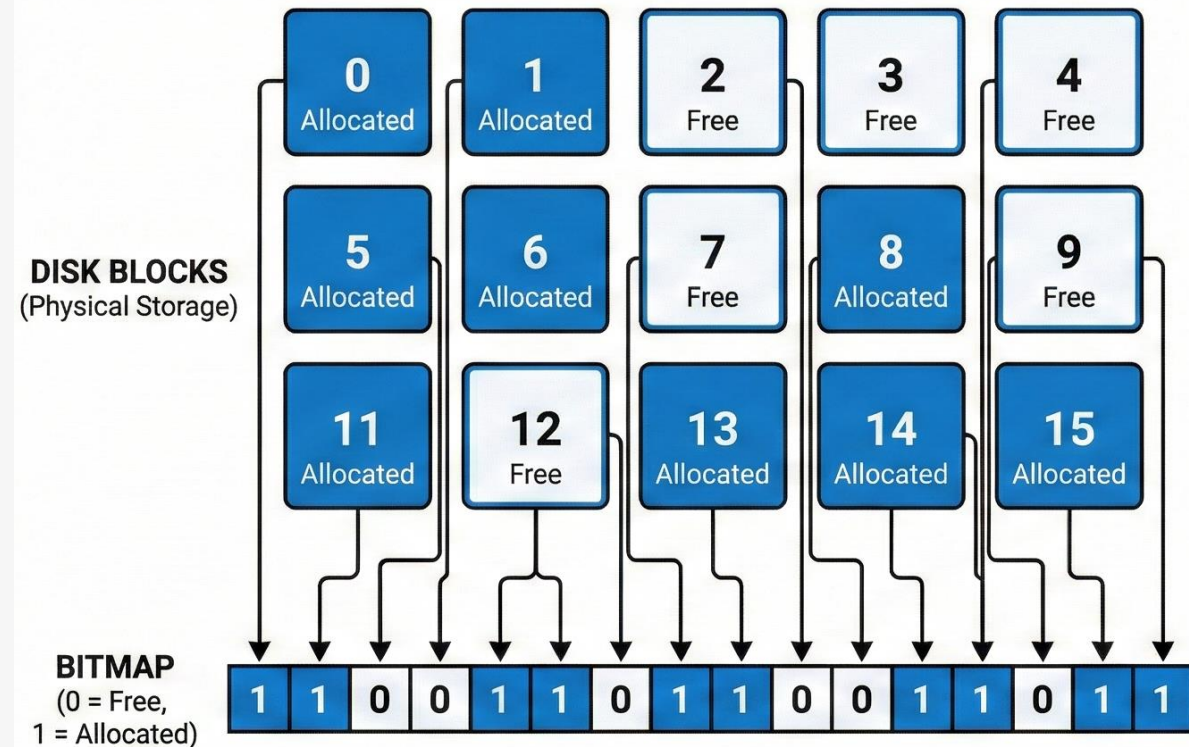
- Problems: how to track and allocate free blocks
- **Free list: simple**
 - maintain a linked list of free blocks and store the list in free blocks
 - allocation: pop up one
 - problem: no spatial locality



Free Space Management

- **Bitmap: common**

- tracking: array of bits for each block
- allocation: scan array and take first free block
- allocation (better): find free regions
 - use multi-level summaries to search for contiguous blocks efficiently
 - e.g., level 0: block bitmap, level 1: 64-block bitmap, level 2: 256 block bitmap
- easy update, good scalability
- ext4 uses bitmap



Free Space Management

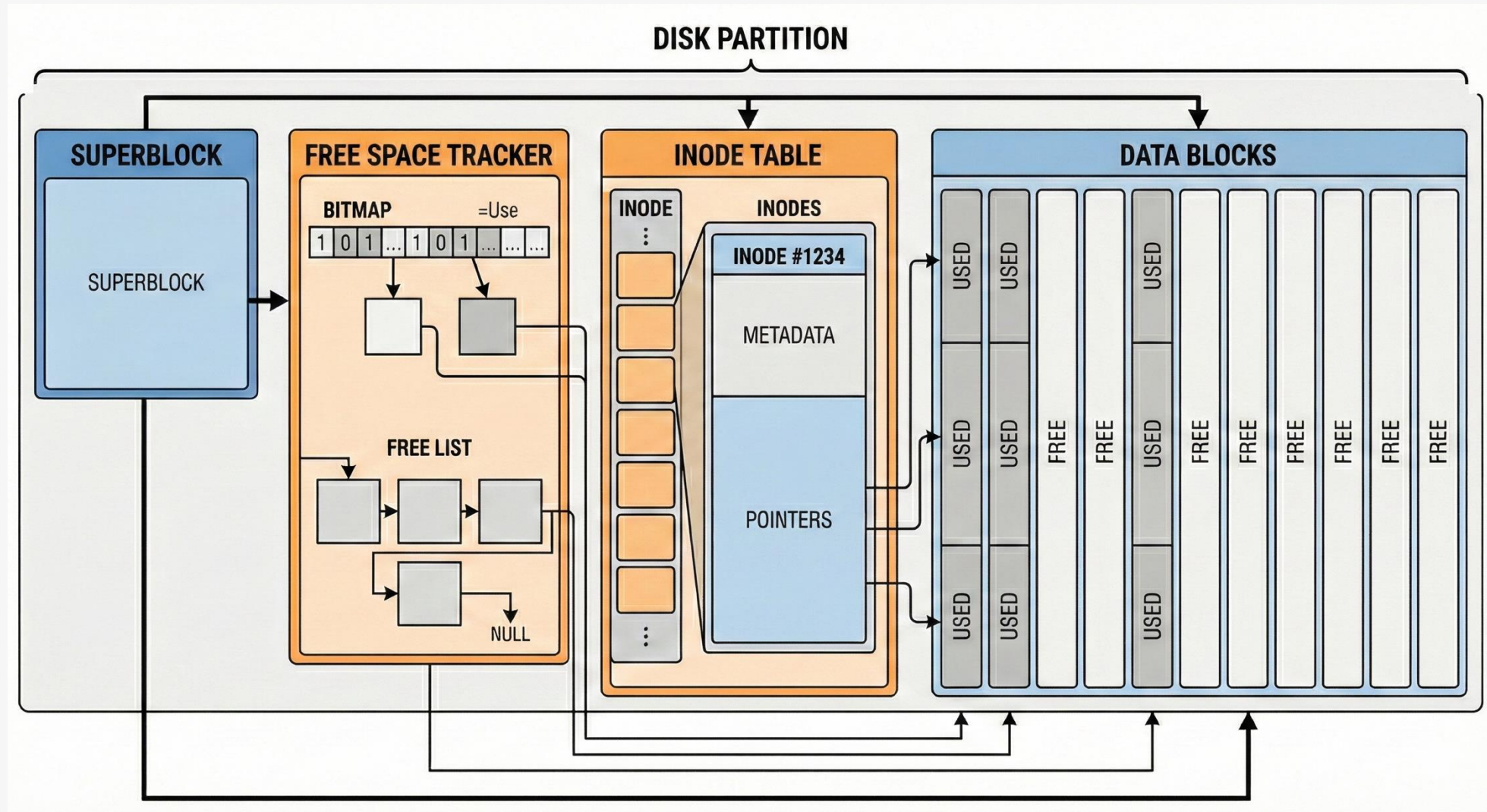
- **Free extent list: sometimes better**

- extent: a contiguous range of blocks, represent as (start, size)
- tracking: maintain lists of free extents in two trees
 - address-ordered: for coalescing on free
 - size-ordered: for finding a certain size
- downsides
 - small unfilled extents: huge unbounded metadata, slow search, many merges
 - hard to maintain: concurrency, consistency
- used by XFS

On-disk Data Structures

- **Superblock:** FS metadata
 - block size, capacity, inode count, block count, state, volume name, magic
 - stored at multiple locations for redundancy
- **Bitmap or free list:** tracking free space
- **Inode:** metadata, permissions, and the pointer map
- **Data blocks**

On-disk Data Structures



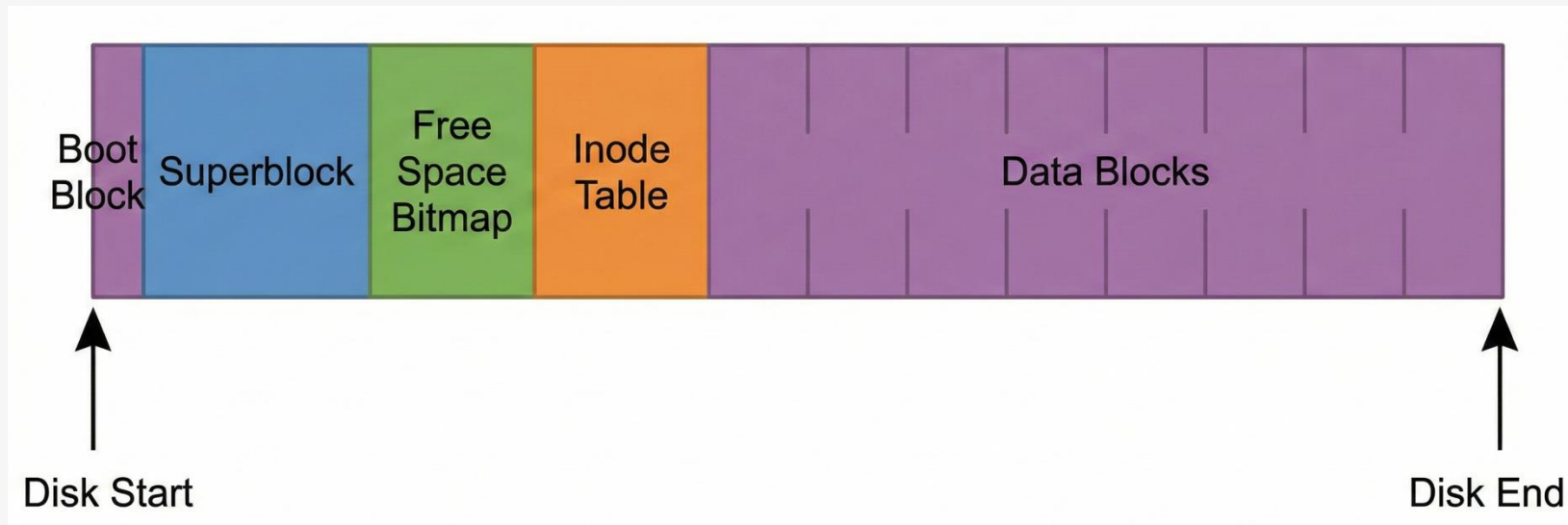
On-disk Data Structures: Inode

- Metadata
 - file type: regular file, directory, symlink...
 - permission, owner identifiers: UID and GID
 - timestamps: mtime, ctime, atime
 - file size, flags, attributes
 - link count: #directory entries (hard links) pointing to it
- Data locations (one of the following)
 - block pointers (classic inode design: ext2/3, many others)
 - direct pointers and indirect pointers (pointing to index blocks with more block pointers)
 - extents (common modern approach: ext4, XFS)
- Two types of inodes: file and directory

inode does not
store filename!

File system storage layout (physical view)

- Dictate file system performance
- Need to match the characteristics of the underlying storage devices
 - HDD: slow random read and write, prefer sequential operations, so locality and large transfers are important
 - SSD: small random writes are bad (GC, WA, tail latency)



Comparing on-disk and in-memory (VFS) structures

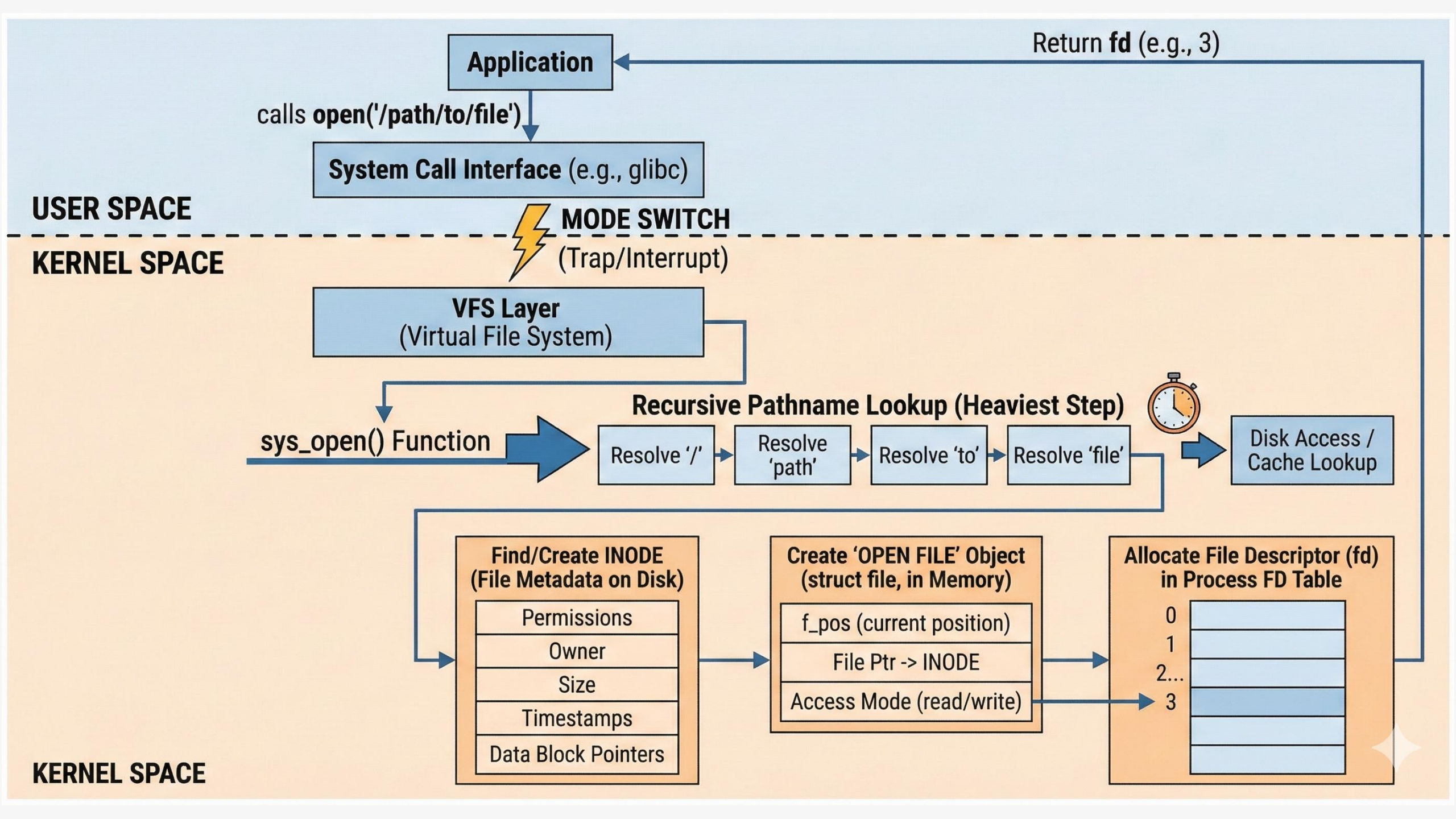
Feature	VFS Superblock (struct super_block)	On-Disk Superblock (e.g., struct ext4_super_block)
Persistence	Volatile (destroyed on umount)	Persistent
Structure	Generic (same for all filesystems)	Specific (layout is unique to the filesystem type)
Contents	Contains runtime state: mount flags, reference counts, and pointers to operation functions	Contains static config: total inode count, block count, UUID, pointers to inode tables

Feature	VFS Inode (struct inode)	On-Disk Inode (e.g., struct ext4_inode)
Location	RAM (Kernel Memory)	Disk (Inode Table)
Identity	Generic (standardized interface for kernel)	Specific (optimized for specific storage format)
Lifecycle	Volatile (created when a file is accessed)	Persistent (exists until the file is deleted)
Content	Runtime state: locks, wait queues, dirty flags, reference counts	Persistent data: permissions, owner, timestamps, and pointers to data blocks

Request Flow

What happens when you call open()

- The mode switch (user to kernel)
- The Virtual File System Layer
 - the kernel lands in a function like `sys_open()`
 - recursive pathname lookup (the heaviest step) to find/create inode
 - create the "Open File" Object
- Allocate a File Descriptor



What happens when you call read()

- Assume buffered I/O
- The mode switch (user to kernel)
- The Virtual File System Layer
 - find offset and inode
 - check cache: return on hit
 - move to file-system-specific code: offset -> LBA
- Block layer-> driver -> controller -> disk
- Copy from kernel (page cache) to user buffer

What happens when you read data

operation	inode			data			
	/	cs2640	s1.pdf	/	cs2640	s1.pdf block1	s1.pdf block2
open(/cs2640/s1.pdf)	read	read	read	read	read		
read()			r+w			read	
read()			r+w				read

What happens when you call write()

- Assume buffered I/O
- The mode switch (user to kernel)
- The Virtual File System Layer
 - find offset and inode
 - check cache
 - hit: modify page
 - miss: full page write vs. partial page write (read-modify-write)
 - return
- Asynchronous flush to disk

What happens when you write data

operation	bitmap		inode			data			
	data	inode	/	cs2640	s1.pdf	/	cs2640	s1.pdf block1	s1.pdf block2
create(/cs2640/s1.pdf)		r+w	read	r+w	r+w	read	r+w		
write()	r+w	r+w			r+w			write	
write()	r+w	r+w			r+w				write

FS Integrity

"What I read back is exactly what I wrote."

Main Challenges for Data Integrity

- Hardware failure
- File system and application issue
 - bugs
 - unclean shutdown, e.g., power loss
 - incorrect usage: concurrent updates without protection
- Silent data corruption
 - bit flip in memory

Two Types of Integrity

- Metadata integrity (the file system structure)
 - more challenging and complex
 - most problems from atomicity gap
 - file system operations requires multiple updates on disk
- Data integrity (the content)
 - less discussed
 - protection via checksum
 - standard file systems (ext4, XFS) rely on disk ECC
 - newer file systems (ZFS, Btrfs) actively track data integrity

File System Inconsistency: Orphaned Inode

- `creat("/home/file.txt")`
 - find a free Inode (#99) and mark it as used in the **Inode Bitmap**
 - initialize **Inode** #99 on disk (set owner, permissions)
 - add the entry {"file.txt", 99} to the **parent directory's data block**
- Power fails after Step 2 but before Step 3
 - Inode #99 is marked "Used"
 - the file system has allocated resources for it
 - however, no directory contains a link to Inode #99
- Fix: this is what fsck finds and moves to /lost+found.

File System Inconsistency: Double Allocation

- Delete file_A, then create file_B
 - **File A:** remove dir entry, decrement link count, mark Inode #500 and data blocks as free
 - **File B:** allocates Inode #500, initialize Inode, insert dir entry
- Due to write reordering or a crash, both files own Inode #500
- Fix: no unless we have more information
- Same can happen to data blocks
- Similarly, crash during a delayed deletion causes zombie files

File System Inconsistency: Garbage Tail

- Append 4KB to a file
 - write the new data to Block #800
 - update file size in Inode and add Block #800 to list
- OS update Inode on disk, power loss before data is flushed
 - file system is structurally valid
 - file tail is garbage
- Fix: ext4 handles this with ordered mode, forcing data to be flushed *before* the metadata

File System Inconsistency: Directory Loop

- `mv /a/b /c/d`
 - add link to b in d
 - change b's parent pointer (..) to /c/d
 - remove link to b from a
- power loss between step 2 and 3
 - directory b is now reachable from *two* parents
 - if the move was crafted poorly (e.g., moving a parent into its own child), you can create a cycle
 - recursive traversal programs (like `find`) will loop infinitely until crash



note that this is in b's data

Protect File System Integrity

- The ordering rule
- File system consistency check (FSCK)
- Journaling (write-ahead logging)
- CoW (copy-on-write)

The Ordering Rule

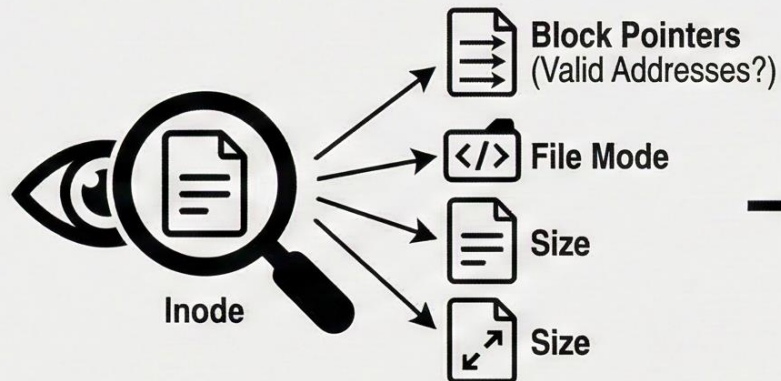
- If file system object A depends on object B, then B must reach stable storage before A
 - Most all system-level inconsistencies stem from violating this rule.
- **Pointer Rule**
 - never write a pointer (directory entry/inode) to disk until the object it points to (inode/data block) is initialized on disk
- **Reuse Rule**
 - never reuse a resource (block/inode) until the previous owner's pointer to it has been cleared from disk

File system consistency check (FSCK)

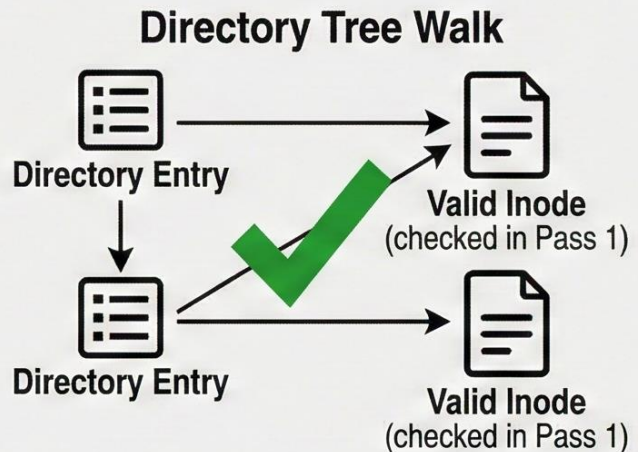
- Five passes over the disk (ext4 as an example)
 - Pass 1 – inodes, blocks, sizes
 - ensure that the basic "building blocks" are correct
 - Pass 2 – directory structure
 - ensure the "folders" correctly point to the "files"
 - Pass 3 – directory connectivity
 - ensure there are no "floating" directories
 - Pass 4 – reference (hard link) counts
 - Pass 5 – group summary / bitmap
 - synchronize the file system's "map"
- May run extra sub-passes 1B/1C/1D when needs to re-scan to resolve duplicate/bad blocks
- Details can be found in optional materials (OSTEP)

FSCK (File System Check) - Pass-by-Pass Breakdown

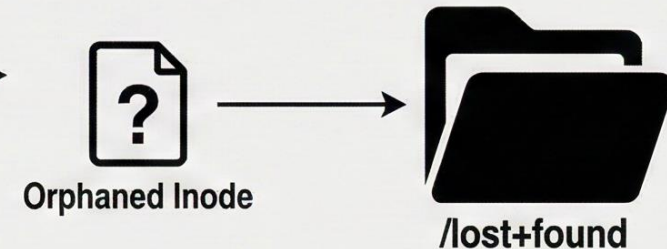
Pass 1: Check Inodes, Blocks, and Sizes



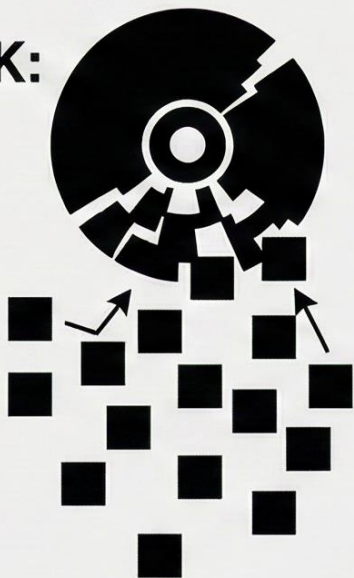
Pass 2: Check Directory Structure



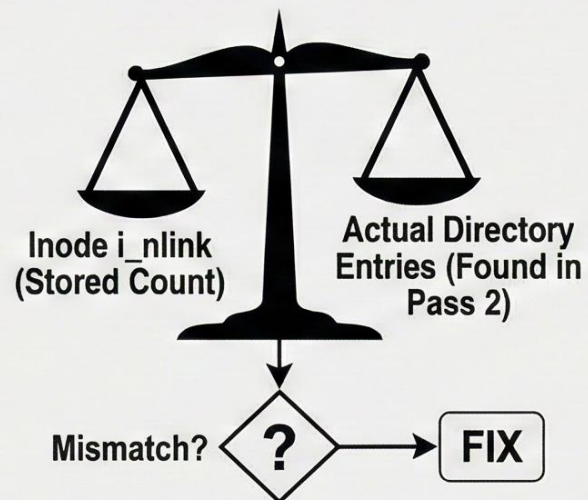
Pass 3: Check Directory Connectivity



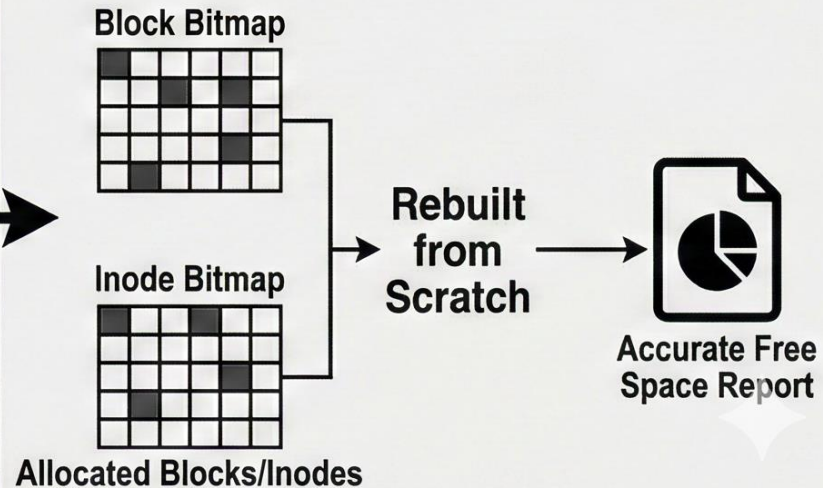
BOTTLENECK:
Massive
random
seeks



Pass 4: Check Reference Counts



Pass 5: Check Group Summary Information



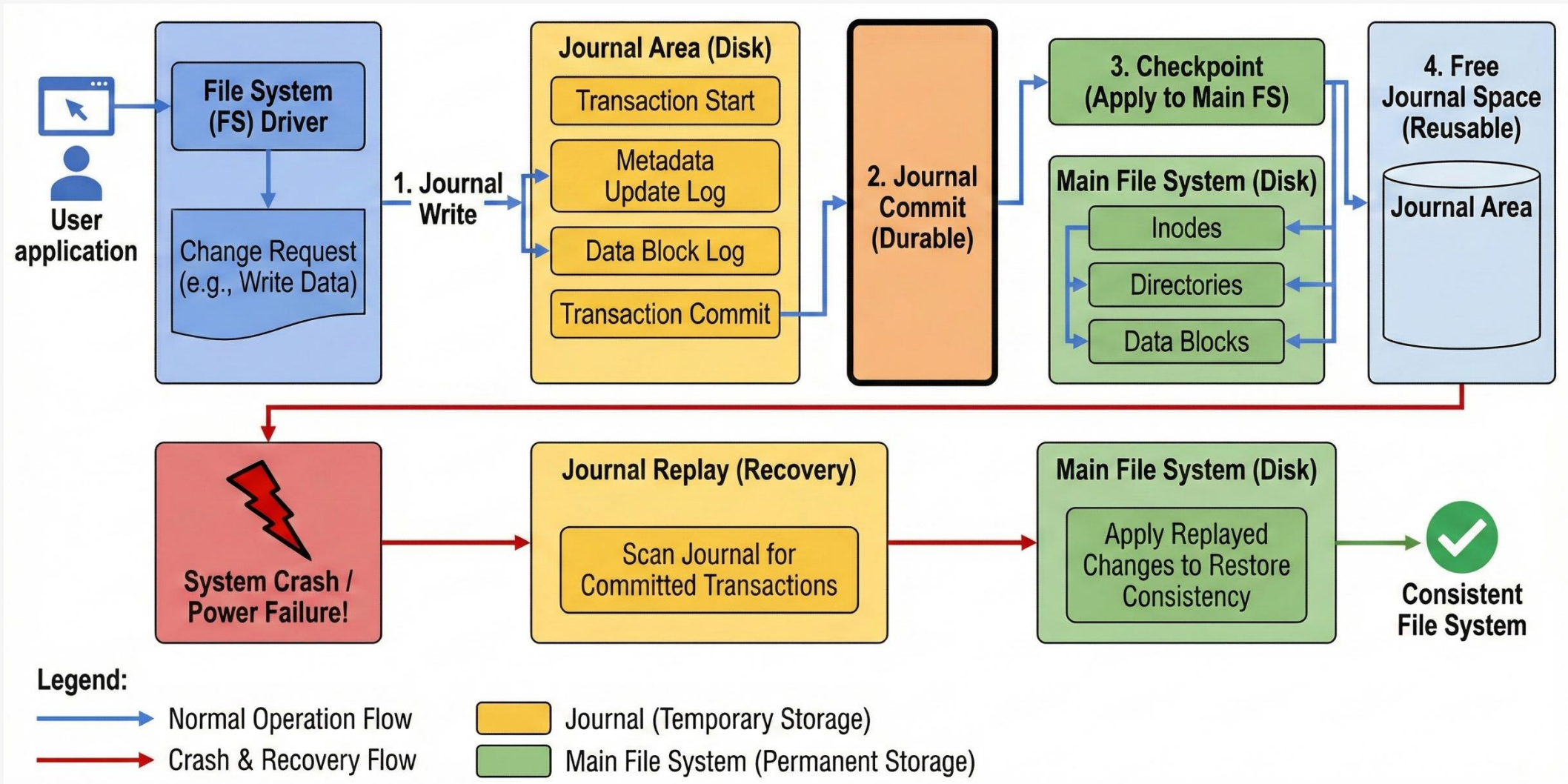
File system consistency check (FSCK)

- Scan the disk, time complexity $O(N)$
- A lot of random I/Os (mostly pass 2,3,4)
 - due to separation of metadata and data
- Time to scan a 20 TB disk
 - $20,000,000 \text{ MB} / 20 \text{ MB/s} = 1,000,000 \text{ seconds} = 12 \text{ days}$
 - you cannot use disk during the time
- Better to prevent inconsistency before it happens!

Journaling

- Never modify the filesystem structures until a description of the change is written to a separate "Journal"
 - write intended changes to a log first, so that a safe version always present before modification
 - log space reclaimed periodically
 - during crash recovery, can roll forward intended changes, recovery time proportional to un-checkpointed log size

Journaling



Journaling—Problems

- Double write
 - consumes bandwidth and reduce lifetime
- Seek penalty (ping-pong effect)
 - to write a file, the disk head must
 - Seek to the Journal (Write metadata)
 - Seek to the Data Block (Write content)
 - Seek *back* to the Journal (Write Commit Record)
 - Seek *back* to the Metadata Table (Checkpoint/Flush)
- Serialization overhead
 - journal write cannot be paralleled even if you have multiple cores

CoW (Copy on Write)

- Never overwrite live data
- **Shadow Paging**
 - when you modify data
 - **allocate**: OS finds a **new, empty block**
 - **write**: writes the modified data to this new location
 - **pointer swap**: *after* the write is successful, update the metadata
- Benefits
 - Instant snapshot
 - Stronger integrity by forming a merkle tree (storing a hash for every block)

CoW (Copy on Write): Bubble Up Effect

- Update one byte in a file
 - create a new data block
 - create a new Inode for the file (update pointer)
 - create a new Inode for the directory (update filename to Inode mapping)
 - create a new Inode for the parent directory
 - ...
 - the final step is an atomic update of the root
- If power fails at any point *before* the root update, the filesystem treats it as if the write never happened

CoW (Copy on Write): Problems

- Write amplification
 - bubble up effect
- Fragmentation
 - each update is in a random place

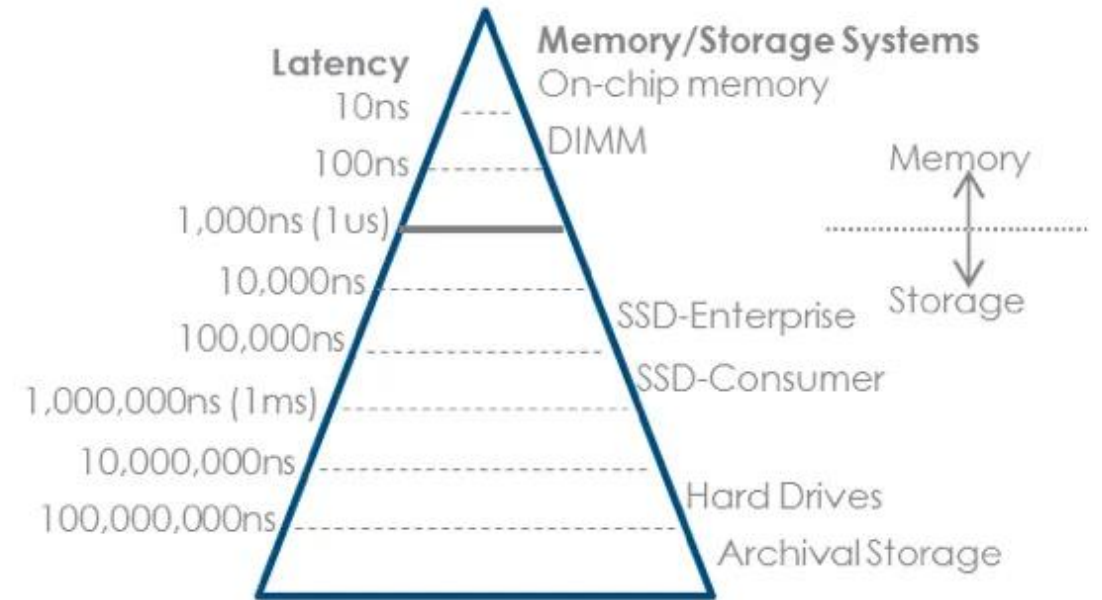
File System Integrity Summary

Feature	Journaling (ext4, XFS)	Copy-on-Write (ZFS, Btrfs)
Update Strategy	Overwrite in place + log changes	Write to new space + pointer swap
Crash Safety	Relies on Replaying the Log	Relies on atomic root update
Snapshots	Slow	Instant
Data Integrity	Metadata consistency only	Full Data + Metadata
Fragmentation	Low (updates stay in place)	High (updates move around)

FS Performance and Efficiency

How to Improve Performance: User View

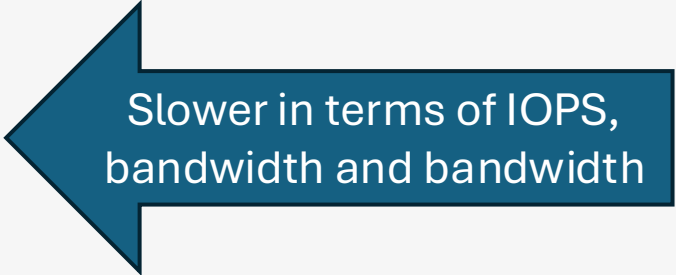
- Performance is largely dictated by underlying device
- Page cache
- Memory-mapped I/O
- Asynchronous I/O and `io_uring`



Source: Rambus

File System Performance

- File system can be slower than device
 - Metadata operations
 - Consistency overhead: flush, journaling
 - kernel I/O stack: many layers, file system lock contention
- Tuning file system performance
 - trade off feature: `noatime`, `relatime`, `lazytime`
 - less aggressive flush and journaling: `commit=60`, `data=writeback`
- File system design
 - HDD: centered around sequential write and locality (place related data closer)
 - SSD: centered around reducing GC overhead (reduce random writes, use TRIM)



Slower in terms of IOPS,
bandwidth and bandwidth

File System Efficiency

- Space efficiency: consumed space / data size
- Source of inefficiency
 - allocation unit (internal fragmentation), 512B, 4KB, 64KB
 - metadata: inode, pointers, journaling, reserved space

File System Efficiency

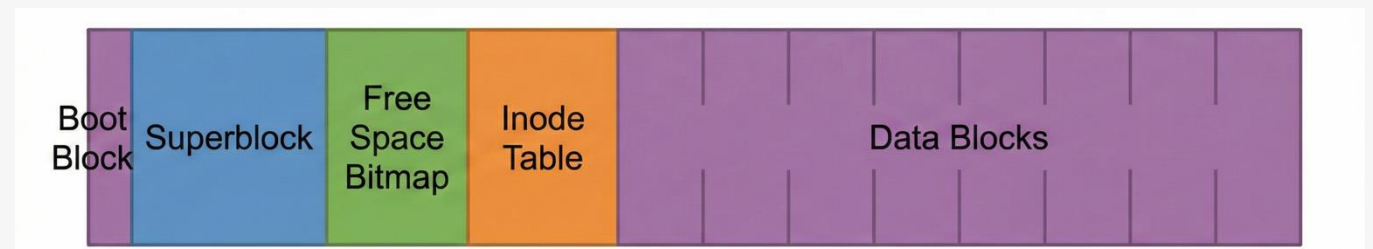
- Tail Packing / Block Suballocation
 - store multiple tiny files in one block or split a block to smaller fragments
- Sparse Files
 - if a file contains a lot of empty data (zeros), do not write these zeros
- Deduplication
- Compression

Fast File System (FFS)

A fast file system for UNIX, TOCS'84 (released as part of BSD 4.2)
<https://dl.acm.org/doi/10.1145/989.990>

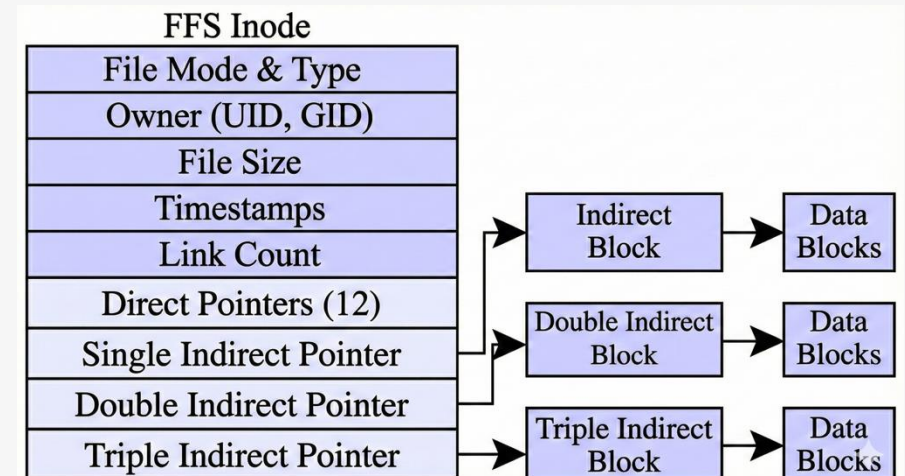
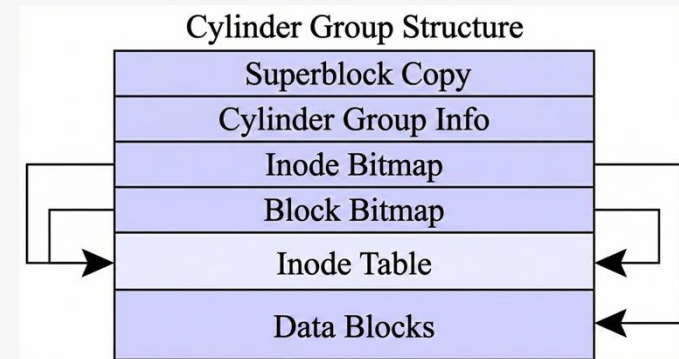
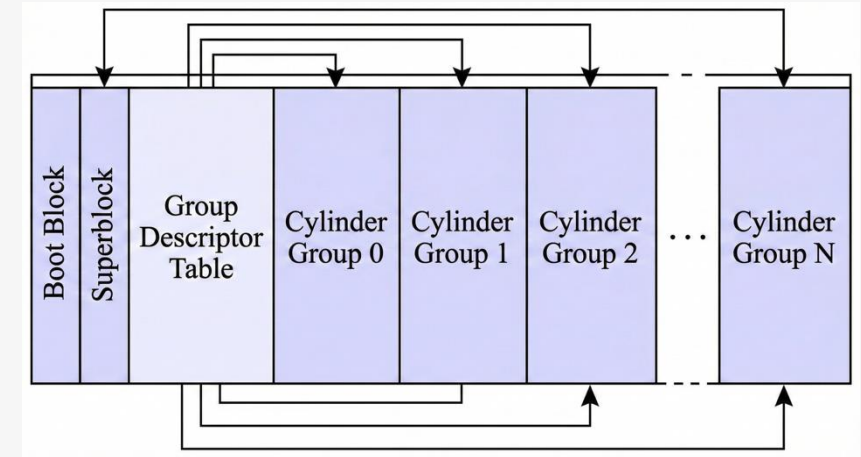
Fast File System (FFS)

- The first disk-aware file system
 - demonstrates that disk layout matters for performance
- Original Unix file system: treat the disk like a flat list of blocks
 - poor performance, often delivering 2% of the disk's potential bandwidth
 - long seek distance
 - Inodes (metadata) are stored at the start of the disk, reading a file requires long seeks back and forth between inode and the data
 - tiny blocks: 512B, reading large files requires massive metadata processing overhead
 - fragmentation



FFS: Cylinder Groups

- Idea: keep related data closer
- Innovation 1:
 - break the disk into Cylinder Groups (CG)
 - each CG can be viewed as a mini file system, contains
 - a superblock copy (for redundancy)
 - bitmap for tracking free blocks
 - Inodes
 - data blocks



FFS: Smart Allocation to Create Locality

- Place related data (Inode and data blocks) close
- Problem: filling up a cylinder group too quickly
- Load balance
 - spread directories evenly across disks
 - force a jump if the file is too large
 - the first twelve direct blocks are placed in the same group
 - each subsequent indirect block and all blocks it points to are placed in a different group

FFS: Large Block Size and Fragments

- Small block size
 - less space waste, low throughput due to massive seeks
- Large block size
 - higher throughput but higher internal fragmentation
- FFS uses a large block size (4KB)
 - modifies libc to buffer writes and issue 4KB chunks
 - except for the tail block that uses 512B
- Smart choice: disk density quickly improved, but seek time did not

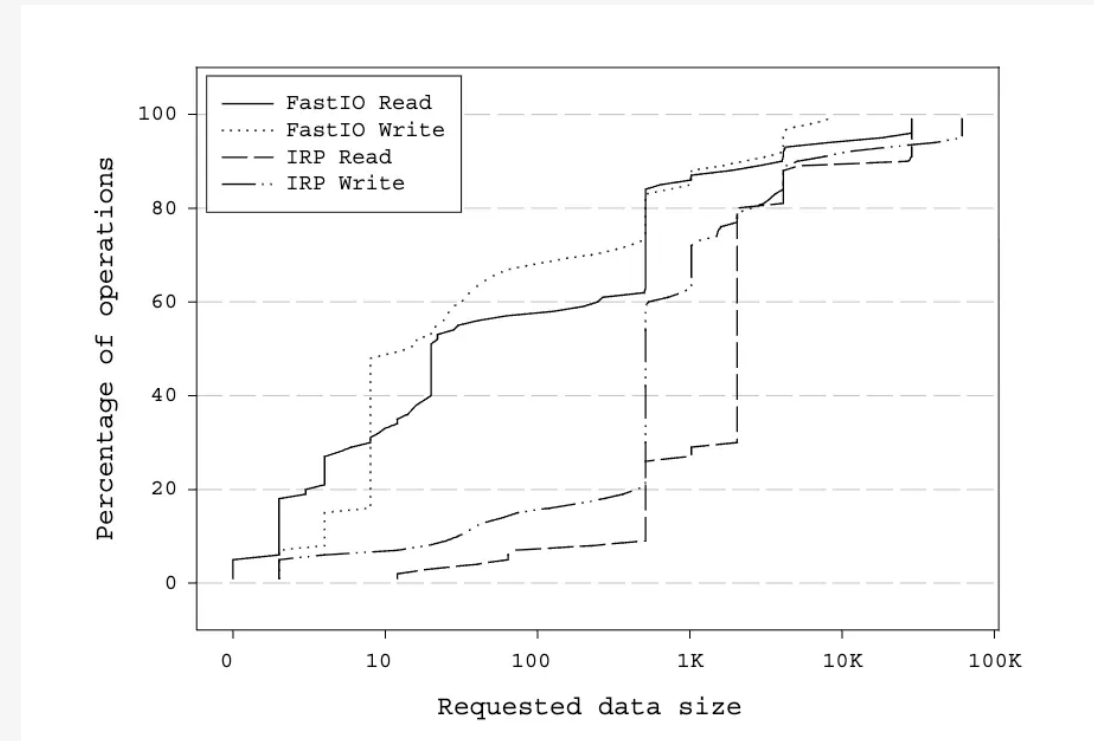
FFS: Optimizations are Still Relevant Today

- Cylinder group: block groups in ext4
- Bitmap: a new and popular free-space management solution that replaces linked lists
- Make FS more usable
 - long file names
 - symbolic links to enable spanning across FS
 - introduce an atomic rename operation

Log-Structured File System (LFS)

Motivation

- Small writes are slow for HDDs
- User writes are often small
- Write amplification
 - e.g., create a new file of size one block
 - update the file inode bitmap
 - update directory data block (create name to file inode mapping)
 - update the directory inode (timestamps, size)
 - write the new file data block
 - update the data bitmap (mark the data block as allocated)
 - update file inode



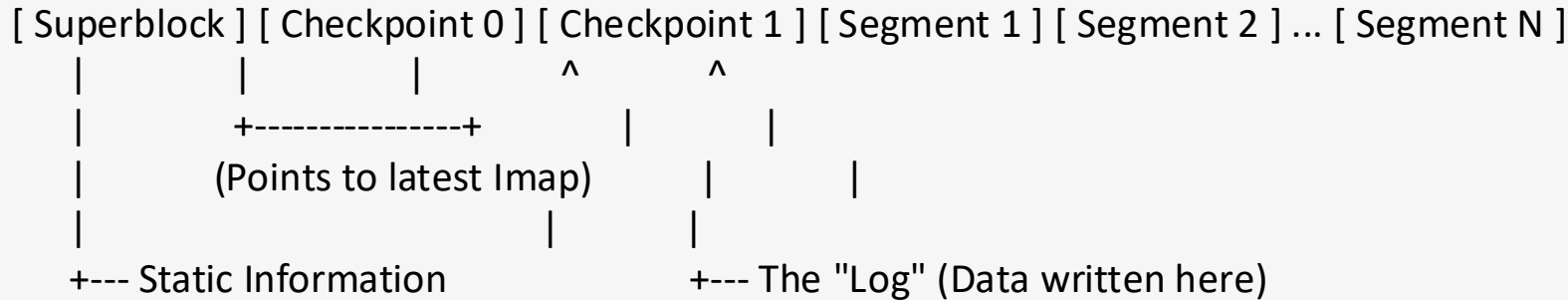
LFS: Log-Structured File Systems

- Never write in-place
- Buffer changes in memory
- When the buffer is full (forming a **Segment**), it writes the entire batch to the disk in one long, continuous burst
- Indication
 - the newest version of any block is “somewhere later in the log”
 - the disk layout is chronological, not spatially organized by file

LFS: Challenges and Solutions

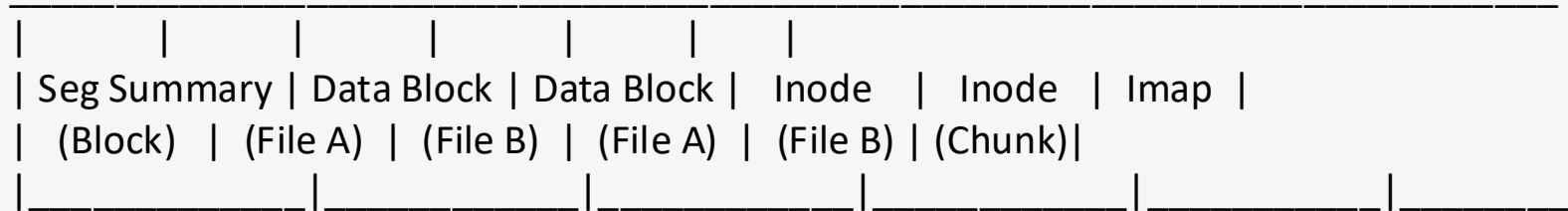
- how large should the DRAM buffer be?
 - amortize the seek cost
- how to find updated Inode?
 - indirection: inode map
- how to reconstruct from scattered metadata
 - checkpoint of full metadata
- how to remove invalid data
 - garbage collection
- how to choose which segment to clean
 - cost-benefit analysis

LFS: Log-Structured File Systems



- Checkpoint
 - pointers to the latest inode-map blocks
 - log head, file system geometry, checksum, and segment usage table...
 - two checkpoints for crash consistency
- Segment

Log-Structured File Systems



`imap[i] = <segment#, offset-within-segment>`

- Segment summary
 - reverse mapping from block to Inode
 - used by the cleaner to interpret what's in the segment
- Inodes
 - written *next* to the data they describe, improving read locality
- Inode map (imap) chunk
 - Inodes keep moving, Imap tracks current location
 - only the updated part of the inode map is written, the checkpoint has the full map

Log-Structured File Systems

- On reboot:
 - Read checkpoint region
 - Reconstruct the latest imap
 - Use it to find inodes and files
- On crash:
 - the same as reboot
 - read the new segments since checkpoint to roll forward

Log-Structured File Systems: Read

- Similar to traditional FS: first find Inode then read data blocks
- A useful way to think about LFS reads:
 - **checkpoint** → tells you where the latest **imap** is
 - **Imap** → tells you where the latest **inode** is
 - **Inode** → tells you where the latest **data blocks** are
 - fetch data blocks

Log-Structured File Systems: Write

- In memory
 - dirty file data blocks and metadata changes accumulate
- Flush to disk
 - pack data blocks and Inodes into a segment
 - write the segment sequentially
 - update the Imap entries for updated inodes
 - occasionally write a checkpoint
- Many scattered updates become one large sequential write

Log-Structured File Systems: Garbage Collection

- Why: LFS never overwrites data
 - segments contain a mix of
 - **live blocks** (the newest version)
 - **dead blocks** (superseded by newer writes)
- Garbage collection: compact segments to reclaim space
 - pick a segment
 - check if a block is live: find identity in seg summary, consult Inode and Imap
 - copy live blocks into a new segment
 - mark the old segment free

Log-Structured File Systems: Garbage Collection

- Q: which segment to clean?
- Options
 - old segments: reclaimed data more likely to remain live
 - segments with less live data: reclaim more space, but reclaimed data may become invalid soon
- LFS solution: cost-benefit analysis that combines the two
 - $\text{score} = \frac{(1-u) \times \text{age}}{1+u}$
 - u = segment utilization (fraction still live), $1-u$ = benefit
 - age = an estimate of data “stability”
 - $1+u$ approximates the cost: **1** to read the segment plus **u** to rewrite its live data
- LFS maintains a segment usage table that records, per segment, live bytes and age of youngest block

Summary

- File system implementation
 - how to allocate file
 - how to track free space
 - the four main on-disk data structures
- Integrity
 - journaling and CoW
- FFS
 - cylinder group and smart allocation
- LFS
 - on-disk data structures
 - read, write and garbage collection