Lecture 18: File System Implementation

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Office: N219D

Quote of the Day

"To be a nemesis, you have to actively try to destroy something, don't you?

Really, I'm not out to destroy Microsoft.

That will just be a completely unintentional side effect. "

-- Linus Torvalds

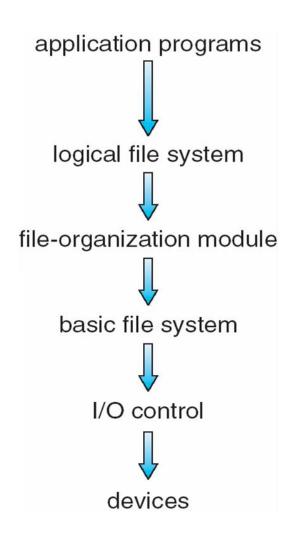
Outline – Chapters 11/12

- File System Structure
- File System Implementation
- Directory Implementation
- Allocation Methods
- Free-Space Management
- Efficiency and Performance
- Recovery
- NFS
- Example: WAFL File System

File system fun

- File systems = the hardest part of OS
 - More papers on file systems than any other single topic
- Main tasks of file system:
 - Don't go away (ever)
 - Associate bytes with name (files)
 - Associate names with each other (directories)
 - Can implement file systems on disk, over network, in memory, in non-volatile ram (NVRAM), on tape, w/ paper.
 - We'll focus on disk and generalize later
- Today: files, directories, and a bit of performance
- Read Ch. 11/12 File System Implementation

Layered File System



A Typical File Control Block

file permissions

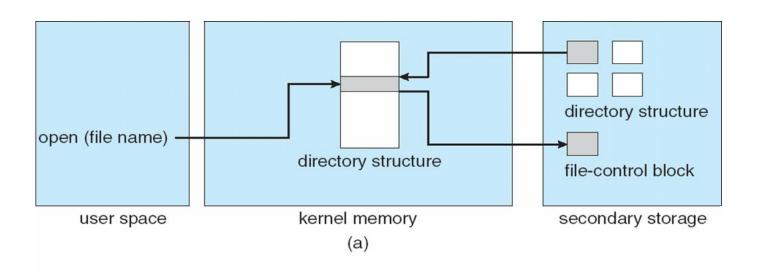
file dates (create, access, write)

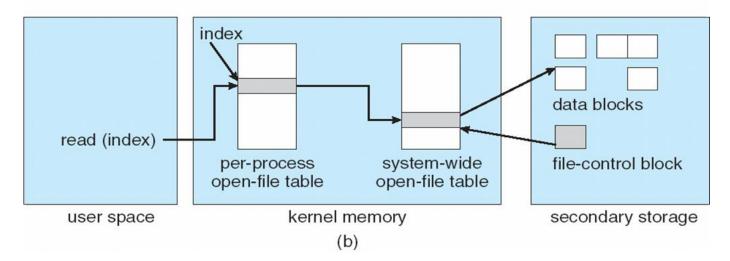
file owner, group, ACL

file size

file data blocks or pointers to file data blocks

In-Memory File System Structures





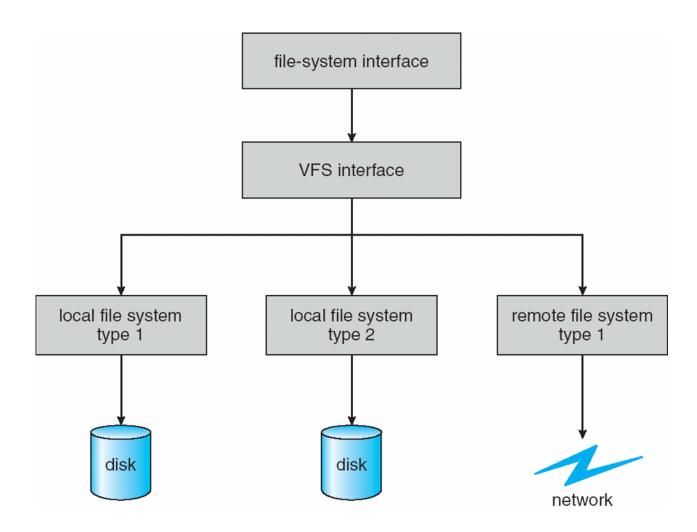
Partitions and Mounting

- Partition can be a volume containing a file system ("cooked") or raw
 just a sequence of blocks with no file system
- Boot block can point to boot volume or boot loader set of blocks that contain enough code to know how to load the kernel from the file system
 - Or a boot management program for multi-os booting
- Root partition contains the OS, other partitions can hold other Oses, other file systems, or be raw
 - Mounted at boot time
 - Other partitions can mount automatically or manually
- At mount time, file system consistency checked
 - Is all metadata correct?
 - If not, fix it, try again
 - If yes, add to mount table, allow access

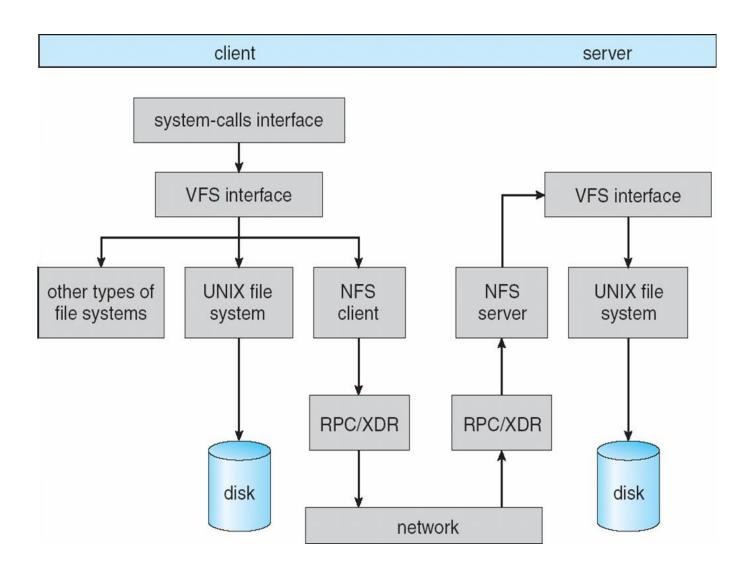
Virtual File Systems

- Virtual File Systems (VFS) on Unix provide an object-oriented way of implementing file systems
- VFS allows the same system call interface (the API) to be used for different types of file systems
 - Separates file-system generic operations from implementation details
 - Implementation can be one of many file systems types, or network file system
 - Implements vnodes which hold inodes or network file details
 - Then dispatches operation to appropriate file system implementation routines
- The API is to the VFS interface, rather than any specific type of file system

Virtual File System

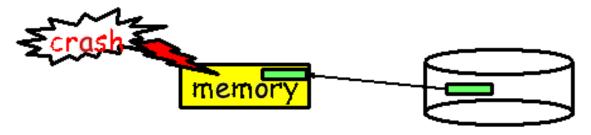


Schematic View of NFS Architecture



The medium is the message

Disk = First thing we've seen that doesn't go away



- So: Where all important state ultimately resides
- Slow (ms access vs ns for memory)



- Huge (100–1,000x bigger than memory)
 - How to organize large collection of ad hoc information?
 - Taxonomies! (Basically FS = general way to make these)

Disk vs. Memory

		MLC NAND	
	Disk	Flash	DRAM
Smallest write	sector	sector	byte
Atomic write	sector	sector	byte/word
Random read	8 ms	75 μs	50 ns
Random write	8 ms	300 μs*	50 ns
Sequential read	100 MB/s	250 MB/s	> 1 GB/s
Sequential write	100 MB/s	170 MB/s*	> 1 GB/s
Cost	\$.08-1/GB	\$3/GB	\$10-25/GB
Persistence	Non-volatile	Non-volatile	Volatile

^{*}Flash write performance degrades over time

Disk review

- Disk reads/writes in terms of sectors, not bytes
 - Read/write single sector or adjacent groups



- How to write a single byte? "Read-modify-write"
 - Read in sector containing the byte



- Modify that byte
- Write entire sector back to disk
- Key: if cached, don't need to read in
- Sector = unit of atomicity.

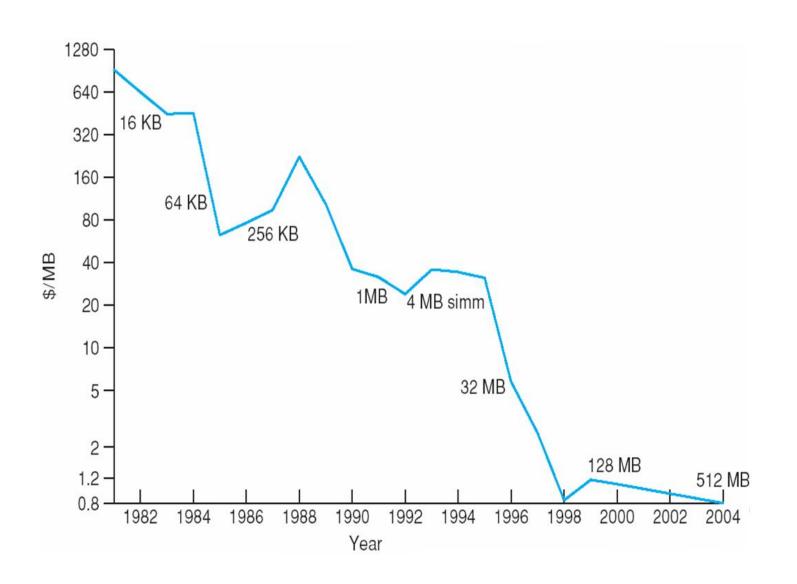


- Sector write done completely, even if crash in middle (disk saves up enough momentum to complete)
- Larger atomic units have to be synthesized by OS

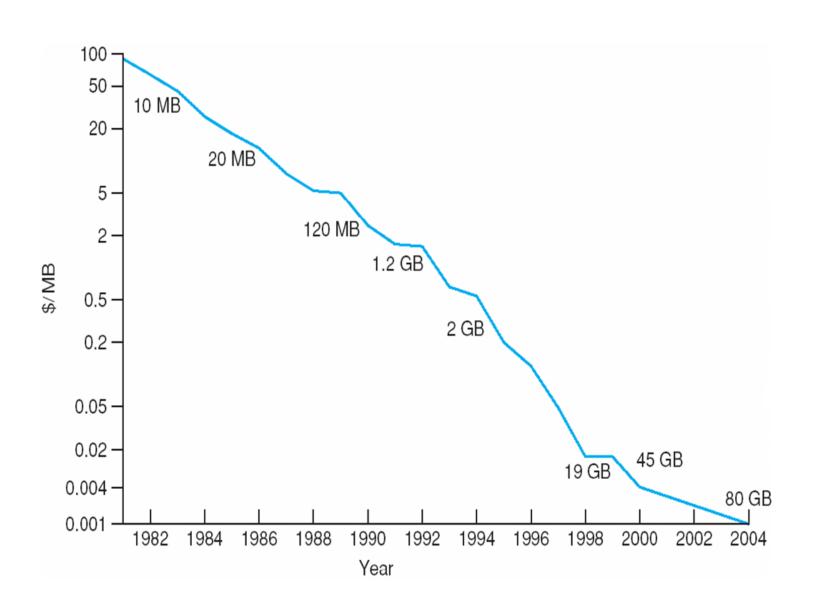
Some useful trends

- Disk bandwidth and cost/MB improving exponentially
 - Similar to CPU speed, memory size, etc.

Price per MB of DRAM, From 1981 to 2004



Price per MB of Magnetic Hard Disk, 1981 to 2004



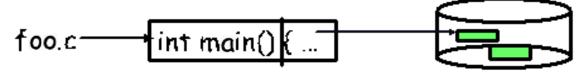
Some useful trends

- Disk bandwidth and cost/MB improving exponentially
 - Similar to CPU speed, memory size, etc.
- Seek time and rotational delay improving very slowly
 - Why? require moving physical object (disk arm)
- Disk accesses a huge system bottleneck & getting worse
 - Bandwidth increase lets system (pre-)fetch large chunks for about the same cost as small chunk.
 - Trade bandwidth for latency if you can get lots of related stuff.
 - How to get related stuff? Cluster together on disk
- Memory size increasing faster than typical workload size
 - More and more of workload fits in file cache
 - Disk traffic changes: mostly writes and new data

Files: named bytes on disk

File abstraction:

- User 's view: named sequence of bytes



- File system's view: collection of disk blocks
- File system's job: translate name & offset to disk blocks:

$$\{file, offset\} - - \rightarrow$$
 FS $- \rightarrow disk address$

File operations:

- Create a file, delete a file
- Read from file, write to file
- Want: operations to have as few disk accesses as possible & have minimal space overhead

What's hard about grouping blocks?

 Like page tables, file system metadata are simply data structures used to construct mappings

- Page table: map virtual page # to physical page # 23-----→Page table -------33

- File meta data: map byte offset to disk block address
418----→Unix inode ----→8003121

- Directory: map name to disk address or file #

foo.c----
→ directory ------44

FS vs. VM

- In both settings, want location transparency
- In some ways, FS has easier job than VM:
 - CPU time to do FS mappings not a big deal (= no TLB)
 - Page tables deal with sparse address spaces and random access, files often denser (0... file size -1) & \sim sequentially accessed

In some ways FS's problem is harder:

- Each layer of translation = potential disk access
- Space a huge premium! (But disk is huge?!?!) Reason? Cache space never enough; amount of data you can get in one fetch never enough
- Range very extreme: Many files <10 KB, some files many GB

Some working intuitions

- FS performance dominated by # of disk accesses
 - Each access costs ~10 milliseconds
 - Touch the disk 100 extra times = 1 second
 - Can easily do 100s of millions of ALU ops in same time
- Access cost dominated by movement, not transfer:

seek time + rotational delay + # bytes/disk-bw

- Can get 50x the data for only \sim 3% more overhead
- 1 sector: $10ms + 8ms + 10\mu s$ (= 512 B/(50 MB/s)) $\approx 18ms$
- 50 sectors: 10ms + 8ms + .5ms = 18.5ms

Observations that might be helpful:

- All blocks in file tend to be used together, sequentially
- All files in a directory tend to be used together
- All names in a directory tend to be used together

Common addressing patterns

Sequential:

- File data processed in sequential order
- By far the most common mode
- Example: editor writes out new file, compiler reads in file, etc.

Random access:

- Address any block in file directly without passing through predecessors
- Examples: data set for demand paging, databases

Keyed access

- Search for block with particular values
- Examples: associative data base, index
- Usually not provided by OS

Problem: how to track file's data

Disk management:

- Need to keep track of where file contents are on disk
- Must be able to use this to map byte offset to disk block
- Structure tracking a file's sectors is called an index node or **inode**
- File descriptors must be stored on disk, too

Things to keep in mind while designing file structure:

- Most files are small
- Much of the disk is allocated to large files
- Many of the I/O operations are made to large files
- Want good sequential and good random access (what do these require?)

Allocation Methods

 An allocation method refers to how disk blocks are allocated for files:

Contiguous allocation

Linked allocation

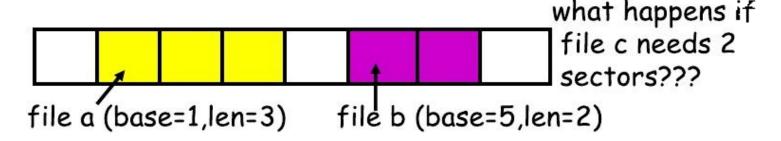
Indexed allocation

Contiguous Allocation

- Each file occupies a set of contiguous blocks on the disk
- Simple only starting location (block #) and length (number of blocks) are required
- Random access
- Wasteful of space
- Files cannot grow

Straw man: contiguous allocation

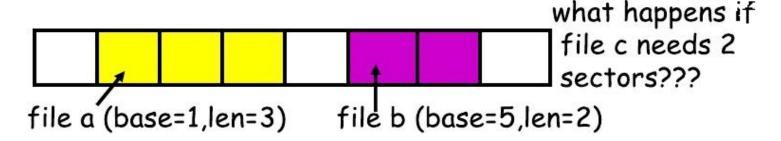
- "Extent-based": allocate files like segmented memory
 - When creating a file, make the user specify pre-specify its length and allocate all space at once
 - Inode contents: location and size



- Example: IBM OS/360
- Pros?
- Cons? (What VM scheme does this correspond to?)

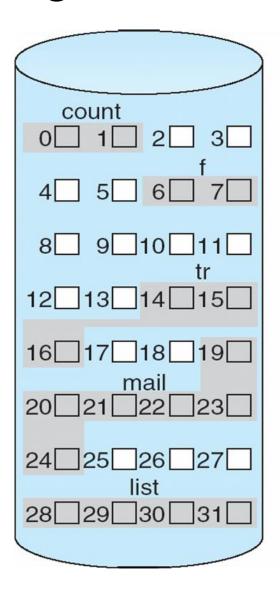
Straw man: contiguous allocation

- "Extent-based": allocate files like segmented memory
 - When creating a file, make the user specify pre-specify its length and allocate all space at once
 - Inode contents: location and size



- Example: IBM OS/360
- Pros?
 - Simple, fast access, both sequential and random
- Cons? (What VM scheme does this correspond to?)
 - External fragmentation

Contiguous Allocation of Disk Space



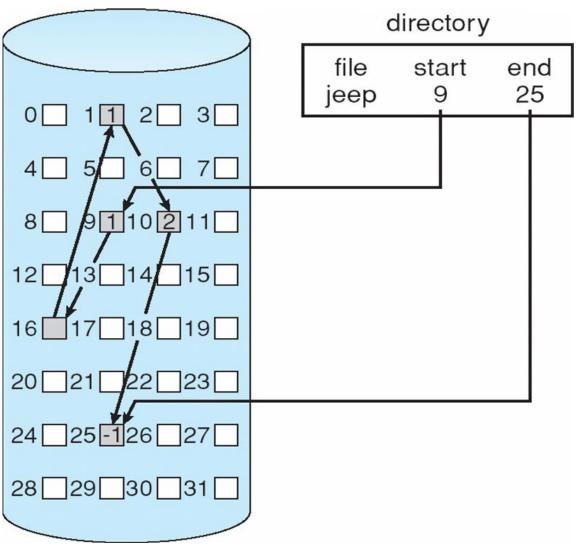
directory

file	start	length
count	0	2
tr	14	3
mail	19	6
list	28	4
f	6	2

Extent-Based Systems

- Many newer file systems (e.g., Veritas File System, Microsoft's NTFS) use a modified contiguous allocation scheme.
- Extent-based file systems allocate disk blocks in extents when a file is created.
- An extent is a contiguous block of disks
 - Extents are allocated for future file growth.
 - A file consists of one or more extents.

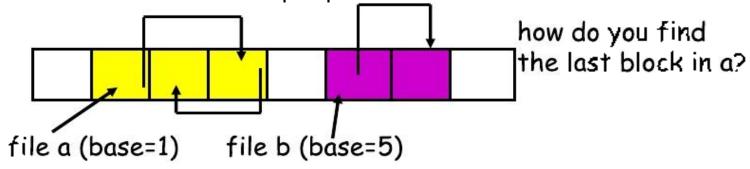
Linked Allocation



 Each file is a linked list of disk blocks: blocks may be scattered anywhere on the disk.

Linked files

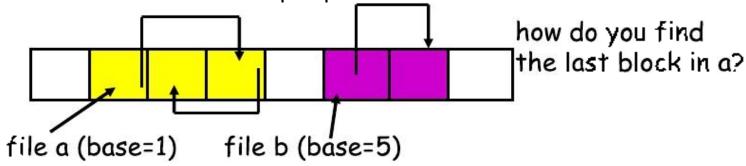
- Basically a linked list on disk.
 - Keep a linked list of all free blocks
 - Inode contents: a pointer to file's first block
 - In each block, keep a pointer to the next one



- Examples (sort-of): Alto, TOPS-10, DOS FAT
- Pros?
- Cons?

Linked files

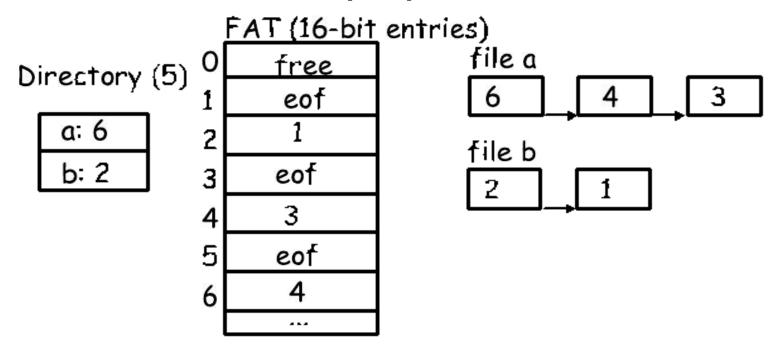
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- Examples (sort-of): Alto, TOPS-10, DOS FAT
- Pros?
 - Easy dynamic growth & sequential access, no fragmentation
- Cons?
 - Linked lists on disk a bad idea because of access times
 - Pointers take up room in block, skewing alignment

Example: DOS FS (simplified)

 Uses linked files. Cute: links reside in fixed-sized "file allocation table" (FAT) rather than in the blocks.



 Still do pointer chasing, but can cache entire FAT so can be cheap compared to disk access

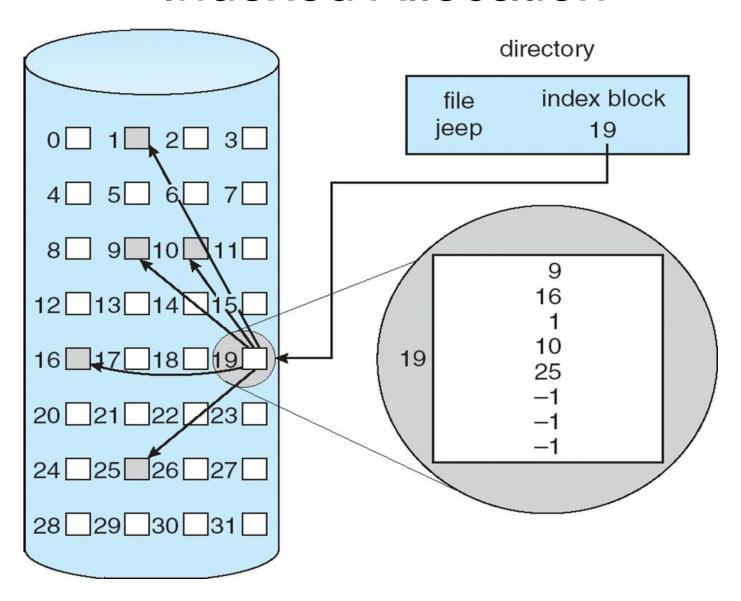
FAT discussion

- Entry size = 16 bits
 - What's the maximum size of the FAT?
 - Given a 512 byte block, what's the maximum size of FS?
 - One attack: go to bigger blocks. Pros? Cons?
- Space overhead of FAT is trivial:
 - 2 bytes / 512 byte block = \sim 0.4% (Compare to Unix)
- Reliability: how to protect against errors?
 - Create duplicate copies of FAT on disk.
 - State duplication a very common theme in reliability
- Bootstrapping: where is root directory?
 - Fixed location on disk:

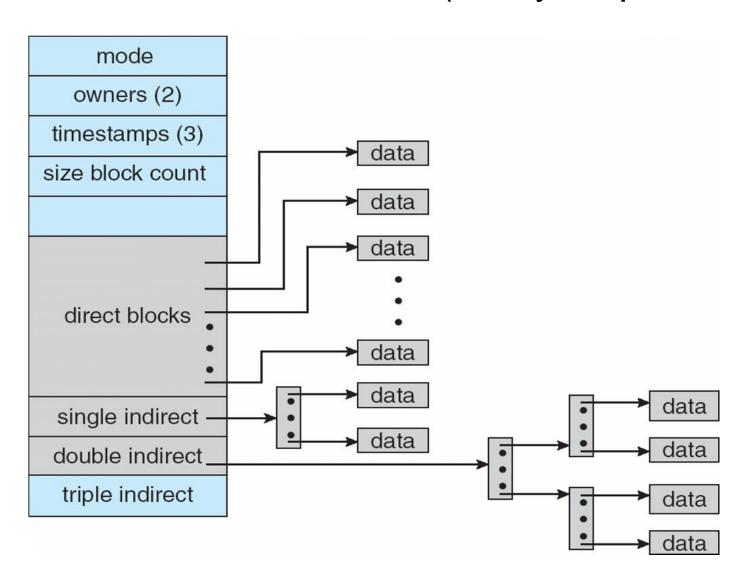
FAT discussion

- Entry size = 16 bits
 - What's the maximum size of the FAT? **65,536 entries**
 - Given a 512 byte block, what's the maximum size of FS? 32 MB
 - One attack: go to bigger blocks. Pros? Cons?
- Space overhead of FAT is trivial:
 - 2 bytes / 512 byte block = \sim 0.4% (Compare to Unix)
- Reliability: how to protect against errors?
 - Create duplicate copies of FAT on disk.
 - State duplication a very common theme in reliability
- Bootstrapping: where is root directory?
 - Fixed location on disk:

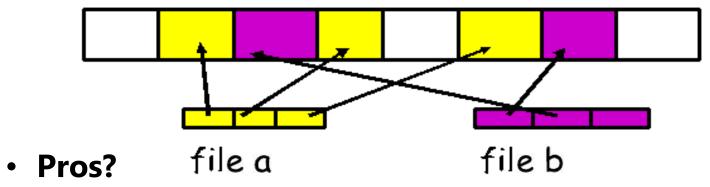
FAT (opt) FAT root dir	
------------------------	--



Combined Scheme: UNIX (4K bytes per block)



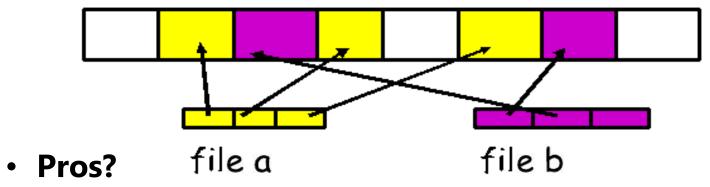
- Each file has an array holding all of it's block pointers
 - Just like a page table, so will have similar issues
 - Max file size fixed by array's size (static or dynamic?)
 - Allocate array to hold file's block pointers on file creation
 - Allocate actual blocks on demand using free list



Cons?

Each file has an array holding all of it's block pointers

- Just like a page table, so will have similar issues
- Max file size fixed by array's size (static or dynamic?)
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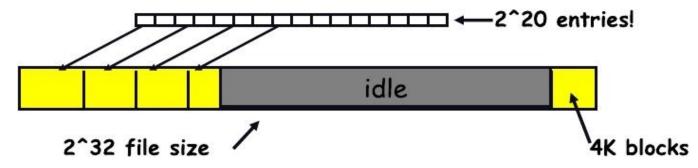


- Both sequential and random access easy

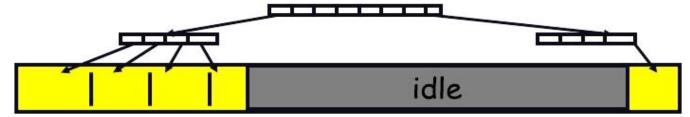
Cons?

- Mapping table requires large chunk of contiguous space . . . Same problem we were trying to solve initially

Issues same as in page tables

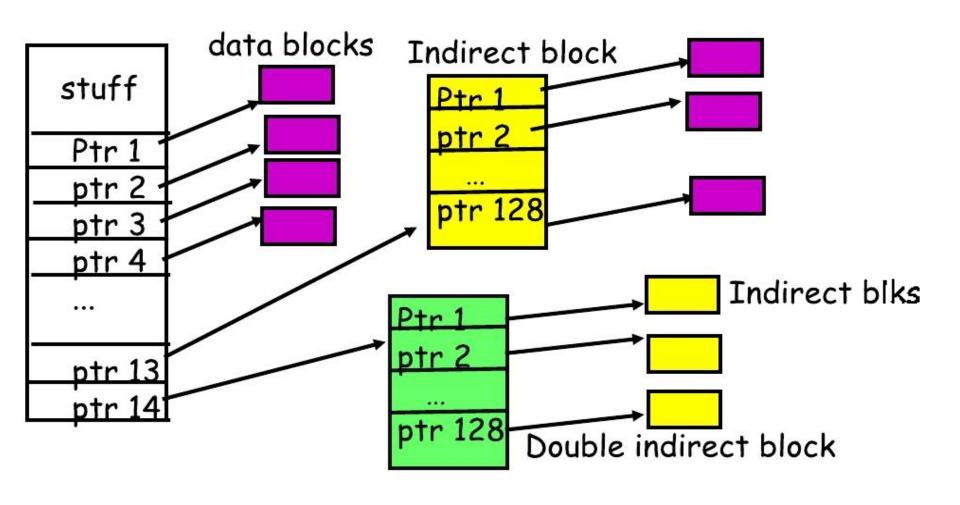


- Large possible file size = lots of unused entries
- Large actual size? table needs large contiguous disk chunk
- Solve identically: small regions with index array, this array with another array, . . . Downside?



Multi-level indexed files (old BSD FS)

inode = 14 block pointers + "stuff"



Old BSD FS discussion

Pros:

- Simple, easy to build, fast access to small files
- Maximum file length fixed, but large.

Cons:

- What is the worst case # of accesses?
- What is the worst-case space overhead? (e.g., 13 block file)

An empirical problem:

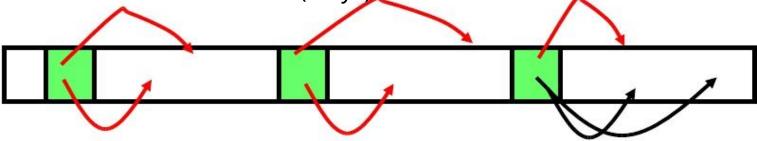
 Because you allocate blocks by taking them off unordered freelist, meta data and data get strewn across disk

More about inodes

- Inodes are stored in a fixed-size array
 - Size of array fixed when disk is initialized; can't be changed
 - Lives in known location, originally at one side of disk:



Now is smeared across it (why?)



- The index of an inode in the inode array called an i-number
- Internally, the OS refers to files by i-number
- When file is opened, inode brought in memory
- Written back when modified and file closed or time elapses

Directories

Problem:

- "Spend all day generating data, come back the next morning, want to use it." F. Corbato, on why files/dirs invented.
- Approach 0: Have users remember where on disk their files are
 - (E.g., like remembering your social security or bank account #)
- Yuck. People want human digestible names
 - We use directories to map names to file blocks
- Next: What is in a directory and why?

A short history of directories

Approach 1: Single directory for entire system

- Put directory at known location on disk
- Directory contains name, i-number pairs
- If one user uses a name, no one else can
- Many ancient personal computers work this way

Approach 2: Single directory for each user

- Still clumsy, and Is on 10,000 files is a real pain

Approach 3: Hierarchical name spaces

- Allow directory to map names to files or other dirs
- File system forms a tree (or graph, if links allowed)
- Large name spaces tend to be hierarchical (ip addresses, domain names, scoping in programming languages, etc.)

Hierarchical Unix

- Used since CTSS (1960s)
 - Unix picked up and used really nicely
- afs bin cdrom dev sbin tmp
 - awk chmod chown
- Directories stored on disk just like regular files
 - Inode contains special flag bit set
 - User 's can read just like any other file
 - Only special programs can write (why?)
 - Inodes at fixed disk location
 - File pointed to by the index may be another directory

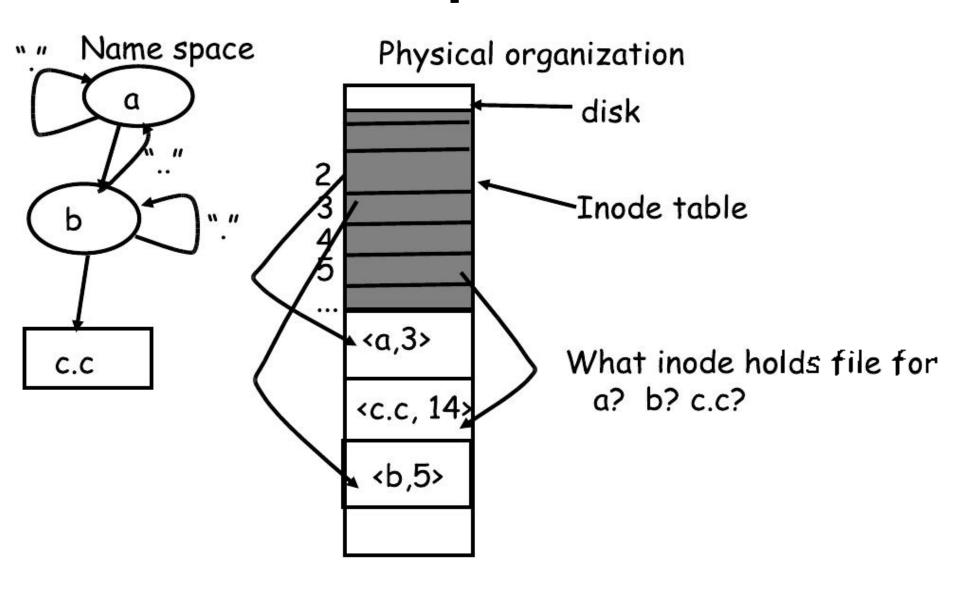
```
<name,inode#>
    <afs,1021>
    <tmp,1020>
    <bin,1022>
    <cdrom,4123>
        <dev,1001>
        <sbin,1011>
        ::
```

- Makes FS into hierarchical tree (what needed to make a DAG?)
- Simple, plus speeding up file ops speeds up dir ops!

Naming magic

- Bootstrapping: Where do you start looking?
 - Root directory always inode #2 (0 and 1 historically reserved)
- Special names:
 - Root directory: "/"
 - Current directory: "."
 - Parent directory: ".."
- Special names not implemented in FS:
 - User 's home directory: "~"
 - Globbing: "foo.*" expands to all files starting "foo."
- Using the given names, only need two operations to navigate the entire name space:
 - cd *name*: move into (change context to) directory *name*
 - Is: enumerate all names in current directory (context)

Unix example: /a/b/c.c



Default context: working directory

Cumbersome to constantly specify full path names

- In Unix, each process associated with a "current working directory"
- File names that do not begin with "/" are assumed to be relative to the working directory, otherwise translation happens as before

Shells track a default list of active contexts

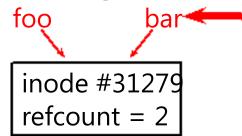
- A "search path" for programs you run
- Given a search path A : B : C, a shell will check in A, then check in B, then check in C
- Can escape using explicit paths: "./foo"

Example of locality

Hard and soft links (synonyms)

More than one dir entry can refer to a given file

- Unix stores count of pointers ("hard links") to inode
- To make: "In foo bar" creates a synonym (bar) for *file* foo



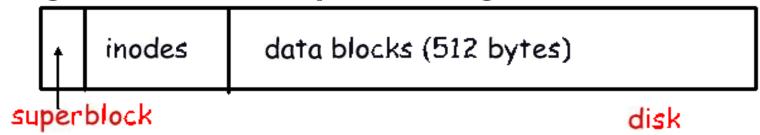
Soft links = synonyms for names

- Point to a file (or dir) *name*, but object can be deleted from underneath it (or never even exist).
- Unix implements like directories: inode has special "sym link" bit set and contains pointed to name

- When the file system encounters a symbolic link it automatically translates it (if possible).

Case study: speeding up FS

Original Unix FS: Simple and elegant:



Components:

- Data blocks
- Inodes (directories represented as files)
- Hard links
- Superblock. (specifies number of blks in FS, counts of max # of files, pointer to head of free list)

Problem: slow

- Only gets 20Kb/sec (2% of disk maximum) even for sequential disk transfers!

A plethora of performance costs

Blocks too small (512 bytes)

- File index too large
- Too many layers of mapping indirection
- Transfer rate low (get one block at time)

Bad clustering of related objects:

- Consecutive file blocks not close together
- Inodes far from data blocks
- Inodes for directory not close together
- Poor enumeration performance: e.g., "Is", "grep foo *.c"
- Next: how FFS fixes these problems (to a degree)

FFS = Berkeley Fast File System = Unix File System = UFS

Problem: Internal fragmentation

- Block size was to small in original Unix FS
- Why not just make bigger?

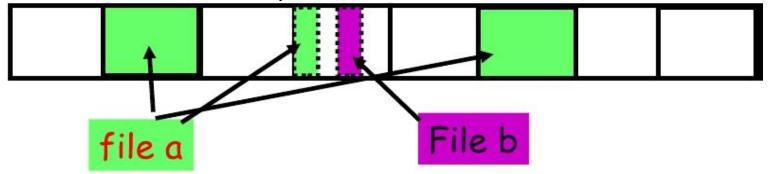
Block size	space wasted	file bandwidth
512	6.9%	2.6%
1024	11.8%	3.3%
2048	22.4%	6.4%
4096	45.6%	12.0%
1MB	99.0%	97.2%

- Bigger block increases bandwidth, but how to deal with wastage ("internal fragmentation")?
 - Use idea from malloc: split unused portion.

Solution: fragments

BSD FFS = UFS:

- Has large block size (4096 or 8192)
- Allow large blocks to be chopped into small ones ("fragments")
- Used for little files and pieces at the ends of files

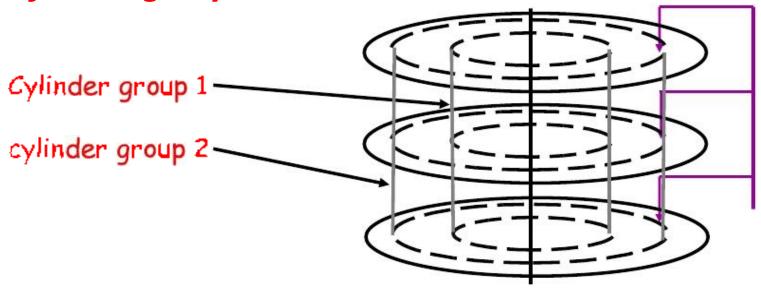


Best way to eliminate internal fragmentation?

- Variable sized splits of course
- Why does FFS use fixed-sized fragments (1024, 2048)?

Clustering related objects in FFS

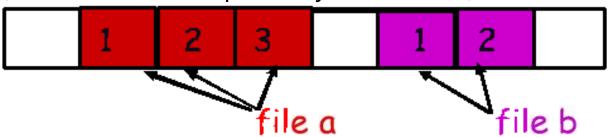
 Group 1 or more consecutive cylinders into a "cylinder group"



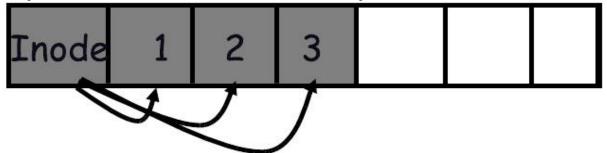
- Key: can access any block in a cylinder without performing a seek. Next fastest place is adjacent cylinder.
- Tries to put everything related in same cylinder group
- Tries to put everything not related in different group (?!)

Clustering in FFS

- Tries to put sequential blocks in adjacent sectors
 - (Access one block, probably access next)



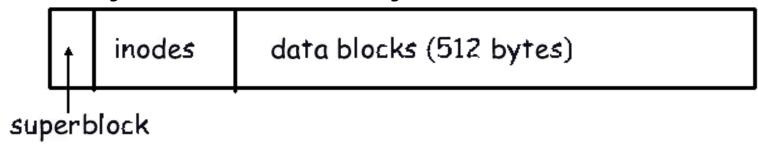
- Tries to keep inode in same cylinder as file data:
 - (If you look at inode, most likely will look at data too)



- Tries to keep all inodes in a dir in same cylinder group
 - Access one name, frequently access many, e.g., "Is -I"

What does a cylinder group look like?

Basically a mini-Unix file system:



How to ensure there's space for related stuff?

- Place different directories in different cylinder groups
- Keep a "free space reserve" so can allocate near existing things
- When file grows too big (1MB) send its remainder to different cylinder group.

Finding space for related objects

Old Unix (& dos): Linked list of free blocks

- Just take a block off of the head. Easy.



- Bad: free list gets jumbled over time. Finding adjacent blocks hard and slow

FFS: switch to bit-map of free blocks

- 101010111111110000011111111000101100
- Easier to find contiguous blocks.
- Small, so usually keep entire thing in memory
- Key: keep a reserve of free blocks. Makes finding a close block easier

Using a bitmap

- Usually keep entire bitmap in memory:
 - 4G disk / 4K byte blocks. How big is map?
- Allocate block close to block x?
 - Check for blocks near bmap[x/32]
 - If disk almost empty, will likely find one near
 - As disk becomes full, search becomes more expensive and less effective.
- Trade space for time (search time, file access time)
- Keep a reserve (e.g., 10%) of disk always free, ideally scattered across disk
 - Don't tell users (df → 110% full)
 - With 10% free, can almost always find one of them free

So what did we gain?

Performance improvements:

- Able to get 20-40% of disk bandwidth for large files
- 10-20x original Unix file system!
- Better small file performance (why?)
- Is this the best we can do? No.
- Block based rather than extent based
 - Name contiguous blocks with single pointer and length
 - (Linux ext2fs)

Writes of metadata done synchronously

- Really hurts small file performance
- Make asynchronous with write-ordering ("soft updates") or logging (the episode file system, ~LFS)
- Play with semantics (/tmp file systems)

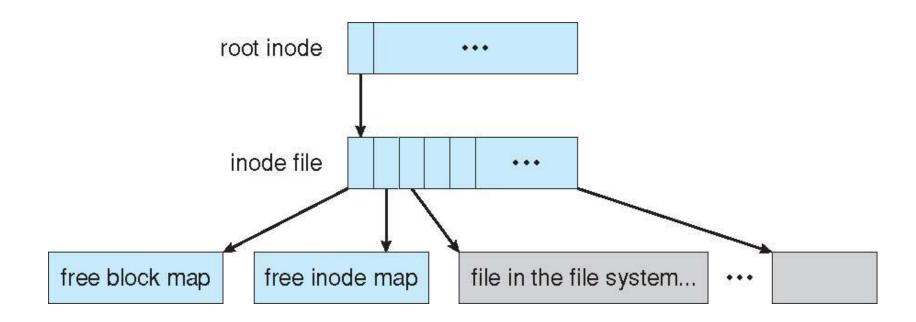
Other hacks

- Obvious:
 - Big file cache.
- Fact: no rotation delay if get whole track.
 - How to use?
- Fact: transfer cost negligible.
 - Recall: Can get 50x the data for only \sim 3% more overhead
 - 1 sector: $10ms + 8ms + 10\mu s$ (= 512 B/(50 MB/s)) $\approx 18ms$
 - 50 sectors: 10ms + 8ms + .5ms = 18.5ms
 - How to use?
- Fact: if transfer huge, seek + rotation negligible
 - Hoard data, write out MB at a time.

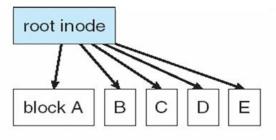
Example: WAFL File System

- Used on Network Appliance "Filers" distributed file system appliances
- "Write-anywhere file layout"
- Serves up NFS, CIFS, http, ftp
- Random I/O optimized, write optimized
 - NVRAM for write caching
- Similar to Berkeley Fast File System, with extensive modifications

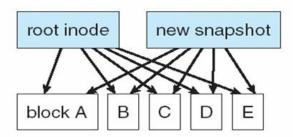
The WAFL File Layout



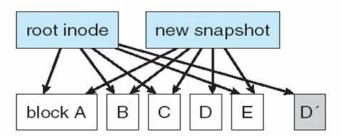
Snapshots in WAFL



(a) Before a snapshot.



(b) After a snapshot, before any blocks change.



(c) After block D has changed to D´.

Summary

- Read Ch. 1-12
- Processes and Threads (Ch. 4)
- Process Scheduling (Ch. 5)
- Synchronization (Ch. 6)
- Deadlock (Ch. 7)
- Memory Management (Ch. 8)
- Virtual Memory (Ch. 9)
- Mass-Storage Structure (Ch. 10)
- File System Interface (Ch. 11)
- File System Implementation (Ch. 12)
- Project #2 System Calls and User-Level Processes