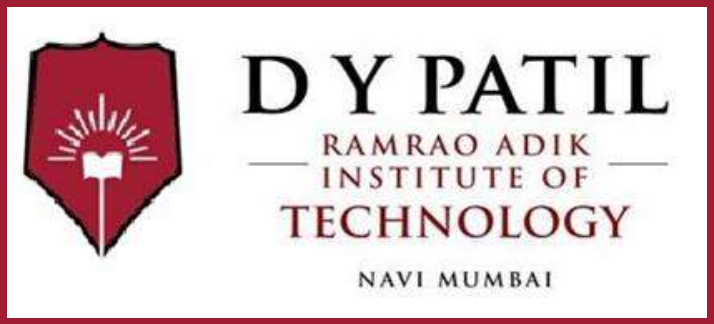


Subject Name : Operating Systems

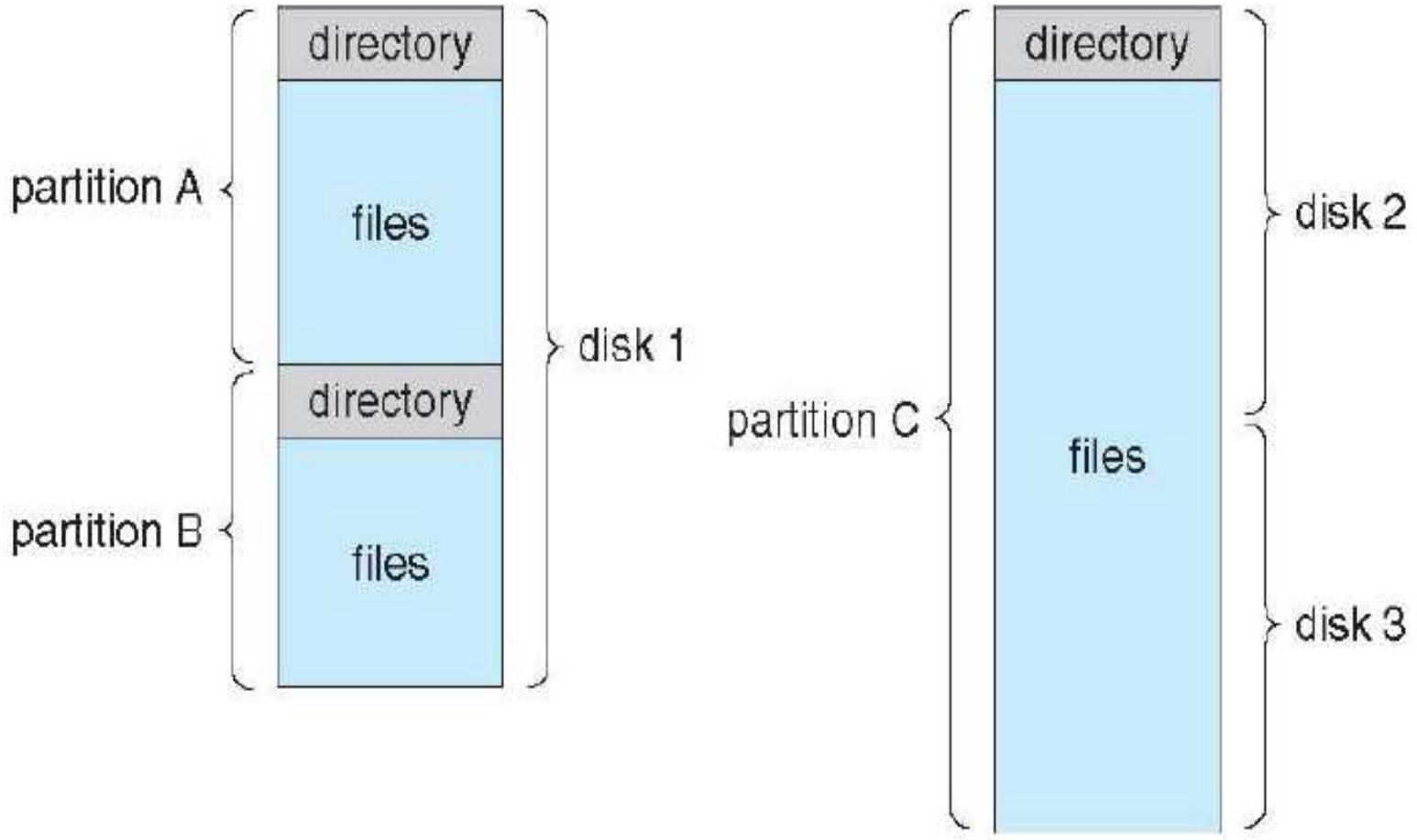
Unit No: 6

Unit Name: File Management

Faculty Name: Ms. Puja Padiya

Lecture: File Directories

A Typical File System Organization



Type of File System

- We mostly talk of general-purpose file systems
- But systems frequently have may file systems, some general- and some special- purpose
- Consider Solaris has
  - tmpfs – memory-based volatile FS for fast, temporary I/O
  - objfs – interface into kernel memory to get kernel symbols for debugging
  - ctfs – contract file system for managing daemons
  - lofs – loopback file system allows one FS to be accessed in place of another
  - procfs – kernel interface to process structures
  - ufs, zfs – general purpose file systems

Operation Performed on Directory

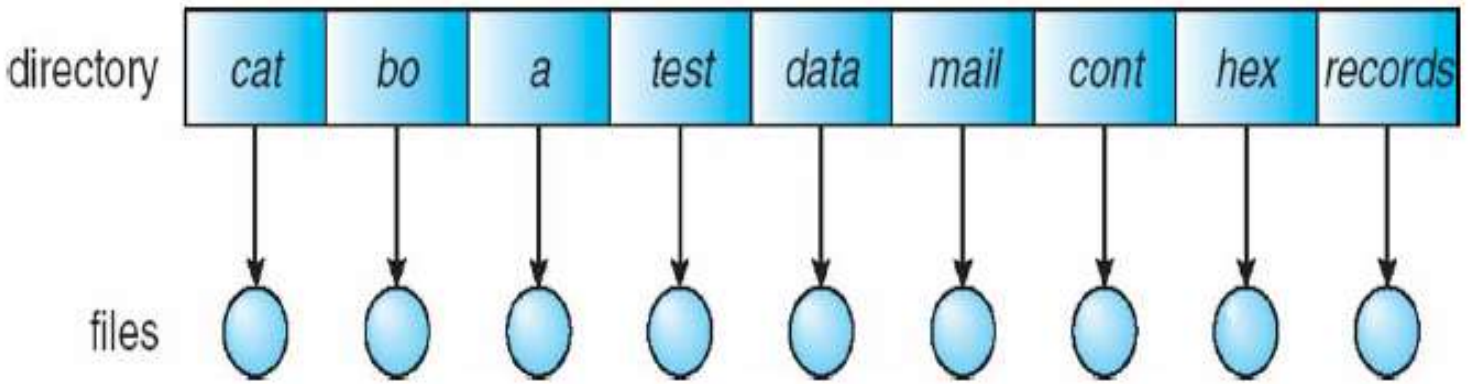
- Search for a file
- Create a file
- Delete a file
- List a directory
- Rename a file
- Traverse the file system

Organize the Directory (Logically) to obtain

- Efficiency – locating a file quickly
- Naming – convenient to users
  - Two users can have same name for different files
  - The same file can have several different names
- Grouping – logical grouping of files by properties, (e.g., all Java programs, all games, …)

Single Level Directory

- A single directory for all users

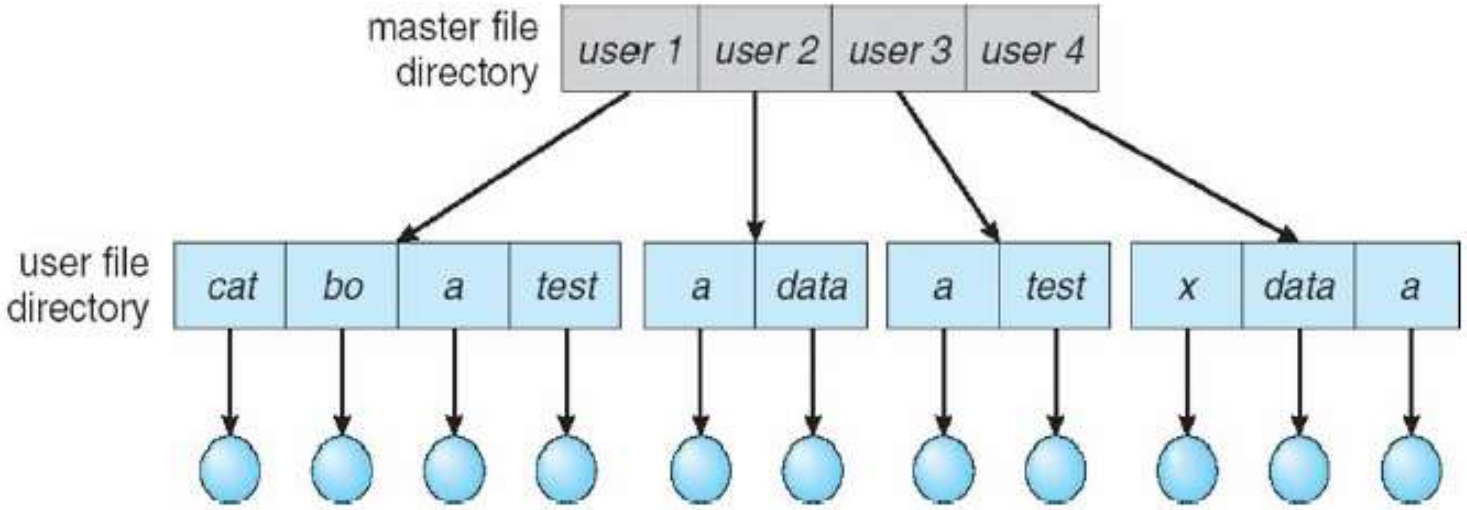


Naming problem

Grouping problem

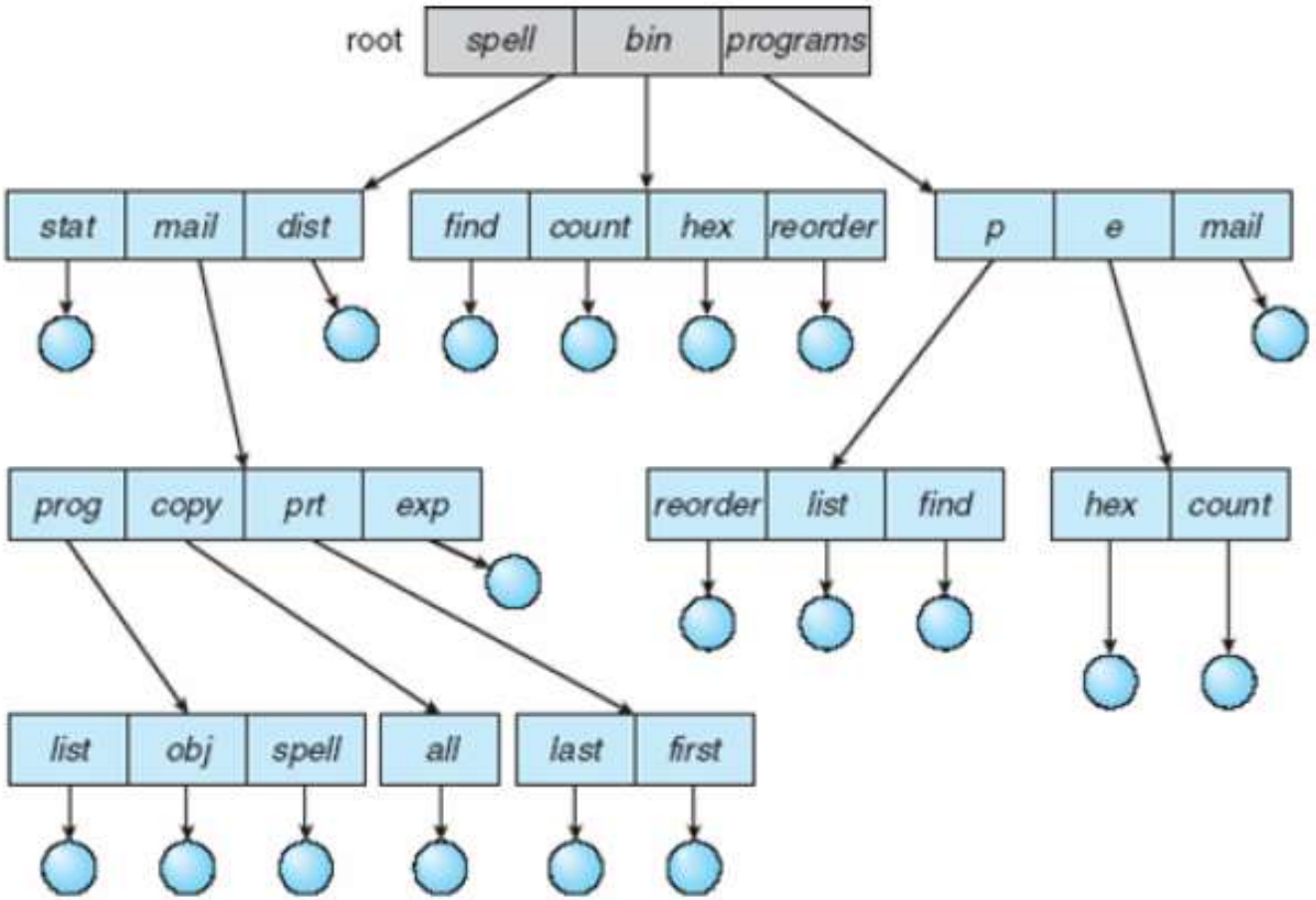
Two Level Directory

- Separate directory for each user



- Path name
- Can have the same file name for different user
- Efficient searching
- No grouping capability

Tree Structured Directory



Tree Structured Directories (Cont.)

- Efficient searching
- Grouping Capability
- Current directory (working directory)
  - `cd /spell/mail/prog`
  - `type list`

Tree Structured Directory (Cont.)

- Absolute or relative path name
- Creating a new file is done in current directory
- Delete a file

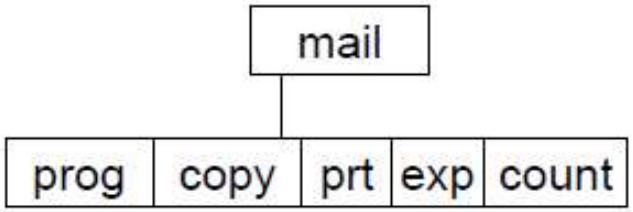
```
rm <file-name>
```

- Creating a new subdirectory is done in current directory

```
mkdir <dir-name>
```

Example: if in current directory `/mail`

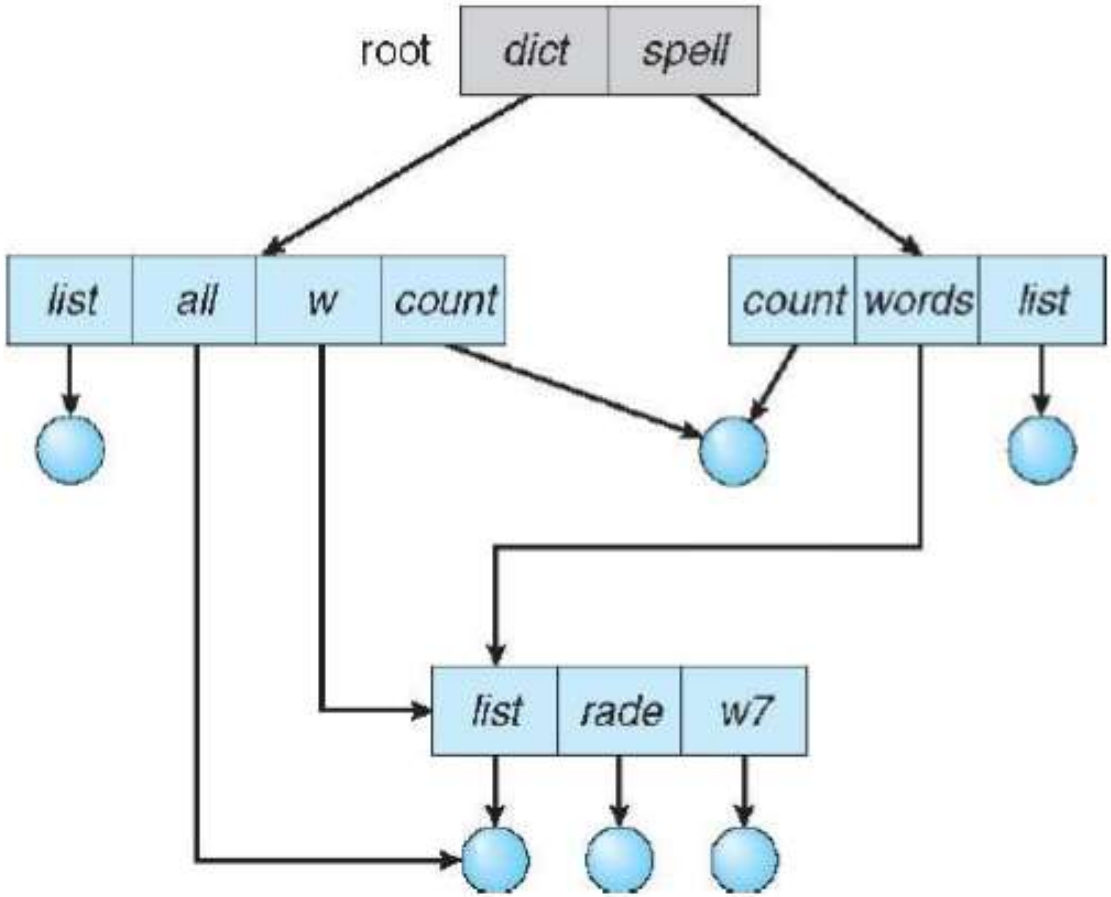
```
mkdir count
```



Deleting "mail" ⇒ deleting the entire subtree rooted by "mail"

Acyclic Graph Directories

- Have shared subdirectories and files

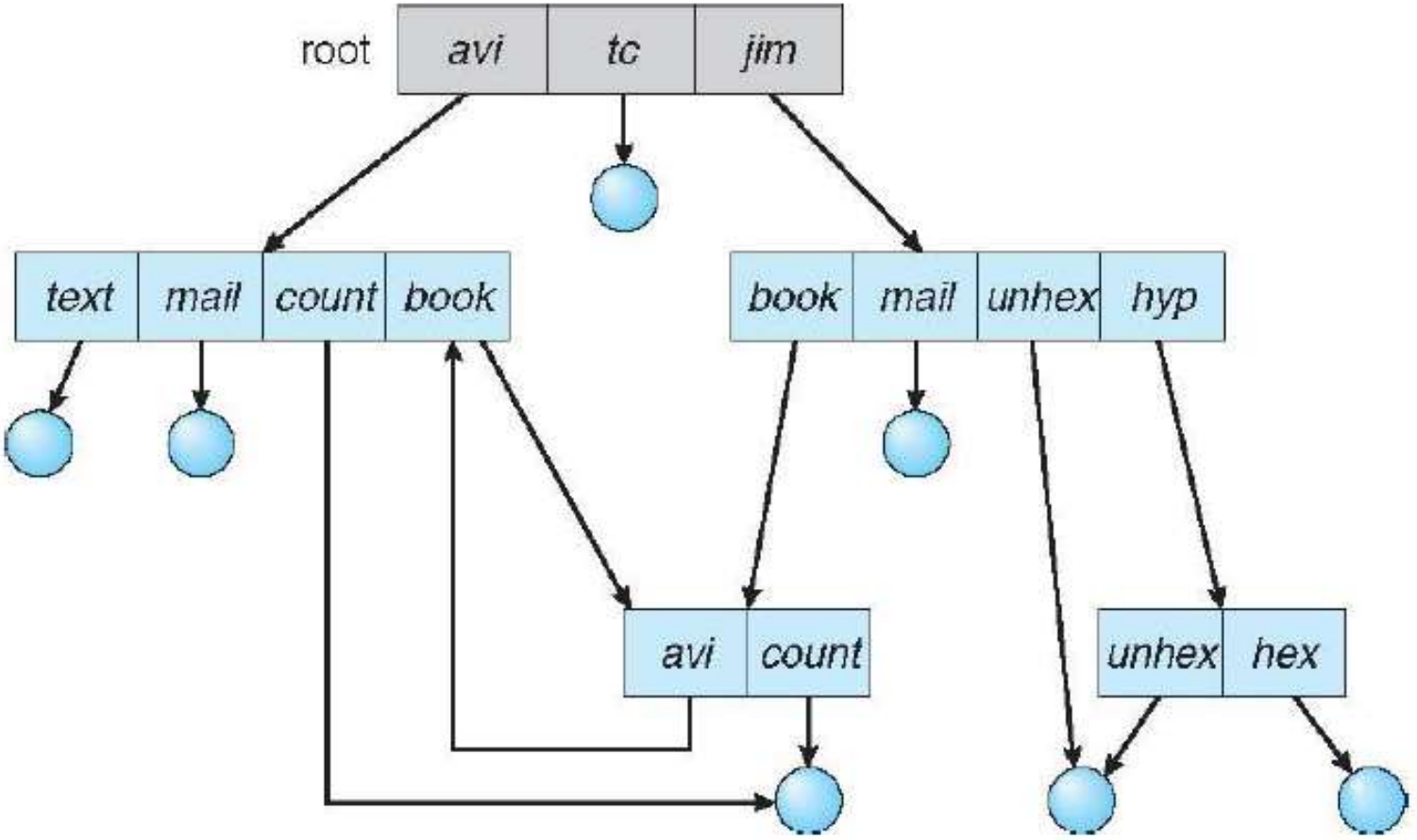


Acyclic Graph Directories (Cont.)

- Two different names (aliasing)
- If ***dict*** deletes ***list*** ⇒ dangling pointer

  Solutions:
  - Backpointers, so we can delete all pointers
    Variable size records a problem
  - Backpointers using a daisy chain organization
  - Entry-hold-count solution
- New directory entry type
  - **Link** – another name (pointer) to an existing file
  - **Resolve the link** – follow pointer to locate the file

General Graph Directories



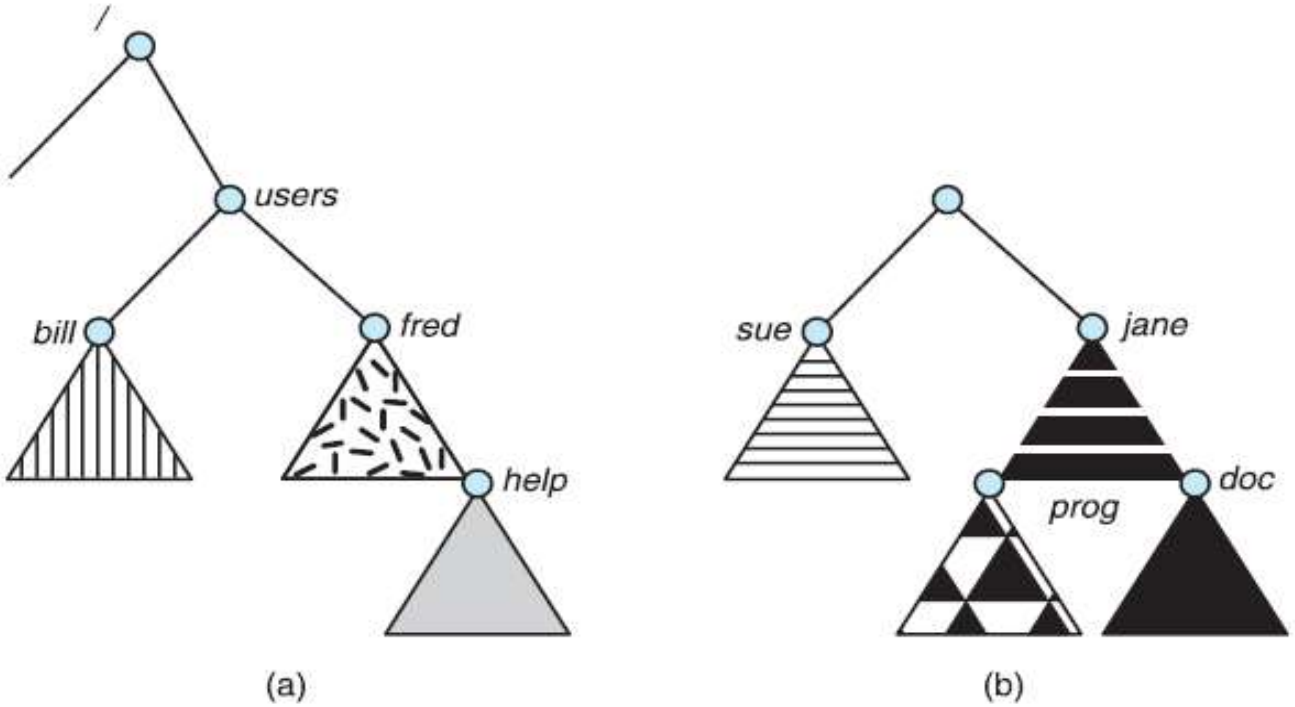
General Graph Directories (Cont.)

- How do we guarantee no cycles?
  - Allow only links to file not subdirectories
  - Garbage collection
  - Every time a new link is added use a cycle detection algorithm to determine whether it is OK

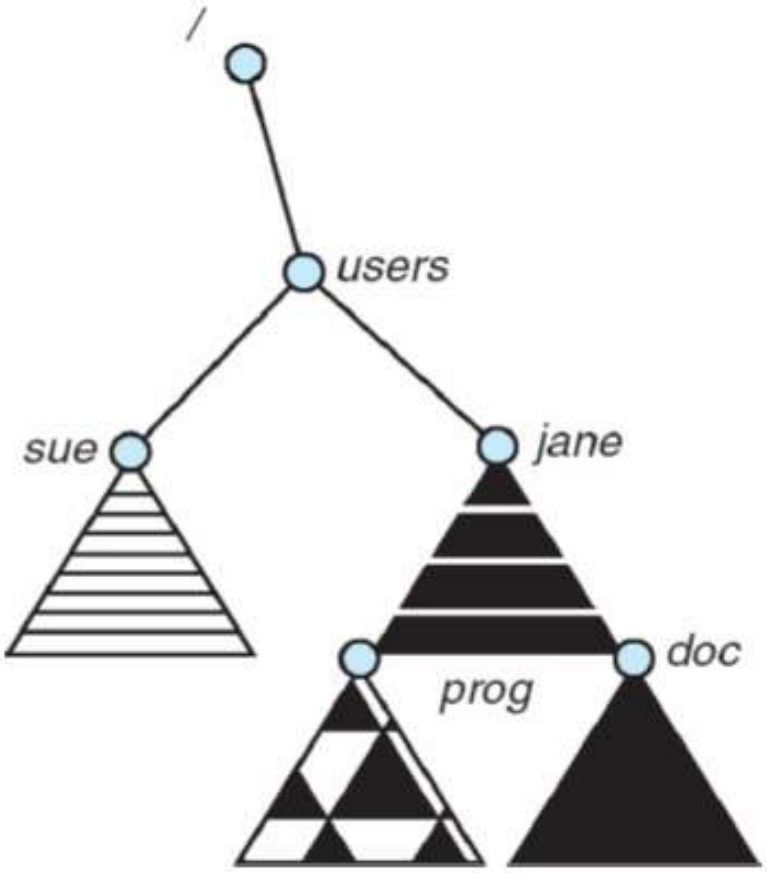
Lecture: File Sharing

File System Mounting

- A file system must be **mounted** before it can be accessed
- A unmounted file system (i.e., Fig. 10-11(b)) is mounted at a **mount point**



Mount Point



File Sharing

- Sharing of files on multi-user systems is desirable
- Sharing may be done through a **protection** scheme
- On distributed systems, files may be shared across a network
- Network File System (NFS) is a common distributed file-sharing method
- If multi-user system
  - **User IDs** identify users, allowing permissions and protections to be per-user
    Group IDs allow users to be in groups, permitting group access rights
  - Owner of a file / directory
  - Group of a file / directory

File Sharing –Remote File Systems

- Uses networking to allow file system access between systems
  - Manually via programs like FTP
  - Automatically, seamlessly using **distributed file systems**
  - Semi automatically via the **world wide web**
- **Client-server** model allows clients to mount remote file systems from servers
  - Server can serve multiple clients
  - Client and user-on-client identification is insecure or complicated
  - **NFS** is standard UNIX client-server file sharing protocol
  - **CIFS** is standard Windows protocol
  - Standard operating system file calls are translated into remote calls
- Distributed Information Systems (**distributed naming services**) such as LDAP, DNS, NIS, Active Directory implement unified access to information needed for remote computing

File Sharing – Failure Mode

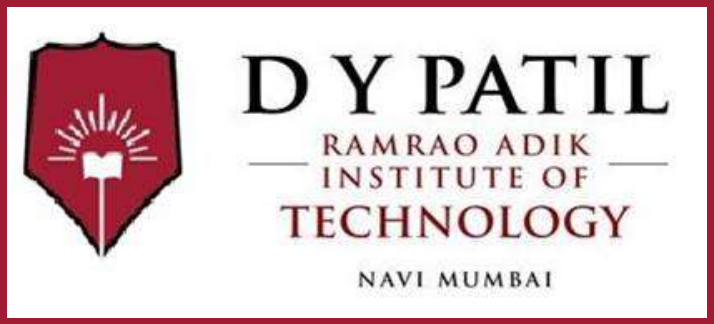
- All file systems have failure modes
  - For example corruption of directory structures or other non-user data, called **metadata**
- Remote file systems add new failure modes, due to network failure, server failure
- Recovery from failure can involve **state information** about status of each remote request
- **Stateless** protocols such as NFS v3 include all information in each request, allowing easy recovery but less security

File Sharing Consistency Semantics

- Specify how multiple users are to access a shared file simultaneously
  - Similar to Ch 6 process synchronization algorithms
    - Tend to be less complex due to disk I/O and network latency (for remote file systems
  - Andrew File System (AFS) implemented complex remote file sharing semantics
  - Unix file system (UFS) implements:
    - Writes to an open file visible immediately to other users of the same open file
    - Sharing file pointer to allow multiple users to read and write concurrently
  - AFS has session semantics
    - Writes only visible to sessions starting after the file is closed

Protection

- File owner/creator should be able to control:
  - what can be done
  - by whom
- Types of access
  - **Read**
  - **Write**
  - **Execute**
  - **Append**
  - **Delete**
  - **List**



Subject Name : Operating Systems

Unit No: 6

Unit Name: Input /Output Management

Faculty Name: Mrs. Puja Padiya

Lecture: I/O Devices, Organization of the I/O Function

Shortest Service Time First

- The SSTF policy is to select the disk I/O request that requires the least movement of the disk arm from its current position. Thus, we always choose to incur the minimum seek time.

- The first track accessed is 98, because this is the closest requested track to the starting position.

Principles of I/O Hardware

Device	Data rate
Keyboard	10 bytes/sec
Mouse	100 bytes/sec
56K modem	7 KB/sec
Telephone channel	8 KB/sec
Dual ISDN lines	16 KB/sec
Laser printer	100 KB/sec
Scanner	400 KB/sec
Classic Ethernet	1.25 MB/sec
USB (Universal Serial Bus)	1.5 MB/sec
Digital camcorder	4 MB/sec
IDE disk	5 MB/sec
40x CD-ROM	6 MB/sec
Fast Ethernet	12.5 MB/sec
ISA bus	16.7 MB/sec
EIDE (ATA-2) disk	16.7 MB/sec
FireWire (IEEE 1394)	50 MB/sec
XGA Monitor	60 MB/sec
SONET OC-12 network	78 MB/sec
SCSI Ultra 2 disk	80 MB/sec
Gigabit Ethernet	125 MB/sec
Ultrium tape	320 MB/sec
PCI bus	528 MB/sec
Sun Gigaplane XB backplane	20 GB/sec

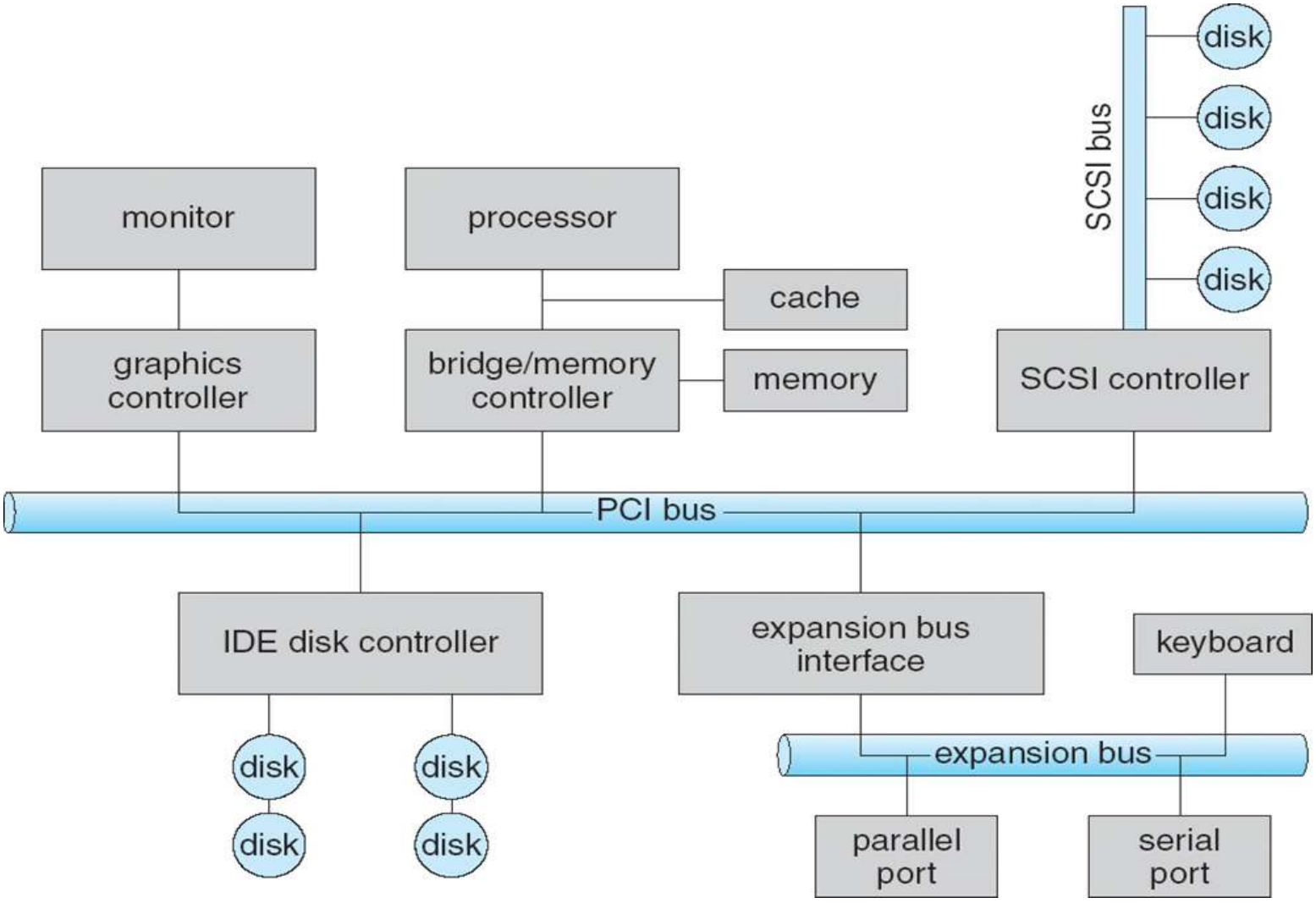
Overview

- I/O management is a major component of operating system design and operation
  - Important aspect of computer operation
  - I/O devices vary greatly
  - Various methods to control them
  - Performance management
  - New types of devices frequent
- Ports, busses, device controllers connect to various devices
- **Device drivers** encapsulate device details
  - Present uniform device-access interface to I/O subsystem

I/O Hardware

- Incredible variety of I/O devices
  - Storage
  - Transmission
  - Human-interface
- Common concepts – signals from I/O devices interface with computer
  - **Port** – connection point for device
  - **Bus** - **daisy chain** or shared direct access
  - **Controller** (**host adapter**) – electronics that operate port, bus, device
    - Sometimes integrated
    - Sometimes separate circuit board (host adapter)
    - Contains processor, microcode, private memory, bus controller, etc
      - Some talk to per-device controller with bus controller, microcode, memory, etc

A Typical PC Bus Structure



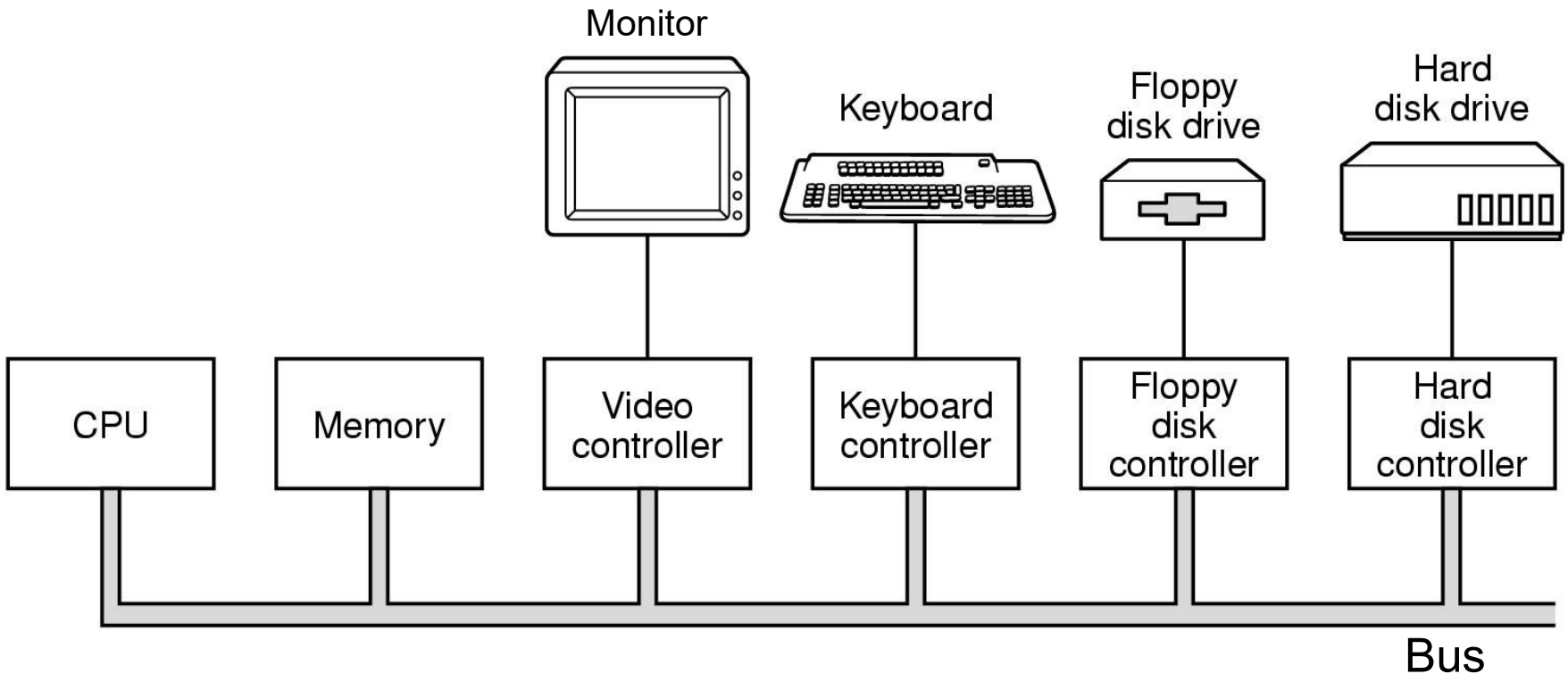
I/O Hardware (Cont.)

- I/O instructions control devices
- Devices usually have registers where device driver places commands, addresses, and data to write, or read data from registers after command execution
  - Data-in register, data-out register, status register, control register
  - Typically 1-4 bytes, or FIFO buffer
- Devices have addresses, used by
  - Direct I/O instructions
  - **Memory-mapped I/O**
    - Device data and command registers mapped to processor address space
    - Especially for large address spaces (graphics)

Device Controllers

- I/O devices have components:
  - mechanical component
  - electronic component
- The electronic component is the device controller
  - may be able to handle multiple devices
- Controller's tasks
  - convert serial bit stream to block of bytes
  - perform error correction as necessary
  - make available to main memory

Do you remember this?



Disk Controller

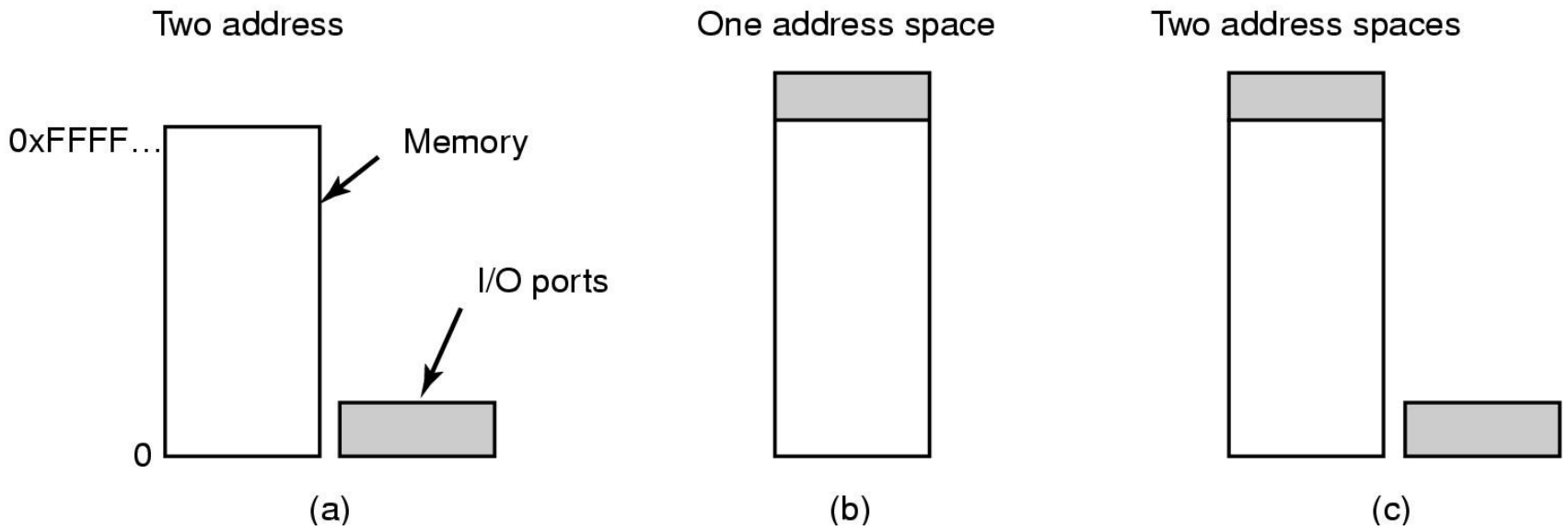
- 256 sectors of 512 bytes
- Controller sees a serial stream of bits
  - Preamble
  - Data
  - Error Correcting Code
- Controller must assemble data bit stream into blocks, error correct, then copy to mem

Video Controller

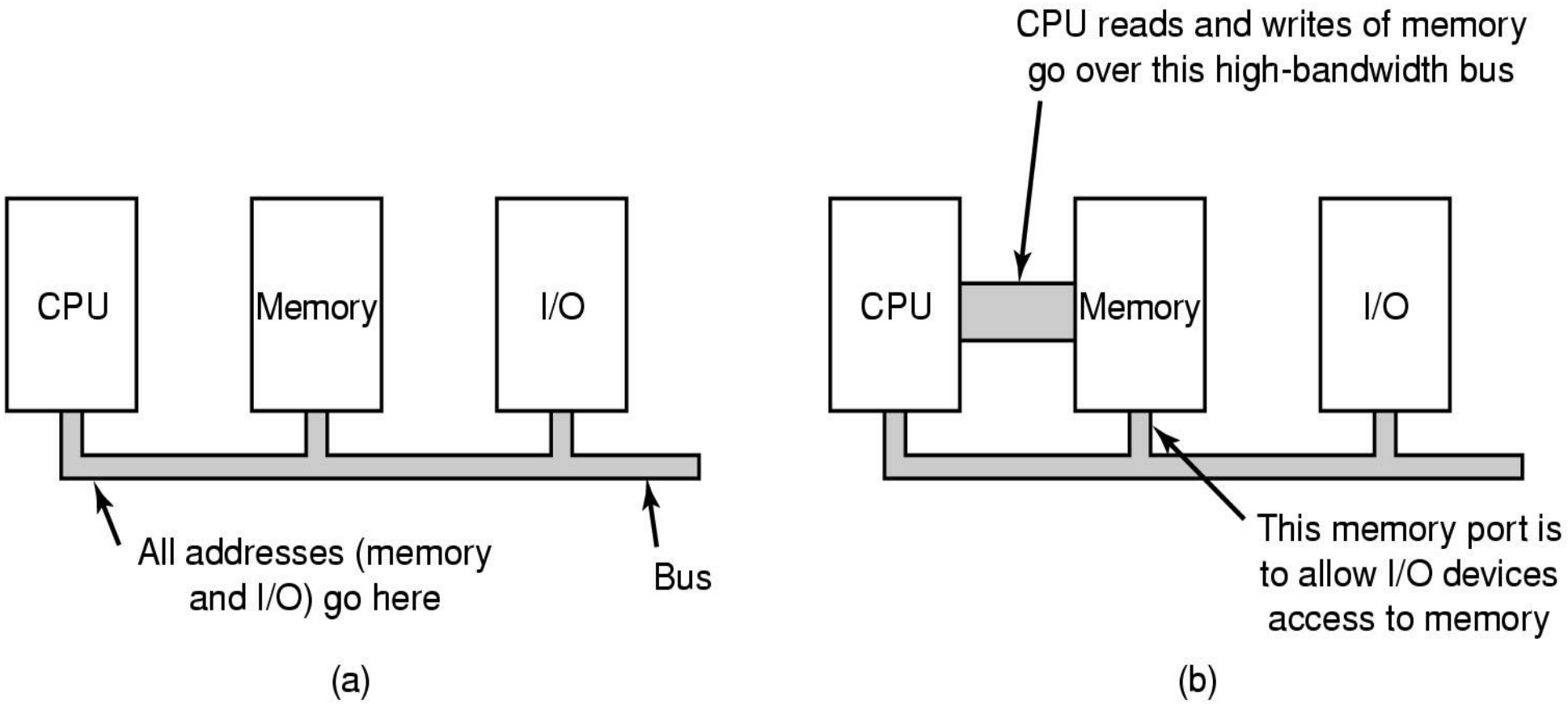
- Must control monitor hardware to scan CRT beam across each line (interlaced/non-interlaced), then go back to top left.
- With controller, OS simply tells controller a few parameters (screen resolution, frequency,…) then controller takes care of the rest

Memory-Mapped I/O (1)

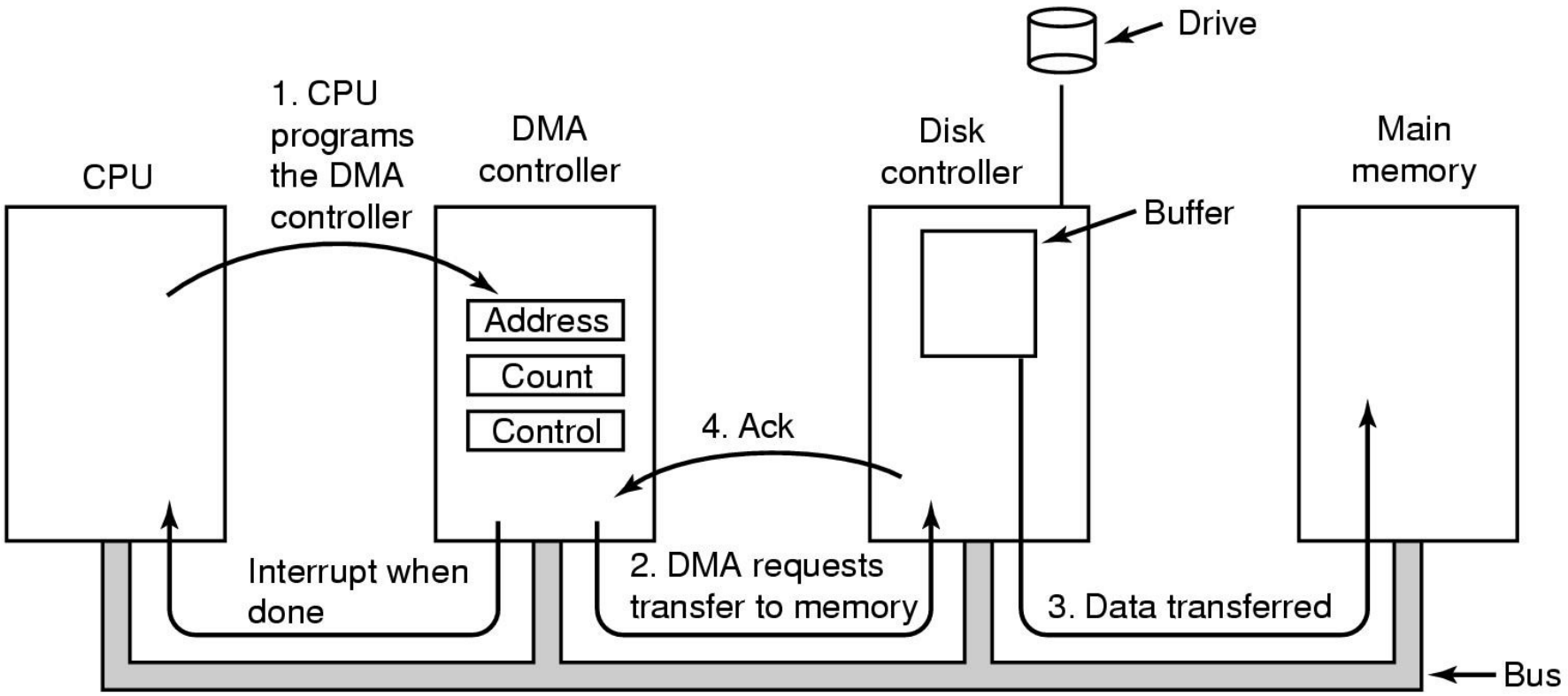
- Separate I/O and memory space
- Memory-mapped I/O
- Hybrid



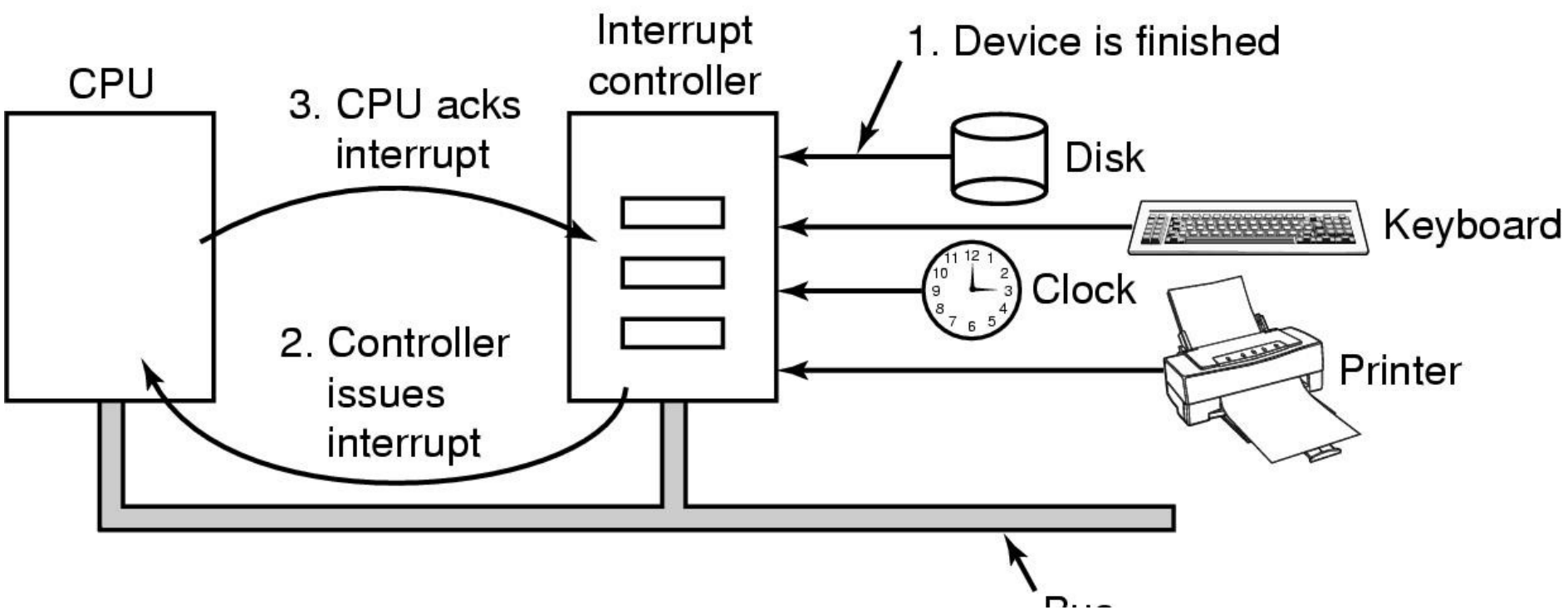
Memory-Mapped I/O (2)



Direct Memory Access (DMA)



Interrupts Revisited



Device I/O Port Locations on PCs (partial)

I/O address range (hexadecimal)	device
000–00F	DMA controller
020–021	interrupt controller
040–043	timer
200–20F	game controller
2F8–2FF	serial port (secondary)
320–32F	hard-disk controller
378–37F	parallel port
3D0–3DF	graphics controller
3F0–3F7	diskette-drive controller
3F8–3FF	serial port (primary)

Polling

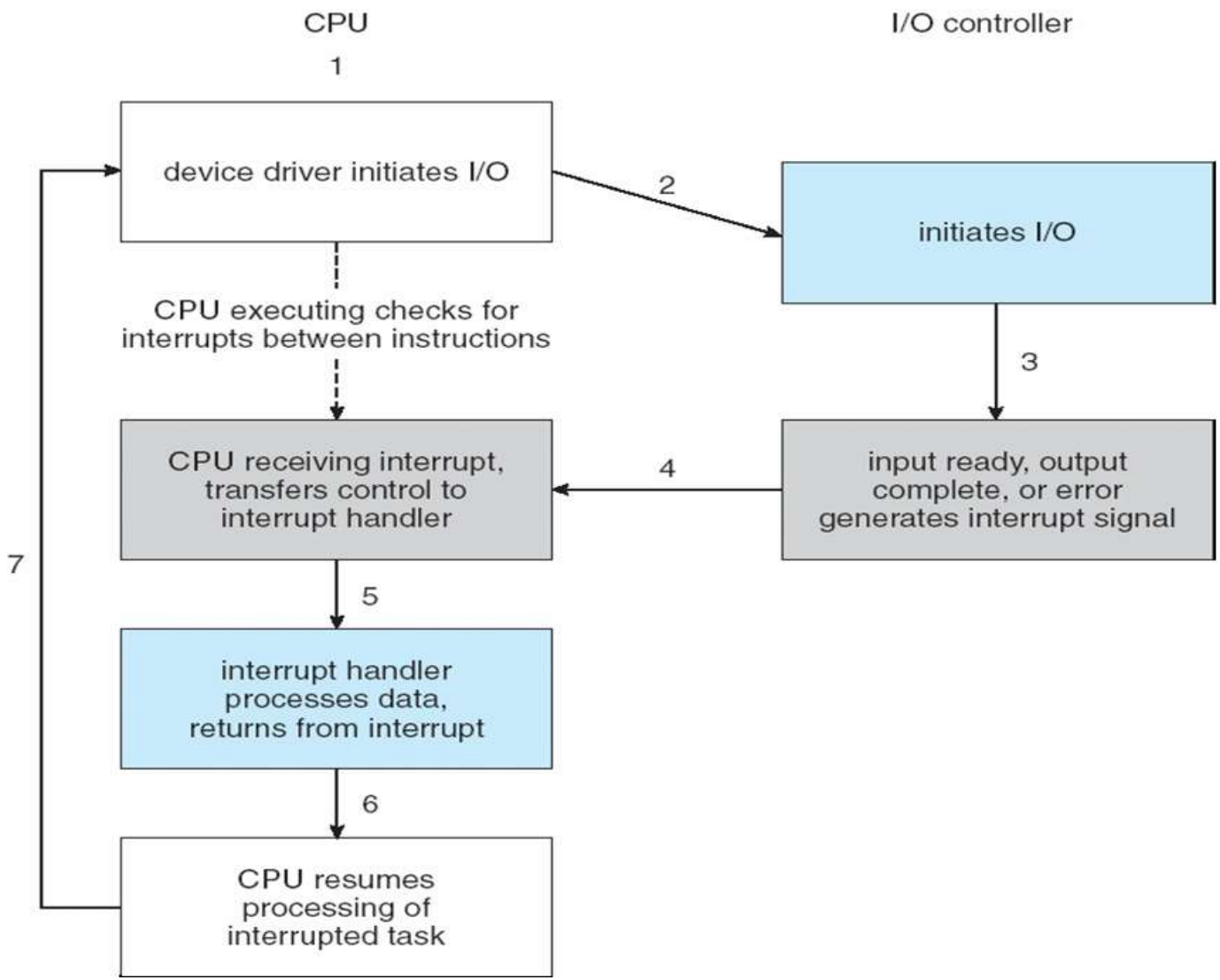
- For each byte of I/O
  1. Read busy bit from status register until 0
  2. Host sets read or write bit and if write copies data into data-out register
  3. Host sets command-ready bit
  4. Controller sets busy bit, executes transfer
  5. Controller clears busy bit, error bit, command-ready bit when transfer done

- Step 1 is **busy-wait** cycle to wait for I/O from device
  - Reasonable if device is fast
  - But inefficient if device slow
  - CPU switches to other tasks?
    - But if miss a cycle data overwritten / lost

Interrupts

- Polling can happen in 3 instruction cycles
  - Read status, logical-and to extract status bit, branch if not zero
  - How to be more efficient if non-zero infrequently?
- CPU **Interrupt-request line** triggered by I/O device
  - Checked by processor after each instruction
- **Interrupt handler** receives interrupts
  - **Maskable** to ignore or delay some interrupts
- Interrupt vector to dispatch interrupt to correct handler
  - Context switch at start and end
  - Based on priority
  - Some **nonmaskable**
  - Interrupt chaining if more than one device at same interrupt number

Interrupt-Driven I/O Cycle



Intel Pentium Processor Event-Vector Table

vector number	description
0	divide error
1	debug exception
2	null interrupt
3	breakpoint
4	INTO-detected overflow
5	bound range exception
6	invalid opcode
7	device not available
8	double fault
9	coprocessor segment overrun (reserved)
10	invalid task state segment
11	segment not present
12	stack fault
13	general protection
14	page fault
15	(Intel reserved, do not use)
16	floating-point error
17	alignment check
18	machine check
19–31	(Intel reserved, do not use)
32–255	maskable interrupts

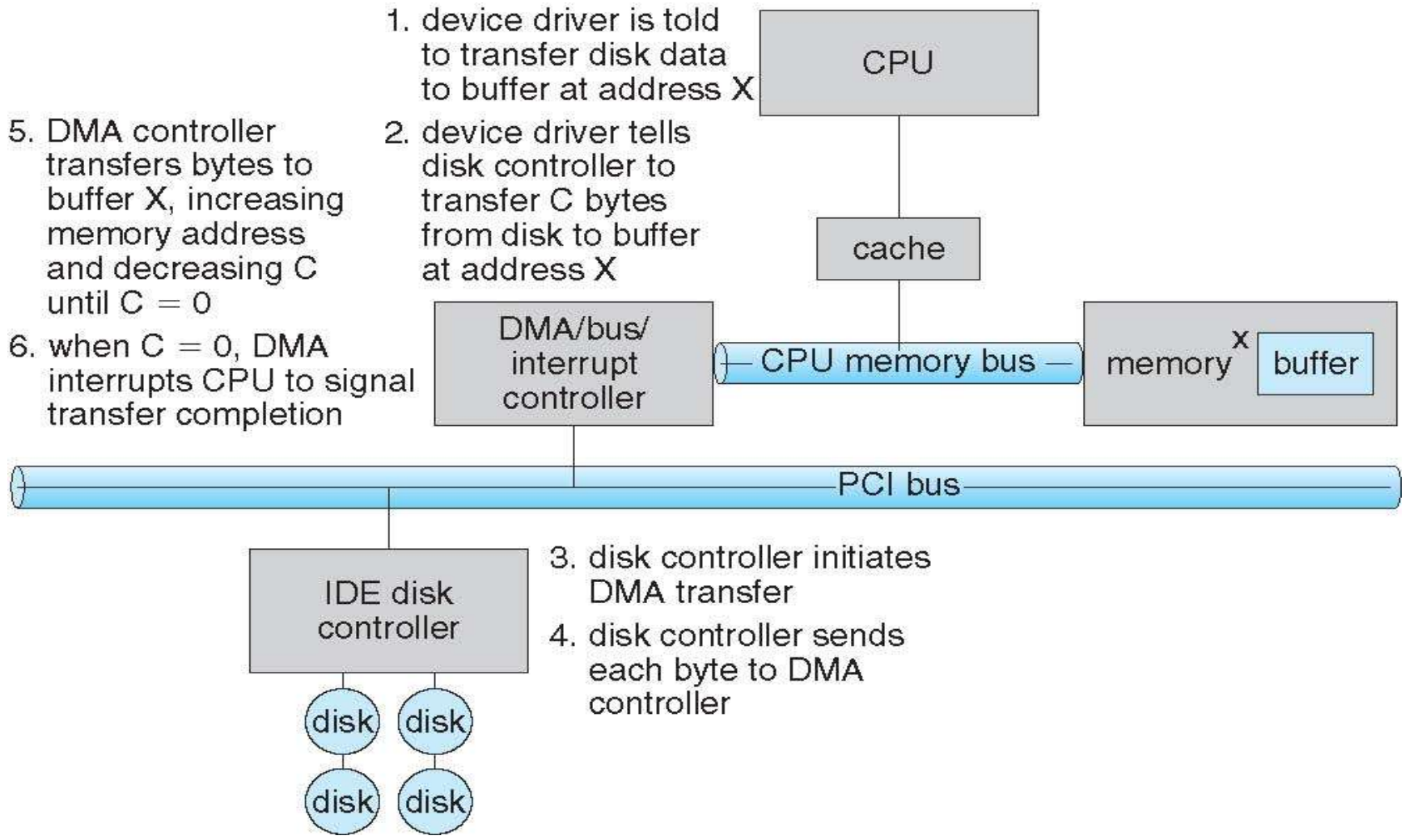
Interrupts (Cont.)

- Interrupt mechanism also used for exceptions
  - Terminate process, crash system due to hardware error
- Page fault executes when memory access error
- System call executes via trap to trigger kernel to execute request
- Multi-CPU systems can process interrupts concurrently
  - If operating system designed to handle it
- Used for time-sensitive processing, frequent, must be fast

Direct Memory Access

- Used to avoid **programmed I/O** (one byte at a time) for large data movement
- Requires **DMA** controller
- Bypasses CPU to transfer data directly between I/O device and memory
- OS writes DMA command block into memory
  - Source and destination addresses
  - Read or write mode
  - Count of bytes
  - Writes location of command block to DMA controller
  - Bus mastering of DMA controller – grabs bus from CPU
  - When done, interrupts to signal completion

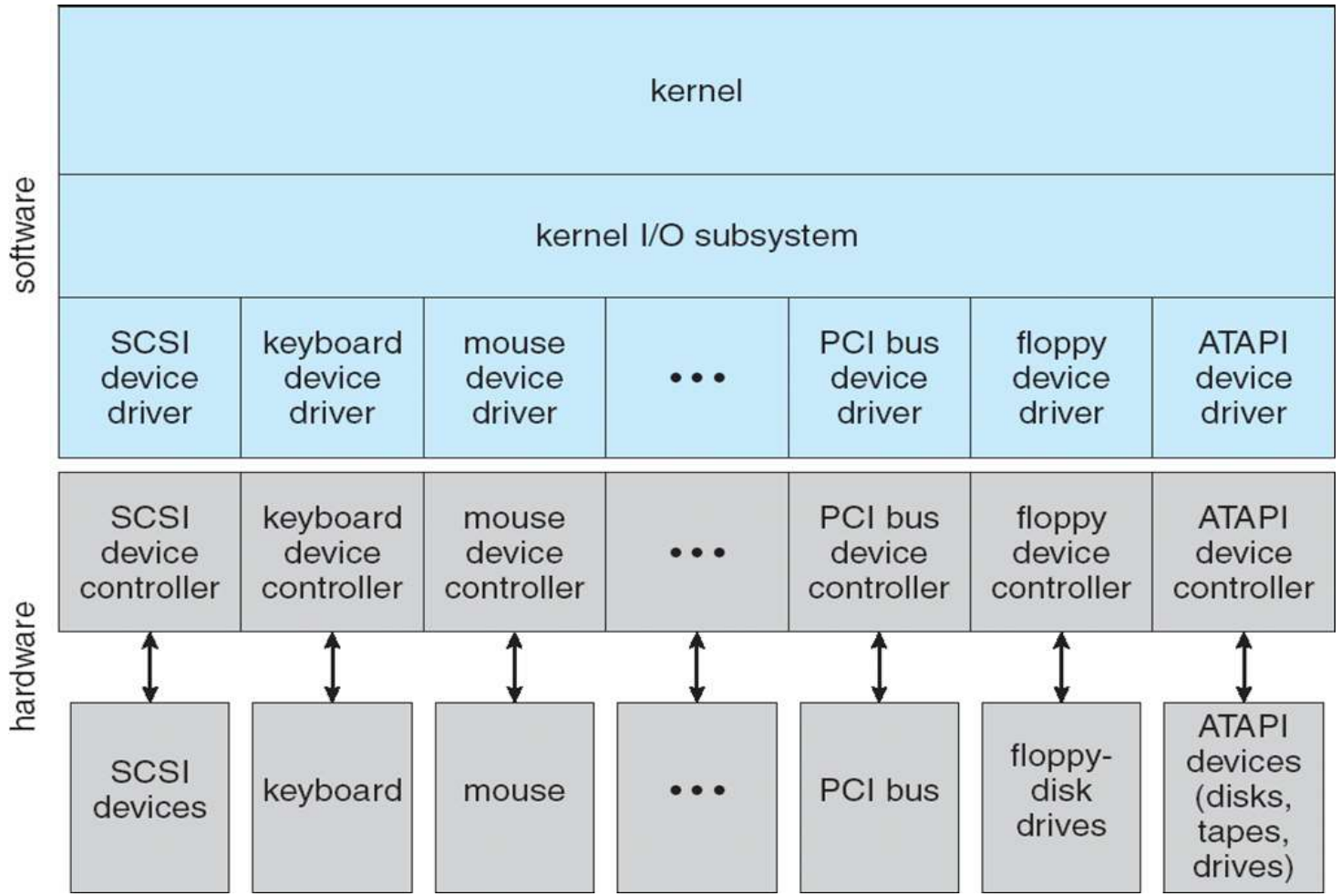
Six Step Process to Perform DMA Transfer



Application I/O Interface

- I/O system calls encapsulate device behaviors in generic classes
- Device-driver layer hides differences among I/O controllers from kernel
- New devices talking already-implemented protocols need no extra work
- Each OS has its own I/O subsystem structures and device driver frameworks
- Devices vary in many dimensions
  - **Character-stream** or **block**
  - **Sequential** or **random-access**
  - **Synchronous** or **asynchronous** (or both)
  - **Sharable** or **dedicated**
  - **Speed of operation**
  - **read-write**, **read only**, or **write only**

A Kernel I/O Structure



Characteristics of I/O Devices

aspect	variation	example
data-transfer mode	character block	terminal disk
access method	sequential random	modem CD-ROM
transfer schedule	synchronous asynchronous	tape keyboard
sharing	dedicated sharable	tape keyboard
device speed	latency seek time transfer rate delay between operations	
I/O direction	read only write only read–write	CD-ROM graphics controller disk

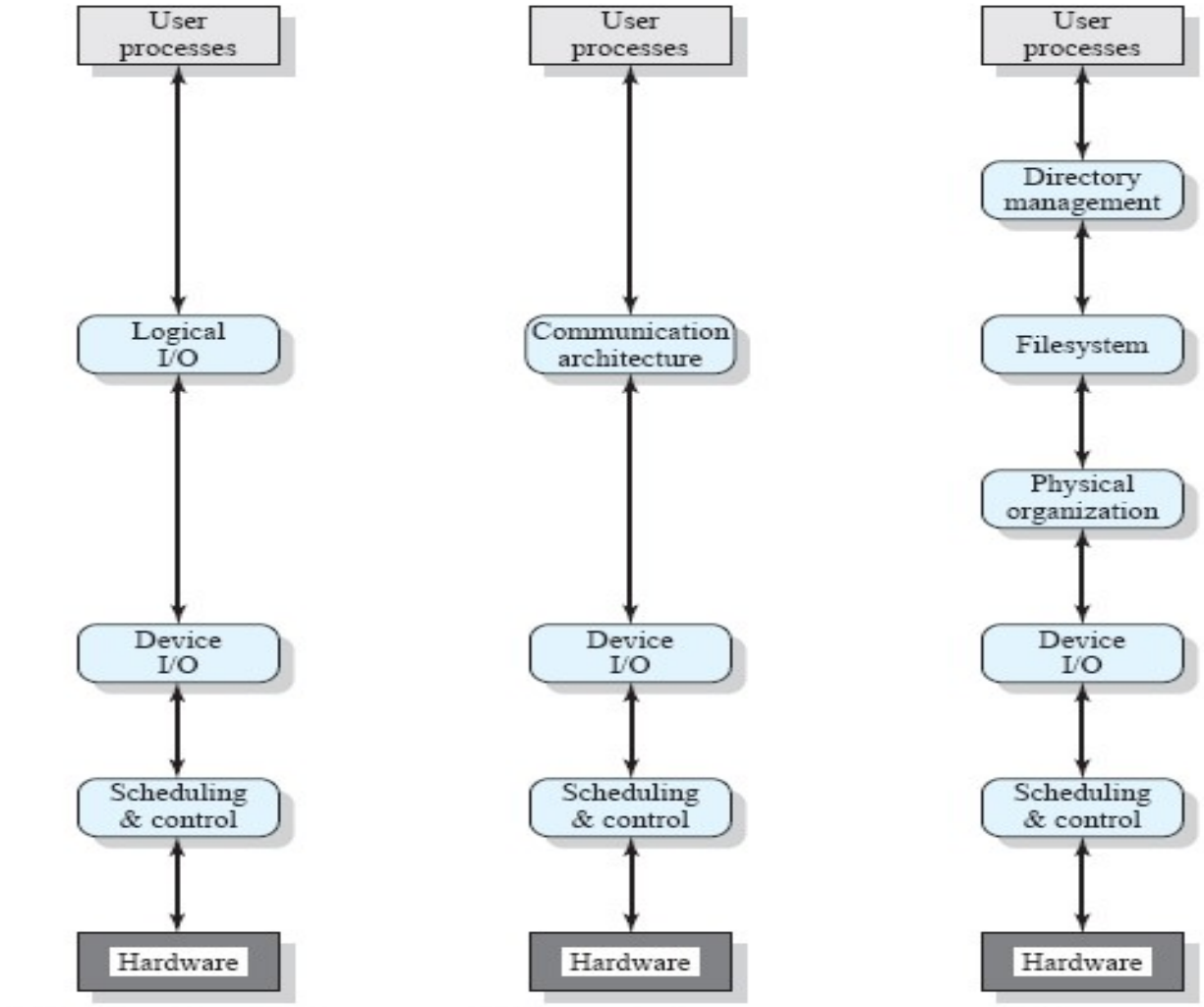
Design Objectives

- Two objectives are paramount in designing the I/O facility: efficiency and generality. Efficiency is important because I/O operations often form a bottleneck in a computing system.

- Swapping is used to bring in additional ready processes to keep the processor busy, but this in itself is an I/O operation.Thus, a major effort in I/O design has been schemes for improving the efficiency of the I/O.The area that has received the most attention, because of its importance, is disk I/O, and much of this chapter will be devoted to a study of disk I/O efficiency.

- The other major objective is generality. In the interests of simplicity and freedom from error, it is desirable to handle all devices in a uniform manner.This statement applies both to the way in which processes view I/O devices and the way in which the operating system manages I/O devices and operations.

Logical Structure of the I/O Function



(a) Local peripheral device (b) Communications port (c) Filesystem

Figure 11.4 A Model of I/O Organization

Logical Structure of the I/O Function

- The details of the organization will depend on the type of device and the application. The three most important logical structures are presented in the figure.
- Of course, a particular operating system may not conform exactly to these structures.
- However, the general principles are valid, and most operating systems approach I/O in approximately this way.
- Let us consider the simplest case first, that of a local peripheral device that communicates in a simple fashion, such as a stream of bytes or records. The following layers are involved:
-

Logical Structure of the I/O Function

- Logical I/O: The logical I/O module deals with the device as a logical resource and is not concerned with the details of actually controlling the device.
- Device I/O: The requested operations and data (buffered characters, records, etc.) are converted into appropriate sequences of I/O instructions, channel commands, and controller orders.
- Scheduling and control: The actual queuing and scheduling of I/O operations occurs at this layer, as well as the control of the operations. Thus, interrupts are handled at this layer and I/O status is collected and reported. This is the layer of software that actually interacts with the I/O module and hence the hardware.

Logical Structure of the I/O Function

- A block-oriented device stores information in blocks that are usually of fixed size, and transfers are made one block at a time. Generally, it is possible to reference data by its block number. Disks and USB keys are examples of block-oriented devices

- A stream-oriented device transfers data in and out as a stream of bytes, with no block structure.

- Terminals, printers, communications ports,mouse and other pointing devices, and most other devices that are not secondary storage are stream oriented.