

# The UNIX File System

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## 1 UNIX file system

A file system is created with `mkfs`. It defines a number of parameters for the system as depicted in figure 1. These parameters include :

- a bootblock - contains a primary boot program for the operating system;
- a superblock - static parameters of the file system, like total size, block and fragment sizes of data blocks
- inodes - stands for index node (inodes are file headers) ;
- data blocks - each block has typically a size of 4 Kbytes or 8 Kbytes ;
- fragment data block size - typically of size 512 bytes or 1024 bytes ;

The number of inodes determines the maximum number of files in the file system.

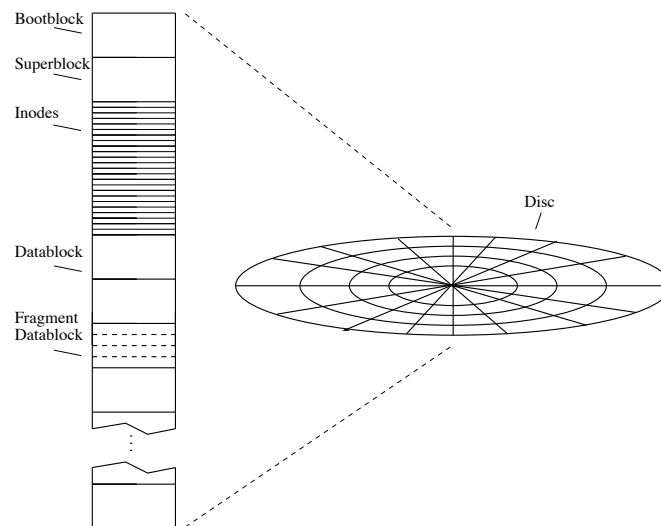


Figure 1: Disk layout

### 1.1 File system structure

Files have no structure at all, they are only flat sequences of bytes. Directories are files that contain information on how to find other files. Directories are arranged in a *tree*<sup>1</sup> structure. Different disks (machines) may have different filesystems and we need a way of accessing files located on different disks. One solution is to do it like Windows does, where we give each disk a separate name, like C: or D:.

In UNIX a part or all of a disk's file system can be mounted in another disk's file system. The user sees a single file tree and no longer has to be aware of which file resides on which device. The root file

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<sup>1</sup>in fact an acyclic (and even possibly cyclic) oriented graph

system `/` is always available on a machine while other parts can be integrated (mounted) into the file system. Figure 2 b) shows a diskette file system mounted on the directory `b`, figure 2 a) shows the user view of the file system after the diskette is mounted on directory `b`.

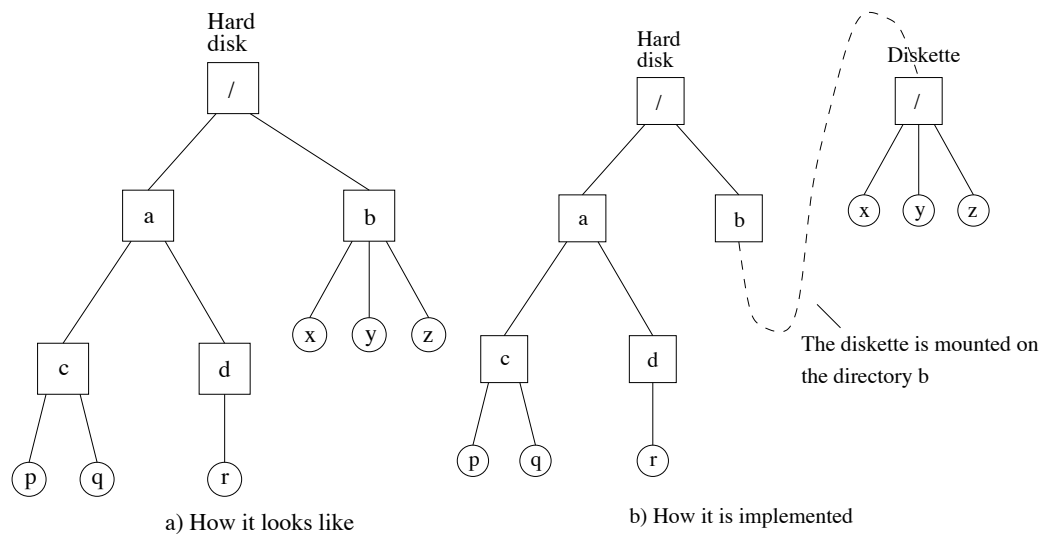


Figure 2: Mounting a file system

## 1.2 Files and inodes

A file consists of exactly one inode, and zero or more data blocks. An inode is a structure used to maintain information about the file. It includes fields for the following (see figure 3):

- file mode
- owner (user and group)
- timestamps (three different)
- size (bytes, blocks)
- reference count
- pointers to data

**Important:** A file does NOT have a name. The file is uniquely identified by its inode number (the symbolic name of a file is stored in the enclosing directory, not in the inode).

The file mode is normally referred to as permissions, but it also contains information about the type of file. Normally when you do a `ls -l`, you see something like this:

```
lrwxrwxrwx  1 user    group   file1
-rw-r--r--  1 adavid  docs   file2
```

The first bits identify as one of:

- a regular file: `-`
- a directory: `d`
- a symbolic link: `l`
- some other things (see the manual page for `stat` for details)

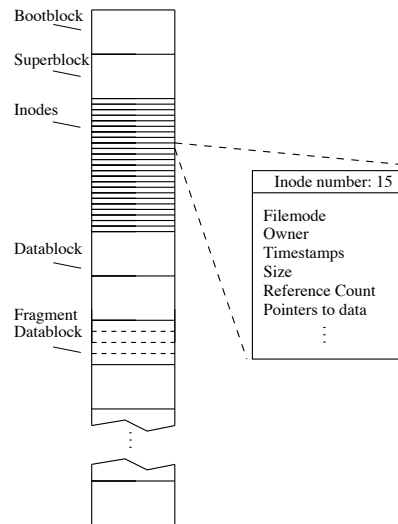


Figure 3: An inode

*Permissions* are the low-order 9 bits of the mode bytes and they define who may do what with the file. The bits are normally presented like **rw****x**, where **r**, **w** and **x** stand for read, write, and execute, respectively. For each file this is defined for:

- the owner (the first 3 bits)
- the owner's group (the next 3 bits)
- everyone else (the last 3 bits)

The **chmod** command lets you change the permission mode of a file.

There are three timestamps defined:

- modification time - when the file was last changed
- access time - when the file was last read
- status time - when certain changes was made to the inode

Through pointers in the inode we can access the file's data blocks. For reasons of disk space efficiency, there are :

- 12 direct pointers
- 1 single indirect pointer
- 1 double indirect pointer
- 1 triple indirect pointer

Figure 4 shows how data blocks are accessed using the direct pointers and figure 5 shows how they are accessed using the single indirect pointer.

If the file consists of 12 or fewer data blocks we can access them directly from the 12 direct pointers in the inode. For block sizes of 4 Kbytes or 8 Kbytes, this means that files up to 48 Kbytes or 96 Kbytes, respectively, can be accessed entirely from the information in the inode.

The single indirect pointer is necessary in order to create files of more than 12 data blocks. The single indirect pointer points to a single data block, whose contents are treated as direct pointers to data blocks. We can now use a couple of hundred data blocks (files of a few MB).

The double indirect pointer is necessary in order to create file of more than a few MB. The double indirect pointer points to a data block whose contents are treated as single indirect pointers. Each of these pointers points to a data block, whose contents are treated as direct pointers to data blocks. This is enough to reach the file size limit on most systems.

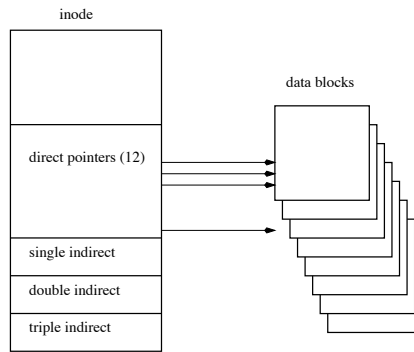


Figure 4: Direct pointers

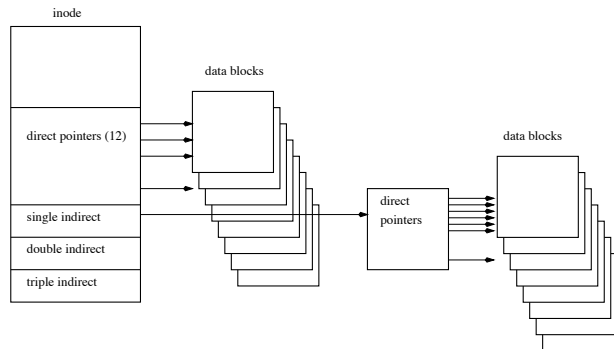


Figure 5: Single indirect pointers

### 1.3 Directories

Directories are files, but they are treated differently. A directory can be identified by its mode bytes. A directory is a file that consists of a number of records, each of which contains the following fields:

- a pointer to the next record
- a number identifying an *inode* (i.e. another file)
- a number identifying the *length* of the record
- a string containing the *name* of the record (max 255 chars). It is this name we usually refer to as a filename. Note that it is part of the directory, and not part of the file.
- (possibly some padding)

If you type `ls -li` in the directory in figure 6, you will have the following output (the numbers in the first column are the inodes of the files):

```
17 -rw-r--r-- 1 (...) foo.c
29 -rwxr-xr-x 1 (...) hej
```



Figure 6: A directory structure

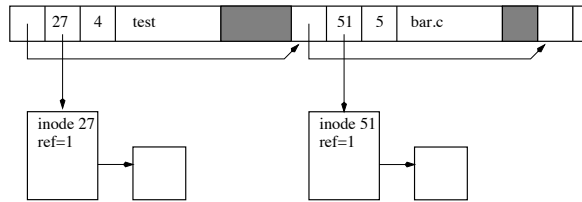


Figure 7: Hard links

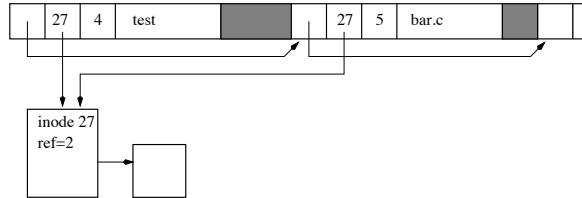


Figure 8: Hard links referring to the same inode

## 1.4 Links

### 1.4.1 Hard links

By associating a name in a directory with a file we get what is known as a *hard link* (sometimes called simply link). Do not confuse these hard links with *symbolic links* (see below).

The directory in figure 7 contains links to inodes 27 and 51, so we can refer to file 27 as "test" and file 51 as "bar.c".

```
> ls -li
51 lrwxrwxrwx 1 (...) bar.c
27 -rw-r--r-- 1 (...) test
```

We can have more than one hard link to a file.

In figure 8, the reference counter in inode 27 will be 2 because there are two links to the inode, and we can use either name ("test" or "bar.c") to refer to the same file. When we list the directory content using `ls -li`, we can see the 2 files *bar.c* and *test* have the the same inode number (27). There is absolutely *no* difference between the files (they are the same file with 2 names), and the links (hard links) do not need to be in the same directory.

```
> ls -li
27 -rw-r--r-- 2 (...) bar.c
27 -rw-r--r-- 2 (...) test
```

Hard links can be created using the command `ln` in the shell or the `link` system call.

### 1.4.2 Symbolic links

*Symbolic links* are quite different from *hard links*. A symbolic link is actually a separate file, whose contents is the *name* of another file or directory. A mode bit indicates that a file is to be interpreted as a symbolic link.

When you type `ls -li` in the directory in figure 9 you get:

```
51 lrwxrwxrwx 1 (...) bar.c -> test
27 -rw-r--r-- 1 (...) test
```

Symbolic links are created with the shell command `ln` or the system call `symlink`. If we have a file that we know is a symbolic link, we can use the system call `readlink` to get the contents of the link, i.e. determine where it points.

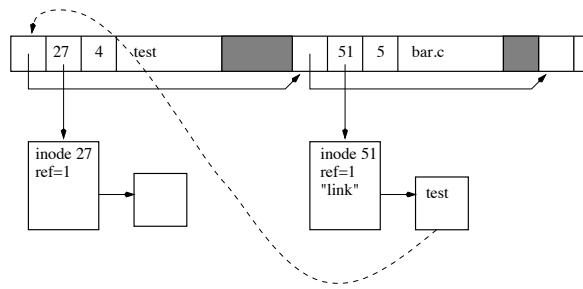


Figure 9: Symbolic link

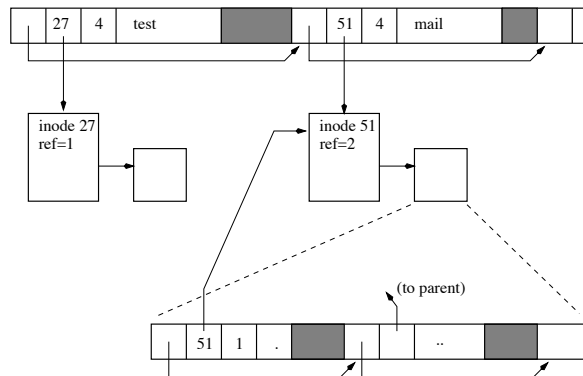


Figure 10: Directory links

## 1.5 Creating, using, and destroying files and directories

### 1.5.1 Creating a file

To create a file we use the `open` system call with some arguments to tell it to create a file. When you do this a free inode is found and initialized and an entry is created in the current directory to point to the inode. Initially the file is *empty*, that is, there are no data blocks.

### 1.5.2 Creating a directory

To create a directory we can use either the shell command `mkdir` or the system call with the same name. When creating a directory the following happens: a file is created (i.e. an inode is allocated), and it is identified as a directory. Then a link to the inode is created in the current directory, and in the new directory two entries are created:

- "." points to the directory's own inode
- ".." points to the parent's inode

Figure 10 shows the situation.

### 1.5.3 Removing files

To remove a file we use the shell command `rm` or the system call `unlink`. When you do this the following happens: First the directory entry is freed and the record pointer of the previous entry is reset. Then the file reference counter is decreased by one, and if it reaches zero, the data blocks and the inode are freed.

### 1.5.4 Reading a directory

It is possible to open a directory directly like any other file and read the data structures it contains. This is not the recommended method since the actual structures and the order they appear in may vary

among systems or among disks within a single system. It is also not convenient. The easy and portable method is to use the three standard functions `opendir`, `readdir`, and `closedir`. This is how they are used in C:

```
DIR *d;
struct dirent *f;

d=opendir("nameofdirectory");
while (f=readdir(d)) {
    // (use f)
}
closedir(d);
```

### 1.5.5 Reading an inode

We can read an inode with one of the `stat` system calls. There is more than one `stat` function. Use the right one! We can now extend the C example:

```
struct stat s;
d=opendir("nameofdirectory");
while (f=readdir(d)) {
    //(use f)
    stat(f->d_name, &s);
    //(use s)
}
closedir(d);
```