File Management

- Files can be viewed as either:
 - a sequence of bytes with no structure imposed by the operating system.
 - or a structured collection of information with some structure imposed by the operating system.
- Unix, Linux, OS/2, Windows NT, DOS all treat files as a sequence of bytes. This model is the most flexible, leaving the structure of the file up to the application programs.

File Types in Unix

- Regular files which include text files (formatted) and binary (unformatted) files.
 - Text files (formatted).
 - Binary files (unformatted). E.g. executable files, archive files, shared libraries etc.
- Directory files.
- Device special files (representing block and character devices).
- Links (hard and symbolic links).
- FIFO (named pipes), sockets.

-Discuss types of files found under Unix:

-Mention the **file** command that identifies the type of a file.

File Attributes and Operations

Examples of typical attributes: owner, creator, creation time, time of last access, time last modified, current size, read-only flag, archive flag, hidden flag, lock flags, temporary flags, reference count.

Examples of typical operations: create, delete, open, close, read, write, append, seek, get attributes, set attributes, rename etc.

Obtaining File Attributes

```
#include <sys/stat.h>
#include <unistd.h>
int stat(const char *file_name, struct stat *buf);
int fstat(int filedes, struct stat *buf);
int lstat(const char *file_name, struct stat *buf);
// the following structure is returned
struct stat
ſ
                 st_dev;
                             /* device */
    dev_t
                             /* inode */
                 st_ino;
    ino_t
                              /* protection */
    umode_t
                 st_mode;
                              /* number of hard links */
                 st_nlink;
   nlink_t
    uid_t
                 st_uid;
                              /* user ID of owner */
    gid_t
                 st_gid;
                              /* group ID of owner */
    dev_t
                 st_rdev;
                              /* device type (if inode device) */
    off_t
                              /* total size, in bytes */
                 st_size;
    unsigned long st_blksize; /* blocksize for filesystem I/O */
                              /* number of blocks allocated */
    unsigned long st_blocks;
                              /* time of last access */
   time_t
                 st_atime;
                              /* time of last modification */
    time_t
                 st_mtime;
                              /* time of last change */
   time_t
                 st_ctime;
};
```

```
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```

These functions return information about the specified file. You do not need any access rights to the file to get this information but you need search rights to all directories named in the path leading to the file.

See example program ch13/mystat.c.

Directories

Directories can be used to organize files into

- Tree Structures.
- Directed Acyclic Graphs.
- Arbitrary Graphs. (cycles would cause problems!)

System calls dealing with directories: opendir(), readdir(), closedir(),
rewinddir() etc.

-Mention differences between hard links and symbolic links.

-How do different utility programs and the system deal with loops in the file system?

Structure of directory files in Linux

A directory file consists of several entries of the following type.

A Bare-bones Implementation of 1s

```
#include
                <sys/types.h>
#include
                <dirent.h>
#include
                "ourhdr.h"
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
ſ
         *dp;
   DIR
   struct dirent
                   *dirp;
   if (argc != 2)
        err_quit("a single argument (the directory name) is required");
    if ( (dp = opendir(argv[1])) == NULL)
            err_sys("can't open %s", argv[1]);
    while ( (dirp = readdir(dp)) != NULL)
            printf("%s\n", dirp->d_name);
    closedir(dp);
    exit(0);
}
```

You can find this example in $\sim \texttt{amit/cs453/lab/ch13/myls.c.}$

Recursive File Traversal

Recursive traversal in the directory hierarchy is useful for many system utilities. Here are some examples:

```
du
find / -name "core" -exec /bin/rm -f '{}' ';'
tar cf /tmp/home.tar ~
tar cf - old | (cd /tmp; tar xf -)
cp -r old /tmp
ls -R
chmod -R g-r,o-r ~/cs453
```

An Example of File System Traversal

```
#include
          <sys/types.h>
#include
          <sys/stat.h>
          <dirent.h>
#include
#include
          <limits.h>
#include
          "ourhdr.h"
typedef int Myfunc(const char *, const struct stat *, int);
              /* function type that's called for each filename */
static Myfunc
             myfunc;
             myftw(char *, Myfunc *);
static int
            dopath(Myfunc *);
static int
static long nreg, ndir, nblk, nchr, nfifo, nslink, nsock, ntot;
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
   int
          ret;
   if (argc != 2)
       err_quit("usage: ftw <starting-pathname>");
```

exit(ret);

```
/*
* Descend through the hierarchy, starting at "pathname".
* The caller's func() is called for every file.
 */
#define FTW_F 1 /* file other than directory */
#define FTW_D 2 /* directory */
                      /* directory that can't be read */
#define FTW_DNR 3
                      /* file that we can't stat */
#define FTW_NS 4
                          /* contains full pathname for every file */
static char *fullpath;
                          /* we return whatever func() returns */
static int
myftw(char *pathname, Myfunc *func)
{
   fullpath = path_alloc(NULL);
                                /* malloc's for PATH_MAX+1 bytes */
                                 /* ({Prog pathalloc}) */
   strcpy(fullpath, pathname);
                                /* initialize fullpath */
   return(dopath(func));
}
```

```
/* Descend through the hierarchy, starting at "fullpath".
* If "fullpath" is anything other than a directory, we lstat() it,
* call func(), and return. For a directory, we call ourself
* recursively for each name in the directory.
*/
                            /* we return whatever func() returns */
static int
dopath(Myfunc* func) {
    struct stat
                    statbuf;
                   *dirp;
    struct dirent
   DIR
                    *dp;
    int
                    ret;
    char
                    *ptr;
    if (lstat(fullpath, &statbuf) < 0)</pre>
       return(func(fullpath, &statbuf, FTW_NS)); /* stat error */
    if (S_ISDIR(statbuf.st_mode) == 0)
       return(func(fullpath, &statbuf, FTW_F)); /* not a directory */
   // It's a directory if we get here.
    if ( (ret = func(fullpath, &statbuf, FTW_D)) != 0)
       return(ret);
   ptr = fullpath + strlen(fullpath); /* point to end of fullpath */
    *ptr++ = '/';
    *ptr = 0;
```

```
}
```

```
static int myfunc(const char *pathname, const struct stat *statptr, int type) {
   switch (type) {
   case FTW_F:
       switch (statptr->st_mode & S_IFMT) {
       case S_IFREG:
                       nreg++;
                                   break;
       case S_IFBLK:
                      nblk++;
                                  break;
       case S_IFCHR: nchr++;
                                 break;
       case S_IFIFO: nfifo++; break;
       case S_IFLNK:
                      nslink++; break;
       case S_IFSOCK: nsock++;
                                   break;
       case S_IFDIR:
           err_dump("for S_IFDIR for %s", pathname);
           /* directories should have type = FTW_D */
       }
       break;
    case FTW_D:
       ndir++;
       break;
    case FTW_DNR:
       err_ret("can't read directory %s", pathname);
       break;
   case FTW_NS:
       err_ret("stat error for %s", pathname);
       break:
    default:
       err_dump("unknown type %d for pathname %s", type, pathname);
    }
   return(0);
}
```

This example is in $\sim \texttt{amit/cs453/lab/ch13/file-traversal.c}$

File I/O

- Reading and writing the byte stream. Buffering of blocks and its affect on the I/O.
- How can we handle writing a byte in some arbitrary position of the file? at the end? in the middle?
- How does your favorite system handle this?

Files with Holes

```
#include <unistd.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/stat.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
int main(void)
{
    int i;
    char buf[100];
    int filedes;
    struct stat statbuf;
    if ((filedes = creat("hole.dat",S_IRUSR|S_IWUSR ))== -1) {
        perror("file open failed");
    }
    for (i=0; i<100; i++)</pre>
        buf[i] = 'e';
    write(filedes, buf, 100);
    lseek(filedes, 20000, SEEK_SET);
    write(filedes, buf, 100);
    if (fstat(filedes, &statbuf) == -1) {
            perror("stat failed"); exit(1);
    }
    printf("File size (in bytes) = %d\n",statbuf.st_size);
    printf("No. of blocks (of 512 bytes) allocated = %d\n", statbuf.st_blocks);
    close(filedes);
}
```

This example is in $\sim \texttt{amit/cs453/lab/ch13/seek2.c}$

File I/O Buffering

- unbuffered. (I/O occurs as each character is encountered).
- line-buffered. (I/O occurs when a newline is encountered).
- fully-buffered. (I/O occurs when the buffer fills up.)

The streams stdin, stdout are usually line-buffered (if they refer to a terminal device), otherwise they are fully buffered. Standard error (stderr) is unbuffered. Under Unix, the system call setvbuf(...) can be used to change the buffering behavior of an I/O stream.

Memory Mapped Files

A file can be mapped to a region in the virtual address space. The file serves as a backing store for that region of memory. Read/writes cause page faults and when the process terminates all mapped, modified pages are written back to the file on the disk. Some issues:

- what if the file is larger than the virtual address space?
- what if another process opens the file for a normal read?
- unmapping the mapped file does not cause the modified pages to be written back immediately. The updating happens at periodic intervals by the virtual memory subsystem or can be forced by the system call msync().
- memory mapped file is a convenient way to provide shared memory between processes.

```
//.. appropriate header files
```

```
int munmap(void *start, size_t length);
```

Comparison of file I/O vs. memory-mapped file I/O

	user	system	elapsed time
memory-mapped I/O	9.5s	0.01s	9.6s
file I/O	1.5s	21.7s	$25.0\mathrm{s}$

- The two programs manipulate a file where several chunks are read and written over repeatedly. The file I/O program does the reads/writes directly on file whereas the memory-mapped program maps the file to memory first and then performs the reads/writes in memory.
- The file I/O was done with a buffer size of 2048.
- All times are in seconds.

```
/* Memory-mapped file I/O program */
#define BUFSIZE 2048
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
                i, fdin;
    int
    struct stat statbuf;
    char *src, *buf1, *buf2;
   long size;
   if (argc != 2) err_quit("usage: %s.out <datefile> ", argv[0]);
   if ( (fdin = open(argv[1], O_RDWR)) < 0)
        err_sys("can't open %s for reading/writing", argv[1]);
    if (fstat(fdin, &statbuf) < 0) err_sys("fstat error");</pre>
    if ( (src = mmap(0, statbuf.st_size, PROT_READ | PROT_WRITE,
                     MAP_FILE | MAP_SHARED, fdin, 0)) == (caddr_t) -1)
        err_sys("mmap error for input");
    size = statbuf.st_size;
    buf1 = (char *) malloc(sizeof(char)*BUFSIZE);
    buf2 = (char *) malloc(sizeof(char)*BUFSIZE);
    for (i=0; i<BUFSIZE-1; i++)</pre>
            buf2[i] = 'e';
    buf2[BUFSIZE-1] = ' n';
   for (i=0; i<1000000; i++) {</pre>
       long offset = random() % (size - BUFSIZE);
       memcpy(buf1, src+offset, BUFSIZE);
       memcpy(src+offset, buf2, BUFSIZE);
    }
   msync(src, size, MS_SYNC); /* force flushing data to disk */
    exit(0);
}
```
You can find this example in $\sim amit/cs453/lab/ch13/memory-file.c.$ Run it on the data file mem.data that is provided in the same directory.

```
/* Direct file I/O program */
#define BUFSIZE 2048
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
                i, fdin;
    int
    struct stat statbuf;
    char *buf1, *buf2;
    long size;
    if (argc != 2) err_quit("usage: %s.out <datefile> ", argv[0]);
    if ( (fdin = open(argv[1], O_RDWR)) < 0)
        err_sys("can't open %s for reading/writing", argv[1]);
    if (fstat(fdin, &statbuf) < 0) /* need size of input file */</pre>
        err_sys("fstat error");
    size = statbuf.st_size;
    buf1 = (char *) malloc(sizeof(char)*BUFSIZE);
    buf2 = (char *) malloc(sizeof(char)*BUFSIZE);
    for (i=0; i<BUFSIZE-1; i++)</pre>
            buf2[i] = 'e';
    buf2[BUFSIZE-1] = ' n';
    for (i=0; i<1000000; i++) {</pre>
        long offset = random() % (size - BUFSIZE);
        lseek(fdin, offset, SEEK_SET);
        read(fdin, buf1, BUFSIZE);
        write(fdin, buf2, BUFSIZE);
    }
    close(fdin);
    exit(0);
}
```

```
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```

You can find this example in $\sim amit/cs453/lab/ch13/file-io.c$. Run it on the data file mem.data that is provided in the same directory.

Low Level File Implementation

- open(), close() system calls.
- Descriptor Tables (one per process) and File Table (global).
- $\bullet\,$ How are file descriptors allocated? Implementing I/O redirection.

Kernel data structures for File I/O

- File descriptor table. Every process has an entry in the process table. Within each process table entry is a table of open file descriptors, with one entry per descriptor. A *descriptor* has
 - file descriptor flags.
 - pointer to a File Table entry.
- File Table. The kernel maintains a file table for all open files. Each file table entry may contain:
 - file status flags (read, write, append, etc.)
 - current file offset.
 - a pointer to the *v*-node (virtual-node) table entry for the file.
- V-node. The v-node contains information about the type of file and pointers to functions that operate on the file. For most files, the v-node also contains the *i-node* (index-node) for the file.
- I-node. The i-node contains information about file attributes and how to find the file on the disk.

-Note that each process that opens a file gets its own file table entry, but only a single v-node table entry is required for a file.

Disk Space Management

Keeping Track of Allocated Blocks

- Contiguous allocation.
- Linked list allocation (Example: Microsoft FAT file systems).
- Indexed Allocation (Example: Linux Ext2, Unix System V filesystem etc.)





Unix/Linux Indexed Allocation Filesystems

Example: Filesystem block size = 1KB inode has 12 direct pointers, 1 indirect, 1 double indirect, 1 triple indirect pointer. Each pointer is 32 bits or 4 bytes. So we can store 256 pointers in one block.

The following shows maximum file sizes that can be represented using indexed file allocation for the above example.

- Using only direct pointers: 12×1 KB = 12KB
- Using direct and single indirect pointers: $256 \times 1\text{KB} + 12\text{KB} = 268\text{KB}$
- Using direct, single and double indirect pointers: $256 \times 256 \times 1\text{KB} + 256\text{KB} + 12\text{KB} = 65536\text{KB} + 268\text{KB} = 65804\text{KB} \cong 64\text{MB}$
- Using direct, single, double, and triple indirect pointers: $256 \times 256 \times 256 \times 1$ KB+65536KB+256KB+12KB = 16777216KB+65804KB = 16843020KB $\cong 16$ TB

Dealing with Unallocated Blocks

- Using block status bitmap. One bit per block to keep track of whether the block is allocated/unallocated. Makes it easy to get a quick snapshot of the blocks on the disk.
- File systems integrity check (fsck command under Unix). The block status bitmap makes some kinds of integrity check easier to accomplish.

Example File System Implementations

- Linux Ext2 filesystem.
- Microsoft FAT-12, FAT-16, FAT-32 filesystems.
- Microsoft Windows 98 filesystem.

FAT File System

- The original FAT file system allows file names to be 8+3 characters long (all uppercase).
- Hierarchical directory structure with arbitrary depth. However, root directory had a fixed maximum size.
- File system was a tree (that is, links like in Unix were not permitted).
- Any user has access to all files.



- The time field has 5 bits for seconds, 6 bits for minutes, 5 bits for hours. The date field has 5 bits for day, 4 bits for month, and 7 bits for year (kept in years since 1980...so we have a year 2107 problem here).
- FAT-12, FAT-16 and FAT-32 are the same file systems but with different address size that are supported. Actually, FAT-32 supports 28 bits disk address.

An Example File Allocation Table

File blocks are kept track using a File Allocation Table (FAT) in main memory. The first block number from the directory entry is used as an index into the 64K entry FAT table that represents all files via linked lists in the FAT table.



FAT File System (continued)

- FAT file system supported four partitions per disk.
- Disk block size can be some multiple of 512 bytes (also known as *cluster size*).

BIOCK SIZE	FAI-12	FAI-16	FA [-32			
0.5 KB	2 MB					
1 KB	4 MB					
2 KB	8 MB	128 MB				
4 KB	16 MB	256 MB	1 TB			
8 KB		512 MB	2 TB			
16 KB		1024 MB	2 TB			
32 KB		2048 MB	2 TB			

FAT File System (continued)

- The FAT file system keeps track of free blocks by marking the entries in the File Allocation Table with a special code. To find a free block, the system searches the FAT until it finds a free block.
- The FAT table occupies a significant amount of main memory. With FAT-32, the File Allocation Table was no longer limited to 64K entries because otherwise the file block size had to be quite big. Now to represent a 2GB partition with 4KB block size, there are 512K blocks that require 2MB of memory to store the table.

Windows 98 Filesystem

- Allow long file names.
- Remain forward/backward compatible with older versions of Microsoft Windows operating system using FAT file systems.
- Directory entry structure.



- The directory entry is designed such that older versions of the operating system can still read it. In order to do so, Windows 98 file system first converts long names into 8+3 names by converting the first six characters to upper case and then appending ~ n at the end (where n is 1,2, ... as needed to make the names be unique).
- The long names are stored in long-name entries before the actual directory entry. These are directory entries with their attributes marked 0, so older systems would just ignore these entries.

Windows 98 Filesystem (continued)

Structure of a long-name entry.



Representation of the file name "The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog"

	68	d	0	g			Α	0	C K							0		
	3	о	v	е			А	0	C K	t	h	е		Ι	а	0	z	у
	2	w	n		f	0	А	0	C K	х		j	u	m	р	0	S	
	1	Т	h	е		q	А	0	C K	u	i	с	k		b	0	r	0
	Т	ΗE	QU	~	1		A	ЧN	S	Crea tim	tion ne	Last acc	Upp	La wri	st te	Low	Size	
Bytes																		

Windows 98 Filesystem (continued)

- Why is the checksum field needed in long entries? To detect consistency problems introduced by older system manipulating the file system using only the short name.
- The Low field being zero provides additional check.
- There is no limitation on the size of the File Allocation Table. So the system maintains a window into the table, rather than storing the entire table in memory.
- Disk Layout: boot sector, FAT tables (usually replicated at least two times), root directory, other directories, data blocks.
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Linux Ext2 Filesystem

Boot	Boot Block group 0		Block group 1		Block group 2	Block group 3	Block group 4	
						»		
Su blo	uper– ock	Group descriptor	Block bitmap	l–node bitmap	I–nodes	Data blocks	« »	

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Linux Ext2 Filesystem

- The disk is divided into groups of blocks. Each block group contains:
 - **Superblock**. Each block group starts with a superblock, which tells how many blocks and i-nodes there are, gives the block size etc.
 - Group descriptor. The group descriptor contains information about the location of the bitmaps, number of free blocks and i-nodes in the group and the number of directories in the group.
 - Block and I-node Bitmaps. These two bitmaps keep track of free blocks and free i-nodes. Each map is one block long. With a 1 KB block, this limits the number of blocks and i-nodes to 8192 in each block group.
 - I-nodes. Each i-node is 128 bytes long (which is double the size for standard Unix i-nodes). There are 12 direct addresses and 3 indirect addresses. Each address is 4 bytes long.
 - Data nodes.
- Directories are spread evenly over the disk.
- When a file grows, the new block is placed in the same group as the rest of the file, preferably right after the previous last block. When a new file is added to a directory, Ext2 tries to put it into same block group as the directory.

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