

CS 5600

Computer Systems

Lecture 10: File Systems

What are We Doing Today?

- Last week we talked extensively about hard drives and SSDs
 - How they work
 - Performance characteristics
- This week is all about managing storage
 - Disks/SSDs offer a blank slate of empty blocks
 - How do we store files on these devices, and keep track of them?
 - How do we maintain high performance?
 - How do we maintain consistency in the face of random crashes?

- Partitions and Mounting
- Basics (FAT)
- inodes and Blocks (ext)
- Block Groups (ext2)
- Journaling (ext3)
- Extents and B-Trees (ext4)
- Log-based File Systems

Building the Root File System

- One of the first tasks of an OS during bootup is to build the root file system
 1. Locate all bootable media
 - Internal and external hard disks
 - SSDs
 - Floppy disks, CDs, DVDs, USB sticks
 2. Locate all the partitions on each media
 - Read MBR(s), extended partition tables, etc.
 3. **Mount** one or more partitions
 - Makes the file system(s) available for access

The Master Boot Record

Address		Description	Size (Bytes)
Hex	Dec.		
0x000	0	Bootstrap code area	446
0x1BE	446	Partition Entry #1	16
0x1CE	462	Partition Entry #2	16
0x1DE	478	Partition Entry #3	16
0x1EE	494	Partition Entry #4	16
0x1FE	510	Magic Number	2
Total:			512

Includes the starting LBA and length of the partition

Disk 1

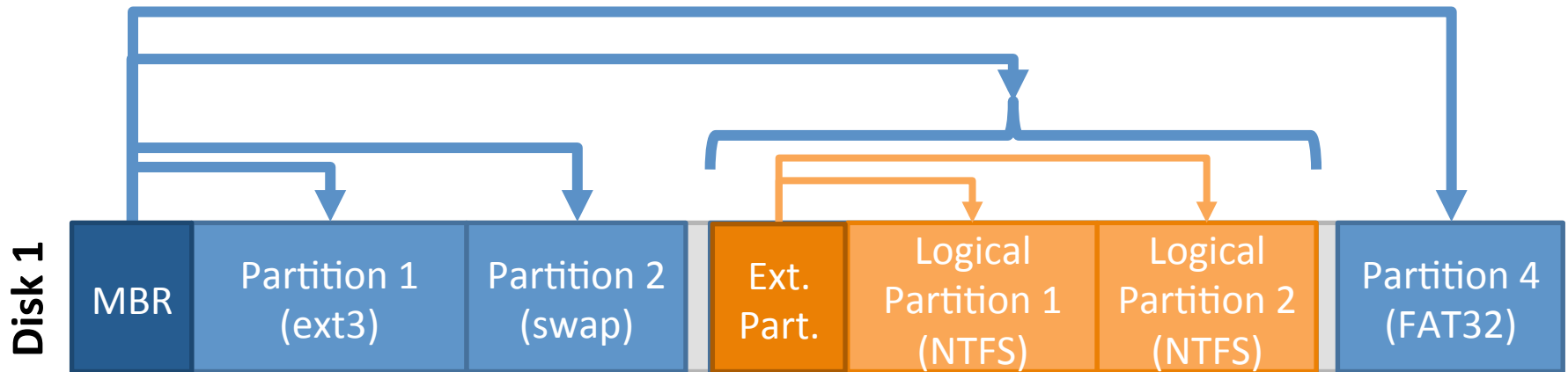


Disk 2



Extended Partitions

- In some cases, you may want >4 partitions
- Modern OSes support extended partitions



- Extended partitions may use OS-specific partition table formats (meta-data)
 - Thus, other OSes may not be able to read the logical partitions

Types of Root File Systems

```
[cbw@ativ9 ~] df -h
```

Filesystem	Size	Used	Avail	Use%	Mounted on
/dev/sda7	39G	14G	23G	38%	/
/dev/sda2	296M	48M	249M	16%	/boot/efi
/dev/sda5	127G	86G	42G	68%	/media/cbw/Data
/dev/sda4	61G	34G	27G	57%	/media/cbw/Windows
/dev/sdb1	1.9G	352K	1.9G	1%	/media/cbw/NDSS-2013

1 drive, 4
partitions

1drive, 1
partition

- Linux has a single root
 - One partition is mounted as /
 - All other partitions are mounted somewhere under /
- Typically, the partition containing the kernel is mounted as / or C:

Mounting a File System

1. Read the **super block** for the target file system
 - Contains meta-data about the file system
 - Version, size, locations of key structures on disk, etc.
2. Determine the **mount point**
 - On Windows: pick a drive letter
 - On Linux: mount the new file system under a specific directory

Filesystem	Size	Used	Avail	Use%	Mounted on
/dev/sda5	127G	86G	42G	68%	/media/cbw/Data
/dev/sda4	61G	34G	27G	57%	/media/cbw/Windows
/dev/sdb1	1.9G	352K	1.9G	1%	/media/cbw/NDSS-2013

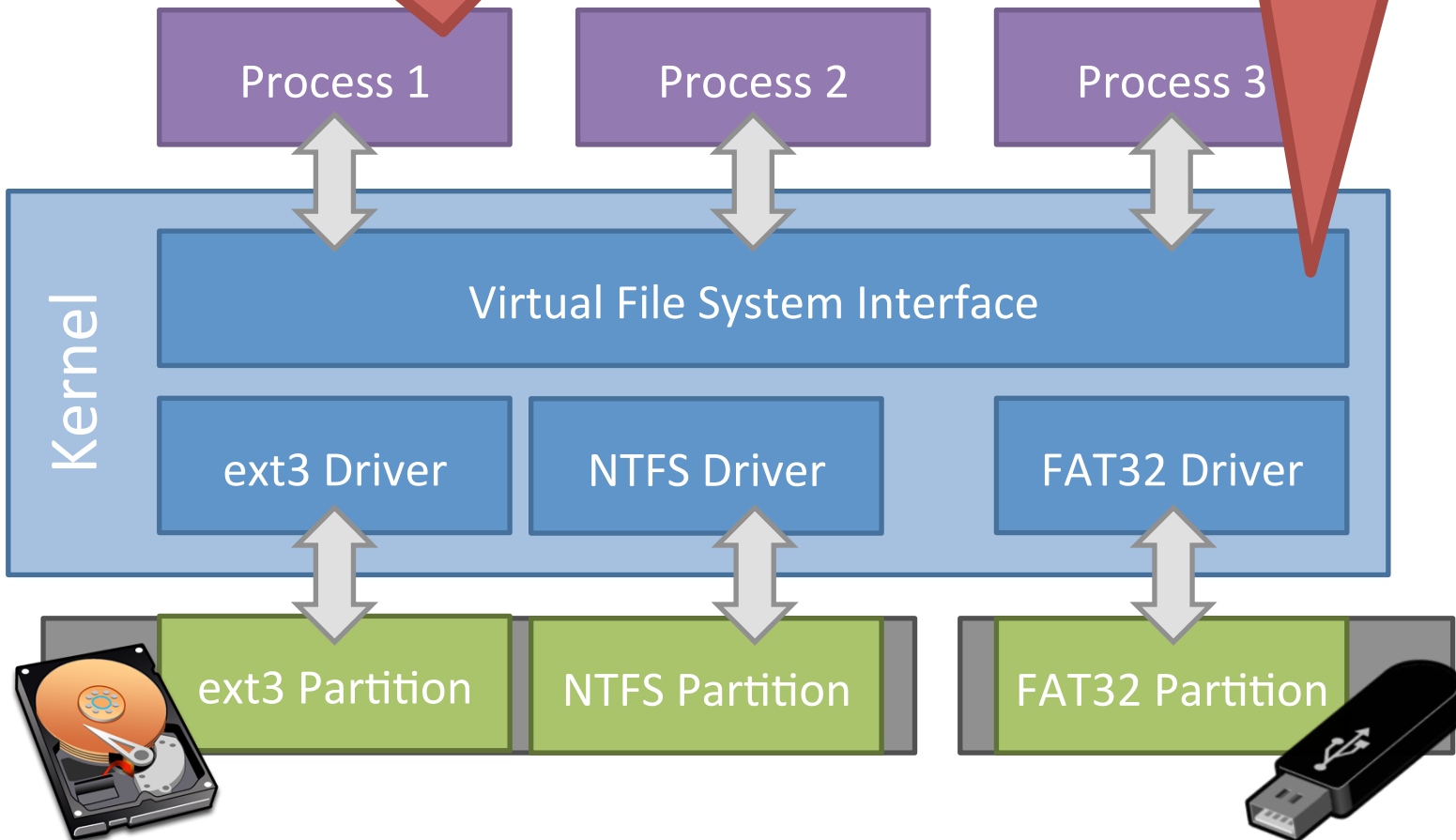
Virtual File System Interface

- Problem: the OS may mount several partitions containing different underlying file systems
 - It would be bad if processes had to use different APIs for different file systems
- Linux uses a Virtual File System interface (VFS)
 - Exposes POSIX APIs to processes
 - Forwards requests to lower-level file system specific drivers
- Windows uses a similar system

VFS Flowchart

Processes (usually) don't need to know about low-level file system details

Relatively simple to add additional file system drivers



Mount isn't Just for Bootup

- When you plug storage devices into your running system, mount is executed in the background
- Example: plugging in a USB stick
- What does it mean to “safely eject” a device?
 - Flush cached writes to that device
 - Cleanly unmount the file system on that device

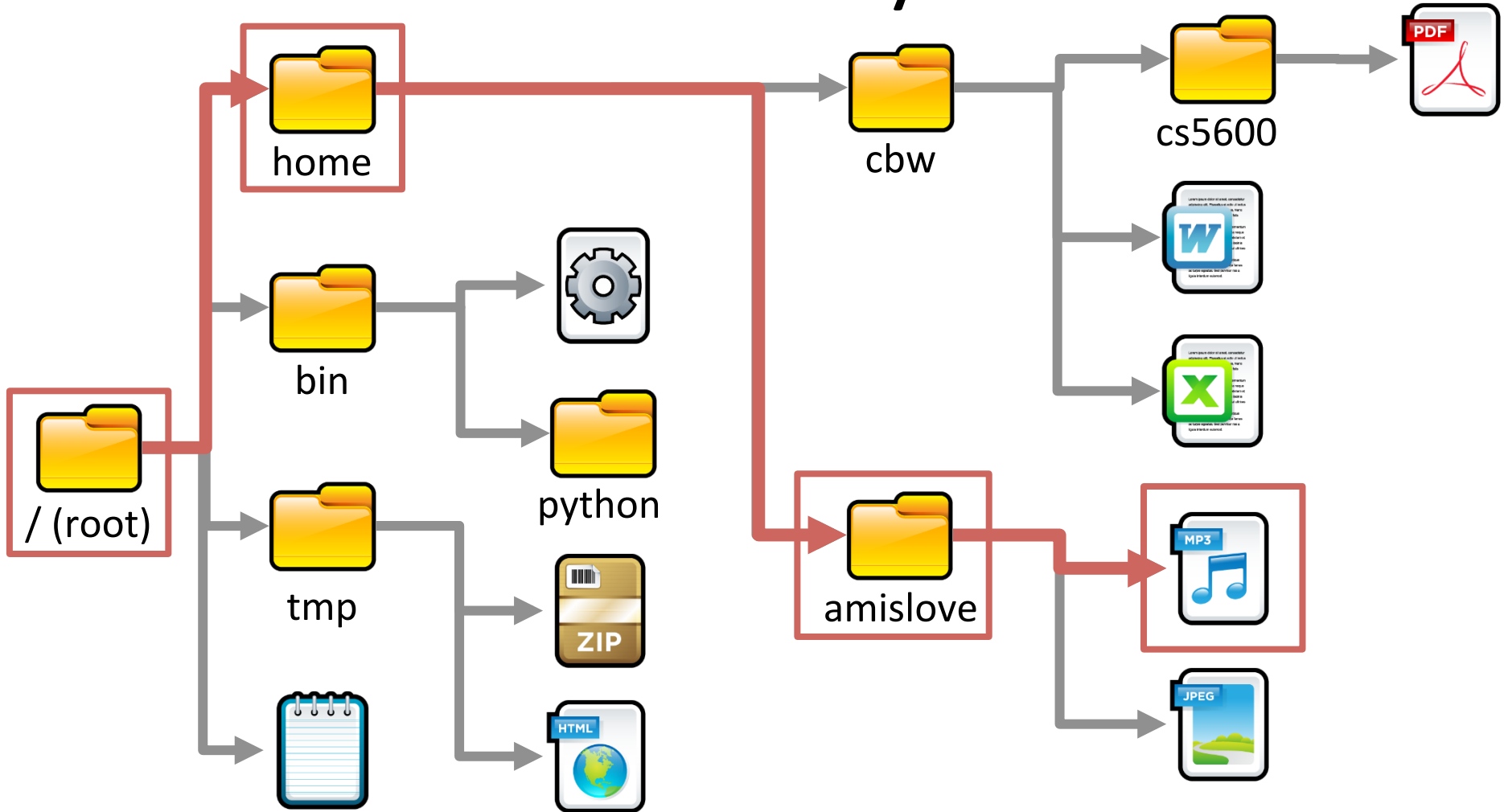


- Partitions and Mounting
- Basics (FAT)
- inodes and Blocks (ext)
- Block Groups (ext2)
- Journaling (ext3)
- Extents and B-Trees (ext4)
- Log-based File Systems

Status Check

- At this point, the OS can locate and mount partitions
- Next step: what is the on-disk layout of the file system?
 - We expect certain features from a file system
 - Named files
 - Nested hierarchy of directories
 - Meta-data like creation time, file permissions, etc.
 - How do we design on-disk structures that support these features?

The Directory Tree



- Navigated using a path
 - E.g. `/home/amislove/music.mp3`

Absolute and Relative Paths

- Two types of file system paths

- Absolute

- Full path from the root to the object
 - Example: /home/cbw/cs5600/hw4.pdf
 - Example: C:\Users\cbw\Documents\

- Relative

- OS keeps track of the **working directory** for each process
 - Path relative to the current working directory
 - Examples [working directory = /home/cbw]:
 - syllabus.docx [→ /home/cbw/syllabus.docx]
 - cs5600/hw4.pdf [→ /home/cbw/cs5600/hw4.pdf]
 - ./cs5600/hw4.pdf [→ /home/cbw/cs5600/hw4.pdf]
 - ../amislove/music.mp3 [→ /home/amislove/music.mp3]

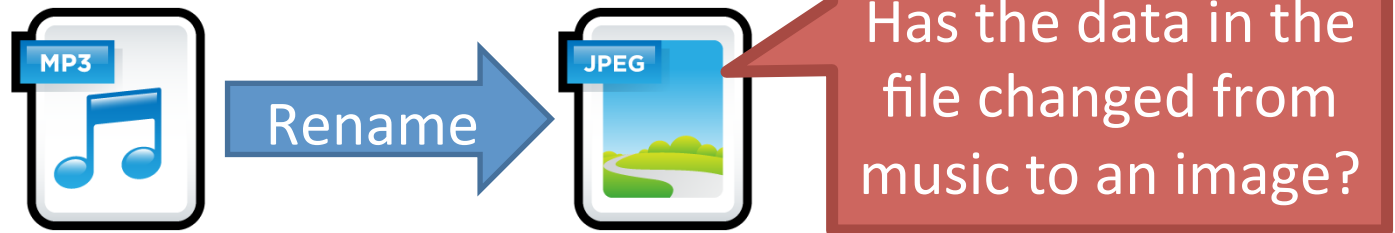
Files

- A file is composed of two components
 - The file data itself
 - One or more blocks (sectors) of binary data
 - A file can contain **anything**
 - Meta-data about the file
 - Name, total size
 - What directory is it in?
 - Created time, modified time, access time
 - Hidden or system file?
 - Owner and owner's group
 - Permissions: read/write/execute



File Extensions

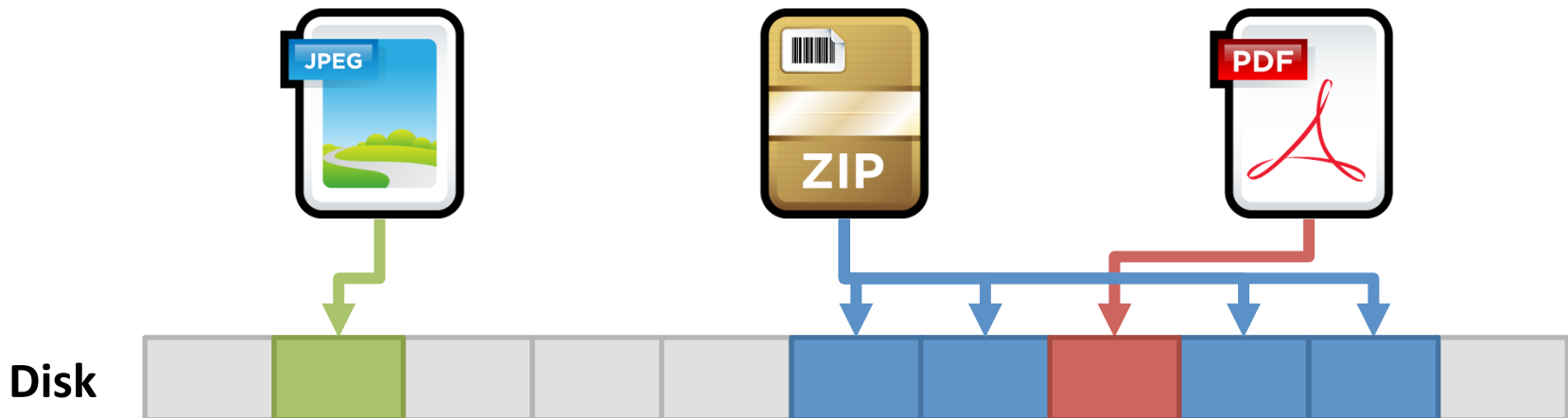
- File names are often written in dotted notation
 - E.g. program.exe, image.jpg, music.mp3
- A file's **extension** **does not mean anything**
 - Any file (regardless of its contents) can be given any name or extension



- Graphical shells (like Windows explorer) use extensions to try and match files → programs
 - This mapping may fail for a variety of reasons

More File Meta-Data

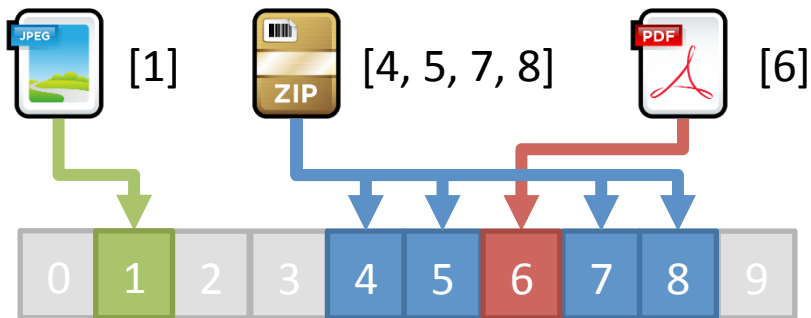
- Files have additional meta-data that is not typically shown to users
 - Unique identifier (file names may not be unique)
 - Structure that maps the file to blocks on the disk
- Managing the mapping from files to blocks is one of the key jobs of the file system



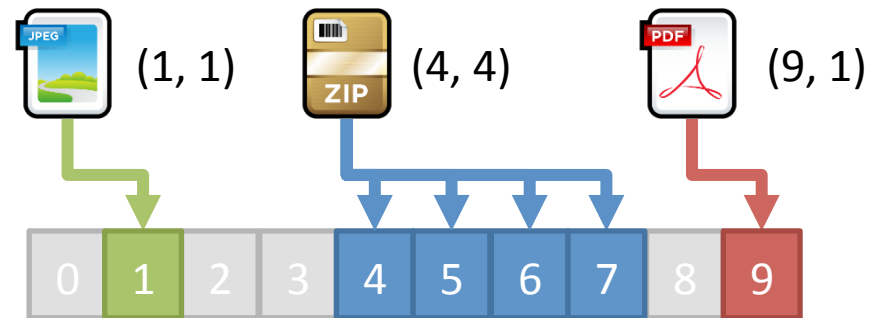
Mapping Files to Blocks

- Every file is composed of ≥ 1 blocks
- Key question: how do we map a file to its blocks?

List of blocks



As (start, length) pairs

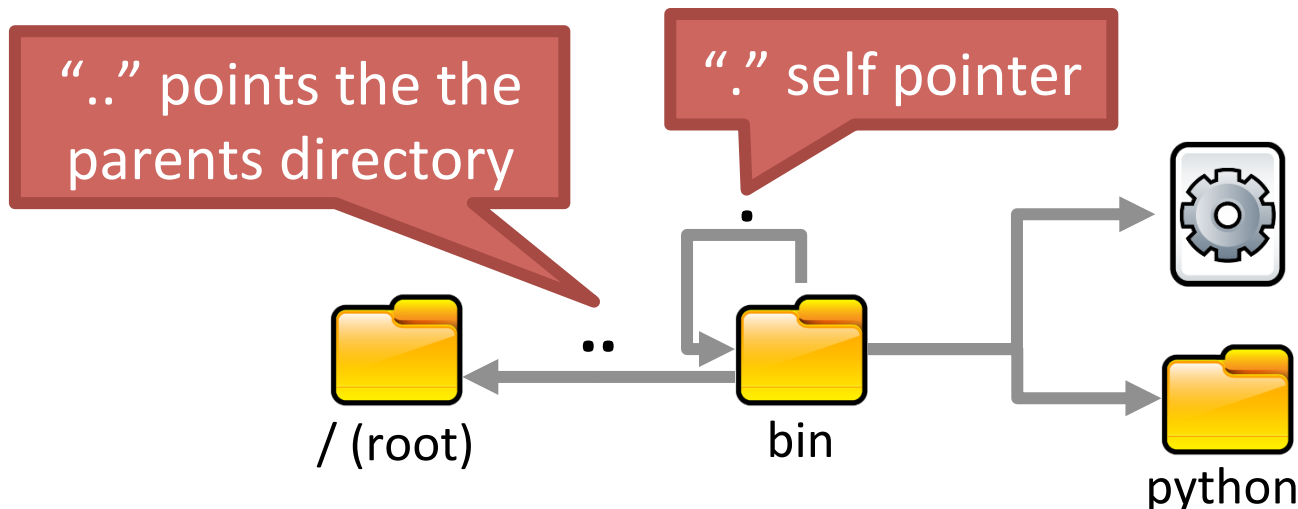


- Problem?
 - Really large files

- Problem?
 - Fragmentation
 - E.g. try to add a new file with 3 blocks

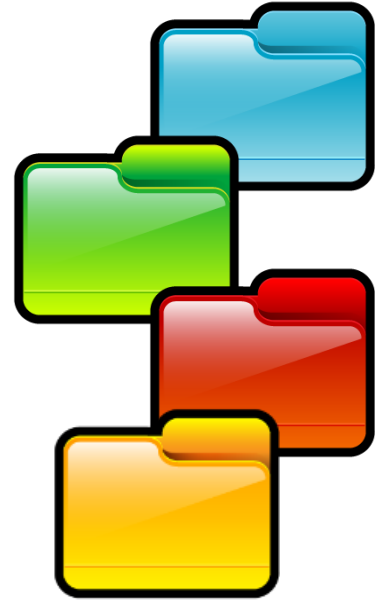
Directories

- Traditionally, file systems have used a hierarchical, tree-structured namespace
 - Directories are objects that contain other objects
 - i.e. a directory may (or may not) have children
 - Files are leaves in the tree
- By default, directories contain at least two entries

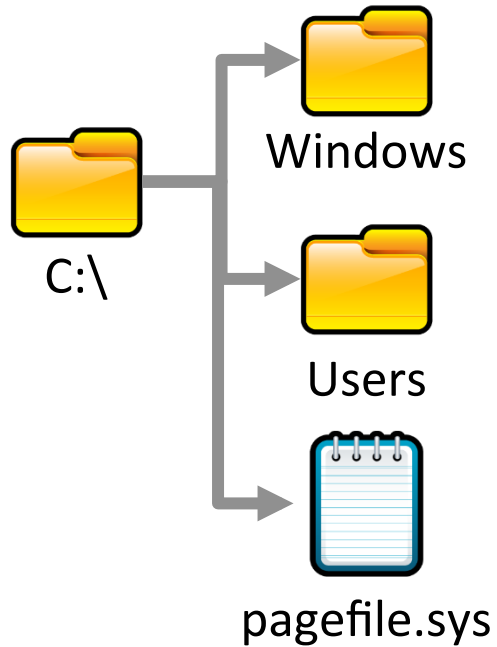


More on Directories

- Directories have associated meta-data
 - Name, number of entries
 - Created time, modified time, access time
 - Permissions (read/write), owner, and group
- The file system must encode directories and store them on the disk
 - Typically, directories are stored as a special type of file
 - File contains a list of entries inside the directory, plus some meta-data for each entry

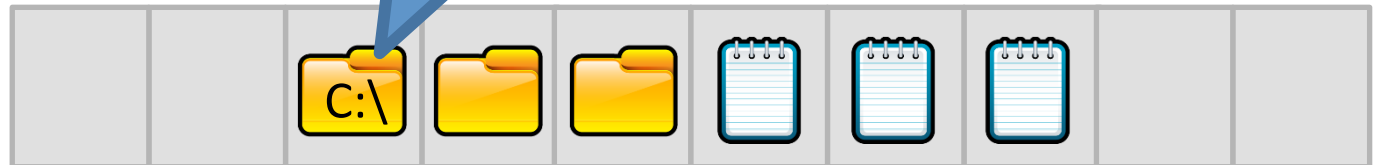


Example Directory File



Name	Index	Dir?	Perms
.	2	Y	rwX
Windows	3	Y	rwX
Users	4	Y	rwX
pagefile.sys	5	N	r

Disk



Directory File Implementation

- Each directory file stores many entries
- Key Question: how do you encode the entries?

- Other alternatives: hash tables, B-trees
 - More on B-trees later...
- In practice, implementing directory files is complicated
 - Example: do filenames have a fixed, maximum length or variable length?

- Good: $O(1)$ to add new entries
 - Just append to the file
- Bad: $O(n)$ to search for an entry
- Good: $O(\log n)$ to search for an entry
- Bad: $O(n)$ to add new entries
 - Entire file has to be rewritten

File Allocation Tables (FAT)

- Simple file system popularized by MS-DOS
 - First introduced in 1977
 - Most devices today use the FAT32 spec from 1996
 - FAT12, FAT16, VFAT, FAT32, etc.
- Still quite popular today
 - Default format for USB sticks and memory cards
 - Used for EFI boot partitions
- Name comes from the **index table** used to track directories and files

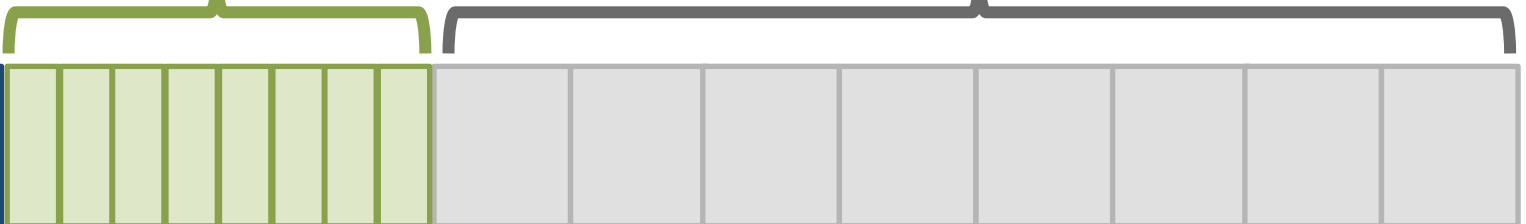
- Stores basic info about the file system
- FAT version, location of boot files
- Total number of blocks
- Index of the root directory in the FAT

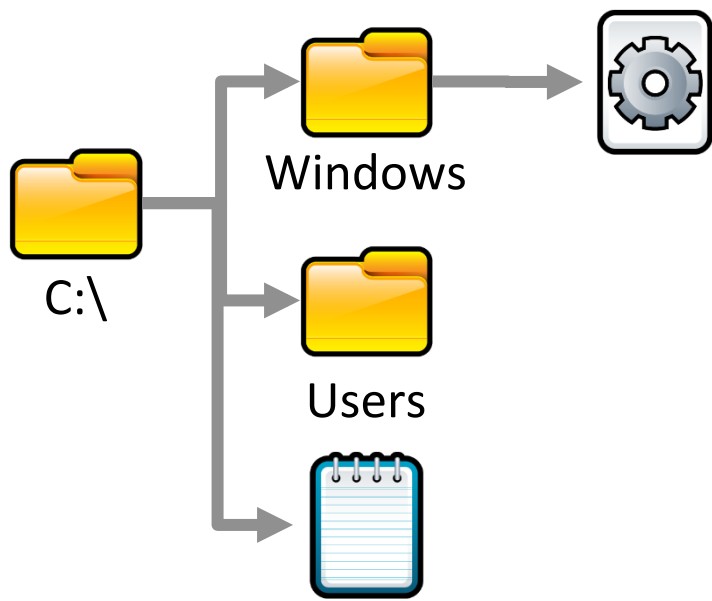
- File allocation table (FAT)
- Marks which blocks are free or in-use
- **Linked-list structure** to manage large files

- Store file and directory data
- Each block is a fixed size (4KB – 64KB)
- Files may span multiple blocks

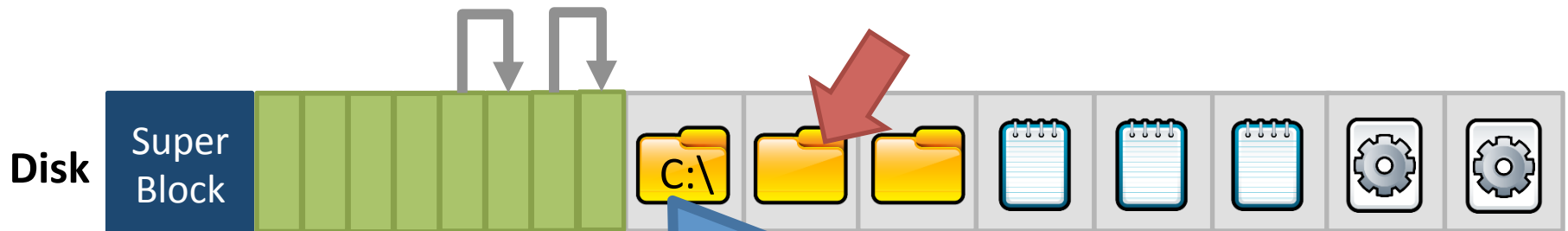
Disk

Super
Block





- Directories are special files
 - File contains a list of entries inside the directory
- Possible values for FAT entries:
 - 0 – entry is empty
 - 1 – reserved by the OS
 - $1 < N < 0xFFFF$ – next block in a chain
 - 0xFFFF – end of a chain



Root directory
index = 2

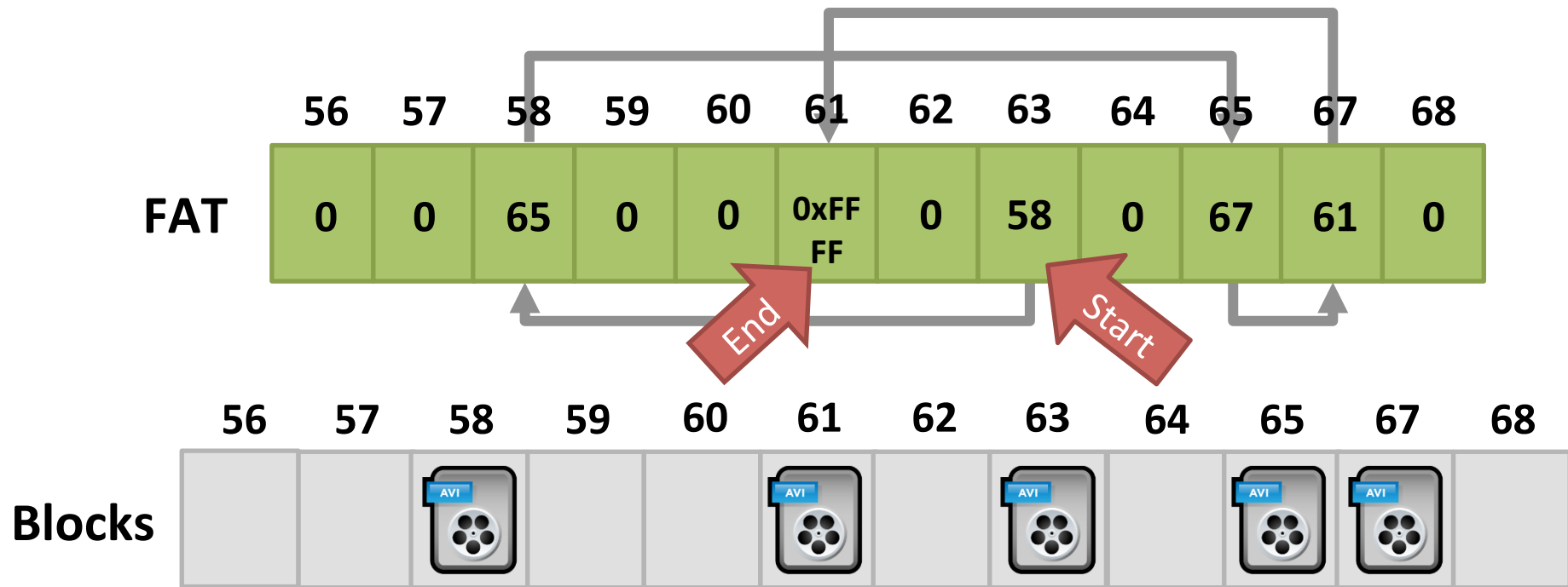
Name	Index	Dir?	Perms
.	2	Y	rwX

Fat Table Entries

- $\text{len}(\text{FAT}) == \text{Number of clusters on the disk}$
 - Max number of files/directories is bounded
 - Decided when you format the partition
- The FAT version roughly corresponds to the size in bits of each FAT entry
 - E.g. FAT16 \rightarrow each FAT entry is 16 bits
 - More bits \rightarrow larger disks are supported

Fragmentation

- Blocks for a file need not be contiguous



Possible values for FAT entries:

- 0 – entry is empty
- $1 < N < 0xFFFF$ – next block in a chain
- 0xFFFF – end of a chain

FAT: The Good and the Bad

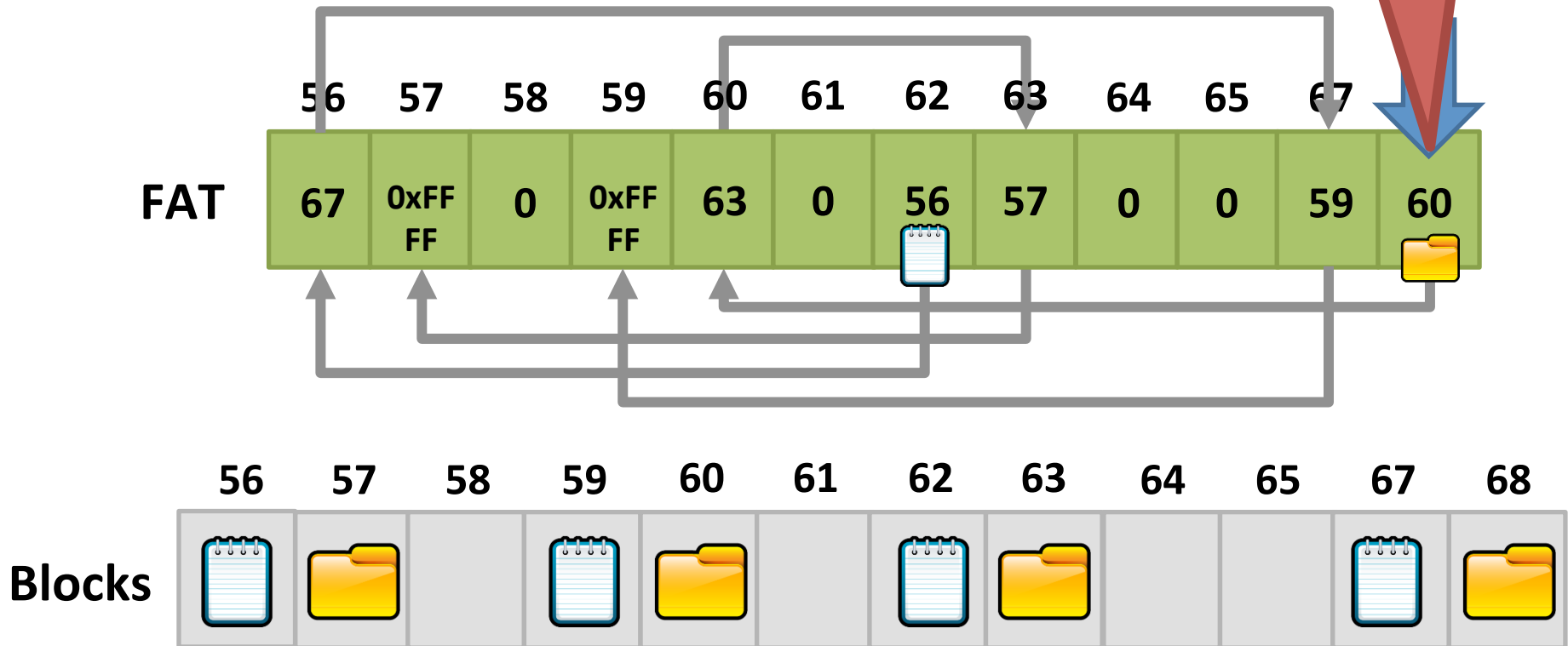
- The Good – FAT supports:
 - Hierarchical tree of directories and files
 - Variable length files
 - Basic file and directory meta-data
- The Bad
 - At most, FAT32 supports 2TB disks
 - Locating free chunks requires scanning the entire FAT
 - Prone to internal and external fragmentation
 - Large blocks → internal fragmentation
 - **Reads require a lot of random seeking**

Lots of Seeking

- Consider the following code:

```
int fd = open("my_file.txt", "r");  
int r = read(fd, buffer, 1024 * 4 * 4); // 4 4KB blocks
```

FAT may have very low spatial locality, thus a lot of random seeking



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Status Check

- At this point, we have on-disk structures for:
 - Building a directory tree
 - Storing variable length files
- But, the efficiency of FAT is very low
 - Lots of seeking over file chains in FAT
 - Only way to identify free space is to scan over the entire FAT
- Linux file system uses more efficient structures
 - Extended File System (ext) uses **index nodes (inodes)** to track files and directories

Size Distribution of Files

- FAT uses a linked list for all files
 - Simple and uniform mechanism
 - ... but, it is not optimized for short or long files
- Question: are short or long files more common?
 - Studies over the last 30 years show that short files are much more common
 - 2KB is the most common file size
 - Average file size is 200KB (biased upward by a few very large files)
- Key idea: optimize the file system for many small files

- Super block, storing:
 - Size and location of bitmaps
 - Number and location of inodes
 - Number and location of data blocks
 - Index of root inodes

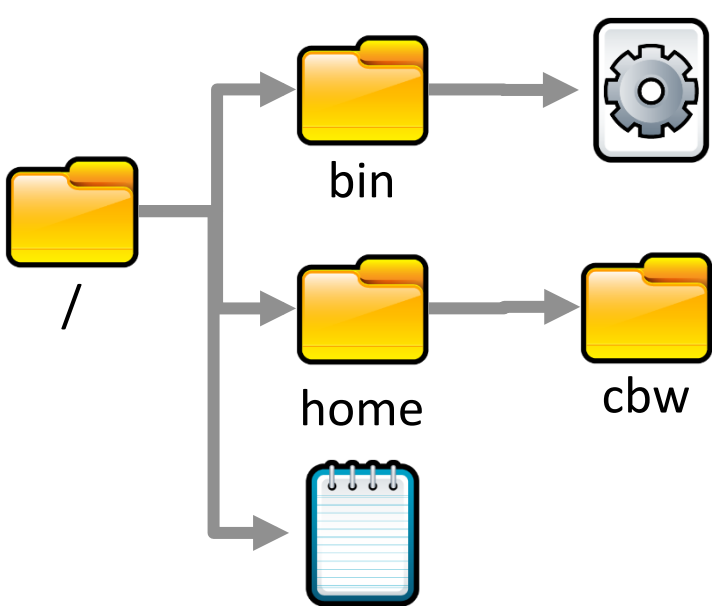
Bitmap of free & used data blocks

Bitmap of free & used inodes

- Table of inodes
- Each inode is a file/directory
- Includes meta-data and lists of associated data blocks

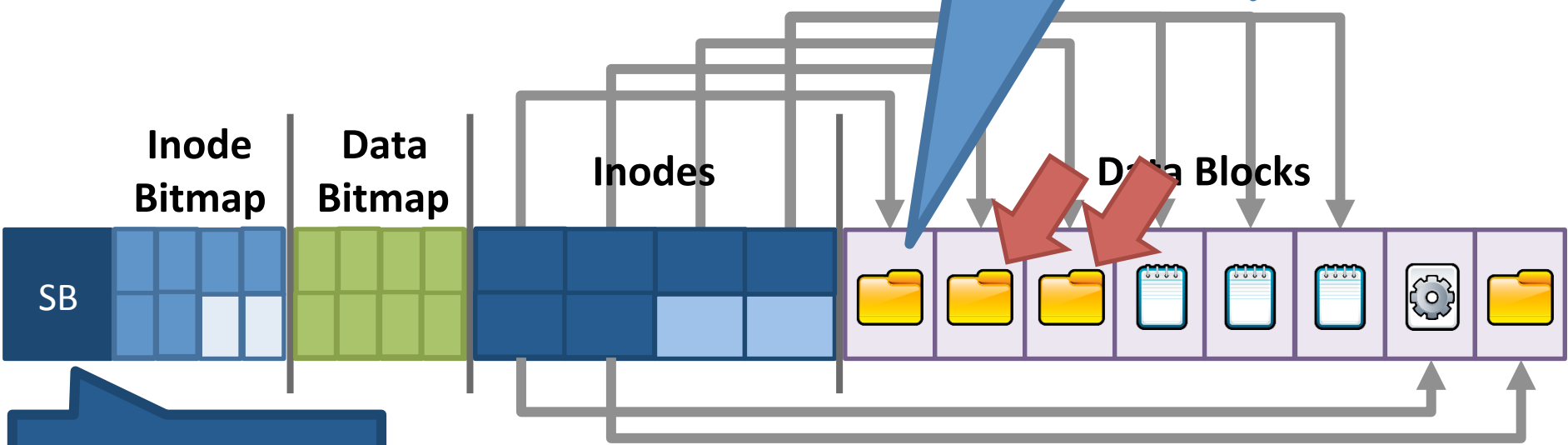
Data blocks (4KB each)





- Directories are files
- Contains the list of entries in the directory

- Each inode can directly point to 12 blocks
- Can also indirectly point to blocks at 1, 2, and 3 levels of depth



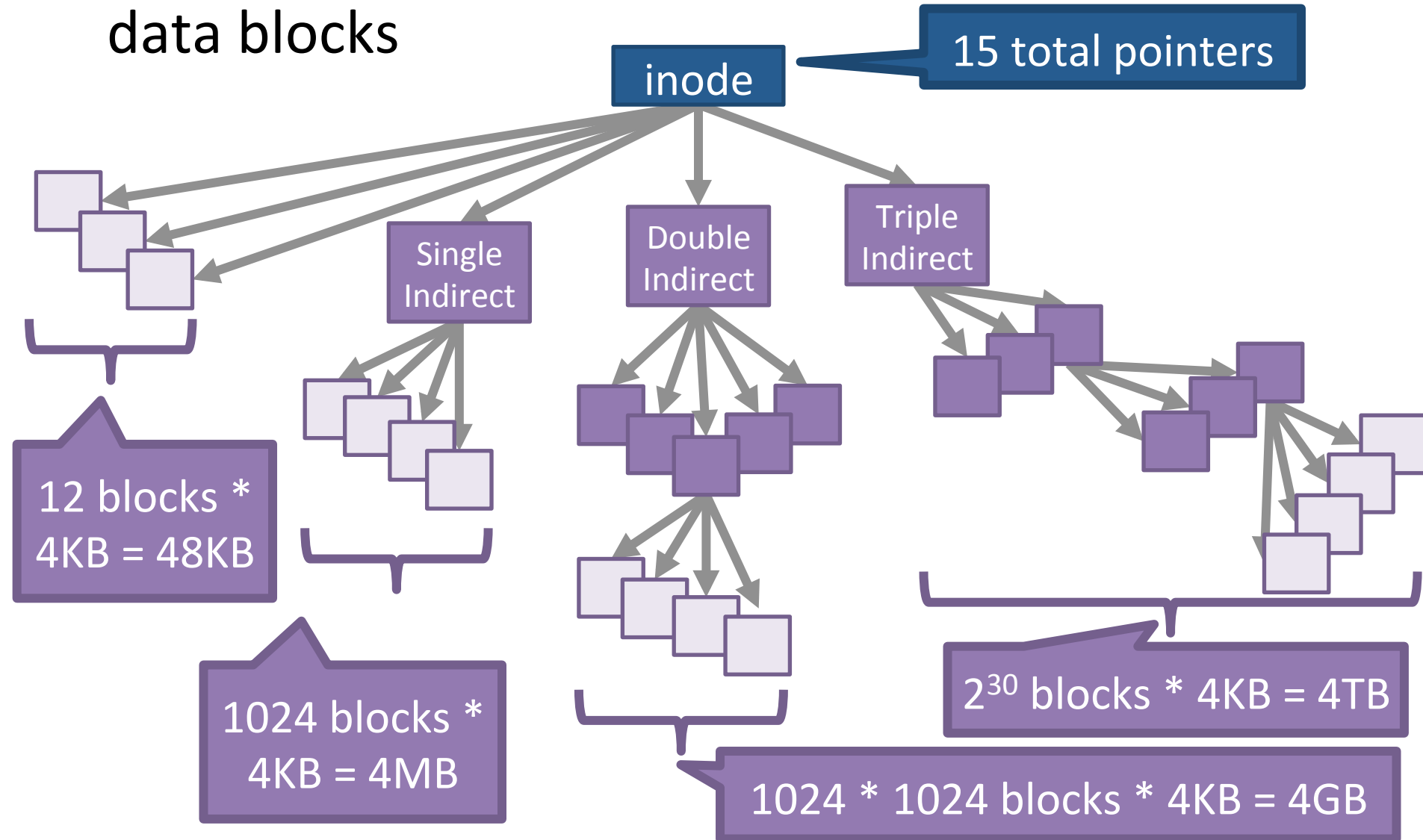
Root inode = 0

ext2 inodes

Size (bytes)	Name	What is this field for?
2	mode	Read/write/execute?
2	uid	User ID of the file owner
4	size	Size of the file in bytes
4	time	Last access time
4	ctime	Creation time
4	mtime	Last modification time
4	dtime	Deletion time
2	gid	Group ID of the file
2	links_count	How many hard links point to this file?
4	blocks	How many data blocks are allocated to this file?
4	flags	File or directory? Plus, other simple flags
60	block	15 direct and indirect pointers to data blocks

inode Block Pointers

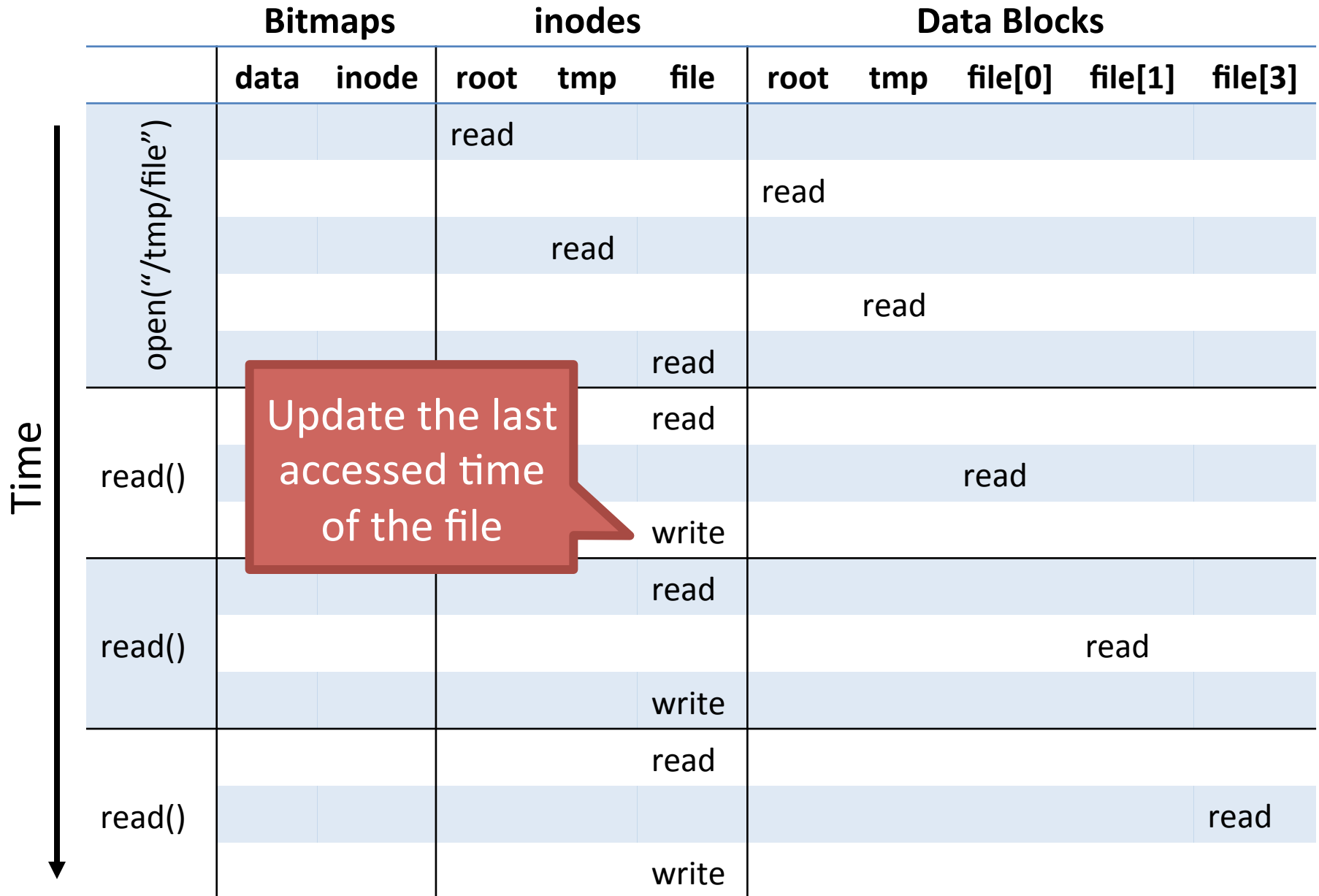
- Each inode is the root of an unbalanced tree of data blocks



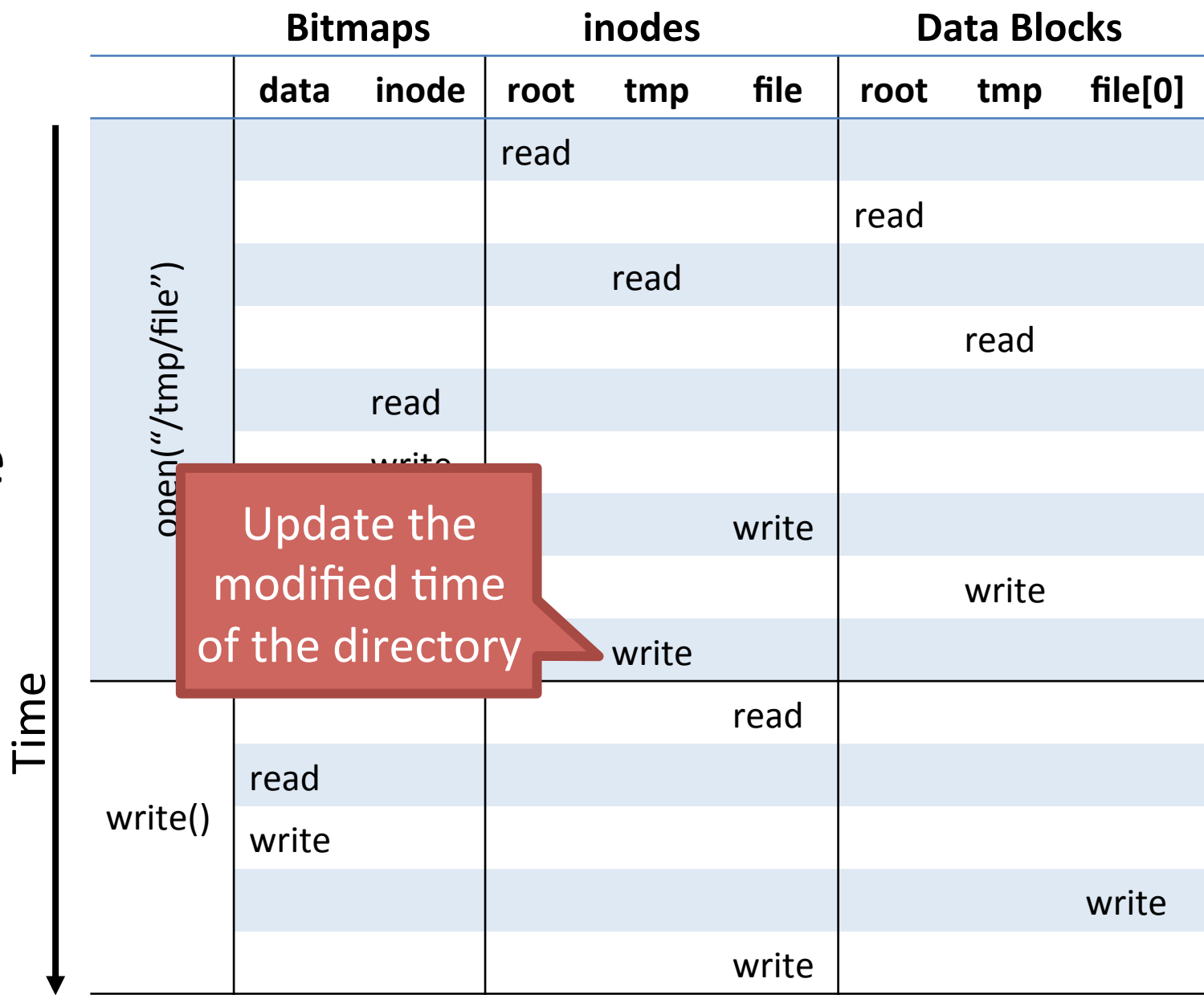
Advantages of inodes

- Optimized for file systems with many small files
 - Each inode can directly point to 48KB of data
 - Only one layer of indirection needed for 4MB files
- Faster file access
 - Greater meta-data locality → less random seeking
 - No need to traverse long, chained FAT entries
- Easier free space management
 - Bitmaps can be cached in memory for fast access
 - inode and data space handled independently

File Reading Example



File Create and Write Example

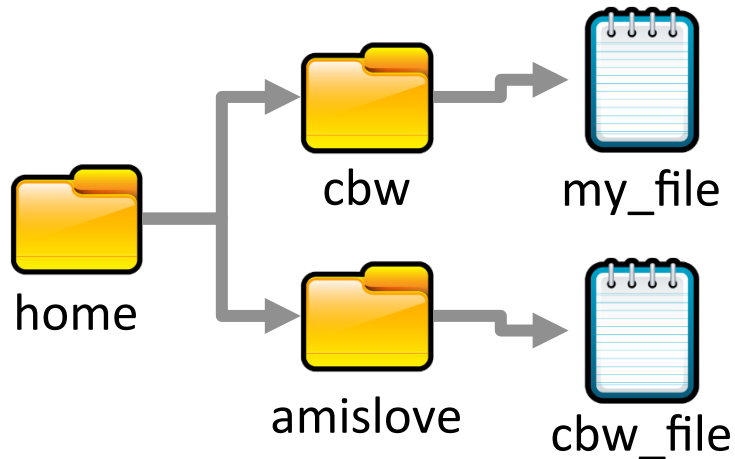


ext2 inodes, Again

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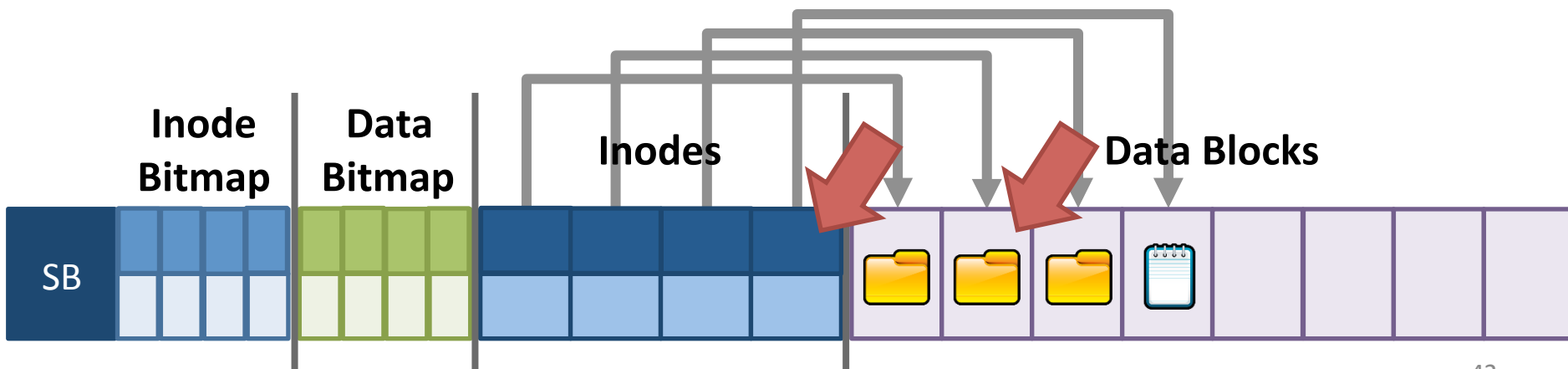
Hard Link Example

- Multiple directory entries may point to the same inode



```
[amislove@ativ9 ~] ln -T ../cbw/my_file cbw_file
```

1. Add an entry to the “amislove” directory
2. Increase the link_count of the “my_file” inode



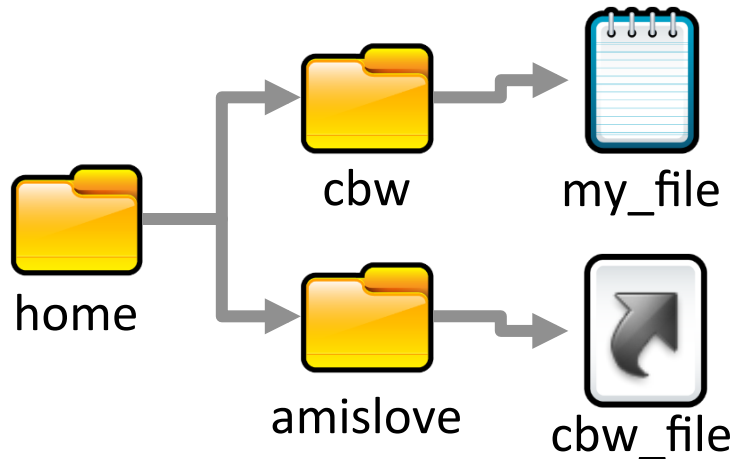
Hard Link Details

- Hard links give you the ability to create many **aliases** of the same underlying file
 - Can be in different directories
- Target file will not be marked invalid (deleted) until `link_count == 0`
 - This is why POSIX “delete” is called *unlink()*
- Disadvantage of hard links
 - Inodes are only unique within a single file system
 - Thus, can only point to files in the same partition

Soft Links

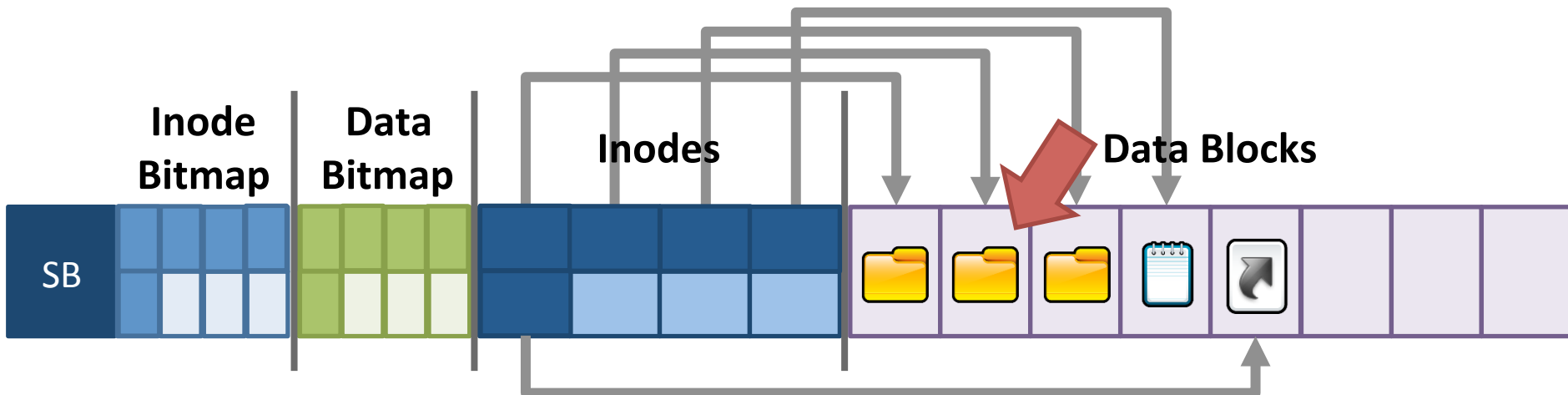
- **Soft links** are special files that include the path to another file
 - Also known as **symbolic links**
 - On Windows, known as **shortcuts**
 - File may be on another partition or device

Soft Link Example



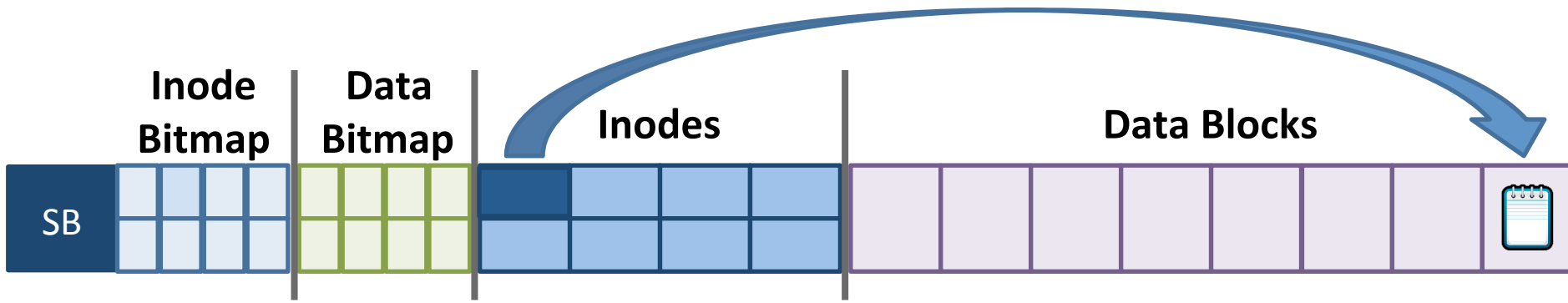
```
[amislove@ativ9 ~] ln -s ../cbw/my_file cbw_file
```

1. Create a soft link file
2. Add it to the current directory



ext: The Good and the Bad

- The Good – ext file system (inodes) support:
 - All the typical file/directory features
 - Hard and soft links
 - More performant (less seeking) than FAT
- The Bad: poor locality
 - ext is optimized for a particular file size distribution
 - However, it is not optimized for spinning disks
 - inodes and associated data are far apart on the disk!



- Partitions and Mounting
- Basics (FAT)
- inodes and Blocks (ext)
- Block Groups (ext2)
- Journaling (ext3)
- Extents and B-Trees (ext4)
- Log-based File Systems

Status Check

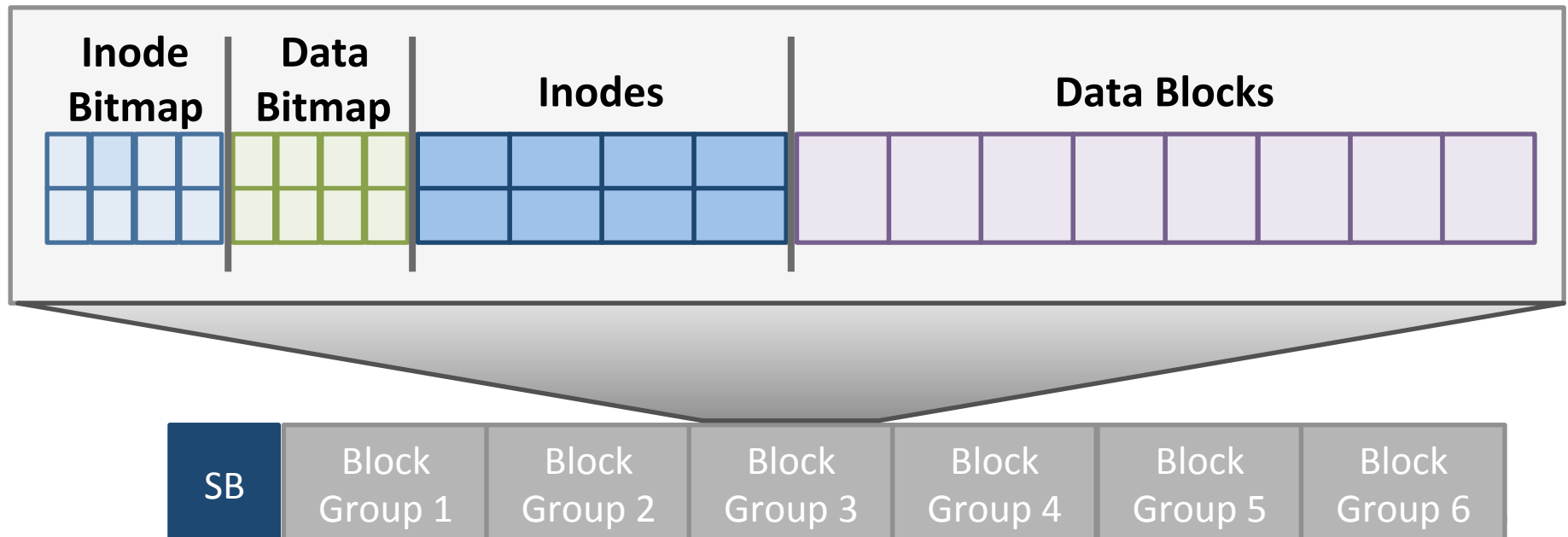
- At this point, we've moved from FAT to ext
 - inodes are imbalanced trees of data blocks
 - Optimized for the common case: small files
- Problem: ext has poor locality
 - inodes are far from their corresponding data
 - This is going to result in long seeks across the disk
- Problem: ext is prone to fragmentation
 - ext chooses the first available blocks for new data
 - No attempt is made to keep the blocks of a file contiguous

Fast File System (FFS)

- FFS developed at Berkeley in 1984
 - First attempt at a **disk aware** file system
 - i.e. optimized for performance on spinning disks
- Observation: processes tend to access files that are in the same (or close) directories
 - Spatial locality
- Key idea: place groups of directories and their files into **cylinder groups**
 - Introduced into ext2, called **block groups**

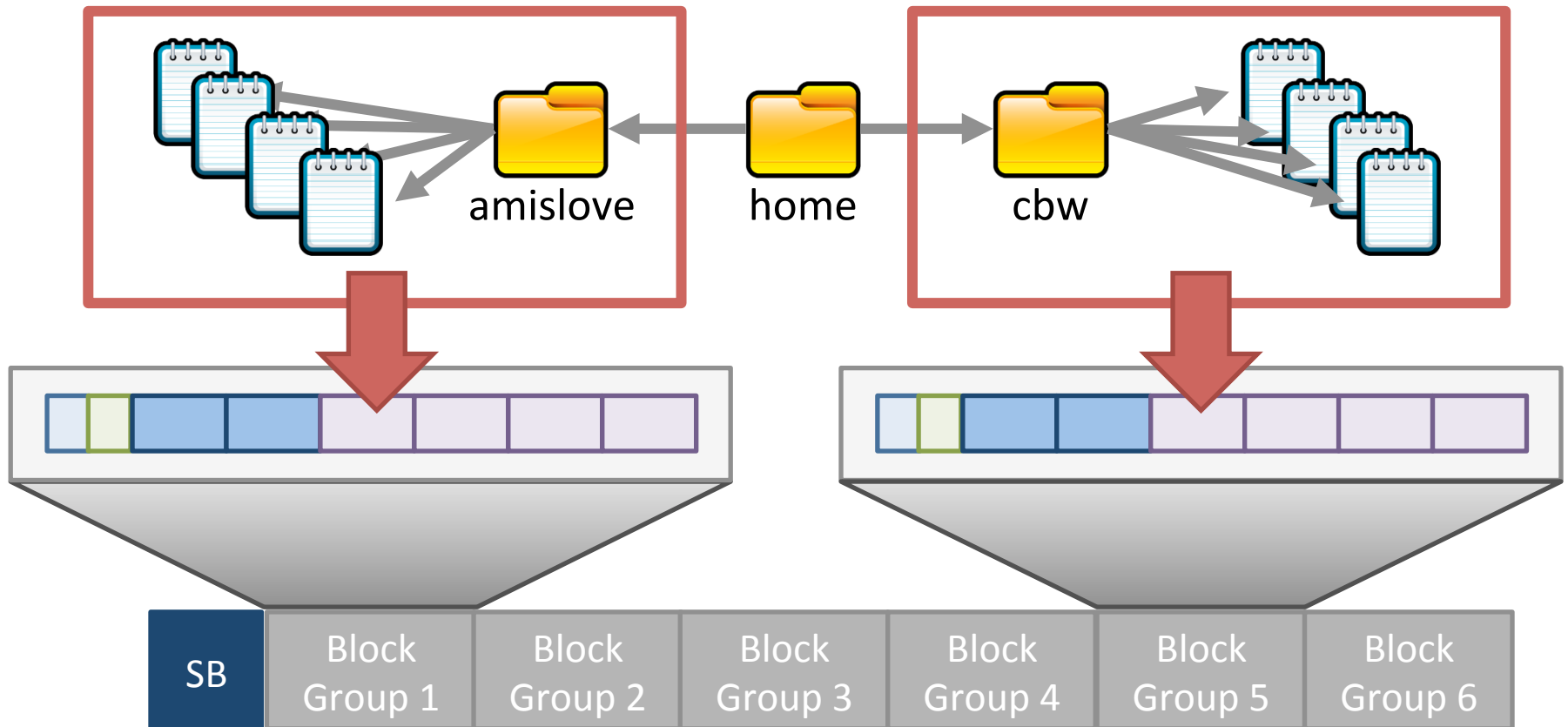
Block Groups

- In ext, there is a single set of key data structures
 - One data bitmap, one inode bitmap
 - One inode table, one array of data blocks
- In ext2, each block group contains its own key data structures



Allocation Policy

- ext2 attempts to keep related files and directories within the same block group



ext2: The Good and the Bad

- The good – ext2 supports:
 - All the features of ext...
 - ... with even better performance (because of increased spatial locality)
- The bad
 - Large files must cross block groups
 - As the file system becomes more complex, the chance of file system **corruption** grows
 - E.g. invalid inodes, incorrect directory entries, etc.

- Partitions and Mounting
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Status Check

- At this point, we have a full featured file system
 - Directories
 - Fine-grained data allocation
 - Hard/soft links
- File system is optimized for spinning disks
 - inodes are optimized for small files
 - Block groups improve locality
- What's next?
 - Consistency and reliability

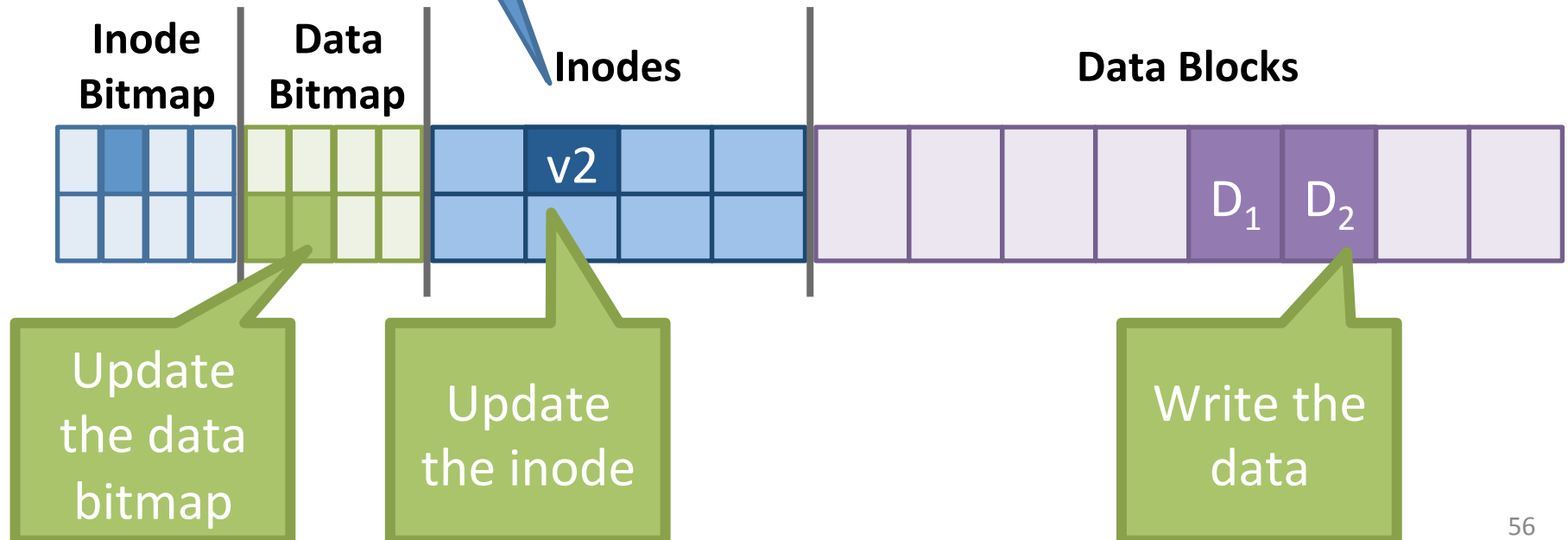
Maintaining Consistency

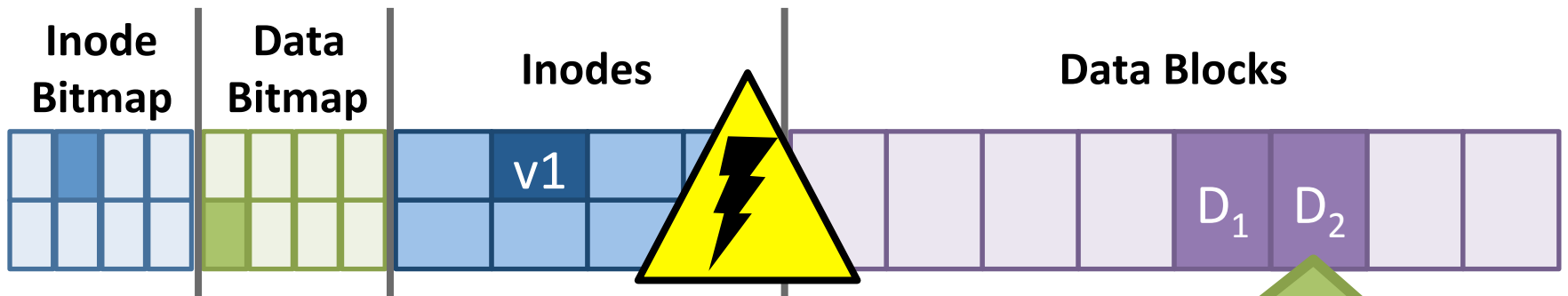
- Many operations results in multiple, independent writes to the file system
 - Example: append a block to an existing file
 1. Update the free data bitmap
 2. Update the inode
 3. Write the user data
- What happens if the computer crashes in the middle of this process?

File Append Example

owner: christo
permissions: rw
size: 2
pointer: 4
pointer: 5
pointer: null
pointer: null

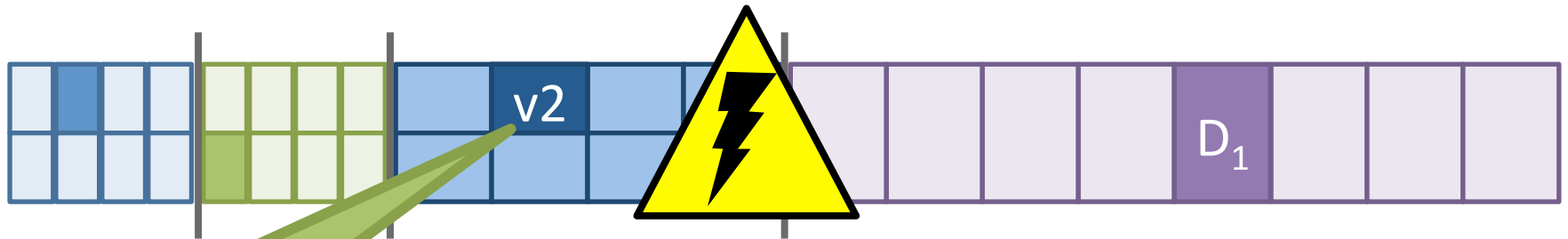
- These three operations can potentially be done in any order
- ... but the system can crash at any time





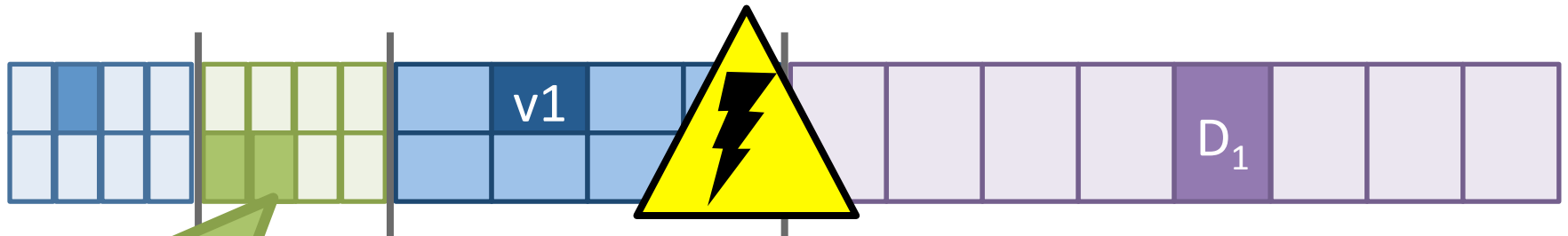
Result: file system is consistent, but the data is lost

Write the data



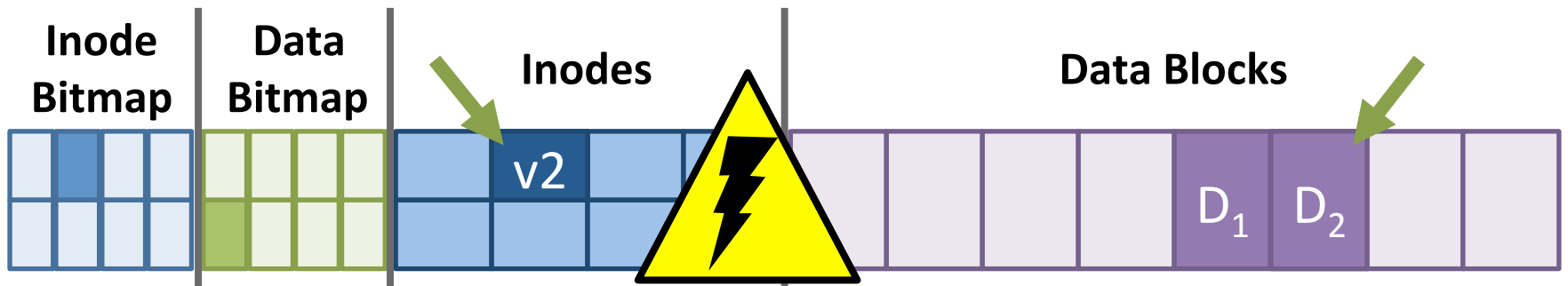
Update the inode

Result: inode points to garbage data, and file system is inconsistent (data bitmap vs. inode)

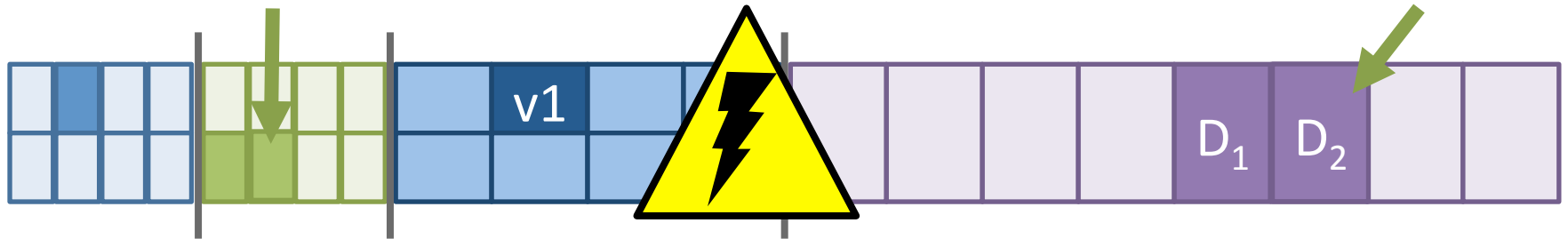


Update the data bitmap

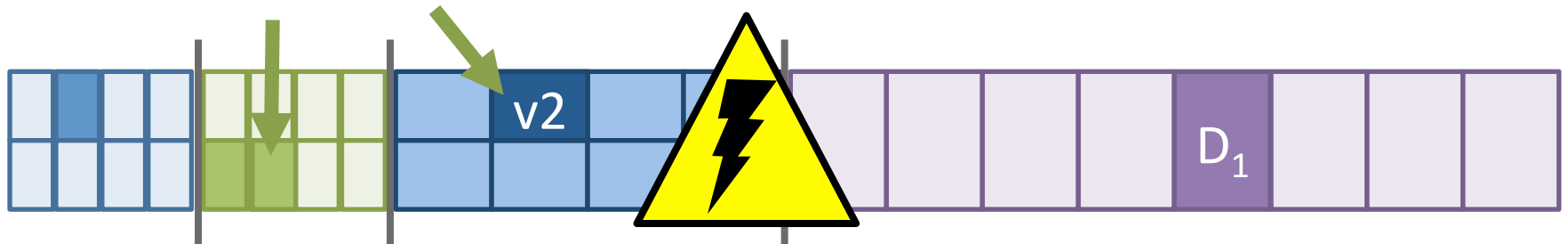
Result: space leakage, and file system is inconsistent (data bitmap vs. inode)



Result: inode points to data, but file system is inconsistent



Result: file system is inconsistent, and the data is useless since it's not associated with an inode



Result: file system is consistent, but the inode points to garbage data

The Crash Consistency Problem

- The disk guarantees that sector writes are atomic
 - No way to make multi-sector writes atomic
- How to ensure consistency after a crash?
 1. Don't bother to ensure consistency
 - Accept that the file system may be inconsistent after a crash
 - Run a program that fixes the file system during bootup
 - [File system checker \(*fsck*\)](#)
 2. Use a transaction log to make multi-writes atomic
 - Log stores a history of all writes to the disk
 - After a crash the log can be “replayed” to finish updates
 - [Journaling file system](#)

Approach 1: File System Checker

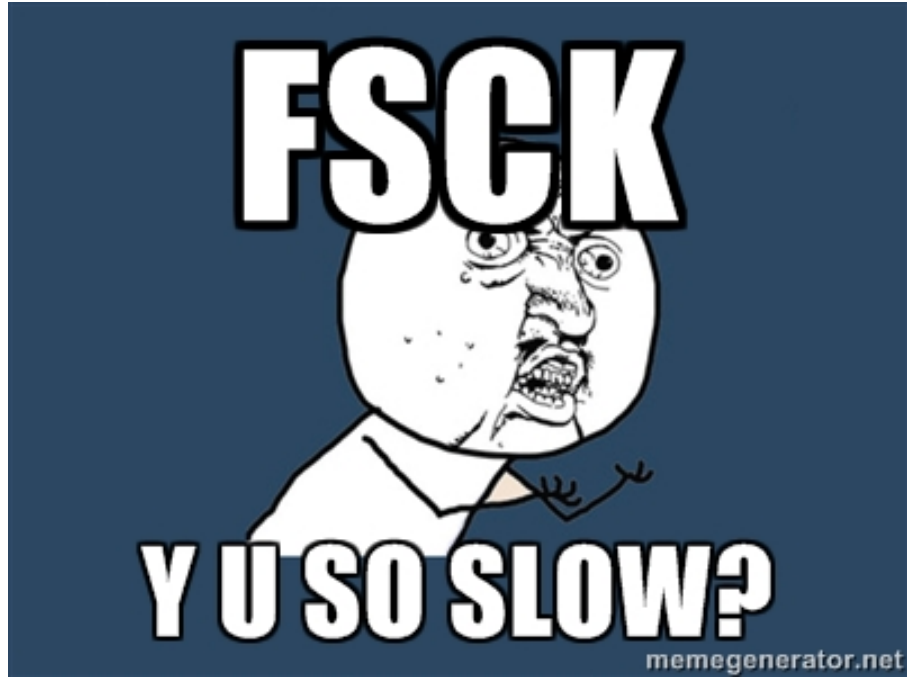
- Key idea: fix inconsistent file systems during bootup
 - Unix utility called *fsck* (*chkdsk* on Windows)
 - Scans the entire file system multiple times, identifying and correcting inconsistencies
- Why during bootup?
 - No other file system activity can be going on
 - After *fsck* runs, bootup/mounting can continue

fsck Tasks

- **Superblock:** validate the superblock, replace it with a backup if it is corrupted
- **Free blocks and inodes:** rebuild the bitmaps by scanning all inodes
- **Reachability:** make sure all inodes are reachable from the root of the file system
- **inodes:** delete all corrupted inodes, and rebuild their link counts by walking the directory tree
- **directories:** verify the integrity of all directories
- ... and many other minor consistency checks

fsck: the Good and the Bad

- Advantages of *fsck*
 - Doesn't require the file system to do any work to ensure consistency
 - Makes the file system implementation simpler
- Disadvantages of *fsck*
 - Very complicated to implement the *fsck* program
 - Many possible inconsistencies that must be identified
 - Many difficult corner cases to consider and handle
 - *fsck* is **super slow**
 - Scans the entire file system multiple times
 - Imagine how long it would take to fsck a 40 TB RAID array



Approach 2: Journaling

- Problem: *fsck* is slow because it checks the entire file system after a crash
 - What if we knew where the last writes were before the crash, and just checked those?
- Key idea: make writes transactional by using a **write-ahead log**
 - Commonly referred to as a **journal**
- Ext3 and NTFS use journaling



Write-Ahead Log

- Key idea: writes to disk are first written into a log
 - After the log is written, the writes execute normally
 - In essence, the log records transactions
- What happens after a crash...
 - If the writes to the log are interrupted?
 - The transaction is incomplete
 - The user's data is lost, but the file system is consistent
 - If the writes to the log succeed, but the normal writes are interrupted?
 - The file system may be inconsistent, but...
 - The log has exactly the right information to fix the problem

Data Journaling Example

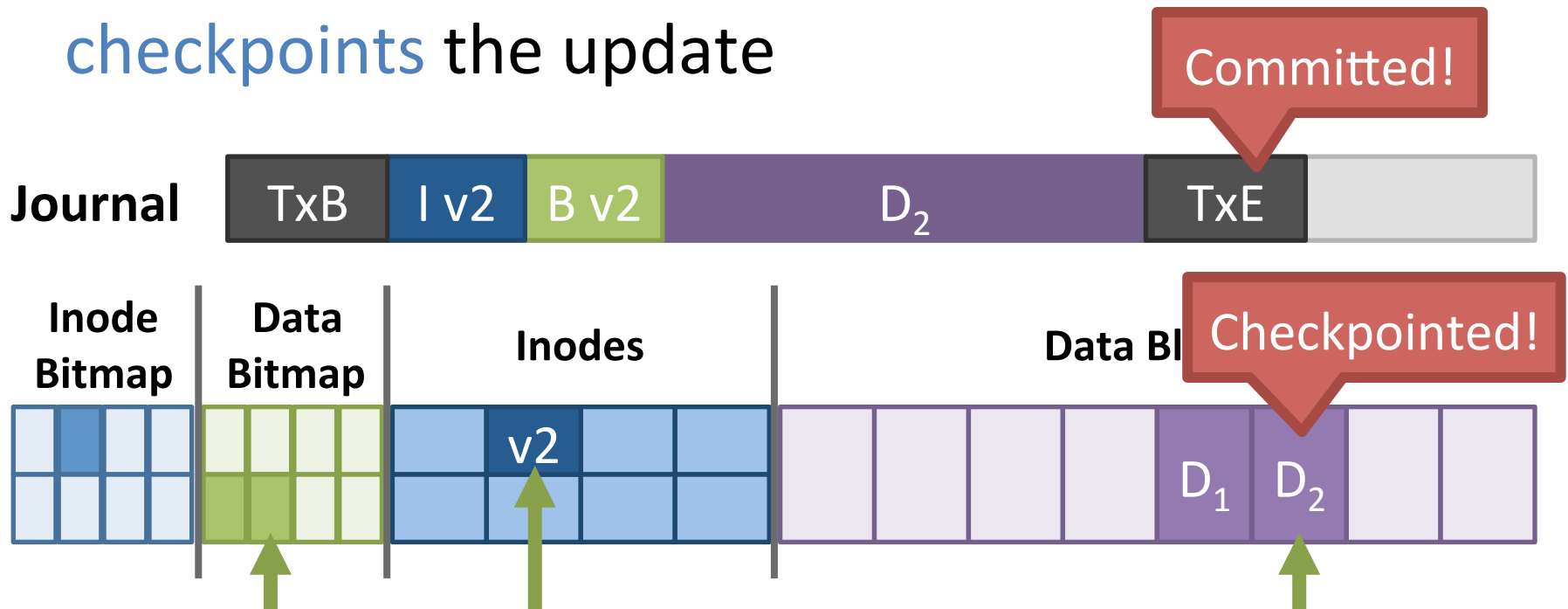
- Assume we are appending to a file
 - Three writes: inode v2, data bitmap v2, data D_2
- Before executing these writes, first log them



1. Begin a new transaction with a unique $ID=k$
2. Write the updated meta-data block(s)
3. Write the file data block(s)
4. Write an end-of-transaction with $ID=k$

Commits and Checkpoints

- We say a transaction is **committed** after all writes to the log are complete
- After a transaction is committed, the OS **checkpoints** the update

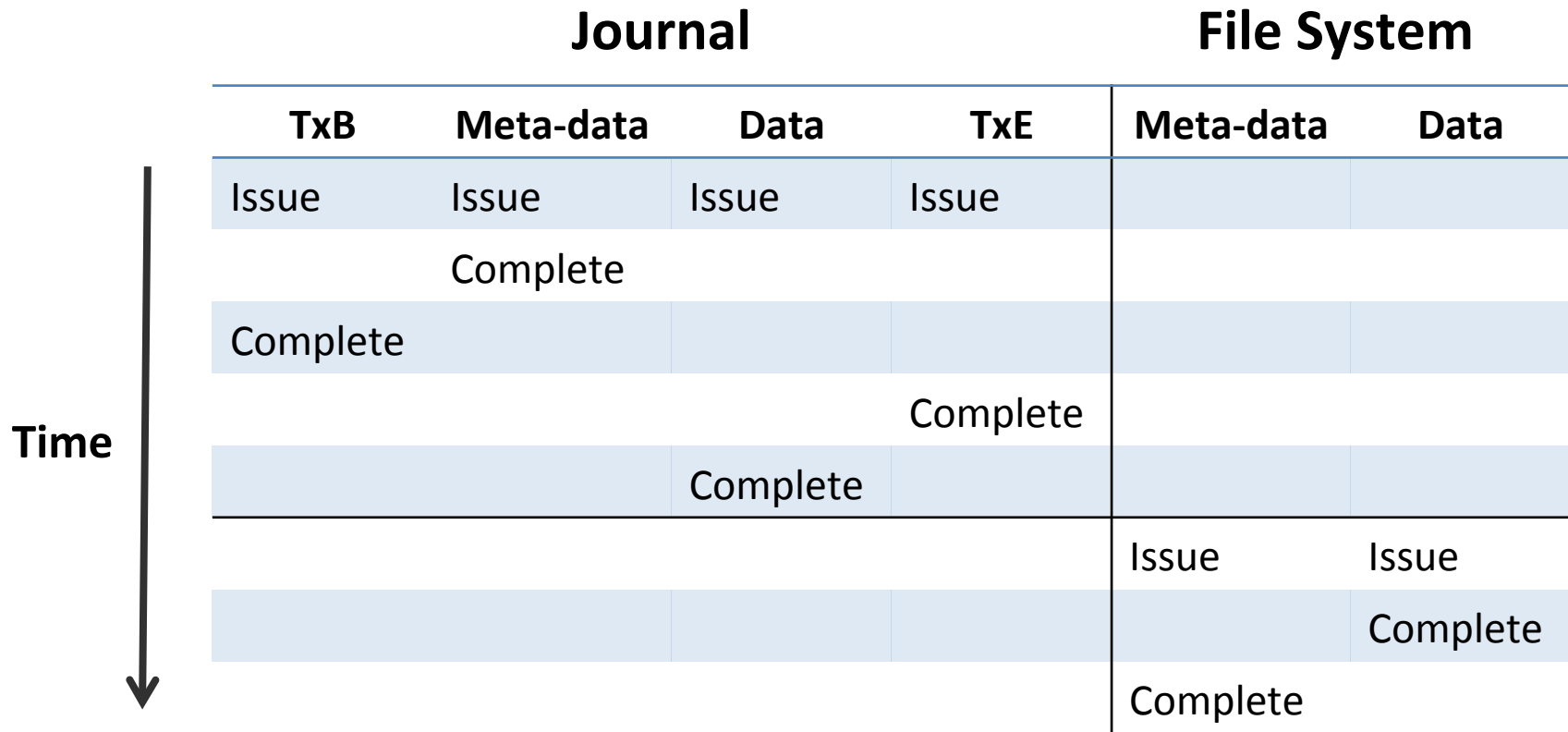


- Final step: **free** the checkpointed transaction

Journal Implementation

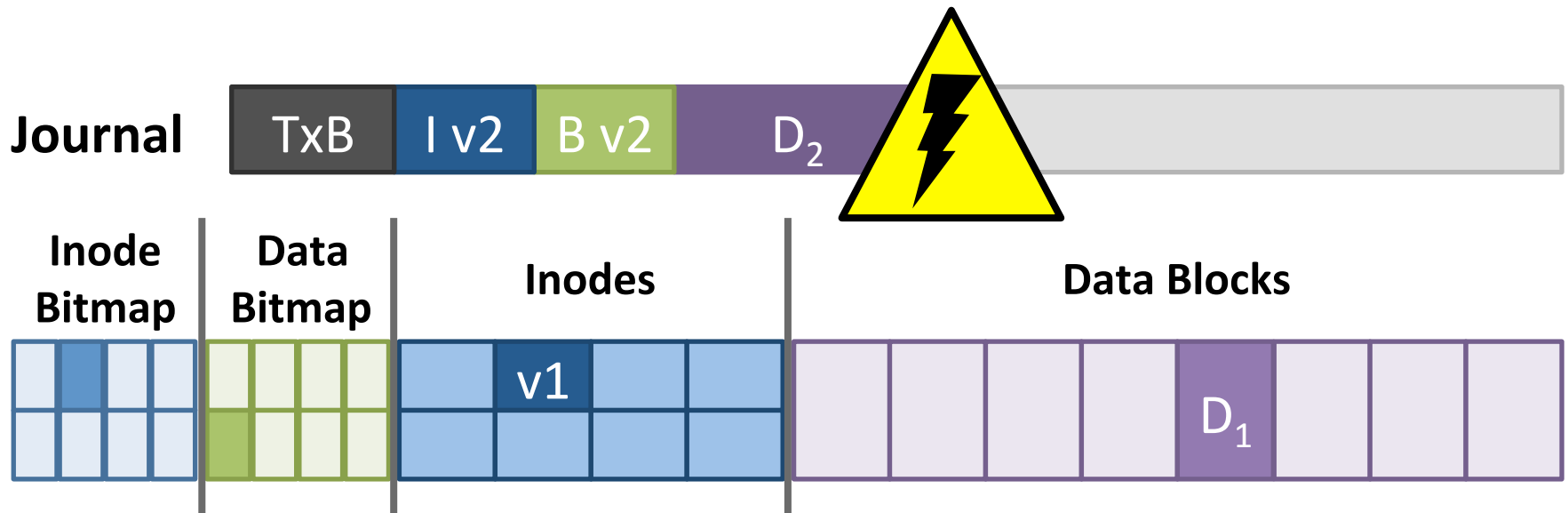
- Journals are typically implemented as a circular buffer
 - Journal is **append-only**
- OS maintains pointers to the front and back of the transactions in the buffer
 - As transactions are freed, the back is moved up
- Thus, the contents of the journal are never deleted, they are just overwritten over time

Data Journaling Timeline



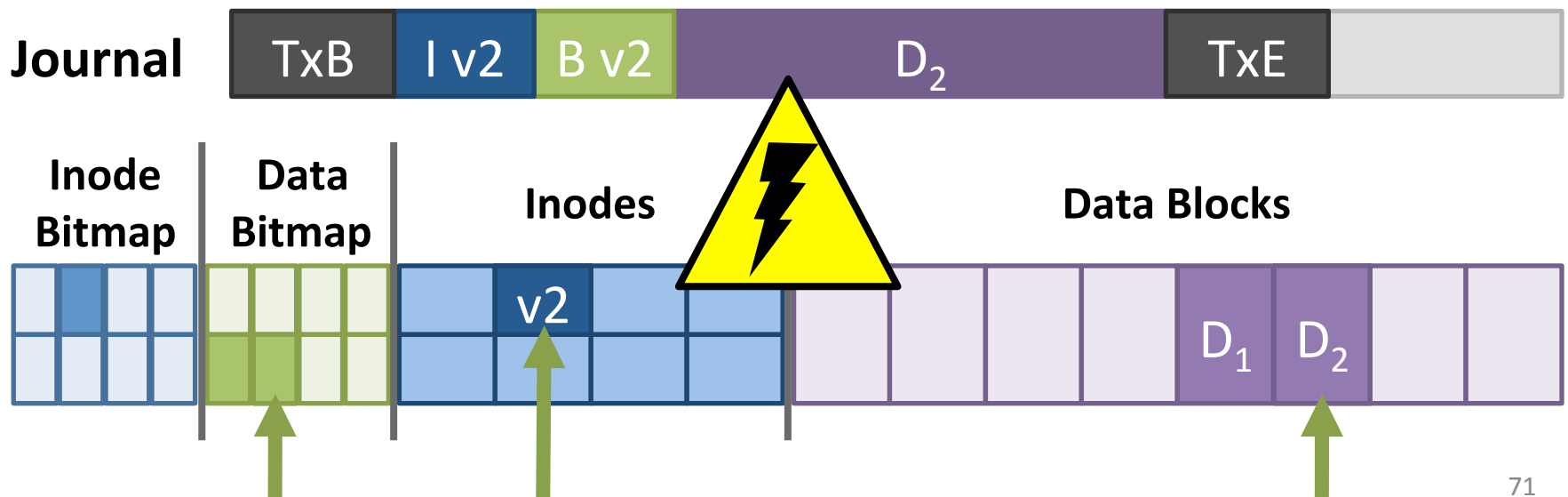
Crash Recovery (1)

- What if the system crashes during logging?
 - If the transaction is not committed, data is lost
 - But, the file system remains consistent



Crash Recovery (2)

- What if the system crashes during the checkpoint?
 - File system may be inconsistent
 - During reboot, transactions that are committed but not free are replayed in order
 - Thus, no data is lost and consistency is restored



Corrupted Transactions

- Problem: the disk scheduler may not execute writes in-order
 - Transactions in the log may appear committed, when in fact they are invalid

Journal



- Solution: add a checksum to TxB
- During recovery, reject transactions with invalid checksums
- Implemented on Linux in ext4

- Transaction looks valid, but the data is missing!
- During replay, garbage data is written to the file system

Journaling: The Good and the Bad

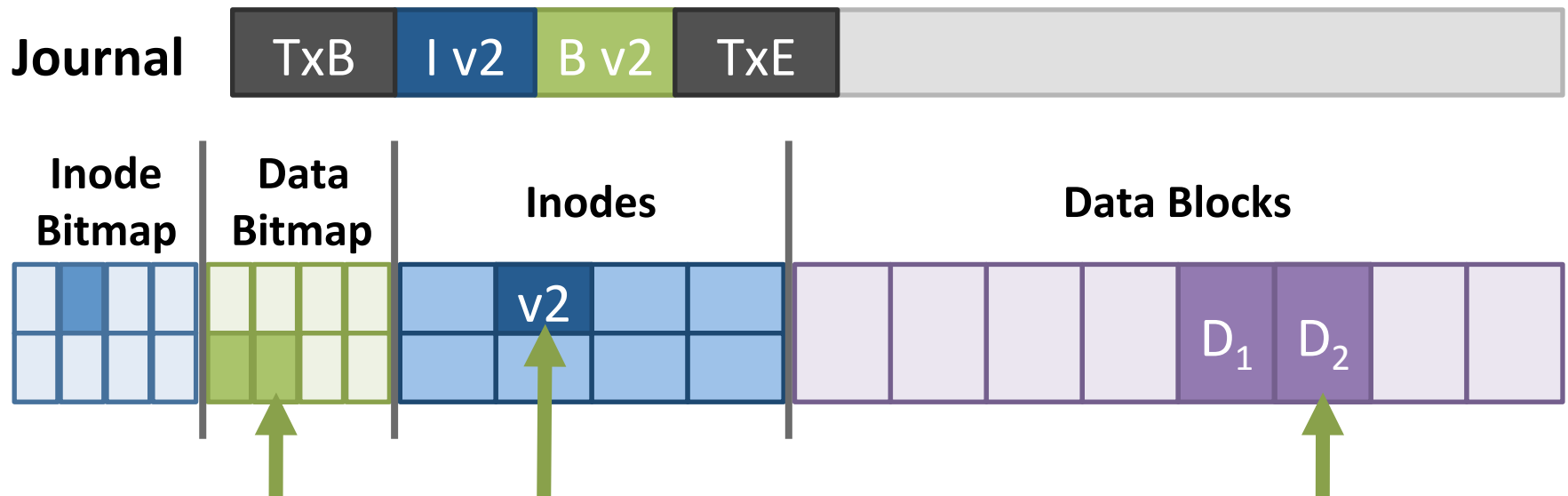
- Advantages of journaling
 - Robust, fast file system recovery
 - No need to scan the entire journal or file system
 - Relatively straight forward to implement
- Disadvantages of journaling
 - Write traffic to the disk is doubled
 - Especially the file data, which is probably large
 - Deletes are very hard to correctly log
 - Example in a few slides...

Making Journaling Faster

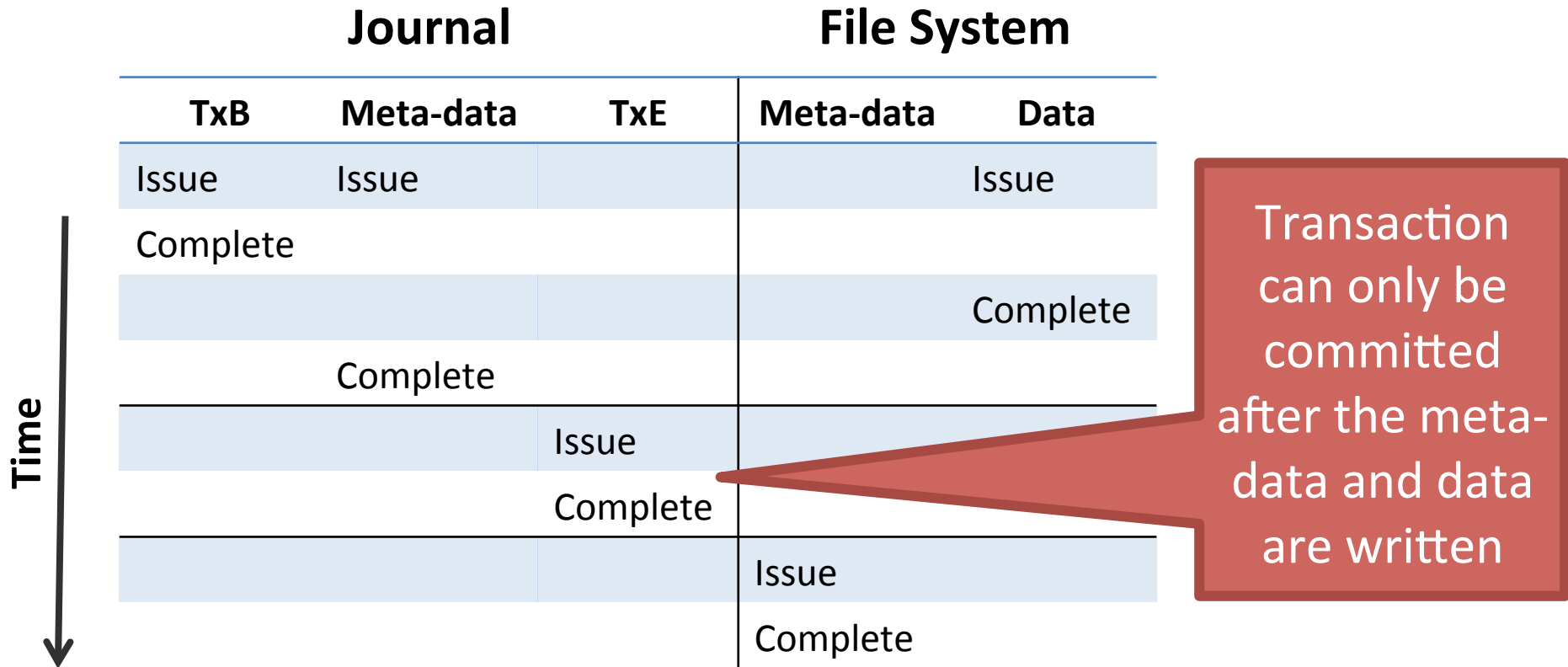
- Journaling adds a lot of write overhead
- OSes typically batch updates to the journal
 - Buffer sequential writes in memory, then issue one large write to the log
 - Example: ext3 batches updates for 5 seconds
- Tradeoff between performance and persistence
 - Long batch interval = fewer, larger writes to the log
 - Improved performance due to large sequential writes
 - But, if there is a crash, everything in the buffer will be lost

Meta-Data Journaling

- The most expensive part of data journaling is writing the file data twice
 - Meta-data is small (~1 sector), file data is large
- ext3 implements meta-data journaling

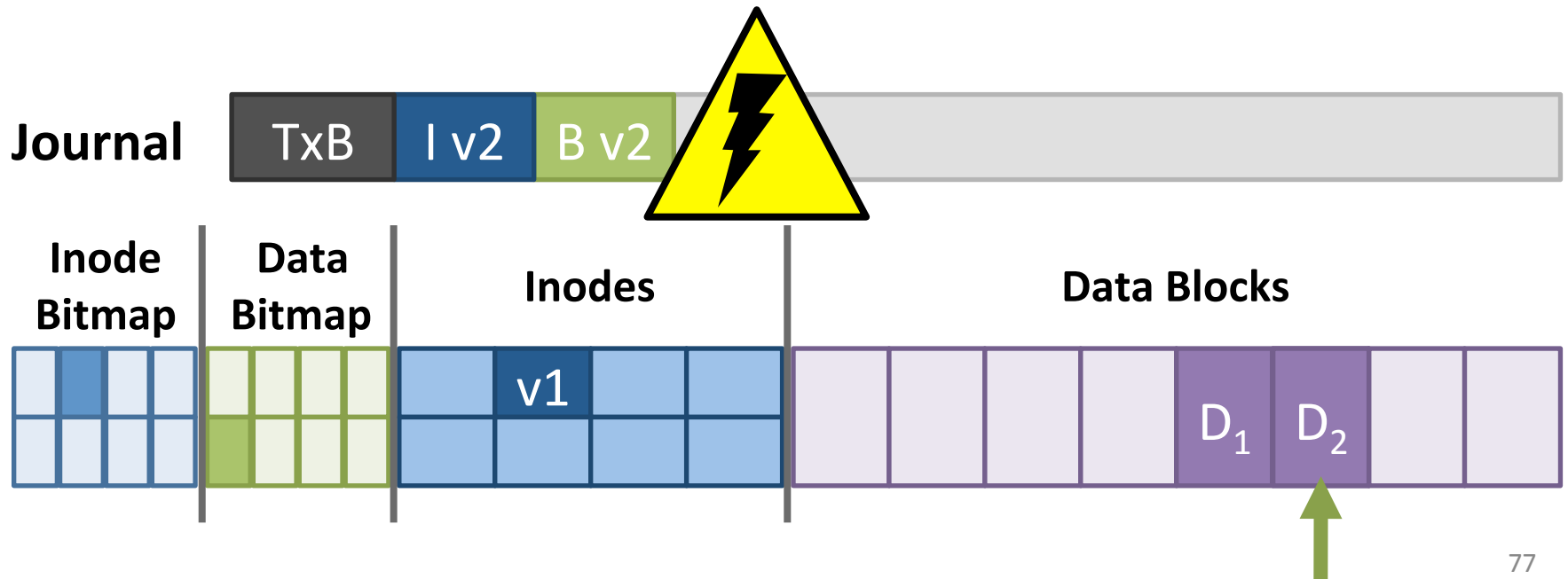


Meta-Journaling Timeline



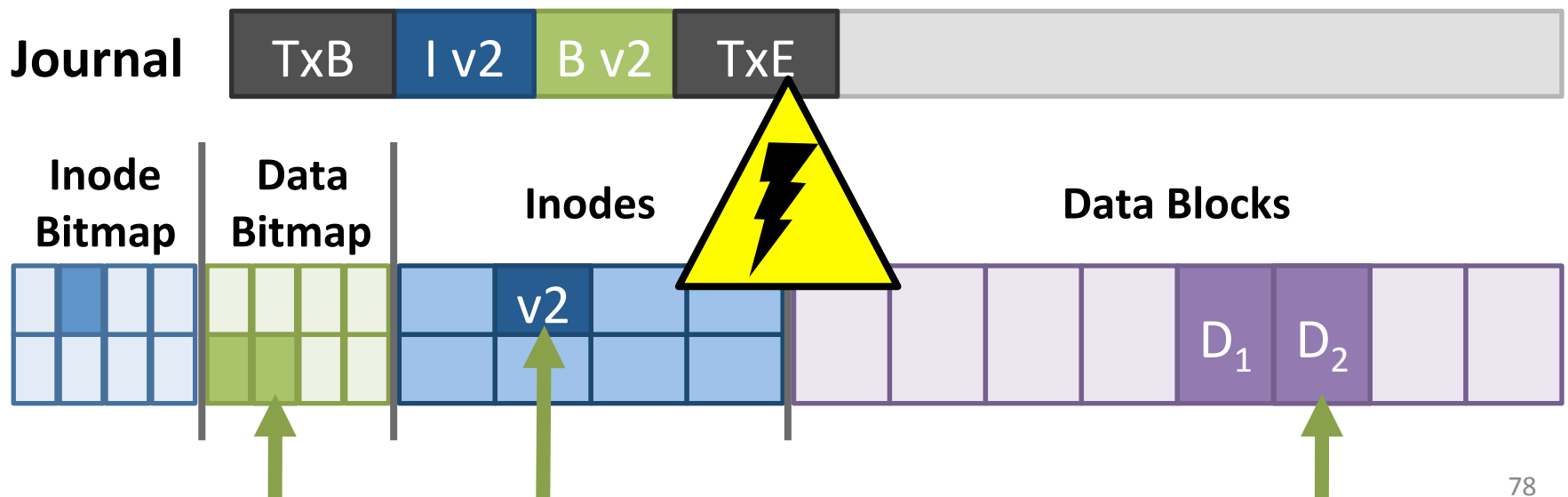
Crash Recovery Redux (1)

- What if the system crashes during logging?
 - If the transaction is not committed, data is lost
 - D_2 will eventually be overwritten
 - The file system remains consistent

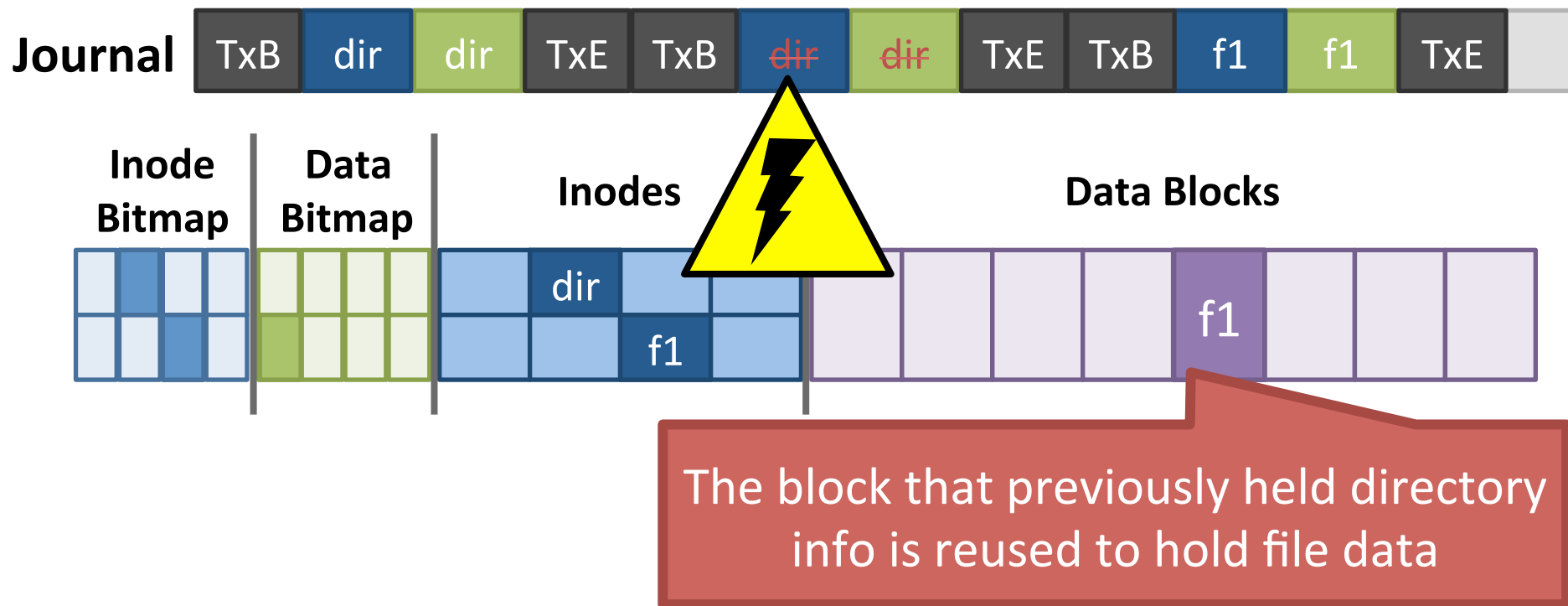


Crash Recovery Redux (2)

- What if the system crashes during the checkpoint?
 - File system may be inconsistent
 - During reboot, transactions that are committed but not free are replayed in order
 - Thus, no data is lost and consistency is restored



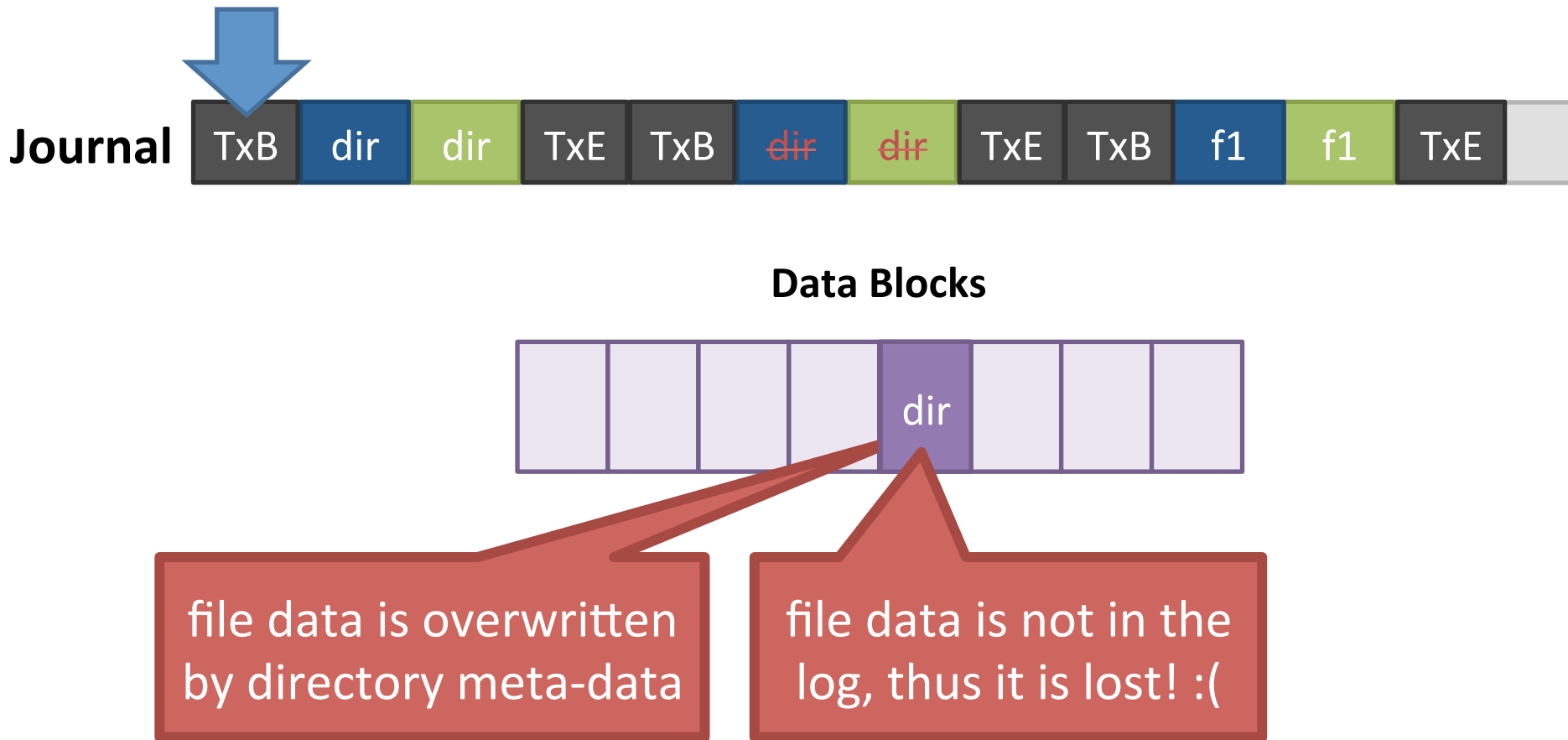
Delete and Block Reuse



1. Create a directory: inode and data are written
2. Delete the directory: inode is removed
3. Create a file: inode and data are written

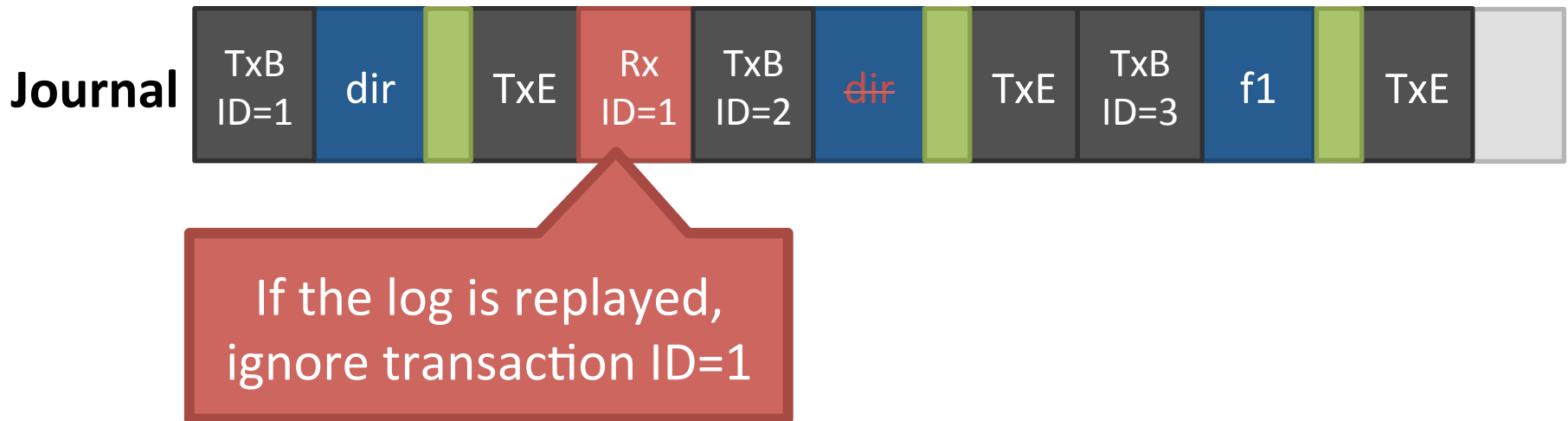
The Trouble With Delete

- What happens when the log is replayed?



Handling Delete

- Strategy 1: don't reuse blocks until the delete is checkpointed and freed
- Strategy 2: add a **revoke** record to the log
 - ext3 used revoke records



Journaling Wrap-Up

- Today, most OSes use journaling file systems
 - ext3/ext4 on Linux
 - NTFS on Windows
- Provides excellent crash recovery with relatively low space and performance overhead
- Next-gen OSes will likely move to file systems with copy-on-write semantics
 - btrfs and zfs on Linux

- Partitions and Mounting
- Basics (FAT)
- inodes and Blocks (ext)
- Block Groups (ext2)
- Journaling (ext3)
- Extents and B-Trees (ext4)
- Log-based File Systems

Status Check

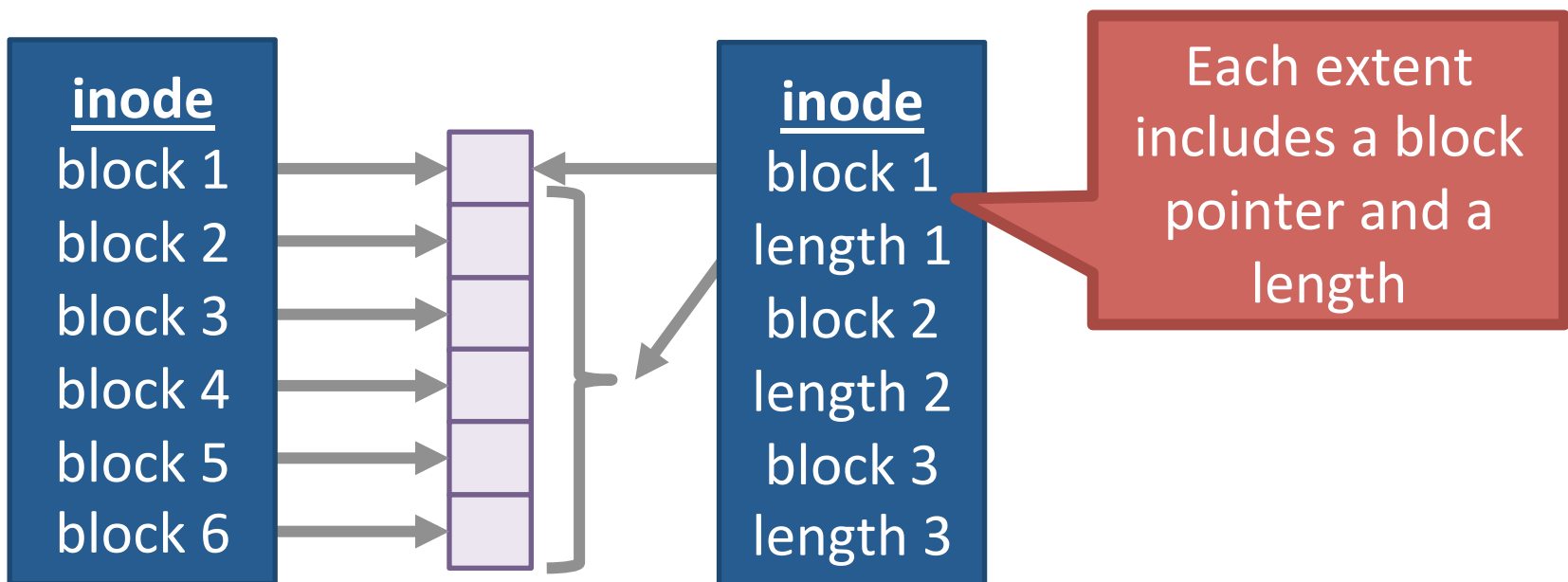
- At this point:
 - We not only have a fast file system
 - But it is also resilient against corruption
- What's next?
 - More efficiency improvements!

Revisiting inodes

- Recall: inodes use indirection to acquire additional blocks of pointers
- Problem: inodes are not efficient for large files
 - Example: for a 100MB file, you need 25600 block pointers (assuming 4KB blocks)
- This is unavoidable if the file is 100% fragmented
 - However, what if large groups of blocks are contiguous?

From Pointers to Extents

- Modern file systems try hard to minimize fragmentation
 - Since it results in many seeks, thus low performance
- **Extents** are better suited for contiguous files



Implementing Extents

- ext4 and NTFS use extents
- ext4 inodes include 4 extents instead of block pointers
 - Each extent can address at most 128MB of contiguous space (assuming 4KB blocks)
 - If more extents are needed, a data block is allocated
 - Similar to a block of indirect pointers

Revisiting Directories

- In ext, ext2, and ext3, each directory is a file with a list of entries
 - Entries are not stored in sorted order
 - Some entries may be blank, if they have been deleted
- Problem: searching for files in large directories takes $O(n)$ time
 - Practically, you can't store >10K files in a directory
 - It takes way too long to locate and open files

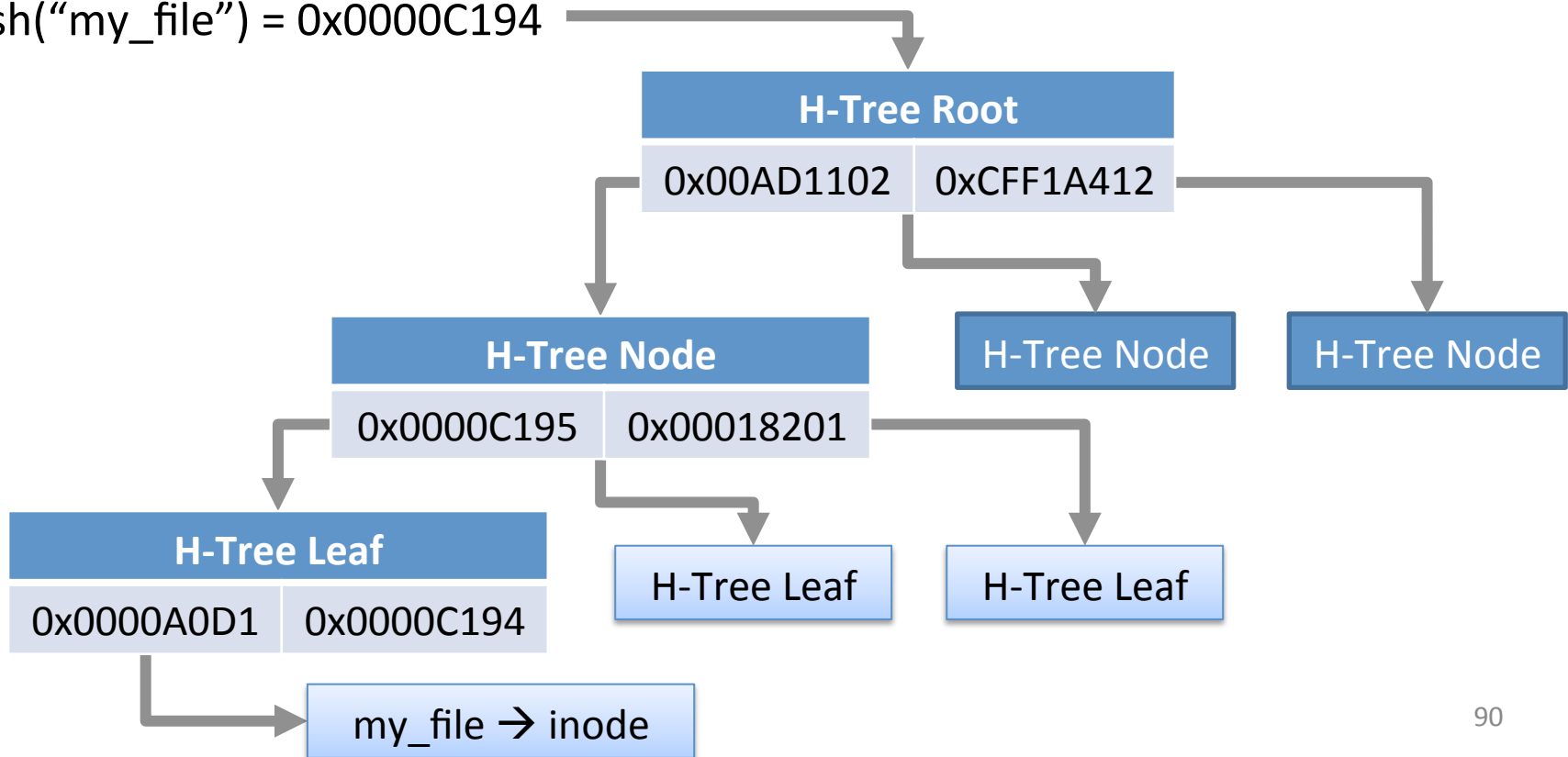
From Lists to B-Trees

- ext4 and NTFS encode directories as B-Trees to improve lookup time to $O(\log N)$
- A B-Tree is a type of balanced tree that is optimized for storage on disk
 - Items are stored in sorted order in blocks
 - Each block stores between m and $2m$ items
- Suppose items i and j are in the root of the tree
 - The root must have 3 children, since it has 2 items
 - The three child groups contain items $a < i$, $i < a < j$, and $a > j$

Example B-Tree

- ext4 uses a B-Tree variant known as a H-Tree
 - The *H* stands for *hash* (sometime called B+Tree)
- Suppose you try to `open("my_file", "r")`

hash("my_file") = 0x0000C194



ext4: The Good and the Bad

- The good – ext4 (and NTFS) supports:
 - All of the basic file system functionality we require
 - Improved performance from ext3's block groups
 - Additional performance gains from extents and B-Tree directory files
- The bad:
 - ext4 is an incremental improvement over ext3
 - Next-gen file systems have even nicer features
 - Copy-on-write semantics (btrfs and ZFS)

- Partitions and Mounting
- Basics (FAT)
- inodes and Blocks (ext)
- Block Groups (ext2)
- Journaling (ext3)
- Extents and B-Trees (ext4)
- **Log-based File Systems**

Status Check

- At this point:
 - We have arrived at a modern file system like ext4
- What's next?
 - Go back to the drawing board and reevaluate from first-principals

Reevaluating Disk Performance

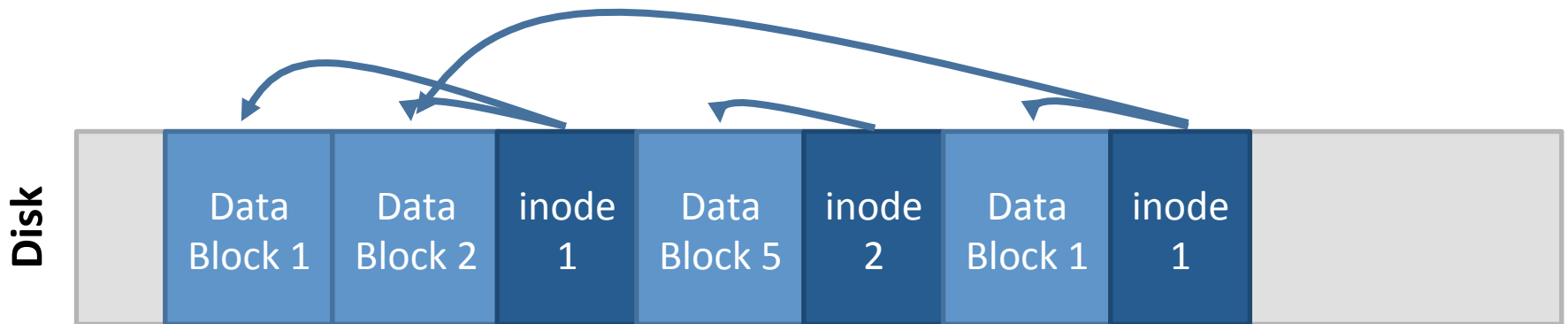
- How has computer hardware been evolving?
 - RAM has become cheaper and grown larger :)
 - Random access seek times have remained very slow :(
- This changing dynamic alters how disks are used
 - More data can be cached in RAM = less disk reads
 - Thus, writes will dominate disk I/O
- Can we create a file system that is optimized for sequential writes?

Log-structured File System

- Key idea: buffer all writes (including meta-data) in memory
 - Write these long segments to disk sequentially
 - Treat the disk as a circular buffer, i.e. don't overwrite
- Advantages:
 - All writes are large and sequential
- Big question:
 - How do you manage meta-data and maintain structure in this kind of design?

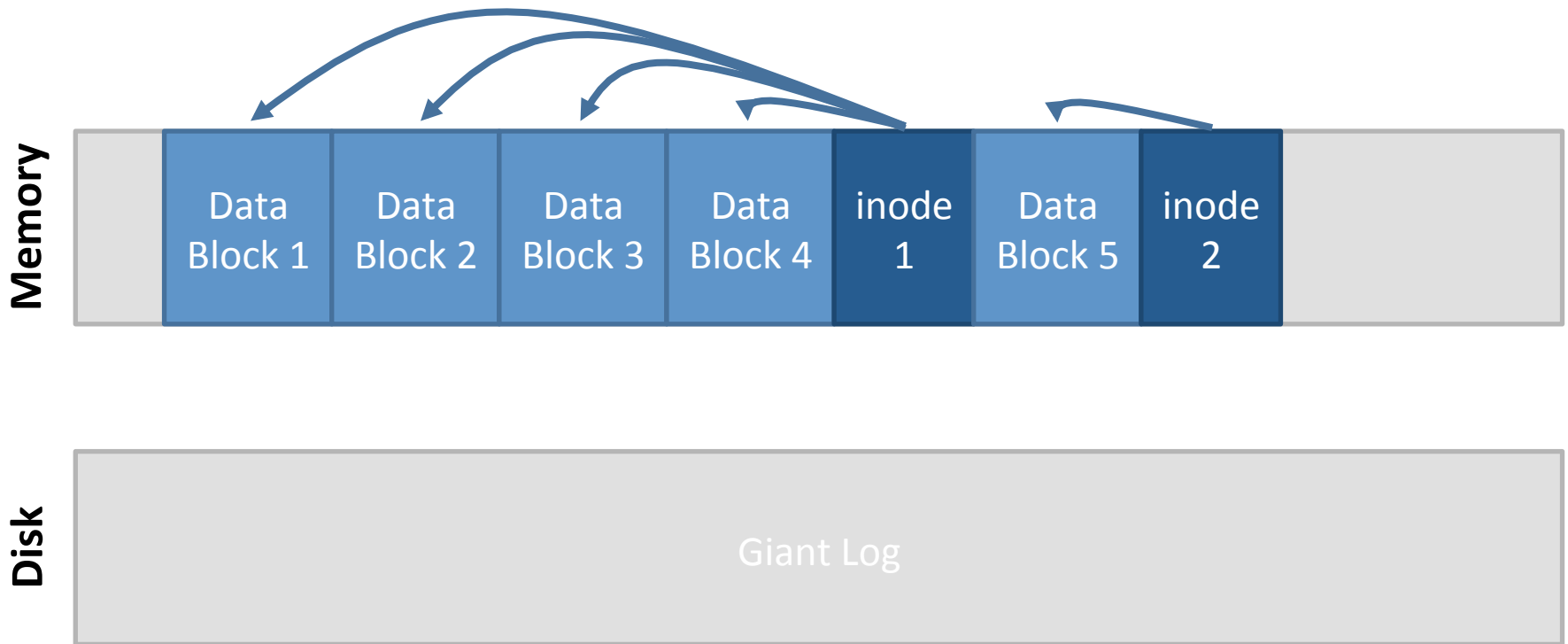
Treating the Disk as a Log

- Same concept as data journaling
 - Data and meta-data get appended to a log
 - Stale data isn't overwritten, its replaced



Buffering Writes

- LFS buffers writes in-memory into chunks

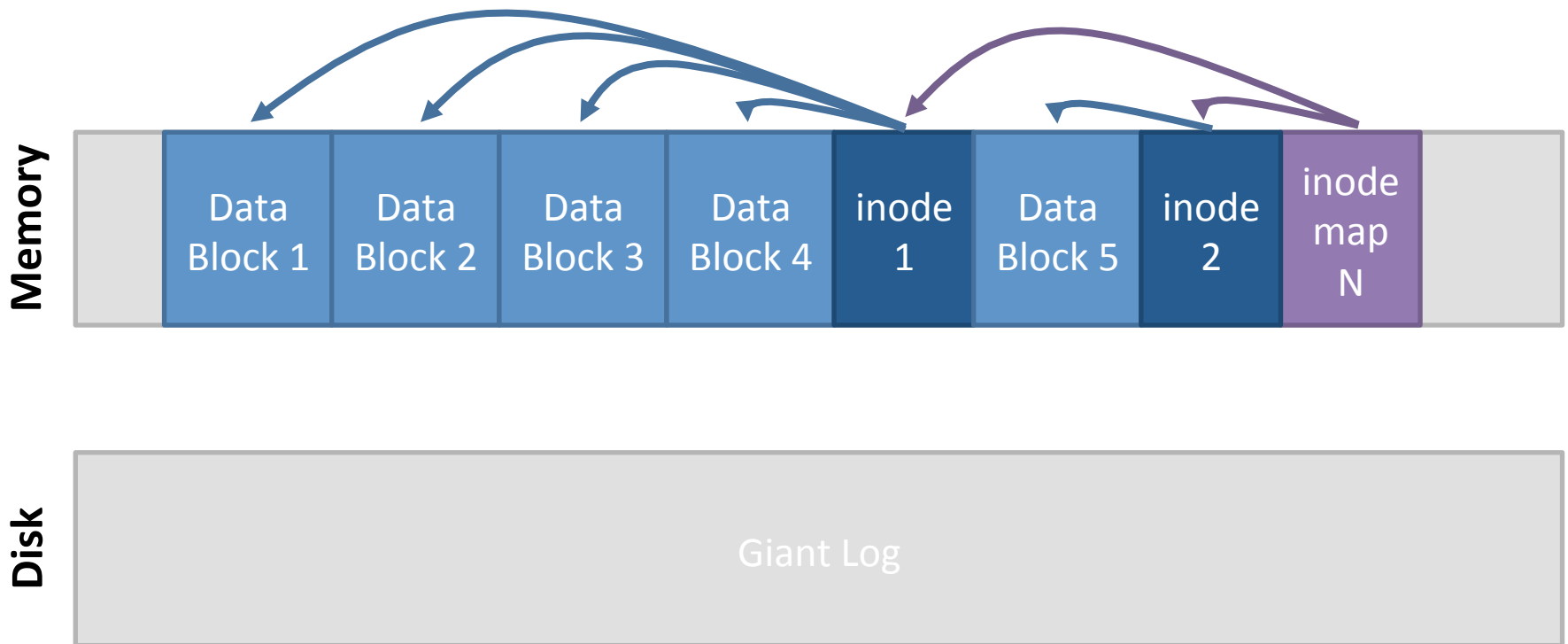


- Chunks get appended to the log once they are sufficiently large

How to Find inodes

- In a typical file system, the inodes are stored at fixed locations (relatively easy to find)
- How do you find inodes in the log?
 - Remember, there may be multiple copies of a given inode
- Solution: add a level of indirection
 - The traditional **inode map** can be broken into pieces
 - When a portion of the inode map is updated, write it to the log!

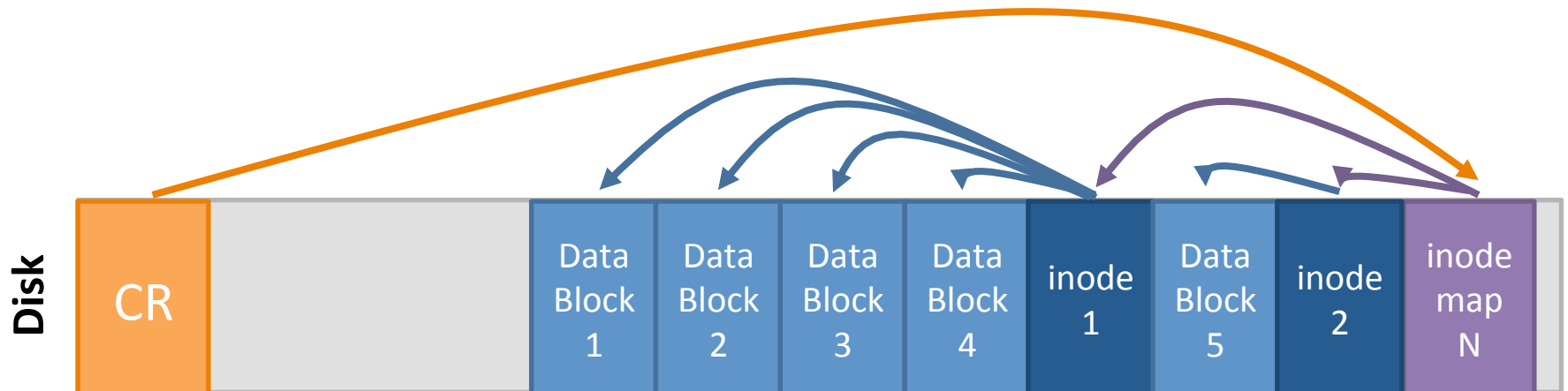
inode Maps



- New problem: the inode map is scattered throughout the log
 - How do we find the most up-to-date pieces?

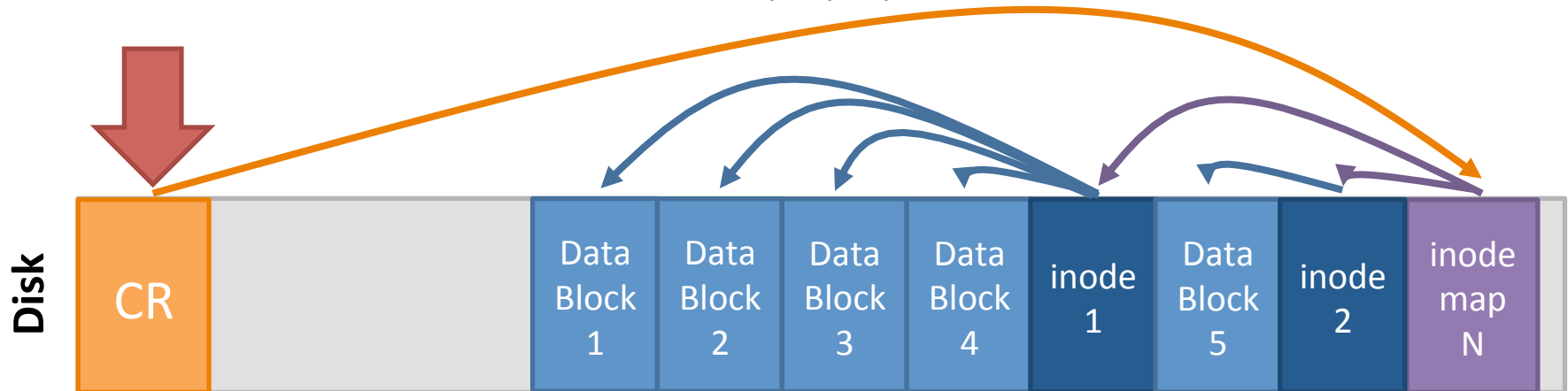
The Checkpoint Region

- The superblock in LFS contains pointers to all of the up-to-date inode maps
 - The **checkpoint region** is always cached in memory
 - Written periodically to disk, say ~30 seconds
 - Only part of LFS that isn't maintained in the log



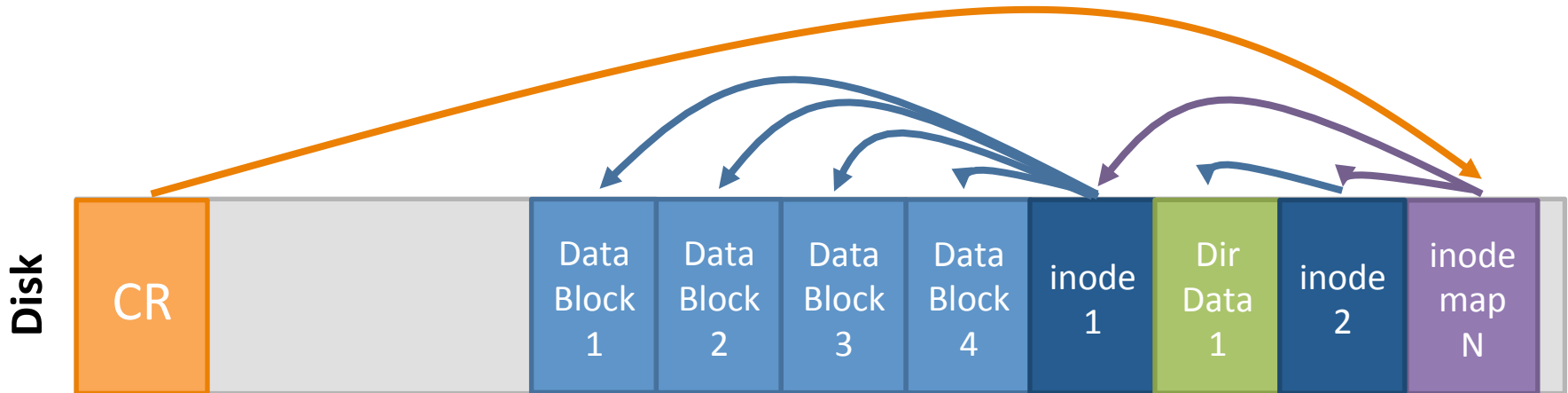
How to Read a File in LFS

- Suppose you want to read inode 1
 1. Look up inode 1 in the checkpoint region
 - inode map containing inode 1 is in sector X
 2. Read the inode map at sector X
 - inode 1 is in sector Y
 3. Read inode 1
 - File data is in sectors A, B, C , etc.



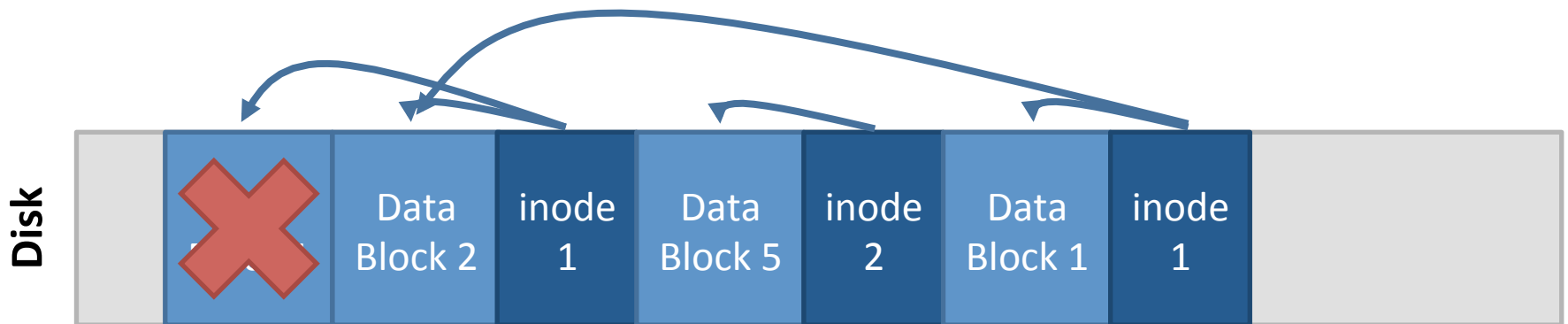
Directories in LFS

- Directories are stored just like in typical file systems
 - Directory data stored in a file
 - inode points to the directory file
 - Directory file contains name → inode mappings



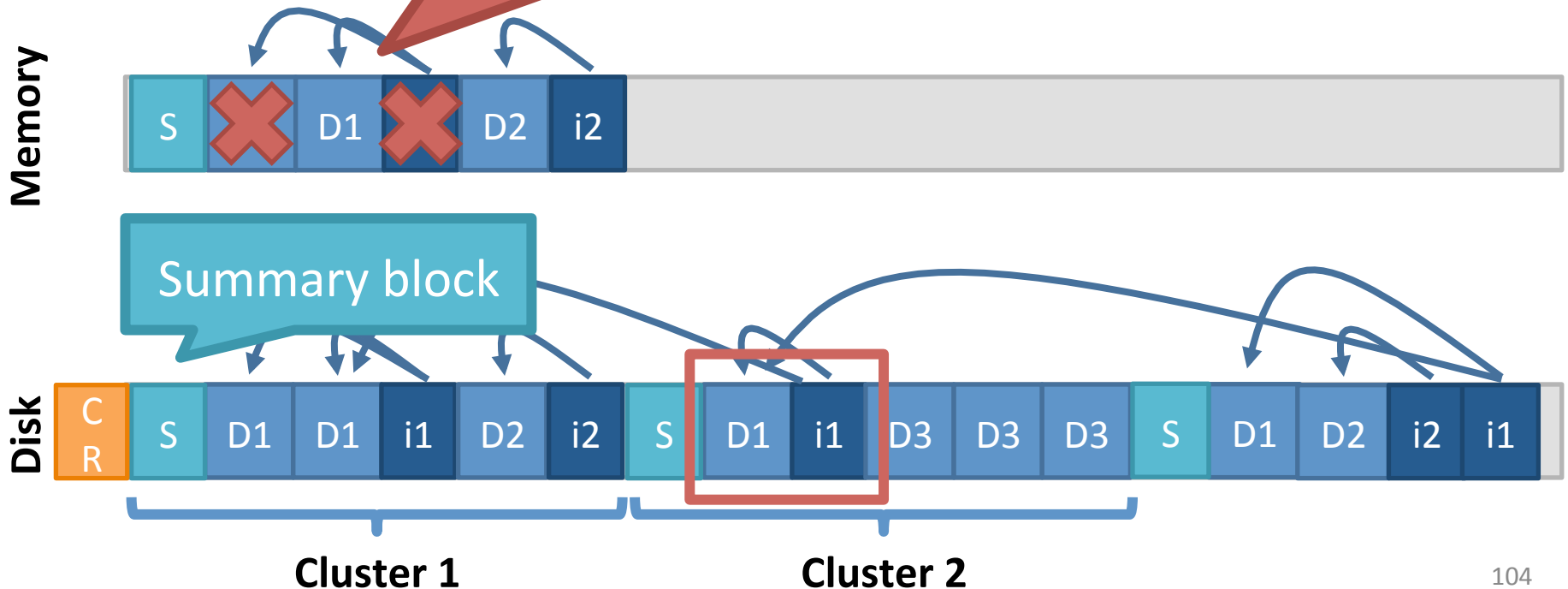
Garbage

- Over time, the log is going to fill up with stale data
 - Highly fragmented: live data mixed with stale data
- Periodically, the log must be garbage collected



Garbage Collection in LFS

- Each cluster has a summary block
 - Contains the block → inode mapping for each block in the cluster
- Which blocks are stale?
 - Pointers from other clusters are invisible
 - Does not match the summary, blocks are stale



An Idea Whose Time Has Come

- LFS seems like a very strange design
 - Totally unlike traditional file system structures
 - Doesn't map well to our ideas about directory heirarchies
- Initially, people did not like LFS
- However, today it's features are widely used

File Systems for SSDs

- SSD hardware constraints
 - To implement wear leveling, writes must be spread across the blocks of flash
 - Periodically, old blocks need to be garbage collected to prevent write-amplification
- Does this sounds familiar?
- LFS is the ideal file system for SSDs!
- Internally, SSDs manage all files in a LFS
 - This is transparent to the OS and end-users
 - Ideal for wear-leveling and avoiding write-amplification

Copy-on-write

- Modern file systems incorporate ideas from LFS
- Copy-on-write semantics
 - Updated data is written to empty space on disk, rather than overwriting the original data
 - Helps prevent data corruption, improves sequential write performance
- Pioneered by LFS, now used in ZFS and btrfs
 - btrfs will probably be the next default file system in Linux

Versioning File Systems

- LFS keeps old copies of data by default
- Old versions of files may be useful!
 - Example: accidental file deletion
 - Example: accidentally doing *open(file, 'w')* on a file full of data
- Turn LFS flaw into a virtue
- Many modern file systems are **versioned**
 - Old copies of data are exposed to the user
 - The user may roll-back a file to recover old versions