Last Class: Memory management

- Page replacement algorithms make paging work well.
 - Random, FIFO, MIN, LRU
 - Approximations to LRU: Second chance
 - Multiprogramming considerations



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Kernel Memory Allocators

- Buddy allocator
 - Allocate memory in size of 2ⁿ
 - Can lead to internal fragmentation
- Slab allocator
 - Group objects of same size in a "slab"
 - Object cache points to one or more slabs
 - Separate cache for each kernel data structure (e.g., PCB)
 - Used in solaris, linux



Today: File System Functionality

Remember the high-level view of the OS as a translator from the user abstraction to the hardware reality.

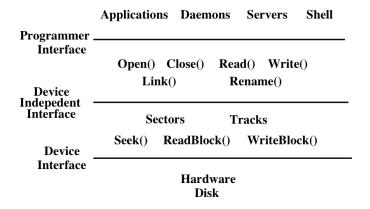
User Abstraction		Hardware Resource
Processes/Threads		CPU
Address Space	<= OS =>	Memory
Files		Disk



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File System Abstraction





User Requirements on Data

- **Persistence:** data stays around between jobs, power cycles, crashes
- Speed: can get to data quickly
- Size: can store lots of data
- **Sharing/Protection:** users can share data where appropriate or keep it private when appropriate
- Ease of Use: user can easily find, examine, modify, etc. data



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Hardware/OS Features

- Hardware provides:
 - Persistence: Disks provide non-volatile memory
 - Speed: Speed gained through random access
 - Size: Disks keep getting bigger (typical disk on a PC=200GB)
- OS provides:
 - Persistence: redundancy allows recovery from some additional failures
 - Sharing/Protection: Unix provides read, write, execute privileges for files
 - Ease of Use
 - Associating names with chunks of data (files)
 - Organize large collections of files into directories
 - Transparent mapping of the user's concept of files and directories onto locations on disks
 - Search facility in file systems (SpotLight in Mac OS X)



Files

- File: Logical unit of storage on a storage device
 - Formally, named collection of related information recorded on secondary storage
 - Example: reader.cc, a.out
- Files can contain programs (source, binary) or data
- Files can be structured or unstructured
 - Unix implements files as a series of bytes (unstructured)
 - IBM mainframes implements files as a series of records or objects (structured)
- File attributes: name, type, location, size, protection, creation time



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User Interface to the File System

Common file operations:

```
Data operations:
```

```
Create() Open() Read()
Delete() Close() Write()
Seek()
```

Naming operations: Attributes (owner, protection,...):

HardLink() SetAttribute()
SoftLink() GetAttribute()

Rename()



OS File Data Structures

- 1. Open file table shared by all processes with an open file.
 - open count
 - file attributes, including ownership, protection information, access times, ...
 - location(s) of file on disk
 - pointers to location(s) of file in memory

2. Per-process file table - for each file,

- pointer to entry in the open file table
- current position in file (offset)
- mode in which the process will access the file (r, w, rw)
- pointers to file buffer



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File Operations: Creating a File

Create(name)

- Allocate disk space (check disk quotas, permissions, etc.)
- Create a file descriptor for the file including name, location on disk, and all file attributes.
- Add the file descriptor to the directory that contains the file.
- Optional file attribute: file type (Word file, executable, etc.)
 - Advantages: better error detection, specialized default operations (double-clicking on a file knows what application to start), enables storage layout optimizations
 - **Disadvantages:** makes the file system and OS more complicated, less flexible for user.
 - Unix opts for simplicity (no file types), Macintosh/Windows opt for user-friendliness



File Operations: Deleting a File

Delete(name)

- Find the directory containing the file.
- Free the disk blocks used by the file.
- Remove the file descriptor from the directory.
- Refcounts and hardlinks?



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File Operations: Opening and Closing Files

fileId = Open(name, mode)

- Check if the file is already open by another process. If not,
 - Find the file.
 - Copy the file descriptor into the system-wide open file table.
- Check the protection of the file against the requested mode. If not ok, abort
- Increment the open count.
- Create an entry in the process's file table pointing to the entry in the system-wide file table. Initialize the current file pointer to the start of the file.

Close(fileId)

- Remove the entry for the file in the process's file table.
- Decrement the open count in the system-wide file table.
- If the open count == 0, remove the entry in the system-wide file table.



OS File Operations: Reading a File

- Read(fileID, from, size, bufAddress) random access
 - OS reads "size" bytes from file position "from" into "bufAddress"
 for (i = from; i < from + size; i++)
 bufAddress[i from] = file[i];
- Read(fileID, size, bufAddress) sequential access
 - OS reads "size" bytes from current file position, fp, into "bufAddress" and increments current file position by size

```
for (i = 0; i < size; i++)

bufAddress[i] = file[fp + i];

fp += size;
```



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OS File Operations

- Write is similar to reads, but copies from the buffer to the file.
- Seek just updates fp.
- Memory mapping a file
 - Map a part of the portion virtual address space to a file
 - Read/write to that portion of memory \implies OS reads/writes from corresponding location in the file
 - File accesses are greatly simplified (no read/write call are necessary)



File Access Methods

- Common file access patterns from the programmer's perspective
 - **Sequential:** data processed in order, a byte or record at a time.
 - Most programs use this method
 - Example: compiler reading a source file.
 - Keyed: address a block based on a key value.
 - Example: database search, hash table, dictionary
- Common file access patterns from the OS perspective:
 - Sequential: keep a pointer to the next byte in the file. Update the pointer on each read/write.
 - Random: address any block in the file directly given its offset within the file.



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Naming and Directories

- Need a method of getting back to files that are left on disk.
- OS uses numbers for each files
 - Users prefer textual names to refer to files.
 - Directory: OS data structure to map names to file descriptors
- Naming strategies
 - Single-Level Directory: One name space for the entire disk, every name is unique.
 - 1. Use a special area of disk to hold the directory.
 - 2. Directory contains <name, index> pairs.
 - 3. If one user uses a name, no one else can.
 - 4. Some early computers used this strategy. Early personal computers also used this strategy because their disks were very small.
 - Two Level Directory: each user has a separate directory, but all of each user's files must still have unique names



Naming Strategies (continued)

- Multilevel Directories tree structured name space (Unix, and all other modern operating systems).
 - 1. Store directories on disk, just like files except the file descriptor for directories has a special flag bit.
 - 2. User programs read directories just like any other file, but only special system calls can write directories.
 - 3. Each directory contains <name, fileDesc> pairs in no particular order. The file referred to by a name may be another directory.
 - 4. There is one special root directory. *Example:* How do we look up name: / usr/local/bin/netscape



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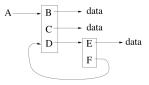
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Referential naming

- Hard links (Unix: *ln* command)
 - A hard link adds a second connection to a file
 - Example: creating a hard link from B to A

Initially:	$A \rightarrow \text{file } #100$
After "ln A B":	$A \rightarrow \text{file } #100$
	$B \rightarrow file #100$

- OS maintains reference counts, so it will only delete a file after the last link to it has been deleted.
- Problem: user can create circular links with directories and then the OS can never delete the disk space.
- Solution: No hard links to directories





Referential Naming

- Soft links (Unix: *ln -s* command)
 - A soft link only makes a symbolic pointer from one file to another.
 - Example: creating a soft link from B to A

Initially: $A \rightarrow \text{file } \#100$ After " $\ln A B$ ": $A \rightarrow \text{file } \#100$ $B \rightarrow A$

- removing B does not affect A
- removing A leaves the name B in the directory, but its contents no longer exists
- Problem: circular links can cause infinite loops (e.g., trying to list all the files in a directory and its subdirectories)
- Solution: limit number of links traversed.



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Directory Operations

- Search for a file: locate an entry for a file
- Create a file: add a directory listing
- Delete a file: remove directory listing
- List a directory: list all files (*ls* command in UNIX)
- Rename a file
- Traverse the file system



Protection

- The OS must allow users to control sharing of their files => control access to files
- Grant or deny access to file operations depending on protection information
- Access lists and groups (Windows NT)
 - Keep an access list for each file with user name and type of access
 - Lists can become large and tedious to maintain
- Access control bits (UNIX)
 - Three categories of users (owner, group, world)
 - Three types of access privileges (read, write, execute)
 - Maintain a bit for each combination (111101000 = rwxr-x---)



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Summary of File System Functionality

- Naming
- Protection
- Persistence
- Fast access

