



Lecture 10

File-System Interface & File System Implementation I

Lecture Information

Ceng328 *Operating Systems* at May 04, 2010

File-System Interface

- File Concept
- File Attributes
- File Operations
- An Example Program
Using File System Calls
- File Types
- Internal File Structure
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 - Acyclic-Graph Directories
- File-System Mounting
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- *File Management System: Bridges the gap between low-level disk organization (an array of blocks) and the user's views (a stream or collection of records) (mapped).*



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 - They can be read-only or read-write.
- Also includes tools outside the kernel; formatting, recovery, defrag, consistency, backup utilities (system administration).



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File-System Interface II

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File-System Interface II

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- A file is a collection of related information defined by its creator.
- **The file system consists of two distinct parts:**



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 - 2 a directory structure;



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- Objectives for a file management system;



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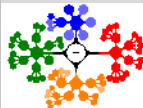
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 - **Guarantee that the data in the file are valid. Minimize or eliminate the potential for lost or destroyed data.**



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 - Guarantee that the data in the file are valid. Minimize or eliminate the potential for lost or destroyed data.
 - Optimize performance.
 - How do you keep one user from reading another's data?
 - **How do you know which blocks are free?**

File Concept

- Think of a disk as a linear sequence of fixed-size blocks and supporting reading and writing of blocks.



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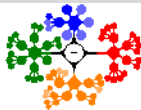
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 - *A text file; (sequence of characters)*



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 - An *object file* is a sequence of bytes organized into blocks understandable by the system's linker.
 - An *executable file* is a series of code sections that the loader can bring into memory and execute.



When a file is named, it becomes independent of the process, the user, and even the system that created it.

Attribute	Meaning
Protection	Who can access the file and in what way
Password	Password needed to access the file
Creator	ID of the person who created the file
Owner	Current owner
Read-only flag	0 for read/write; 1 for read only
Hidden flag	0 for normal; 1 for do not display in listings
System flag	0 for normal files; 1 for system file
Archive flag	0 for has been backed up; 1 for needs to be backed up
ASCII/binary flag	0 for ASCII file; 1 for binary file
Random access flag	0 for sequential access only; 1 for random access
Temporary flag	0 for normal; 1 for delete file on process exit
Lock flags	0 for unlocked; nonzero for locked
Record length	Number of bytes in a record
Key position	Offset of the key within each record
Key length	Number of bytes in the key field
Creation time	Date and time the file was created
Time of last access	Date and time the file was last accessed
Time of last change	Date and time the file was last changed
Current size	Number of bytes in the file
Maximum size	Number of bytes the file may grow to

Figure: Some possible file attributes.



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- The table of Fig. 1 shows some of the possibilities, but other ones also exist. No existing system has all of these, but each one is present in some system.



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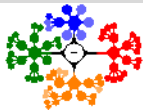
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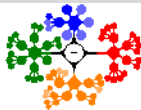
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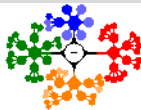
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 - **Time, date, and user identification.** This information may be kept for creation, last modification, and last use.
- The information about all files is kept in the directory structure, which also resides on secondary storage.



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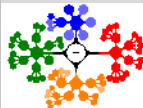
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 - Because a process is usually either reading from or writing to a file, the current operation location can be kept as a per-process current-file-position pointer.
 - **Both the read and write operations use this same pointer, saving space and reducing system complexity.**

File Operations II

- **Repositioning within a file.** The directory is searched for the appropriate entry, and the current-file-position pointer is repositioned to a given value (file seek).

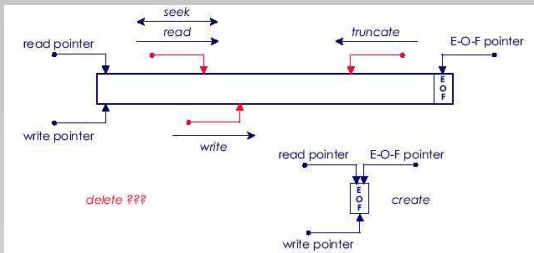
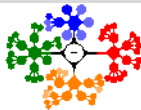


Figure: File operations.



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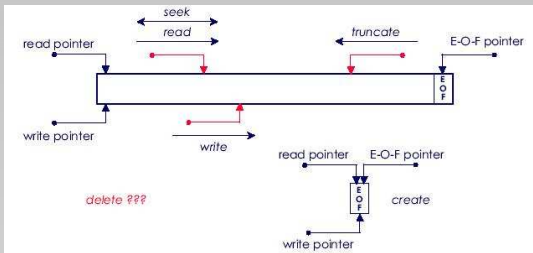


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- **Truncating a file.** The user may want to erase the contents of a file but keep its attributes. The file be reset to length zero and its file space released.

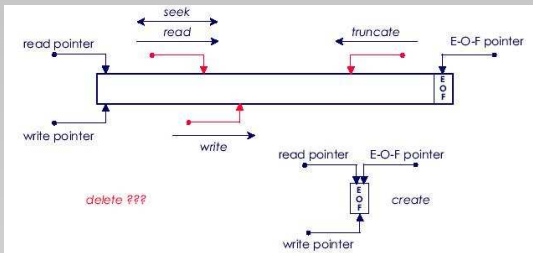
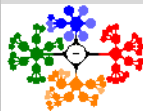


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File Operations III

- These primitive operations can then be combined to perform other file operations (i.e., copying).



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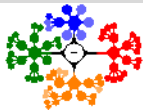
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- **This may occur in a system where several different applications open the same file at the same time.**



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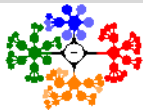
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 - Each `close()` decreases this open count, and when the open count reaches zero, the file is no longer in use, and the file's entry is removed from the open-file table.

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- In summary, several pieces of information are associated with an open file.



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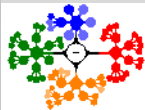
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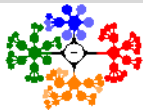
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- **File locks are useful for files that are shared by several processes.**

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An Example Program Using File System Calls I

- A simple UNIX program that copies one file from its source file to a destination file (see Fig. 3). The program has minimal functionality and even worse error reporting.

```
copyfile abc xyz
```



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An Example Program Using File System Calls II

```
/* File copy program. Error checking and reporting is minimal. */

#include <sys/types.h> /* include necessary header files */
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <unistd.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[]); /* ANSI prototype */

#define BUF_SIZE 4096 /* use a buffer size of 4096 bytes */
#define OUTPUT_MODE 0700 /* protection bits for output file */

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int in_fd, out_fd, rd_count, wt_count;
    char buffer[BUF_SIZE];

    if (argc != 3) exit(1); /* syntax error if argc is not 3 */

    /* Open the input file and create the output file */
    in_fd = open(argv[1], O_RDONLY); /* open the source file */
    if (in_fd < 0) exit(2); /* if it cannot be opened, exit */
    out_fd = creat(argv[2], OUTPUT_MODE); /* create the destination file */
    if (out_fd < 0) exit(3); /* if it cannot be created, exit */

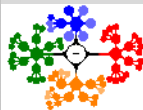
    /* Copy loop */
    while (TRUE) {
        rd_count = read(in_fd, buffer, BUF_SIZE); /* read a block of data */
        if (rd_count <= 0) break; /* if end of file or error, exit loop */
        wt_count = write(out_fd, buffer, rd_count); /* write data */
        if (wt_count <= 0) exit(4); /* wt_count <= 0 is an error */
    }

    /* Close the files */
    close(in_fd);
    close(out_fd);
    if (rd_count == 0) /* no error on last read */
        exit(0);
    else
        exit(5); /* error on last read */
}
```

Figure: A simple program to copy a file.



- A common technique for implementing file types is to include the type as part of the file name (see Fig. 4).



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- A common technique for implementing file types is to include the type as part of the file name (see Fig. 4).
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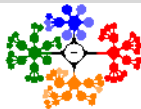
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- **Windows NT and Windows 2000 support the MS-DOS file system and thus also inherit its properties. However, these OSs also have a native file system (NTFS) that has different properties.**

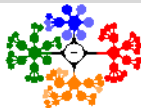
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File Types II

file type	usual extension	function
executable	exe, com, bin or none	ready-to-run machine- language program
object	obj, o	compiled, machine language, not linked
source code	c, cc, java, pas, asm, a	source code in various languages
batch	bat, sh	commands to the command interpreter
text	txt, doc	textual data, documents
word processor	wp, tex, rtf, doc	various word-processor formats
library	lib, a, so, dll	libraries of routines for programmers
print or view	ps, pdf, jpg	ASCII or binary file in a format for printing or viewing
archive	arc, zip, tar	related files grouped into one file, sometimes com- pressed, for archiving or storage
multimedia	mpeg, mov, rm, mp3, avi	binary file containing audio or A/V information

Figure: Common file types.



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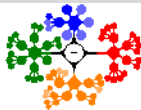
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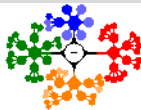
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- Usually, they have some internal structure known to programs that use them (see Fig. 5).



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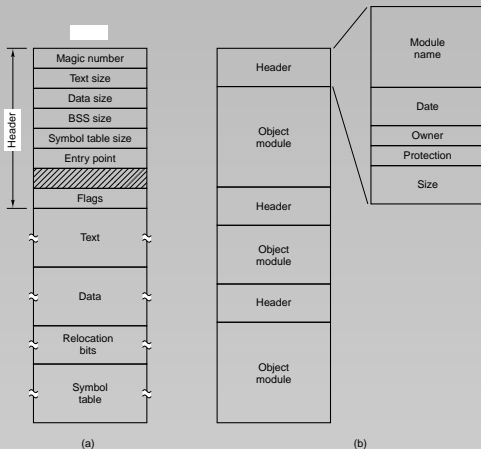
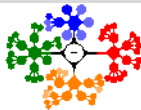


Figure: (a) An executable file. (b) An archive.

Every OS must recognize at least one file type; its own executable file.



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- A simple executable binary file taken from a version of UNIX is seen in Fig. 5a .



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Internal File Structure I

- Three common possibilities for structuring are depicted in Fig. 6.

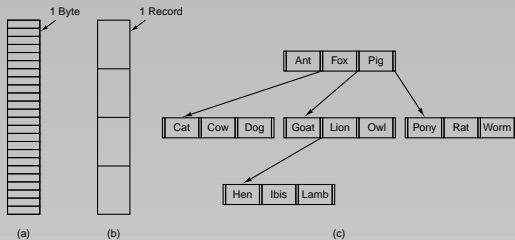


Figure: Three kinds of files. (a) Byte sequence. (b) Record sequence. (c) Tree.



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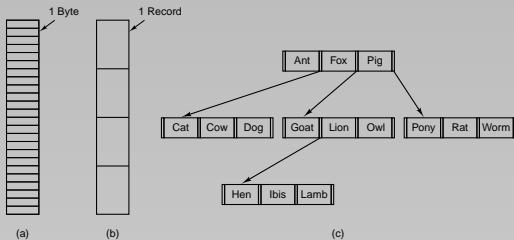


Figure: Three kinds of files. (a) Byte sequence. (b) Record sequence. (c) Tree.

- **Stream of Bytes.** The file in Fig. 6a is an *unstructured* sequence of bytes. All it sees are bytes.



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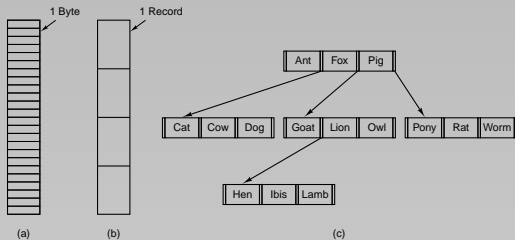


Figure: Three kinds of files. (a) Byte access. (b) Record sequence. (c) Tree.

- **Stream of Bytes.** The file in Fig. 6a is an *unstructured* sequence of bytes. All it sees are bytes.
- **Records.** The first step up in structure is shown in Fig. 6b. A file is a sequence of *fixed-length records*, each with some internal structure.



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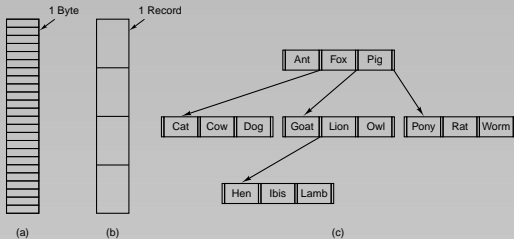


Figure: Three kinds of files. (a) Byte sequence. (b) Record sequence. (c) Tree.

- **Stream of Bytes.** The file in Fig. 6a is an *unstructured* sequence of bytes. All it sees are bytes.
- **Records.** The first step up in structure is shown in Fig. 6b. A file is a sequence of *fixed-length records*, each with some internal structure.
- **Tree of Records.** The third kind of file structure is shown in Fig. 6c. In this organization, a file consists of a tree of records, not necessarily all the same length (a key field).



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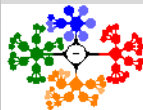
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Internal File Structure II

- Internally, locating an offset within a file can be complicated for the OS.



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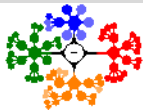
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- Internally, locating an offset within a file can be complicated for the OS.
- All disk I/O is performed in units of one block (physical record), and all blocks are the same size.



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- **The file may be considered to be a sequence of blocks. All the basic I/O functions operate in terms of blocks.**



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- **The waste incurred to keep everything in units of blocks (instead of bytes) is internal fragmentation.**



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- Because disk space is always allocated in blocks, some portion of the last block of each file is generally wasted.
- The waste incurred to keep everything in units of blocks (instead of bytes) is **internal fragmentation**.
- All file systems suffer from internal fragmentation; the larger the block size, the greater the internal fragmentation.



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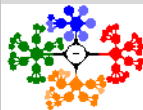
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- The simplest access method is **sequential access**.

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- The simplest access method is **sequential access**.
- Information in the file is processed in order, one record after the other.

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- The simplest access method is **sequential access**.
- Information in the file is processed in order, one record after the other.
- Reads and writes make up the bulk of the operations on a file.



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 - A read operation *read next* reads the next portion of the file and automatically advances a file pointer, which tracks the I/O location.



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- Reads and writes make up the bulk of the operations on a file.
 - A read operation *read next* reads the next portion of the file and automatically advances a file pointer, which tracks the I/O location.
 - Similarly, the write operation *write next* appends to the end of the file and advances to the end of the newly written material (the new end of file).

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Sequential Access II

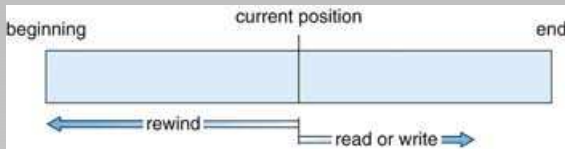
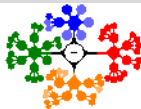


Figure: Sequential-access file.

Sequential access, which is depicted in Fig. 7, is based on a tape model of a file and works as well on sequential-access devices as it does on random-access ones.

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Direct (Random) Access

- Another method is **direct access** (or **relative access**).



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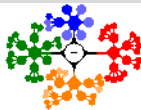


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- **Direct-access files are of great use for immediate access to large amounts of information (Databases).**



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- **The block number provided by the user to the OS is normally a relative block number.**



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- The block number provided by the user to the OS is normally a relative block number.
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- The block number provided by the user to the OS is normally a relative block number.
 - A relative block number is an index relative to the beginning of the file.
 - Thus, the first relative block of the file is 0, the next is 1, and so on, even though the actual absolute disk address of the block may be 14703 for the first block and 3192 for the second.



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 - Thus, the first relative block of the file is 0, the next is 1, and so on, even though the actual absolute disk address of the block may be 14703 for the first block and 3192 for the second.
- **Modern OSs have all their files are automatically random access.**



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- Sometimes, it is desirable to place multiple file systems on a disk or to use parts of a disk for a file system and other parts for other things, such as swap space or unformatted (raw) disk space.

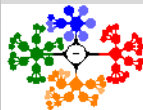


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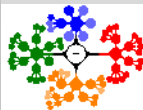


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- These parts are known variously as **partitions**, **slices**, or (in the IBM world) **minidisks**.
- A file system can be created on each of these parts of the disk. We simply refer to a chunk of storage that holds a file system as a **volume**.



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- Sometimes, it is desirable to place multiple file systems on a disk or to use parts of a disk for a file system and other parts for other things, such as swap space or unformatted (raw) disk space.
- These parts are known variously as **partitions**, **slices**, or (in the IBM world) **minidisks**.
- A file system can be created on each of these parts of the disk. We simply refer to a chunk of storage that holds a file system as a **volume**.
- Each volume that contains a file system must also contain information about the files in the system. This information is kept in entries in a **device directory** or **volume table of contents**.



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- The device directory (more commonly known simply as a **directory**) records information—such as name, location, size, and type—for all files on that volume.



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Storage Structure II



Figure 8 shows a typical file-system organization.

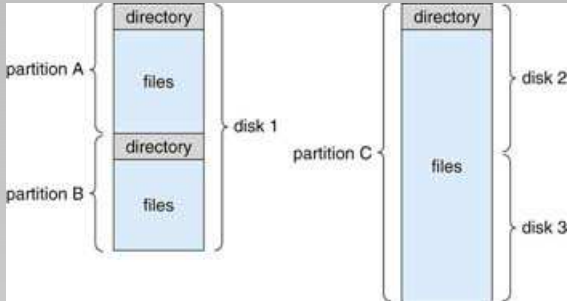


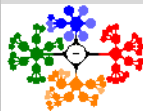
Figure: A typical file-system organization.

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Directory Overview

- To keep track of files, file systems normally have directories or folders.



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Directory Overview

- To keep track of files, file systems normally have directories or folders.
- *Usually, a directory is itself a file.*

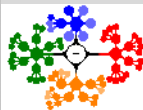


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- To keep track of files, file systems normally have directories or folders.
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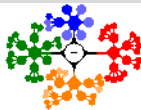


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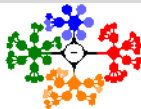


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 - **Search for a file.**



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 - **Search for a file.**
 - **Create a file.**
 - **Delete a file.**
 - **List a directory.**



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 - **Search for a file.**
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 - **Delete a file.**
 - **List a directory.**
 - **Rename a file.**

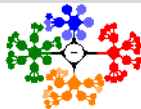


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- When considering a particular directory structure, we need to keep in mind the operations that are to be performed on a directory:
 - **Search for a file.**
 - **Create a file.**
 - **Delete a file.**
 - **List a directory.**
 - **Rename a file.**
 - **Traverse the file system.** We may wish to access every directory and every file within a directory structure. For reliability, it is a good idea to save the contents and structure of the entire file system at regular intervals (backup copy).



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Single-Level Directory

- The simplest directory structure is the single-level directory.



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Single-Level Directory

- The simplest directory structure is the single-level directory.
- All files are contained in the same directory, which is easy to support and understand (see Fig. 9).

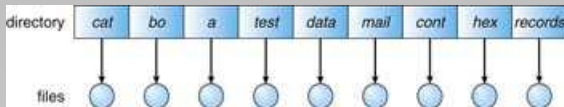


Figure: Single-level directory.



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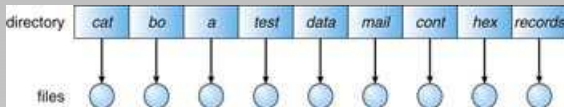


Figure: Single-level directory.

- A single-level directory has significant limitations, when the number of files increases or when the system has more than one user.

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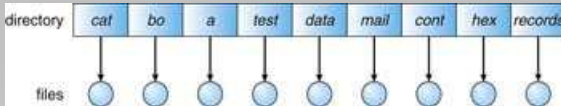


Figure: Single-level directory.

- A single-level directory has significant limitations, when the number of files increases or when the system has more than one user.
- Since all files are in the same directory, they must have unique names. If two users call their data file *test*, then the unique-name rule is violated.



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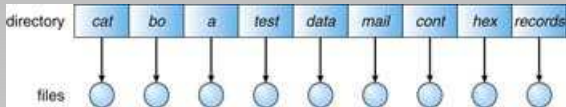
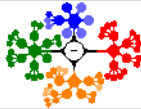


Figure: Single-level directory.

- A single-level directory has significant limitations, when the number of files increases or when the system has more than one user.
- Since all files are in the same directory, they must have unique names. If two users call their data file *test*, then the unique-name rule is violated.
- Even a single user on a single-level directory may find it difficult to remember the names of all the files as the number of files increases.



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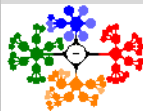
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Two-Level Directory I

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Two-Level Directory I

- The standard solution to limitations of single-level directory is to create a separate directory for each user.
- In the two-level directory structure, each user has his own **user file directory (UFD)**.



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Two-Level Directory I

- The standard solution to limitations of single-level directory is to create a separate directory for each user.
- In the two-level directory structure, each user has his own **user file directory (UFD)**.
- The UFDs have similar structures, but each lists only the files of a single user.



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- In the two-level directory structure, each user has his own **user file directory** (UFD).
- The UFDs have similar structures, but each lists only the files of a single user.
- **When a user job starts or a user logs in, the system's master file directory (MFD) is searched.**



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- When a user refers to a particular file, only his own UFD is searched (create a file, delete a file?).
- **Although the two-level directory structure solves the name-collision problem, it still has disadvantages.**



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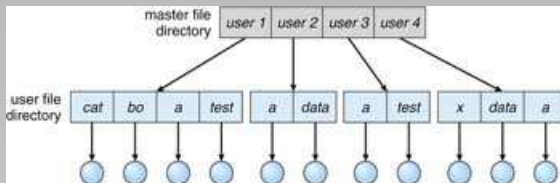


Figure: Two-level directory structure.

- This structure effectively isolates one user from another.



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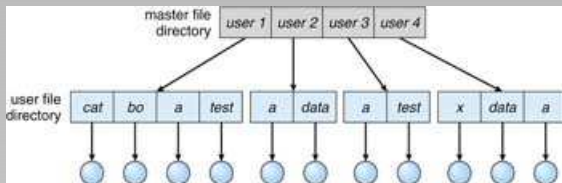


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- Isolation is an advantage when the users are completely independent but is a disadvantage when the users want to cooperate on some task and to access one another's files.



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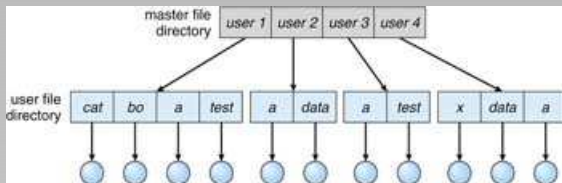


Figure: Two-level directory structure.

- This structure effectively isolates one user from another.
- Isolation is an advantage when the users are completely independent but is a disadvantage when the users want to cooperate on some task and to access one another's files.
- A two-level directory can be thought of as a tree, or an inverted tree, of height 2.



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Two-Level Directory II

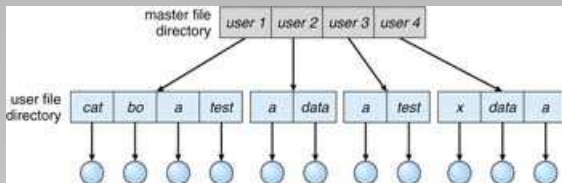


Figure: Two-level directory structure.

- This structure effectively isolates one user from another.
- Isolation is an advantage when the users are completely independent but is a disadvantage when the users want to cooperate on some task and to access one another's files.
- A two-level directory can be thought of as a tree, or an inverted tree, of height 2.
 - The root of the tree is the MFD.



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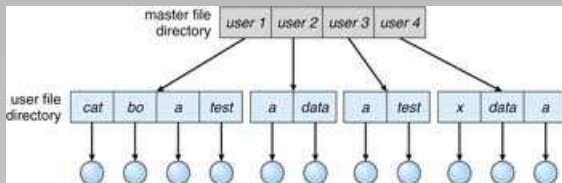


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 - Its direct descendants are the UFDs.



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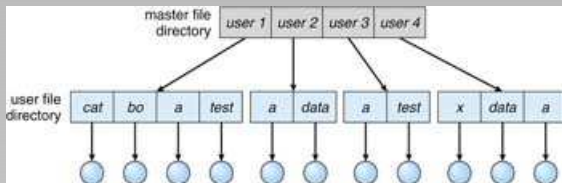


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- A two-level directory can be thought of as a tree, or an inverted tree, of height 2.
 - The root of the tree is the MFD.
 - Its direct descendants are the UFDs.
 - The descendants of the UFDs are the files themselves. The files are the leaves of the tree.



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- Specifying a user name and a file name defines a path in the tree from the root (the MFD) to a leaf (the specified file).



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Tree-Structured Directories I

- Once we have seen how to view a two-level directory as a two-level tree, the natural generalization is to extend the directory structure to a tree of arbitrary height (see Fig. 11).

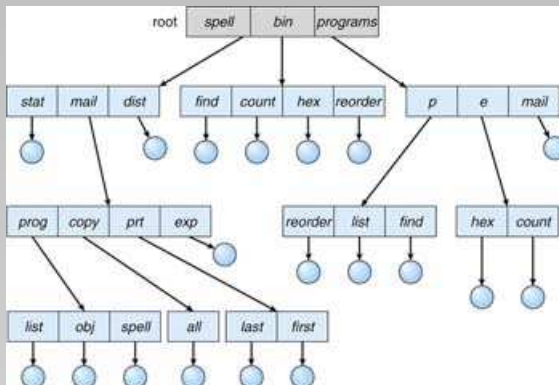
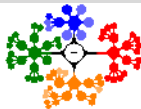


Figure: Tree-structured directory structure.



Tree-Structured Directories II

- This generalization allows users to create their own subdirectories and to organize their files accordingly.

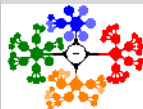


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Tree-Structured Directories II

- This generalization allows users to create their own subdirectories and to organize their files accordingly.
- A tree is the most common directory structure.



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Tree-Structured Directories II

- This generalization allows users to create their own subdirectories and to organize their files accordingly.
- A tree is the most common directory structure.
- The tree has a root directory, and every file in the system has a unique path name.



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Tree-Structured Directories II

- This generalization allows users to create their own subdirectories and to organize their files accordingly.
- A tree is the most common directory structure.
- The tree has a root directory, and every file in the system has a unique path name.
- A directory is simply another file, but it is treated in a special way.



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- One bit in each directory entry defines the entry

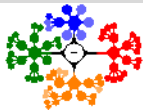


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- A directory is simply another file, but it is treated in a special way.
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- With a tree-structured directory system, users can be allowed to access, in addition to their files, the files of other users.



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 - For example, user *B* can access a file of user *A* by specifying its path names.



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- With a tree-structured directory system, users can be allowed to access, in addition to their files, the files of other users.
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 - **User *B* can specify either an absolute or a relative path name.**

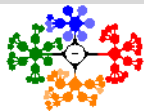


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- Path names can be of two types: **absolute** and **relative**
- With a tree-structured directory system, users can be allowed to access, in addition to their files, the files of other users.
 - For example, user *B* can access a file of user *A* by specifying its path names.
 - User *B* can specify either an absolute or a relative path name.
 - **Alternatively, user *B* can change her current directory to be user *A*'s directory and access the file by its file names.**



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Acyclic-Graph Directories I

- The acyclic graph is a natural generalization of the tree-structured directory scheme.



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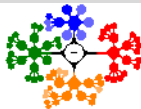
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Acyclic-Graph Directories I

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- The common subdirectory should be shared.



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- The common subdirectory should be shared.
- A tree structure prohibits the sharing of files or directories.



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Acyclic-Graph Directories I

- The acyclic graph is a natural generalization of the tree-structured directory scheme.
- The common subdirectory should be shared.
- A tree structure prohibits the sharing of files or directories.
- An **acyclic graph** (a graph with no cycles) allows directories to share subdirectories and files (see Fig. 12).

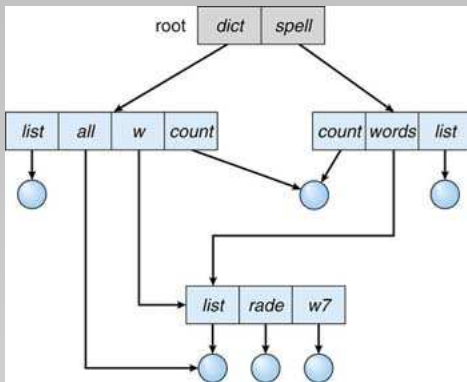


Figure: Acyclic-graph directory structure.



Acyclic-Graph Directories II

- The same file or subdirectory may be in two different directories.



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- The same file or subdirectory may be in two different directories.
- It is important to note that a shared file (or directory) is not the same as two copies of the file.



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- A common way, exemplified by many of the UNIX systems, is to create a new directory entry called a link.

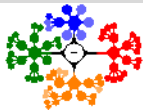


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- **A link is effectively a pointer to another file or subdirectory.**

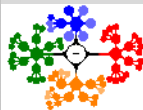


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- A link is effectively a pointer to another file or subdirectory.
- **We resolve the link by using that path name to locate the real file.**

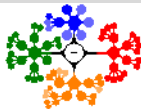


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 - With a shared file, only one actual file exists, so any changes made by one person are immediately visible to the other.
- A common way, exemplified by many of the UNIX systems, is to create a new directory entry called a **link**.
- A link is effectively a pointer to another file or subdirectory.
- We resolve the link by using that path name to locate the real file.
- **Links are easily identified by their format in the directory entry and are effectively named indirect pointers.**



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- The same file or subdirectory may be in two different directories.
- It is important to note that a shared file (or directory) is not the same as two copies of the file.
 - With two copies, each programmer can view the copy rather than the original, but if one programmer changes the file, the changes will not appear in the other's copy.
 - With a shared file, only one actual file exists, so any changes made by one person are immediately visible to the other.
- A common way, exemplified by many of the UNIX systems, is to create a new directory entry called a **link**.
- A link is effectively a pointer to another file or subdirectory.
- We resolve the link by using that path name to locate the real file.
- Links are easily identified by their format in the directory entry and are effectively named indirect pointers.
- Another common approach to implementing shared files is simply to duplicate all information about them in both sharing directories.



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- Links are easily identified by their format in the directory entry and are effectively named indirect pointers.
- Another common approach to implementing shared files is simply to duplicate all information about them in both sharing directories.
- **Thus, both entries are identical and equal.**



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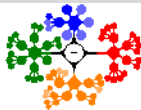


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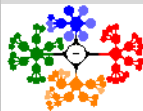


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 - **Another problem involves deletion. When can the space allocated to a shared file be deallocated and reused?**



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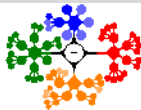


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 - If the file entry itself is deleted, the space for the file is deallocated, leaving the links dangling.
- In the case of UNIX, symbolic links are left when a file is deleted. Microsoft Windows (all flavours) uses the same approach.

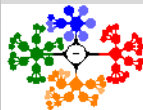


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- Another approach to deletion is to preserve the file until all references to it are deleted.



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- Another approach to deletion is to preserve the file until all references to it are deleted.
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 - Adding a new link or directory entry increments the reference count;

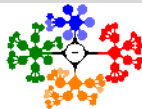


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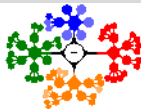


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- However, we really do not need to keep the entire list -we need to keep only a count of the number of references.
 - Adding a new link or directory entry increments the reference count;
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 - **When the count is 0, the file can be deleted; there are no remaining references to it.**

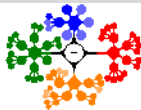


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 - Adding a new link or directory entry increments the reference count;
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 - When the count is 0, the file can be deleted; there are no remaining references to it.
- The UNIX OS uses this approach for non-symbolic links (or **hard links**), keeping a reference count in the file information block (or **inode**).

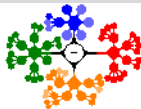


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File-System Mounting I

- Just as a file must be opened before it is used, a file system must be mounted before it can be available to processes on the system.



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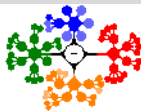
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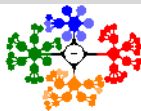


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- Next, the OS verifies that the device contains a valid file system.



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- To illustrate file mounting, consider the file system depicted in Fig. 13.



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- To illustrate file mounting, consider the file system depicted in Fig. 13.
- **At this point, only the files on the existing file system can be accessed.**



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File-System Mounting I

- Just as a file must be opened before it is used, a file system must be mounted before it can be available to processes on the system.
- The mount procedure is straightforward. The OS is given the name of the device and the **mount point**.
- Typically, a mount point is an empty directory.
- Next, the OS verifies that the device contains a valid file system.
- Finally, the OS notes in its directory structure that a file system is mounted at the specified mount point.
- To illustrate file mounting, consider the file system depicted in Fig. 13.
- At this point, only the files on the existing file system can be accessed.
- **Figure 14 shows the effects of mounting the volume residing on `/dev/disk` over `/users`.**



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File-System Mounting II

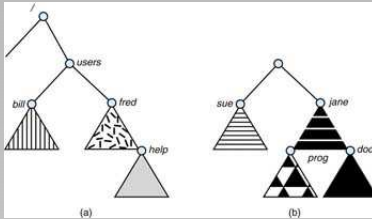


Figure: File system. (a) Existing system. (b) Unmounted volume.

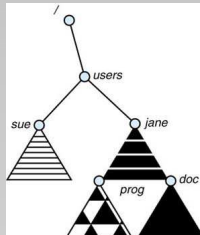
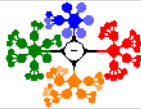


Figure: Mount point.



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Multiple Users

- When an OS accommodates multiple users, the issues of file sharing, file naming, and file protection become important.



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- When an OS accommodates multiple users, the issues of file sharing, file naming, and file protection become important.
- Most systems have evolved to use the concepts of file (or directory) *owner* (or *user*) and *group*.
 - The owner is the user who can change attributes and grant access and who has the most control over the file.



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- **The owner and group IDs of a given file (or directory) are stored with the other file attributes.**

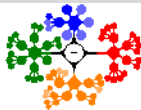


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- The owner and group IDs of a given file (or directory) are stored with the other file attributes.
- *When a user requests an operation on a file, the user ID can be compared with the owner attribute to determine if the requesting user is the owner of the file.*

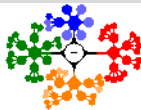


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- When a user requests an operation on a file, the *user ID can be compared with the owner attribute* to determine if the requesting user is the owner of the file.
- **Likewise, the group IDs can be compared.**



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- Likewise, the group IDs can be compared.
- **The result indicates which permissions are applicable.**



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- When information is stored in a computer system, we want to keep it safe from **physical damage (reliability)** and **improper access (protection)**.



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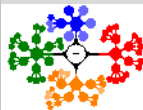
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- When information is stored in a computer system, we want to keep it safe from **physical damage (reliability)** and **improper access (protection)**.
- Reliability is generally provided by duplicate copies of files (copy disk files to tape).



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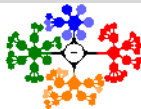
- When information is stored in a computer system, we want to keep it safe from **physical damage (reliability)** and **improper access (protection)**.
- Reliability is generally provided by duplicate copies of files (copy disk files to tape).
- File systems can be damaged by hardware problems (such as errors in reading or writing), power surges or failures, head crashes, dirt, temperature extremes, and vandalism.



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- File systems can be damaged by hardware problems (such as errors in reading or writing), power surges or failures, head crashes, dirt, temperature extremes, and vandalism.
- Files may be deleted accidentally.
- **Bugs in the file-system software can also cause file contents to be lost.**

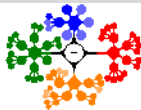


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- The need to protect files is a direct result of the ability to access files.



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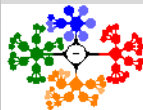
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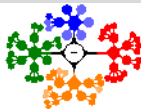


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- The need to protect files is a direct result of the ability to access files.
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- Both approaches are too extreme for general use. What is needed is **controlled access**.



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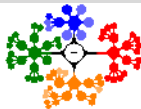


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- Several different types of operations may be controlled:
 - **Read.**



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 - **Write.**



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 - **Execute.** Load the file into memory and execute it.

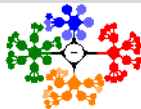


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 - **Delete**.

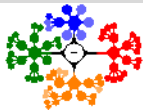


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 - **Delete.**
 - **List.** List the name and attributes of the file.



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 - **Read.**
 - **Write.**
 - **Execute.** Load the file into memory and execute it.
 - **Append.** Write new information at the end of the file.
 - **Delete.**
 - **List.** List the name and attributes of the file.
- Other operations, such as renaming, copying, and editing the file, may also be controlled.



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Types of Access

- The need to protect files is a direct result of the ability to access files.
 - Systems that do not permit access to the files of other users do not need protection.
 - Alternatively, we could provide free access with no protection.
- Both approaches are too extreme for general use. What is needed is **controlled access**.
- Several different types of operations may be controlled:
 - **Read.**
 - **Write.**
 - **Execute.** Load the file into memory and execute it.
 - **Append.** Write new information at the end of the file.
 - **Delete.**
 - **List.** List the name and attributes of the file.
- Other operations, such as renaming, copying, and editing the file, may also be controlled.
- These higher-level functions may be implemented by a system program that makes lower-level system calls.

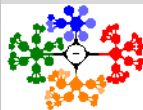


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- The most common approach to the protection problem is to make access dependent on the identity of the user.

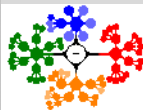


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- The most common approach to the protection problem is to make access dependent on the identity of the user.
- The most general scheme to implement identity-dependent access is to associate with each file and directory an access-control list (ACL) specifying user names and the types of access allowed for each user.



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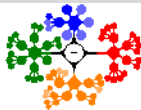


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- **The main problem with access lists is their length. If we want to allow everyone to read a file, we must list all users with read access.**

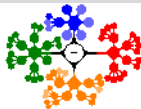


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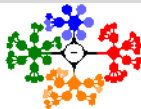


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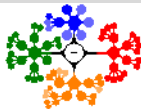


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 - **Owner**. The user who created the file is the owner.
 - **Group**. A set of users who are sharing the file and need similar access is a group, or work group.

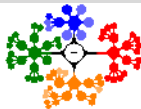


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 - **Owner.** The user who created the file is the owner.
 - **Group.** A set of users who are sharing the file and need similar access is a group, or work group.
 - **Universe.** All other users in the system constitute the universe.



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- With this more limited protection classification, only three fields are needed to define protection.



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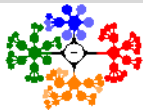
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- Often, each field is a collection of bits, and each bit either allows or prevents the access associated with it.



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- For example, the UNIX system defines three fields of 3 bits each—*rwX*, where *r* controls read access, *w* controls write access, and *x* controls execution.

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- For example, the UNIX system defines three fields of 3 bits each—*rwX*, where *r* controls read access, *w* controls write access, and *x* controls execution.
- In this scheme, nine bits per file are needed to record protection information.

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