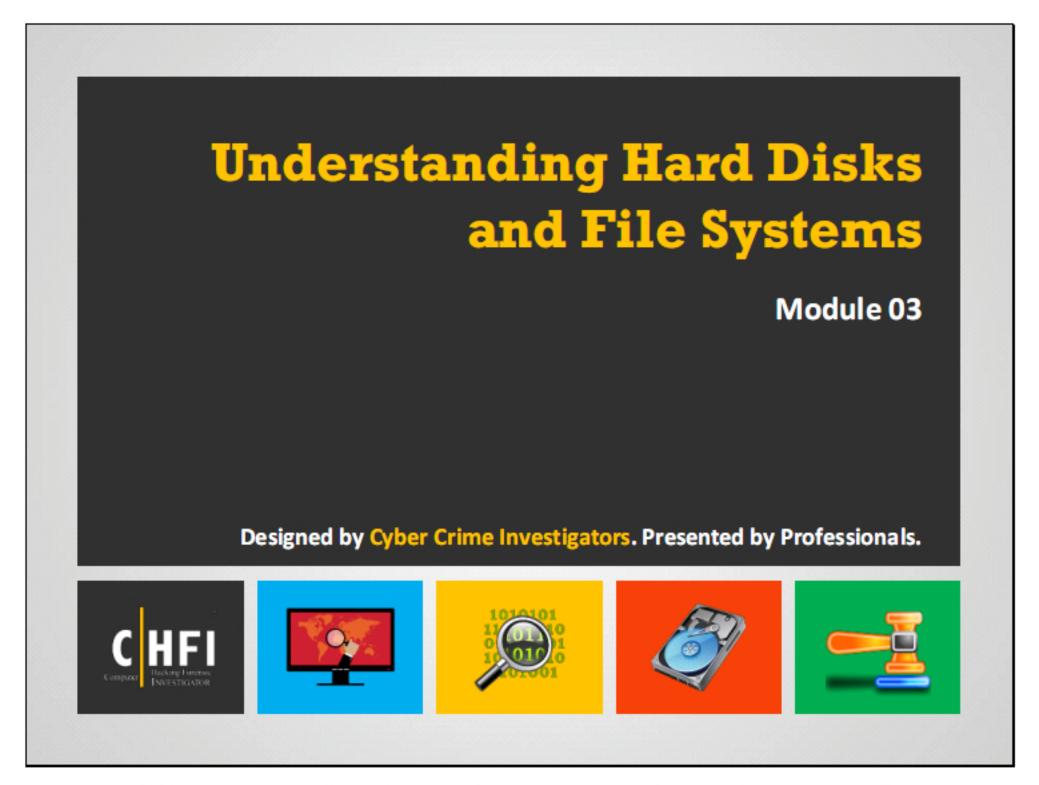
Understanding Hard Disks and File Systems

Module 03

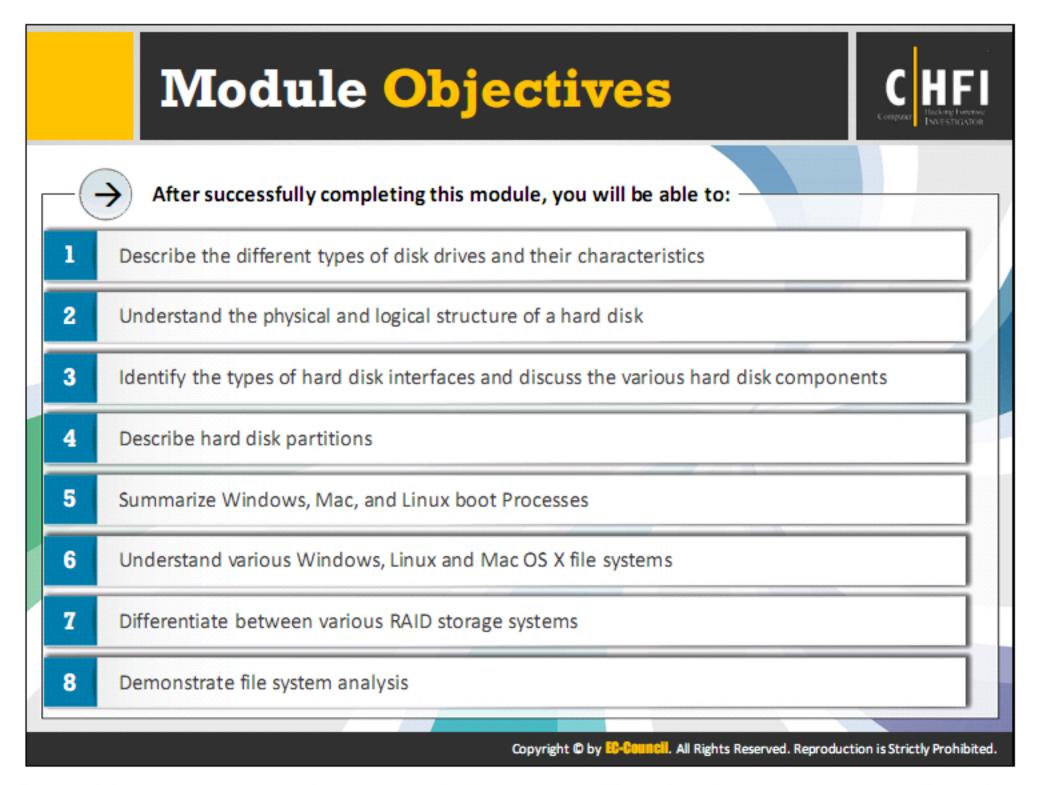




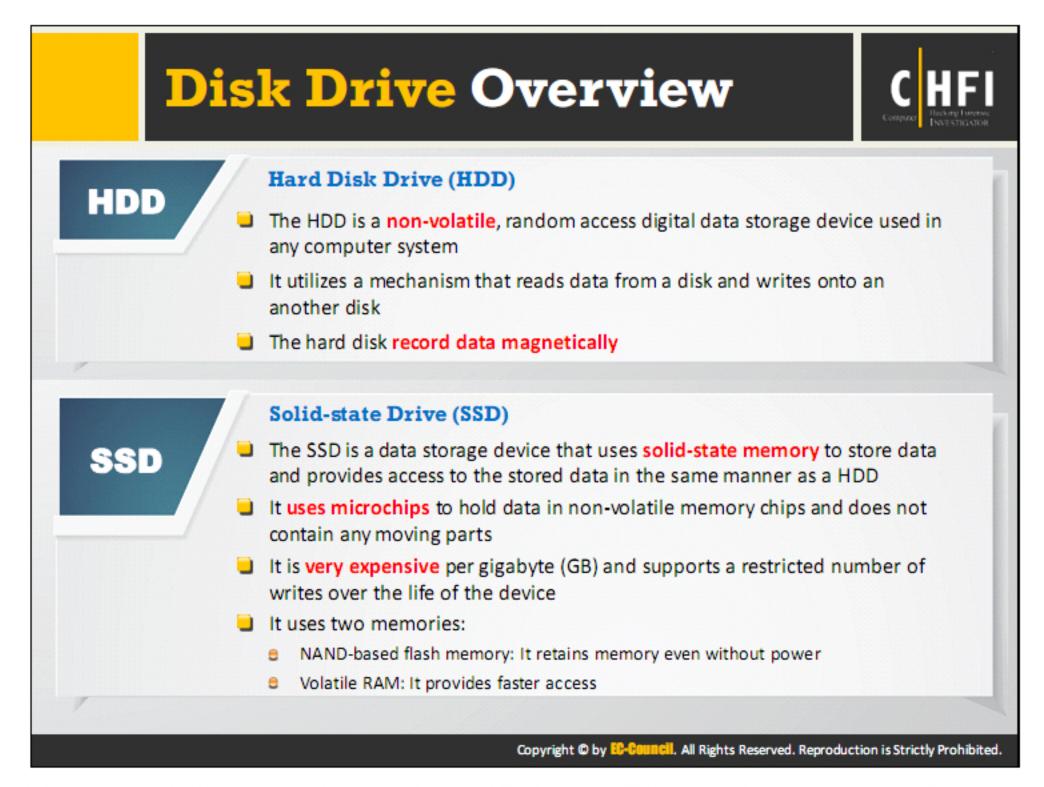
Computer Hacking Forensic Investigator v9

Module 03: Understanding Hard Disks and File Systems

Exam 312-49



The hard disk is an important source of the information for the investigator. Therefore, an investigator should know the structure and behavior of the hard disk. The investigator should locate and protect the data collected from the hard disk as the evidence. Hence, the investigator should know all the necessary information about working principle of the hard disk. The file system is also important as the storage and distribution of the data in the hard disk is dependent on the file system used.



Disk Drive is a digital data storage device that uses different storage mechanisms such as mechanical, electronic, magnetic, and optical to store the data. It is addressable and rewritable to support changes and modification of data. Depending on the type of media and mechanism of reading and writing the data, the different types of disk drives are as follows:

- Magnetic Storage Devices: Magnetic storage devices store data using magnets to read and write the data by manipulating magnetic fields on the storage medium. These are mechanical devices with components moving to store or read the data. Few other examples include floppy disks, magnetic tapes, etc.
 - In these types of hard disks, the disks inside the media rotate at high speed and heads in the disk drive read and write the data.
- Optical Storage Devices: Optical storage devices are electronic storage media that store
 and read the data in the form of binary values using a laser beam. The devices use lights
 of different densities to store and read the data. Examples of optical storage devices
 include Blue-Ray discs, CDs, and DVDs.
- Flash Memory Devices: Flash memory is a non-volatile electronically erasable and reprogrammable storage medium that is capable of retaining data even in the absence of power. It is a type of electronically erasable programmable read only memory (EEPROM). These devices are cheap and more efficient compared to other storage devices. Devices that use flash memory for data storage are USB flash drives, MP3 players, digital cameras, solid-state drives, etc. Few examples of flash memory are:

- BIOS chip in a computer
- Compact Flash (commonly found in digital cameras)
- Smart Media (commonly found in digital cameras)
- Memory Stick (commonly found in digital cameras)
- PCMCIA Type I and Type II memory cards found in laptops
- Memory cards for video game consoles

Hard Disk Drive (HDD)

Hard Disk Drive is a non-volatile, random access digital data storage device used in any computer system. The hard disk stores data in a method similar to that of a file cabinet. The user, when needed, can access the data and programs. When the computer needs the stored program or data, the system brings it to a temporary location from the permanent location. When the user or system makes changes to a file, the computer saves the file by replacing the older file with the new file. The HDD records data magnetically onto the hard disk.

The hard disks differ from each other considering various measurements such as:

- Capacity of the hard disk
- Interface used
- Speed in rotations per minute
- Seek time
- Access time
- Transfer time

Solid-State Drive (SSD)

A Solid-State Drive (SSD) is an electronic data storage device that implements solid-state memory technology to store data similar to a hard disk drive. Solid-state is an electrical term that refers to an electronic circuit entirely built with semiconductors.

It uses two memories:

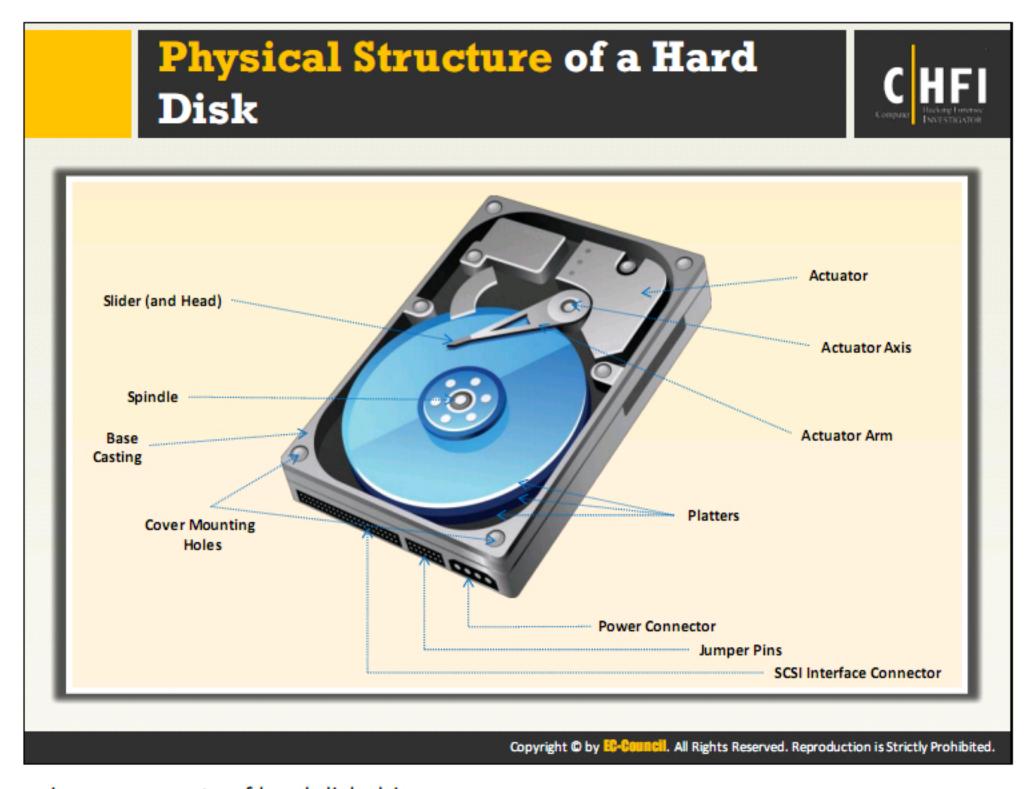
- NAND-based SSDs: These SSDs use solid state memory NAND microchips to store the data. Data in these microchips is in a non-volatile state and does not need any moving parts. NAND memory is non-volatile in nature and retains memory even without power.
 - NAND memory was developed primarily to reduce per bit cost of data storage. However, it is still more expensive than optical memory and HDDs. NAND-based memory is widely used today in mobile devices, digital cameras, MP3 players, etc. It has a finite number of writes over the life of the device.
- Volatile RAM-based SSDs: SSDs, based on volatile RAM such as DRAM, are used when applications require faster data access. These SSDs include either an internal chargeable

battery or an external AC/DC adapter, and a backup storage. Data resides in the DRAM during data access and is stored in the backup storage in case of a power failure.

Advantages of SSD

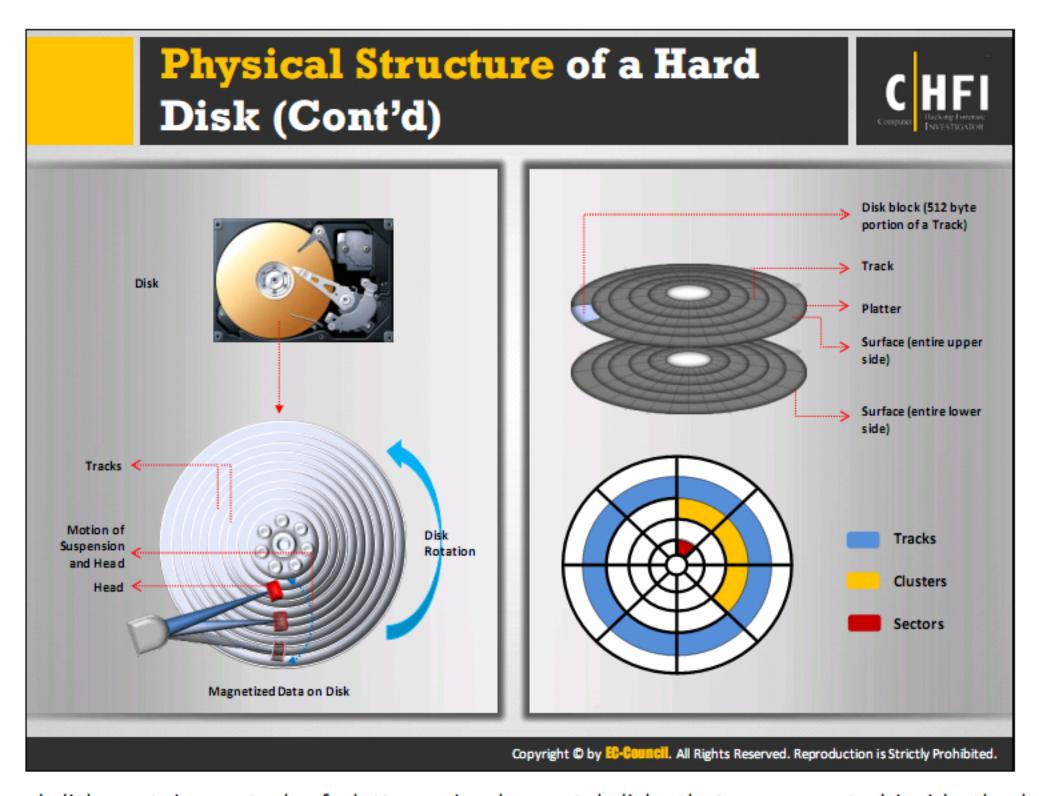
SSD has several advantages over magnetic hard drives. The three major advantages of SSD are:

- Faster data access
- Less power usage
- Higher reliability



The main components of hard disk drive are:

- Platters: These are disk like structures present on the hard disk, stacked one above the other and store the data
- Head: It is a device present on the arm of the hard drive that reads or writes data on the magnetic platters, mounted on the surface of the drive
- Spindle: It is the spinning shaft on which holds the platters in a fixed position such that it
 is feasible for the read/write arms to get the data on the disks
- Actuator: It is a device, consisting of the read-write head that moves over the hard disk con to save or retrieve information
- Cylinder: These are the circular tracks present on the platters of the disk drive at equal distances from the center



A hard disk contains a stack of platters, circular metal disks that are mounted inside the hard disk drive and coated with magnetic material, sealed in a metal case or unit. Fixed in a horizontal or vertical position, the hard disk has electromagnetic read or write heads above and below the platters. The surface of the disk consists of a number of concentric rings called as tracks; each of these tracks has smaller partitions called disk blocks. The size of each disk block is 512 bytes (0.5 KB). The track numbering starts with zero. When the platter rotates, the heads record data in tracks. A 3.5-inch hard disk can contain about thousand tracks.

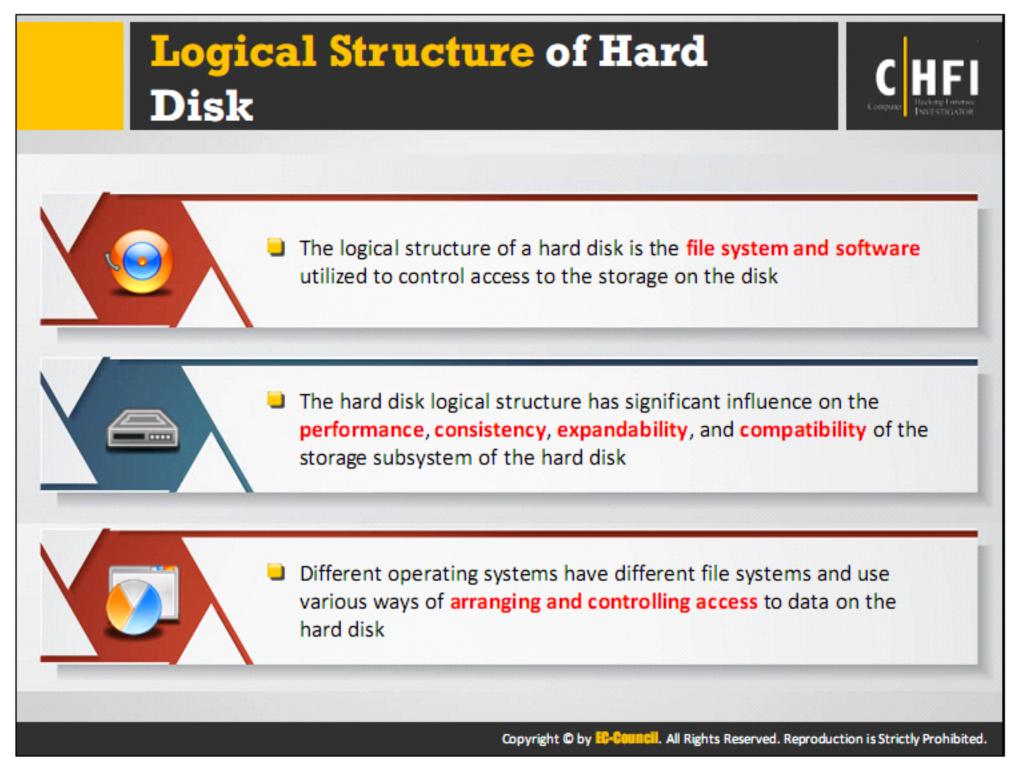
The spindle holds the platters in a fixed position such that it is feasible for the read/write arms to get the data on the disks. These platters rotate at a constant speed while the drive head, positioned close to the center of the disk, reads the data slowly from the surface of the disk compared to the outer edges of the disk. To maintain integrity of data, the head is reading at a particular period of time from any drive head position. The tracks at the outer edges of the disk have less densely populated sectors compared to the tracks close to the center of the disk.

The disk fills the space based on a standard plan. One side of the first platter contains space, reserved for hardware track-positioning information which is not available to the operating system. The disk controller uses the track-positioning information to place the drive heads in the correct sector position.

The hard disk records the data using the zoned bit recording technique, also known as multiple zone recording. This method combines the areas on the hard disk together as zones, depending on the distance from the center of the disk. A zone contains a certain number of sectors per track.

Calculation of data density of disk drives is done in the following terms:

- Track density: Refers to the number of tracks in a hard disk
- Area density: Area density is the platters' storage capacity in bits per square inch
- Bit density: It is bits per unit length of track

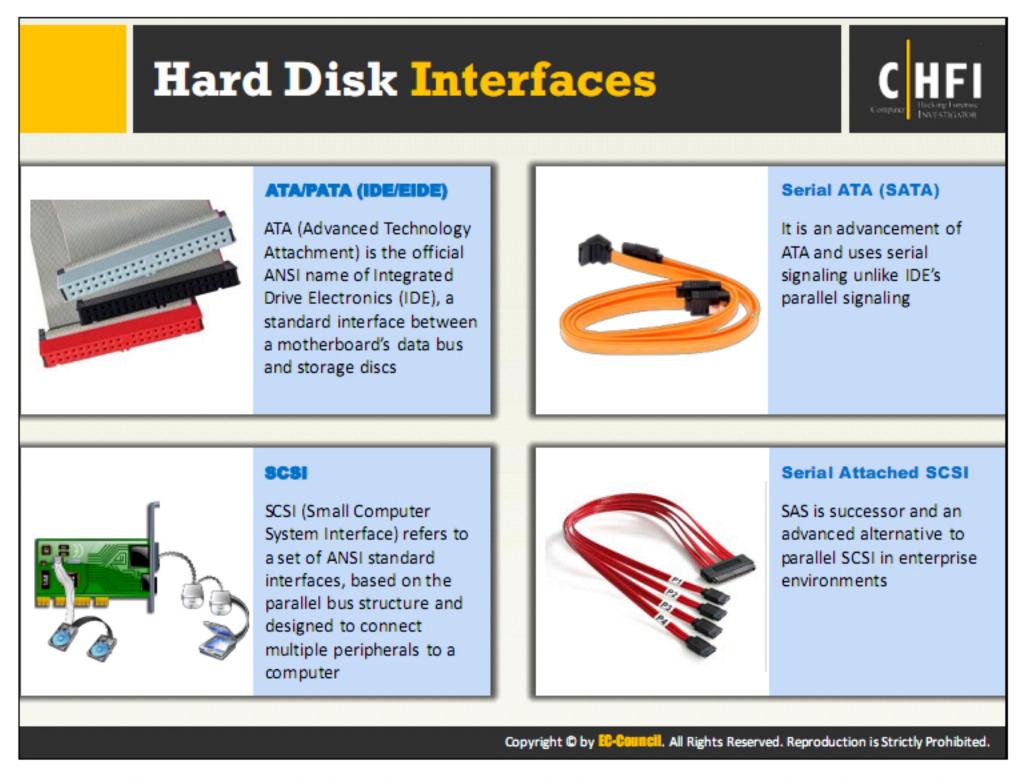


A hard disk's logical structure mainly depends on the file systems used and the software that defines the process of accessing data from the disk. Operating systems use different types of file systems, and those file systems use various other types of controlling and accessing mechanisms for data on the hard disk. Operating systems organize the same hard disk in many different ways.

The logical structure of the hard disk directly influences the consistency, performance, compatibility, and expandability of the storage subsystems of the hard disk. The logical structure depends on the type of operating system and file system used, because these factors organize and control the data access on the hard disk.

The most common computer file systems are:

- FAT
- FAT32
- NTFS
- EXT
- EXT2 and 3
- EFS



The hard disk drive connects to the PC using an interface. There are various types of interfaces: IDE, SATA, Fiber Channel, SCSI, etc.

ATA/PATA (IDE/EIDE)

IDE (Integrated Drive Electronics) is a standard electronic interface used between a computer motherboard's data paths or bus and the computer's disk storage devices, such as hard drives and CD-ROM/DVD drives. The IBM PC Industry Standard Architecture (ISA) 16-bit bus standard is base for the IDE interface, which offers connectivity in computers that use other bus standards. ATA (Advanced Technology Attachment) is the official American National Standards Institute's (ANSI) name of Integrated Drive Electronics (IDE).

Parallel ATA:

PATA, based on parallel signaling technology, offers a controller on the disk drive itself and thereby eliminates the need for a separate adaptor card. Parallel ATA standards only allow cable lengths up to 46 centimeters (18 inches).

Features of PATA:

- Relatively inexpensive
- Easy to configure
- Allows look-ahead caching

Enhanced Integrated Drive Electronics (EIDE)

Most computers sold today use an enhanced version of IDE called Enhanced Integrated Drive Electronics (EIDE). IDE drives connect with PCs, using an IDE host adapter card. The IDE controller in modern computers is a built-in feature on the motherboard itself. Enhanced IDE is an extension to the IDE interface that supports the ATA-2 and ATAPI standards.

Two types of Enhanced IDE sockets are present on the motherboard. A socket connects two drives, namely, 80 wire cables for fast hard drives and a 40-pin ribbon cable for CD-ROMs/DVD-ROMs.

Enhanced or Expanded IDE is a standard electronic interface, connecting a computer's motherboard to its storage drives. EIDE can address a hard disk bigger than 528 Mbytes and allows quick access to the hard drive as well as provides support for Direct Memory Access (DMA) and additional drives like tape devices, CD-ROM, etc. While updating the computer system with bigger hard drive, insert the EIDE controller in the system card slot.

The EIDE can access drives larger than 528 Mbytes using a 28-bit Logical Block Address (LBA) to indicate the actual head, sector, and cylinder locations of the disk data. The 28-bit Logical Block Address provides the information, which is enough to denote unique sectors for an 8.4 GB device.

Serial ATA

Serial ATA (SATA) offers a point-to-point channel between the motherboard and drive. The cables in SATA are shorter in length as compared to PATA. It uses four-wire shielded cable that can be maximum one meter in length. SATA cables are more flexible, thinner, and less massive than the ribbon cables, required for conventional PATA hard drives.

Features of SATA:

- Operates with great speed
- Easy to connect to storage devices
- Easy to configure
- Transfers data at a speed of 1.5 Gbps (SATA revision 1.0) and 6 Gbps (SATA revision 3)

Drive and motherboard connectivity through a SATA point-to-point channel is based on serial signaling technology. This technology enables data transfer of about 1.5 Gbps in a half-duplex channel mode.

SCSI

SCSI is a set of ANSI standard electronic interfaces that allow personal computers to communicate with peripheral hardware such as disk drives, tape drives, CD-ROM drives, printers, and scanners. Developed by Apple Computer and still used in the Macintosh, the present sets of SCSIs are parallel interfaces. SCSI ports continue to come as built-in feature in various personal computers today and gather supports from all major operating systems.

In addition to faster data rates, SCSI is more flexible than earlier parallel data transfer interfaces. SCSI allows up to 7 or 15 devices (depending on the bus width) to be connected to a single SCSI port in daisy-chain fashion. This allows one circuit board or card to accommodate all the peripherals, rather than having a separate card for each device, making it an ideal interface for use with portable and notebook computers. A single host adapter, in the form of a PC card, can serve as a SCSI interface for a laptop, freeing up the parallel and serial ports for use with an external modem and printer while allowing usage of other devices in addition.

Technology Name	Maximum Cable Length (meters)	Maximum Speed (MBps)	Maximum Number of Devices
SCSI-1	6	5	8
SCSI-2	6	5-10	8 or 16
Fast SCSI-2	3	10-20	8
Wide SCSI-2	3	20	16
Fast Wide SCSI-2	3	20	16
Ultra SCSI-3, 8-bit	1.5	20	8
Ultra SCSI-3, 16-bit	1.5	40	16
Ultra-2 SCSI	12	40	8
Wide Ultra-2 SCSI	12	80	16
Ultra-3 (Ultra160/m) SCSI	12	160	16

TABLE 3.1: SCSI

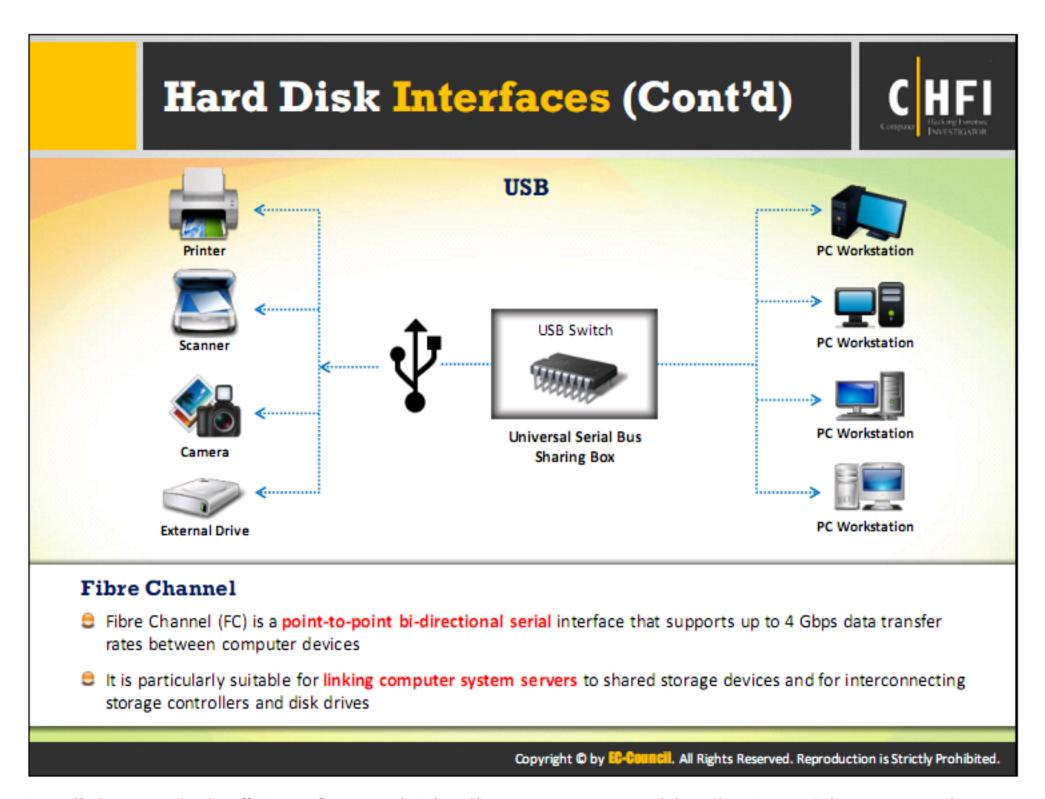
SCSI allows one circuit board or card to accommodate all the peripherals, rather than having a separate card for each device.

Serial Attached SCSI (SAS)

Serial Attached SCSI (SAS) is a point-to-point serial protocol that handles data flow among the computer storage devices such as hard drives and tape drives. It is the successor to Parallel SCSI and uses the standard SCSI command set. SAS is chosen over SCSI because of its flexibility and other beneficial features as given below:

- While the latest parallel SCSI standard can support maximum of only 16 devices, SAS makes use of expanders and can support up to 65,535 devices.
- SAS is free from issues like termination and clock skew.
- SAS is a point-to-point technology, meaning the resource contention issues, which were common in parallel SCSI, do not affect it.
- SAS drives furnish better performance, scalability, and reliability in storage applications and can also operate in environments where SCSI cannot.

Source: http://searchsecurity.techtarget.com



USB is a "plug-and-play" interface, which allows users to add a device without an adapter card and without rebooting the computer. Universal Serial Bus (USB), developed by Intel, was first released in 1995 with a maximum speed support of 12 Mbps. Currently available USB supports data transfer speeds up to 5 Gbps. USB allows external peripheral devices such as disks, modems, printers, digitizers, and data gloves to connect to the computer.

The USB design architecture is asymmetrical that comprise a host, many USB ports, and many peripheral devices. Communication through USB device is mainly through pipes or logical channels, which are connections between the host controller and a logical entity called endpoint. USB cable length ranges from about 3 feet to over 16 feet. The maximum length being 16 feet 5 inches for high speed devices and 9 feet 10 inches for low speed devices.

Features of USB:

- Easy to use
- Provides expandability
- Provides speed for the end user
- Has high performance and ubiquity
- Allows easy connection of peripherals outside the PC
- Most operating systems configure USB-enabled devices automatically
- Useful in PC telephony and video conferencing

Hard Disk Interfaces: Fibre Channel

Fibre Channel is a point-to-point bi-directional high-speed network interface, which supports data transfer rates of up to 16-gigabit per second. It connects shared storage devices, computer system servers, disk drives, and storage controllers. Developed by the American National Standards Institute (ANSI), the fibre channel has three major topologies:

- Point-to-point (FC-P2P): In point to point topology, the fibre directly connects two
 devices with each other. This topology is simple and has limited connectivity.
- Arbitrated loop (FC-AL): In this topology, the connections between all devices form a loop or ring. Addition or removal of devices from the loop interrupts all the activities on the loop. Even if one device fails it causes a break in the topology. There are Fibre Channel hubs to connect many devices and can bypass the failed ports.
- Switched fabric (FC-SW): In this design, the fibre connects all the devices or loops of devices to fibre channel switches.

Advantages:

- The state of the fabric is handled by switches, which provide optimized interconnections
- The traffic between two ports passes via only the switches and is not transmitted to any other port
- Even if a port fails it will not affect the operation of other ports
- Several pairs of ports can communicate at a time in a fabric.

The communication process by using fibre-optics has the following steps:

- Creates the optical signal by using a transmitter
- Relays the signal along the fibre
- Makes sure that the signal is not distorted or weak
- Receives the optical signal
- Finally converts it into an electrical signal

Many telecommunications companies make use of optical fibres to transmit telephone signals, cable television signals, and Internet communications.

Features of Fibre Channel:

- Inexpensive
- Supports higher data transfer rate between mainframes, workstations, desktop computers, supercomputers, displays, storage devices, etc.

Protocols supporting Fibre Channel:

- SCSI
- IP
- ATM
- HIPPI

Tracks Tracks are the concentric circles on platters where all the information is stored Drive head can access these circular rings in one position at a time Tracks are numbered for identification purposes Read-write is done by rolling headers from inner to outermost part of the disk Track Numbering: Head Stack Assembly Track numbering on a hard disk begins at 0 from the outer edge and moves towards the center, typically Head 0 reaching a value of 1023 The read/write heads on both surfaces of a platter Head 1 are tightly packed and locked together on an Head 2 assembly of head arms Head 3 The arms move in and out together to physically Head 4 locate all heads at the same track number Therefore, a track location is often referred by a Head 5 cylinder number rather than a track number A cylinder is a group of all tracks that start at the ·····> Tracks same head position on the disk ----> Sector Copyright © by EG-COUNCIL. All Rights Reserved. Reproduction is Strictly Prohibited.

Platters have two surfaces, and each surface divides into concentric circles called tracks. They store all the information on a hard disk. Tracks on the platter partition hold large chunks of data. A modern hard disk contains tens of thousands of tracks on each platter. The rolling heads read and write from the inner to outermost part of the disk. This kind of data arrangement enables easy access to any part of the disk; therefore, hard disks get the moniker as random access storage devices.

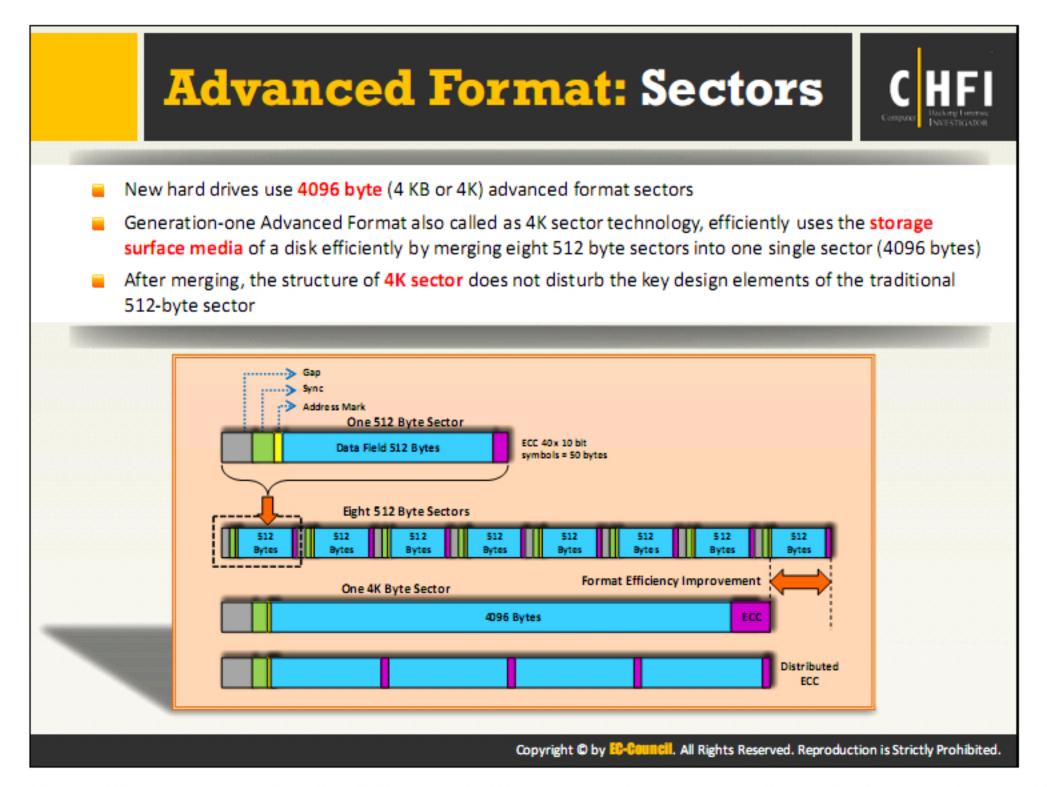
Each track contains a number of smaller units called sectors. Every platter has the same track density. The track density refers to the compactness of the track circles so that it can hold maximum number of bits within each unit area on the surface of the platter. It also determines the storage capacity of data on the hard disk. It is a component of area density in terms of capacity and performance.

A sector is the smallest physical storage unit on the disk platter It is almost always 512 bytes in size and a few additional bytes for drive control and error correction Each disk sector is labelled using the factory track-positioning data The optimal method of storing a file on a disk is in a contiguous series For example, if the file size is 600 bytes, two 512 bytes sectors are allocated for the file Sector Addressing: Cylinders, heads and sectors (CHS) determine the address of the individual sectors on the disk For example, on formatting a disk, 50 tracks are divided into 10 sectors each Track and sector numbers are used by the operating system and disk drive to identify the stored information

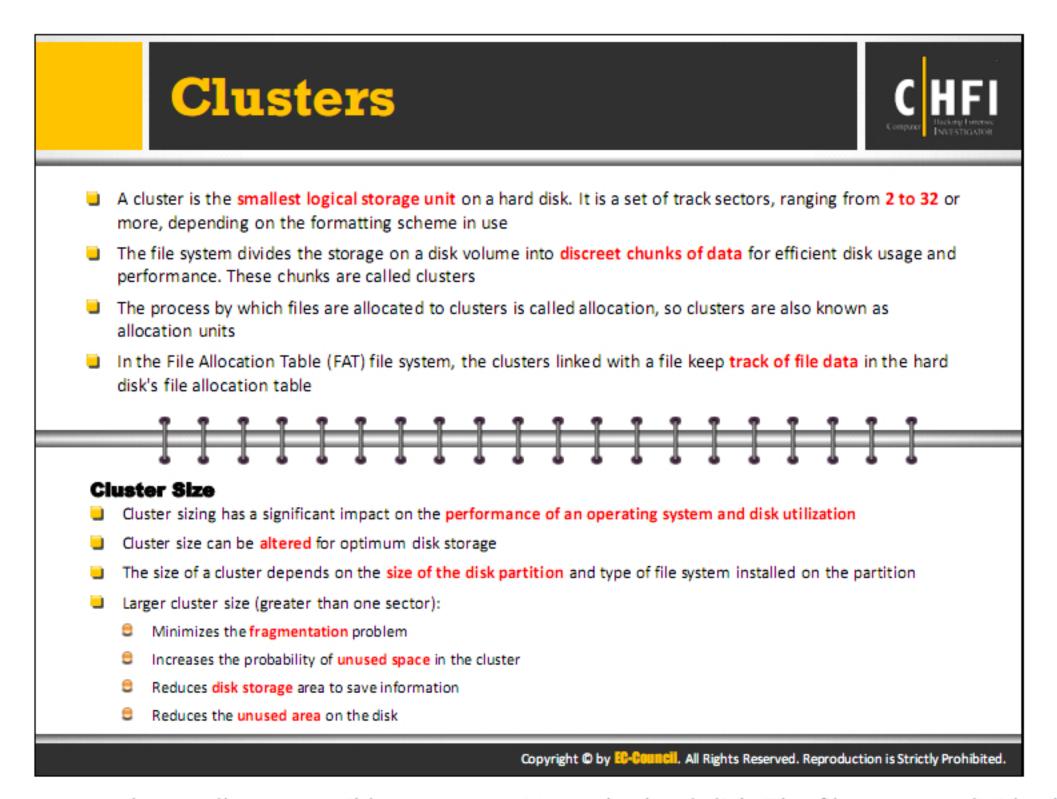
Tracks contain smaller divisions called sectors, and these sectors are the smallest physical storage units located on a hard disk platter. "Sector" is a mathematical term denoting the "pie-shaped" or angular part of the circle, surrounded by the perimeter of the circle between two radii. Each sector normally stores 512 bytes of data, with additional bytes utilized for internal drive control and for error correction and detection. This added information helps to control the drive, store the data, and perform error detection and correction. A group of sectors combines in a concentric circle to form a track. The group of tracks combines to form a surface of the disk platter. The contents of a sector are as follows:

- ID information: It contains the sector number and location that identify sectors on the disk. It also contains status information of the sectors
- Synchronization fields: The drive controller drives the read process using these fields
- Data: It is the information stored on the sector
- ECC: This code ensures integrity of the data
- Gaps: Spaces used to provide time for the controller to continue the read process

These elements constitute sector overhead. It is an important determinant in calculating time taken for accessing. As the hard disk uses bits for disk or data management, overhead size must be very less for higher efficiency. The file on a disk stores the data in a contiguous series for optimal space usage, while the system allocates sectors for the file according to the size of the file. If file size is 600 bytes, then it allocates two sectors, each of 512 bytes. The track number and the sector number refer to the address of any data on the hard disk.



New hard drives use 4096 byte (4 KB or 4 K) advanced format sectors. This format uses the storage surface media of a disk efficiently by merging eight 512-byte sectors into one single sector (4096 bytes). The structure of a 4K sector maintains the design elements of the 512-byte sector with representation of the beginning and the error correction coding (ECC) area with the identification and synchronization characters, respectively. The 4K sector technology removes redundant header areas, lying between the sectors.



Clusters are the smallest accessible storage units on the hard disk. The file systems divide the volume of data stored on the disk into discreet chunks of data for greater performance and efficient disk usage. Clusters form by combining sectors in order to ease the process of handling files. Also called allocation units, the clusters are sets of tracks and sectors ranging from 2 to 32, or more, depending on the formatting scheme. The file allocation systems must be flexible in order to allocate the required sectors to files. It can be the size of one sector per cluster. Any read or write will consume the minimum space of one cluster.

To store a file, the file system should assign the required number of clusters to them. The cluster size totally depends on the disk volume. For disk volumes, each cluster varies in size from four to 64 sectors. In some cases, a cluster size may be of 128 sectors. The sectors located in a cluster are continuous. Therefore, every cluster is a continuous chunk of space on the hard disk. In a cluster, when the file system stores a file relatively smaller than size of the cluster, extra space gets wasted and called as slack space.

Cluster Size:

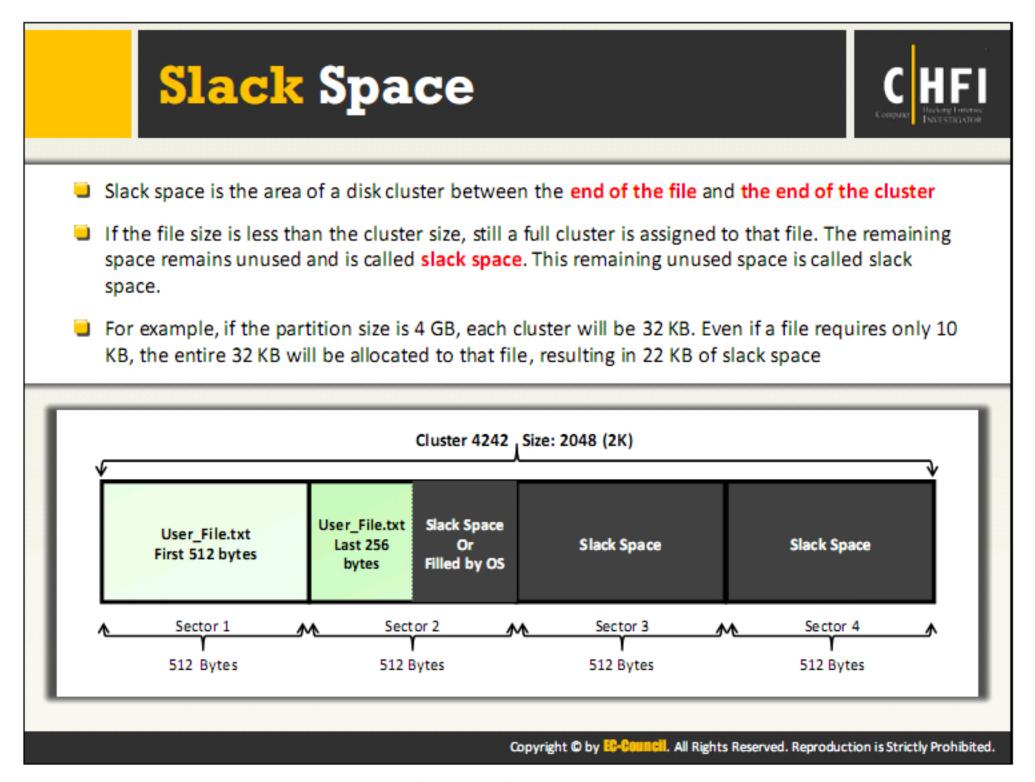
Cluster sizing has a significant impact on the performance of an operating system and disk utilization. Disk partitioning determines the size of a cluster and larger volumes use larger cluster sizes. The system can change the cluster size of an existing partition to enhance performance. If the cluster size is 8192 bytes, to store a file of 5000 bytes, the file system allocates whole cluster to the file and allocates two clusters of 16,384 bytes if the file size is 10,000 bytes. This is why cluster size plays a vital role in maximizing the efficient use of the disk.

By using a large cluster size, the fragmentation problem diminishes, but it will greatly increase the chances of unused space. The file system, running on the computer, maintains the cluster entries.

Clusters form chains on the disk using continuous numbers for which it is not required to store the entire file in one continuous block on the disk. The file system can store it in pieces located anywhere on the disk as well as move it anywhere after creating the file. This cluster chaining is invisible to the operating system.

Users can change the cluster size only when reformatting the drive. Following are the steps to change the cluster size:

- Right-click the drive that you want to format, and select Format
- In the Format dialog box, choose the allocation unit size that you wish the newly formatted drive to use. You can set the cluster size from 521 bytes to 4096 bytes



Slack space is the wasted area of the disk cluster lying between end of the file and end of the cluster when the file system allocates a full cluster to a file, which is smaller than the cluster size.

More files with larger cluster sizes results in wasted disk space due to overhead attached to them. DOS and Windows file systems use fixed-size clusters. Size consumed is irrelevant of the data storage, but the file system reserves entire space for the file. The older versions of the Windows operating system and DOS used a 16-bit allocation table, which results in the large cluster size for large partitions. For example, if the size of each partition is 4 GB and the size of each cluster is 32 K, and a file requires only 10 K, the system will allocate whole 32 K cluster, resulting in 22 K of slack space.

To eliminate this inefficiency, the system uses partitioning. Another approach to reduce the slack space is to use NTFS, which allows much smaller clusters on large partitions. Archiving infrequently used files can also use compression to reduce slack. As the size of disks is increasing, this slack space problem is gaining much more importance.

File Slack Types

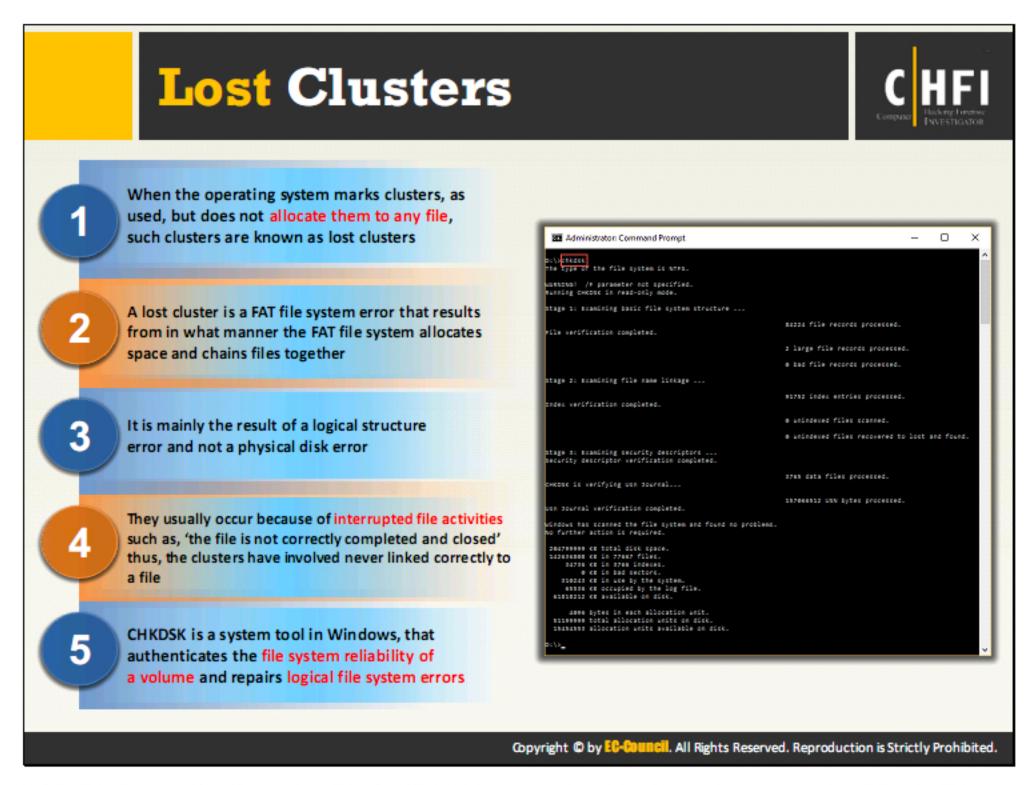
RAM Slack

RAM slack is the data storage space, which starts from the end of a file to the end of the last sector of the file.

Drive Slack

Drive Slack is the data storage space, which starts from the end of the last sector of a file to the end of the last cluster of file.

In the field of forensic investigation, slack space is an important form of evidence. Often, slack space can contain relevant suspect information, required by the prosecutor to present as evidence in the court. For example, if the suspect deleted files of the entire hard drive cluster and saved new files, which filled half of the cluster, the other half may not be empty. It can contain the information of the deleted files. Forensic examiners can collect this data by using computer forensic tools.



A lost cluster is a File allocation table (FAT) error that results when the operating system marks clusters as used but does not allocate them to any file. The error occurs from the process FAT file system, uses to assign spaces and group files together. It is mainly a logical structure error and not a physical disk error.

Lost clusters occur when the user does not close files properly or shuts down a computer without closing an application. These errors also occur due to disk corruption such as bad drivers, resource conflicts, etc.

Operating systems mark these clusters as in use, even though they have no files assigned or linked to them. Disk checking programs can examine a complete disk volume for lost clusters. To detect lost clusters, use the program that can save them as a file or clear them. The latter case will generate and link artificial files to these clusters. This method will damage newly formed file afterward, but orphaned data is visible and it is possible to recover some parts.

Disk checking programs can scan the computer system for lost clusters using the following procedure:

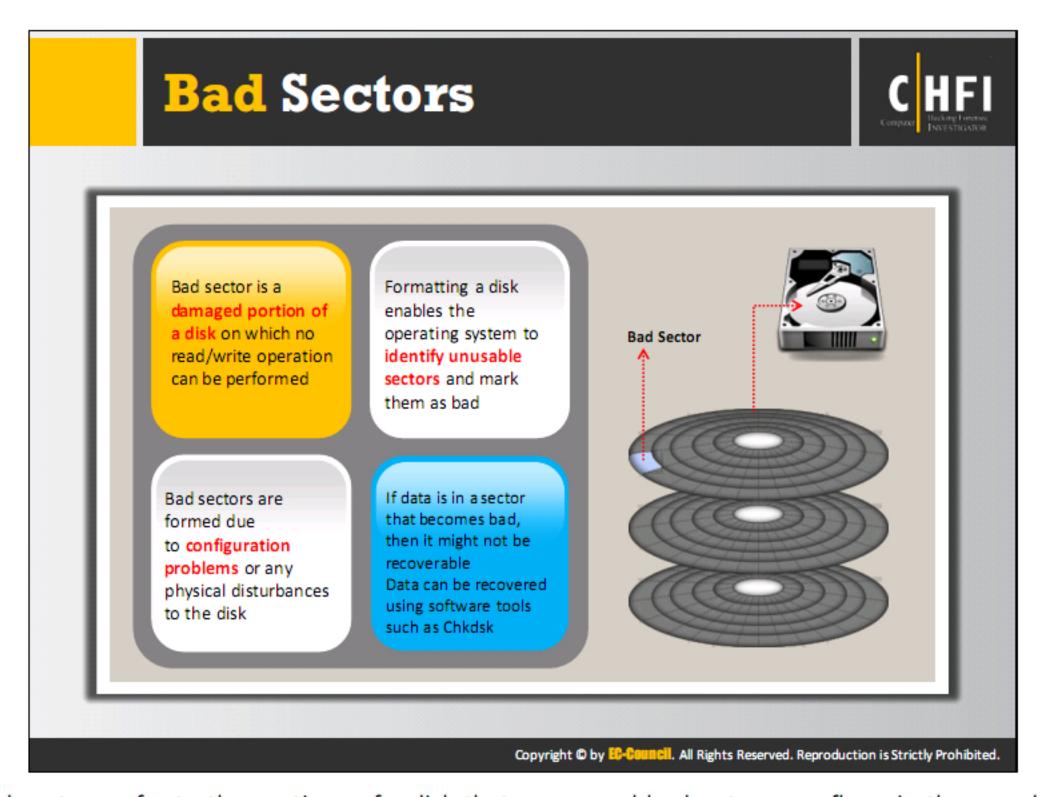
- Generate a duplicate copy in the memory of FAT, noting all of the clusters marked as "in use"
- Trace the clusters, beginning from the root directory, utilized by a file, and mark them as "accounted for", to connect them to a file. Then follow the same procedure for all the subdirectories

Lost clusters or "orphan" clusters are the ones in use but have no account for

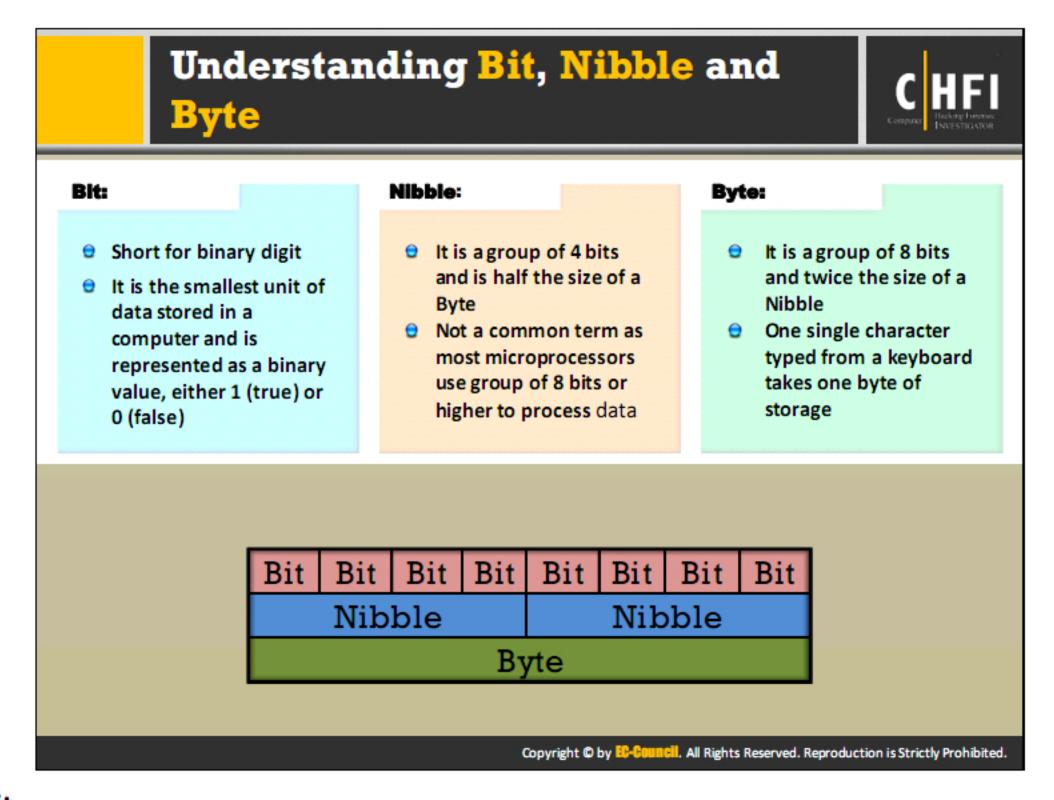
Chkdsk.exe or Check Disk is a built-in Windows utility that helps to detect errors in the file system and disk media. We can run the Check Disk utility If we face problems like, blue screens, difficulty to open or save files or folders. This utility also checks for bad sectors, lost clusters etc.

Steps to use the command line check disk version:

- Open Command Prompt by typing cmd in the Run utility
- Type chkdsk in the command prompt. It will run chkdsk in the Read-Only mode
- This will display the status of the current drive



Bad sectors refer to the portions of a disk that are unusable due to some flaws in them and do not support the read or write operations. The data stored in bad sectors is not completely accessible. Bad sectors might be due to configuration problems or any physical disturbances to the disk. Logical errors or bad sectors are the corrupted files on the magnetic media created by problems such as unexpected voltage surges, read/write activities, changes in boot records, viruses, etc. To detect bad sectors on the drive, use a technique called re-mapping or spare sectoring to hide bad sectors. The operating system marks the bad sectors as unusable, while formatting the disk. Users can eliminate these problems to some extent by not putting the hard disk timing too high for the drive, not using an IDE cable that is too long, using correct BIOS settings, and eliminating configuration bottlenecks. If there is some data that becomes damaged, special software that checks for and repairs bad sectors can recover it. Microsoft provides <scandisk> and <chkdsk> utilities for checking and repairing the bad sectors.



Bit

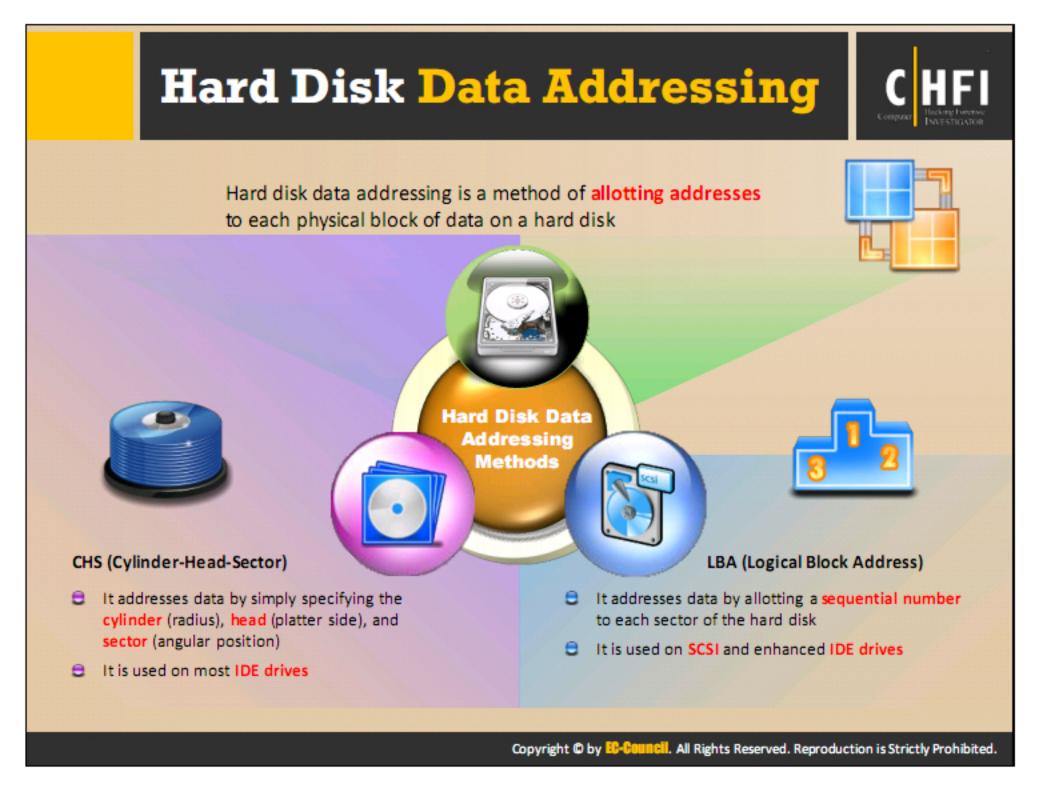
A bit, short for binary digit is the smallest unit of data or basic information unit in computing and digital communications. It can contain only one of the two values represented as 0 or 1. They also represent logical values such as true/false, yes/no, activation states (on/off), algebraic signs (+/-) or any other two-valued attribute.

Byte

A byte, short for binary term is a digital information unit of data that consists of eight bits. The byte is representation of the number of bits a system has used to encode one text character. Therefore, it is the smallest addressable memory unit in many computer architectures. Two hexadecimal digits represent a full byte or octet.

Nibble

A nibble, also known as half-byte or tetrade is a collection of four bits or half of an octet in computing. Common representation of a byte is two nibbles.



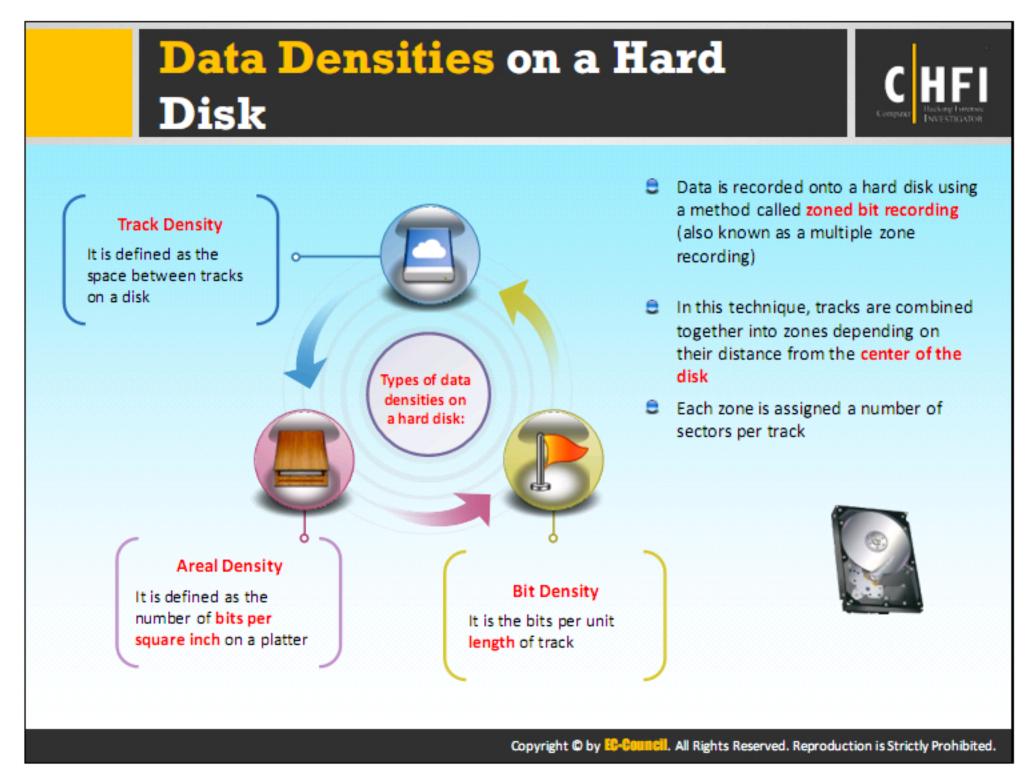
Hard disk data addressing is the technique of assigning addresses to physical blocks of data on the hard drives. There are two types of hard disk data addressing:

CHS (Cylinder-Head-Sector)

This process identifies individual sectors on a hard disk according to their positions in a track, and the head and cylinder numbers determine these tracks. It associates information on the hard drive by specifications such as head (platter side), cylinder (radius), and the sector (angular position).

LBA (Logical Block Address)

It addresses data by allotting a sequential number to each sector of the hard disk. The addressing mechanism specifies the location of blocks of data on computer storage devices and secondary storage systems such as hard disk drives, SCSI, and enhanced IDE drives. This method does not expose the physical details of the storage device to the operating system.



Hard disks store data using the zoned bit recording method, which is also known as multiple-zone recording. In this technique, tracks form a collection of zones depending on their distance from the center of the disk and the outer tracks have more sectors on them than the inner tracks. This allows the drive to store more bits in each outer track compared to the innermost zone and helps to achieve a higher total data capacity.

Track Density

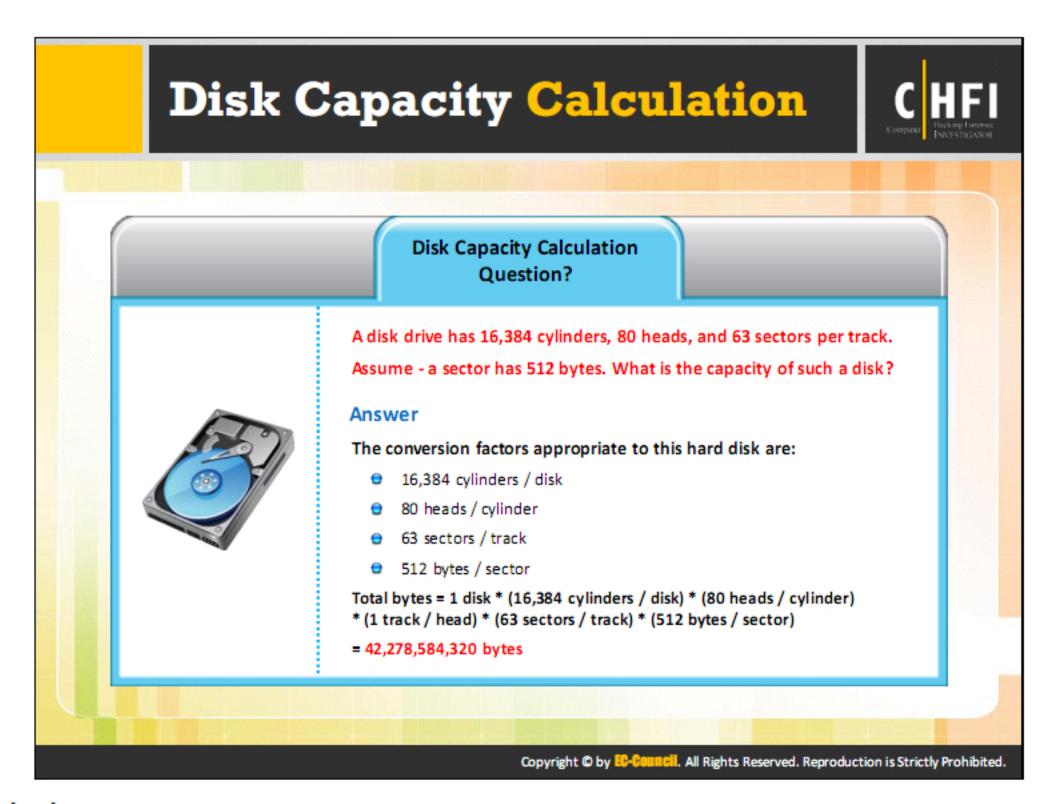
It refers to the space a particular number of tracks require on a disk. The disks with greater track density can store more information as well as offer better performance.

Areal Density

It refers to the number of bits per square inch on a platter and it represents the amount of data a hard disk can hold.

Bit Density

It is the number of bits a unit length of track can accommodate.



Calculate

A disk drive that has:

- 16,384 cylinders
- 80 heads
- 63 sectors per track

Assume a sector has 512 bytes. What is the capacity of such a disk?

Answer

The conversion factors appropriate to this hard disk are:

- 16,384 cylinders / disk
- 80 heads / cylinder
- 63 sectors / track
- 512 bytes / sector

Solution

Total bytes = 1 disk * (16,384 cylinders / disk) * (80 heads / cylinder) * (1 track / head) * (63 sectors / track) * (512 bytes / sector) = 42,278,584,320 bytes

1 Kilobyte (KB) = 2^10 bytes = 1,024 bytes

- 1 Megabyte (MB) = 2^20 bytes = 1,048,576 bytes = 1,024 KB
- 1 Gigabyte (GB) = 2^30 bytes = 1,073,741,824 bytes = 1,048,576 KB = 1,024 MB
- 1 Terabyte (TB) = 2^40 bytes = 1,099,511,627,776 bytes = 1,073,741,824 KB = 1,048,576

MB = 1,024 GB

Using these definitions, express the result in GB as:

42,278,584,320 bytes / (1,073,741,824 bytes / GB) = **39.375 GB**

Hard disk in a typical computer system has a storage capacity. Data is stored on the hard disk in the form of files. A file is nothing more than a collection of bytes. The bytes may be:

- ASCII code
- Instruction of a software program for the computer system to execute
- Record of a database
- Pixel colors for a GIF image

Measuring good hard disk drive performance includes calculation of it two characteristics including the access time and data transfer rate.

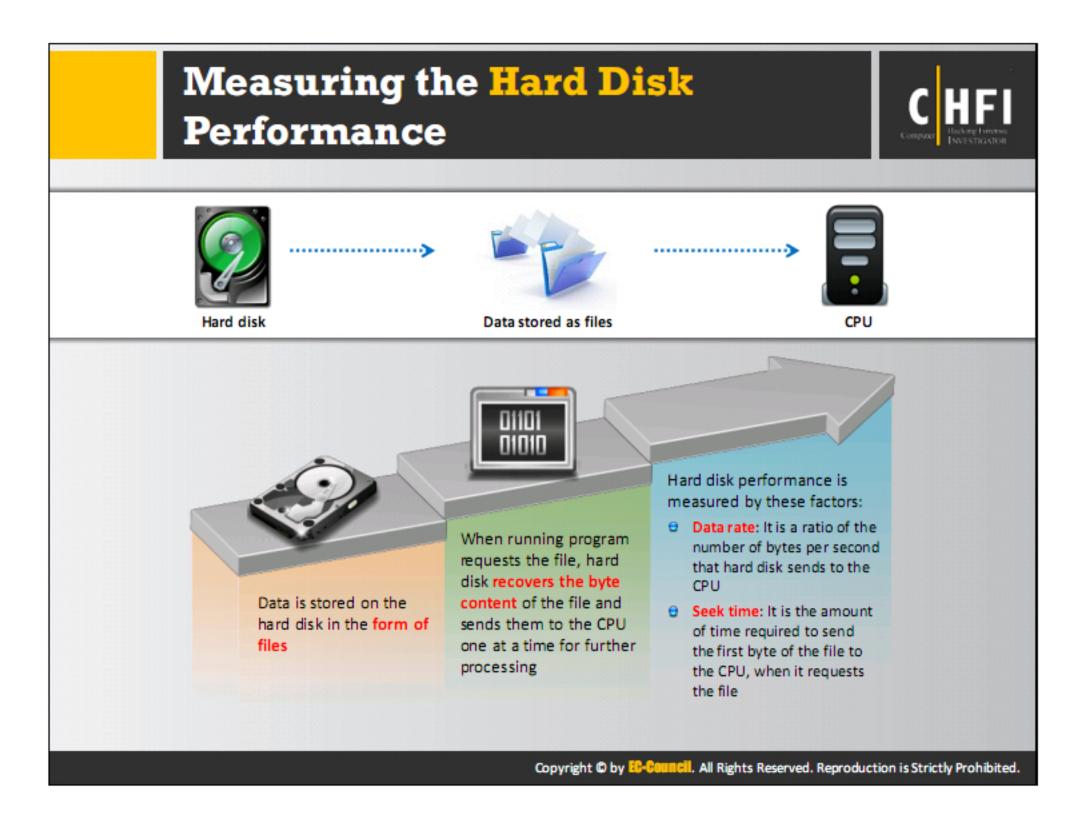
Access time

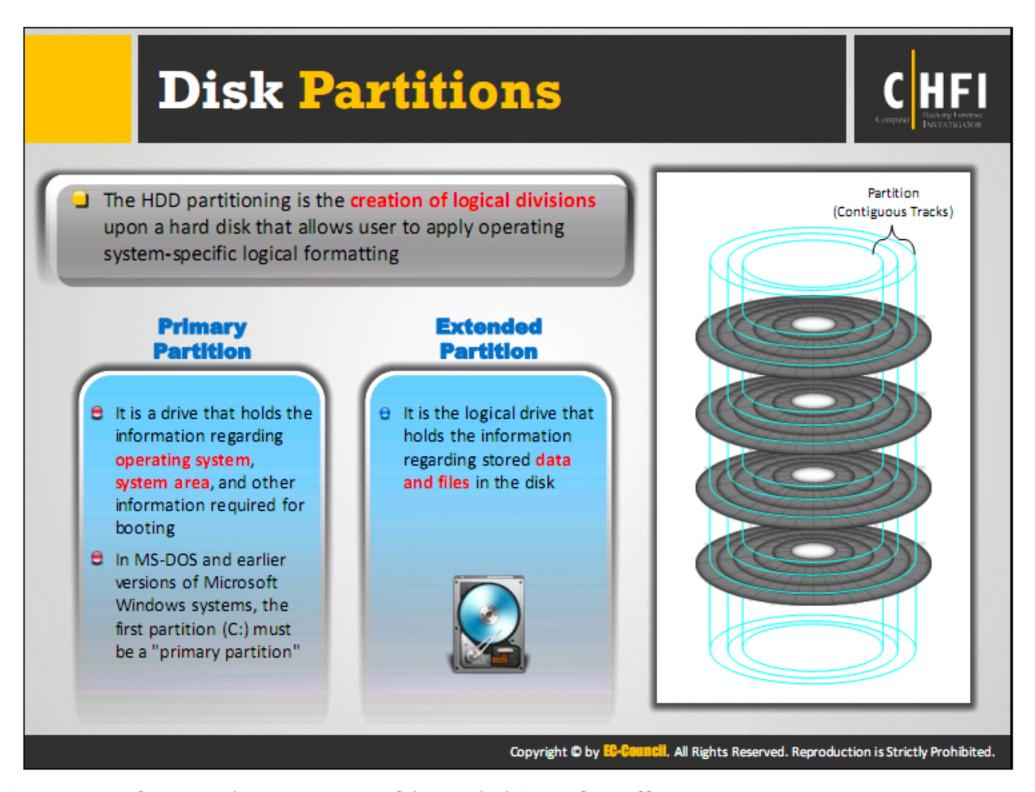
Access time refers to the time a drive takes to initiate the data transfer. The controlling factors of this time on a drive depend on the mechanical nature of rotating disks and moving heads.

The main components added to get the access time are:

- Seek time: The time a hard disk controller requires to find a particular data. When required to read or write data, the disc heads move to the correct position through the process of seeking. The time it takes to move read or write disc heads from one point to another of the disk is the seek time. Common seek time is between 10 to 20 milliseconds, with common desktop type normally being around 9 milliseconds.
- Rotational latency: It refers to the rotational delay the chosen disk sector takes to
 rotate under read or write disk drive heads. The average disk rotational latency is half of
 the time the disk takes to make one revolution. The term is applicable only to rotating
 storage devices like hard disk drives and floppy drives but not tape drives.
- Data transfer rate: The data transfer rate of a drive is expressed by internal rate, which is the data moving between the disk surface and the drive controller as well as the external rate, which is the data moving between the drive controller and the host system. The host transfer rate or data transfer rate is the speed at which host computer can transfer data from the IDE/EIDE or SCSI interface to CPU.
 - Inner zones' data transfer rates range from 44.2 MB/s to 74.5 MB/s
 - The transfer rate at the outer zone is 74.0 MB/s to 111.4 MB/s

Source: http://www.rwc.uc.edu

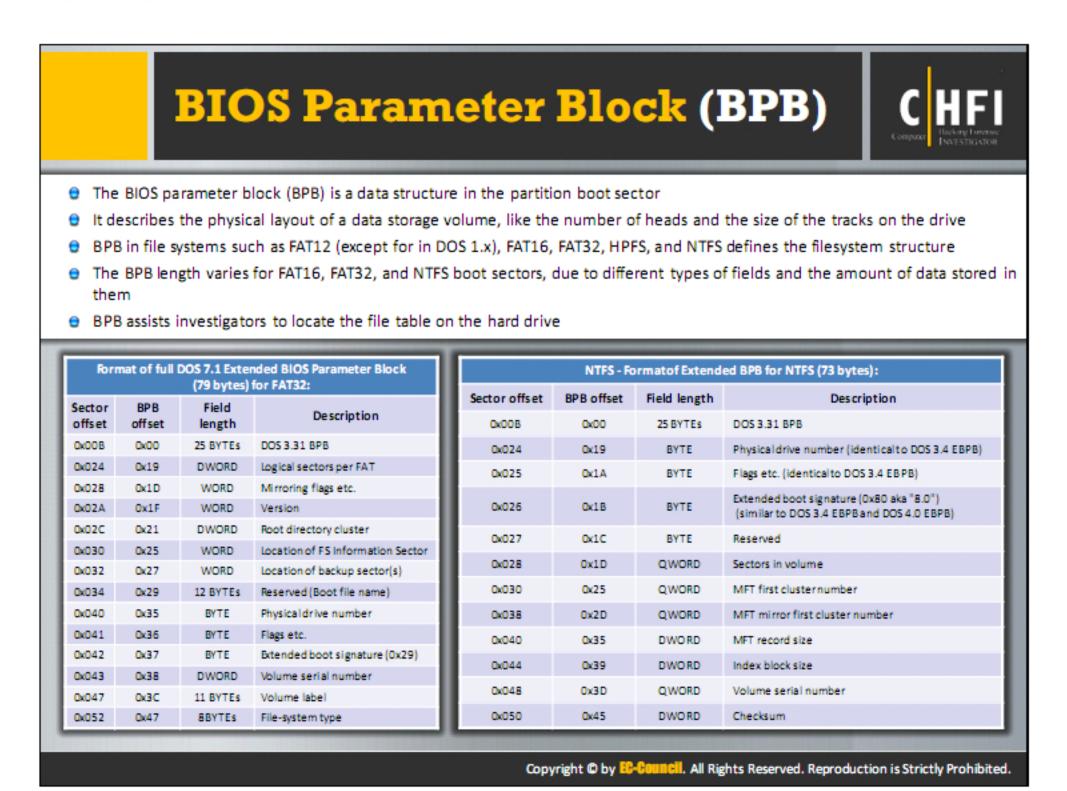




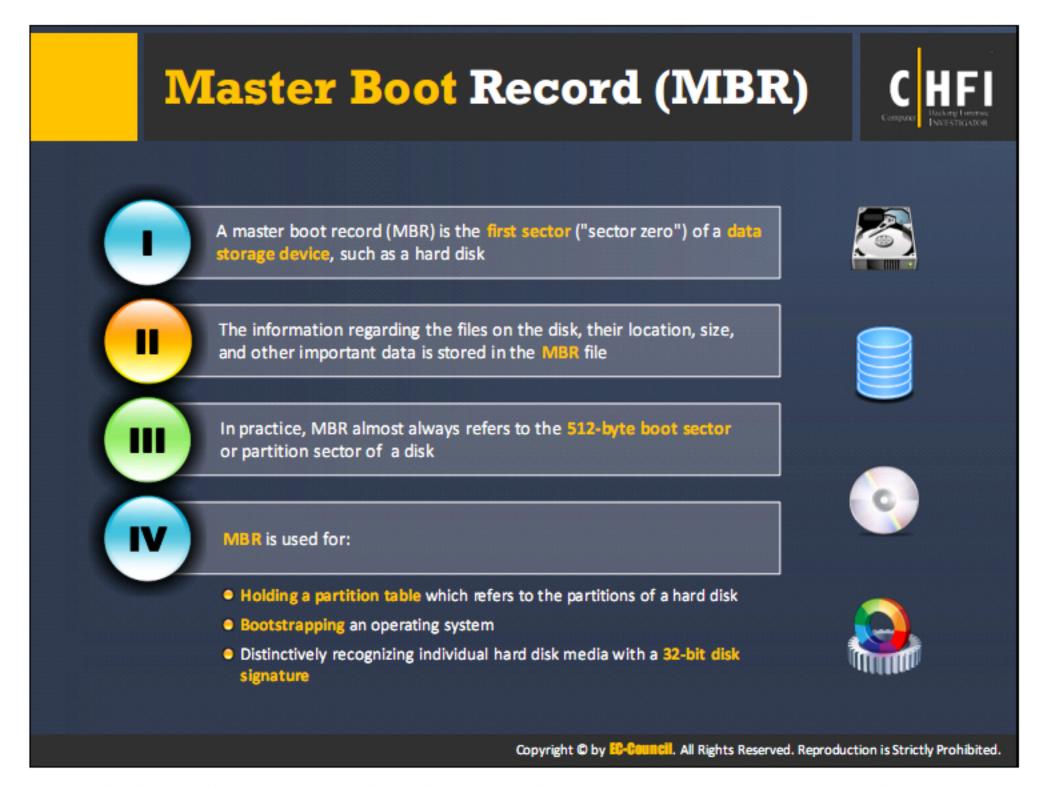
Partitioning refers to the creation of logical drives for effective memory management and a partition is the logical drive for storing the data. Hidden partition created on a drive can hide the data. The inter-partition gap is the space between the primary partition and the secondary partition. If the inter-partition drive contains the hidden data, use disk editor utilities like Disk Editor to change the information in the partition table. Doing so will remove all the references to the hidden partition, which have been hiding it from the operating system. Another way of hiding the data is to place the digital evidence at the end of the disk by declaring a smaller number of bytes than the actual size of the drive. Disk Editor allows investigator to access these hidden or vacant areas of the disk.

The partitions are of two types:

- Primary partition: It is the drive that holds the information regarding the operating system, system area, and other information required for booting. In MS-DOS and earlier versions of Microsoft Windows systems, the first partition (C:) must be a "primary partition."
- Extended partition: It is the logical drive that holds the information regarding the data and files that are stored in the disk. Various tools are available for examining the disk partitions. A few of the disk editor tools are Disk Edit, WinHex, and Hex Workshop. These tools can help users to view the file headers and important information about the file. Both require analyzing the hexadecimal codes that an operating system identifies and uses to maintain the file system.



The BPB is data structure situated at sector 1 in the volume boot record of a hard disk and explains the physical layout of a disk volume. It describes the volume partition on partitioned devices such as hard disks, whereas on the un-partitioned devices it describes the entire medium. Any partition that includes the floppy disks can use BPB, which would also describe the basic file system architecture. The length of BPB varies across the listed file systems listed (i.e. FAT16, FAT32, and NTFS) due to the volume of the data it contains and also due to the types of fields present.



Master Boot Record (MBR) refers to a hard disk's first sector or sector zero that specifies the location of an operating system for the system to load into the main storage. Also called as, partition sector or master partition table contains a table, which locates partitioned disk data. A program in the record loads the rest of the OS into the RAM.

Information about various files present on the disk, their location, and size is the Master Boot Record file. In practice, MBR almost always refers to the 512-byte boot sector or partition sector of a disk. FDISK/MBR commands help in creating MBR in Windows and DOS operating systems. When a computer starts and boots, the BIOS refers this first sector for the boot process instructions and information about how to load the operating system.

The master boot record consists of the structures as mentioned below:

Partition Table

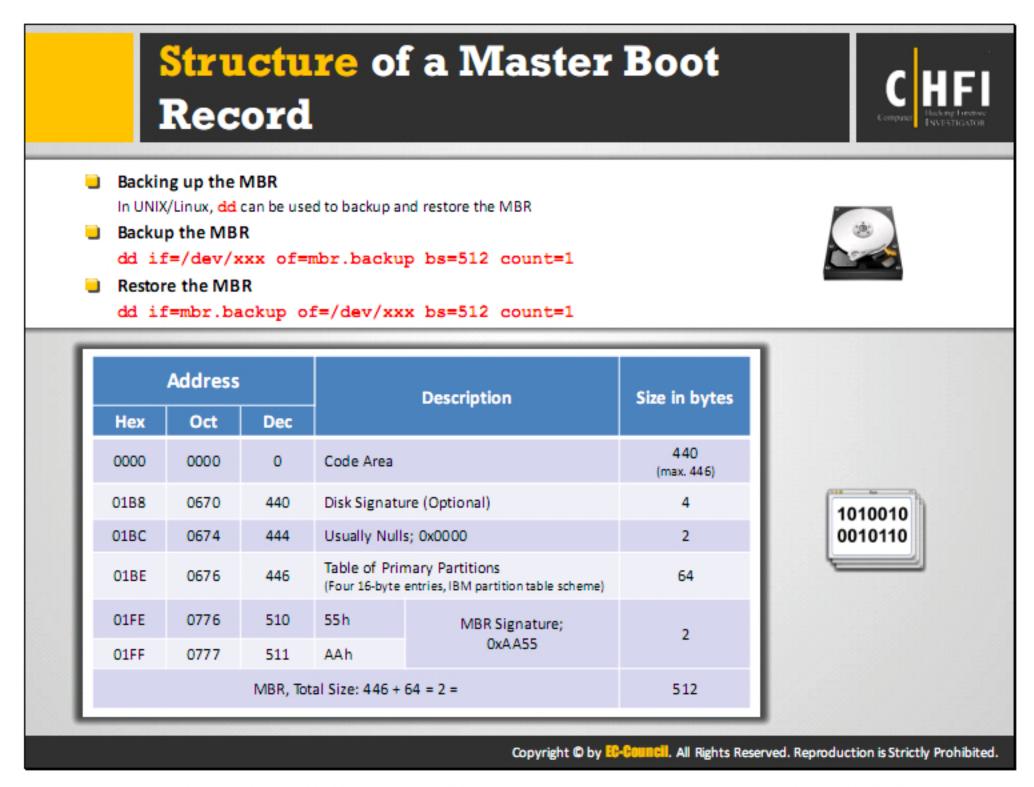
Partition table is a 64-byte data structure storing information about the type of partitions present on the hard disk and their location. This table has a standard layout that does not depend on the operating system. The table is capable of describing only four partitions, which are primary or physical partitions. All other partitions are logical partitions linked to one of the primary partitions.

Master Boot Code

A small part of the computer code, which the system loads into the BIOS and executes to initiate the system's boot process. After execution, the system transfers the controls to the boot program present on the active partition to load the operating system.

The master boot code implements the following functions:

- Examines the partition table to find the active partition
- Locates the first sector of the active partition
- Loads a boot sector copy from the active partition into memory
- Transfers control to the executable code in the boot sector



The systems, working with Windows and DOS operating systems, use the MBR file to hold the information regarding the files on the disk. Many products replace the MBR file, provided by the Microsoft operating system. A few third-party utility tools help while installing two or more operating systems on the disk.

Investigators require many data acquisition tools for forensic investigation as one vendor product may not be reliable for computer forensic tasks.

Backing up the MBR

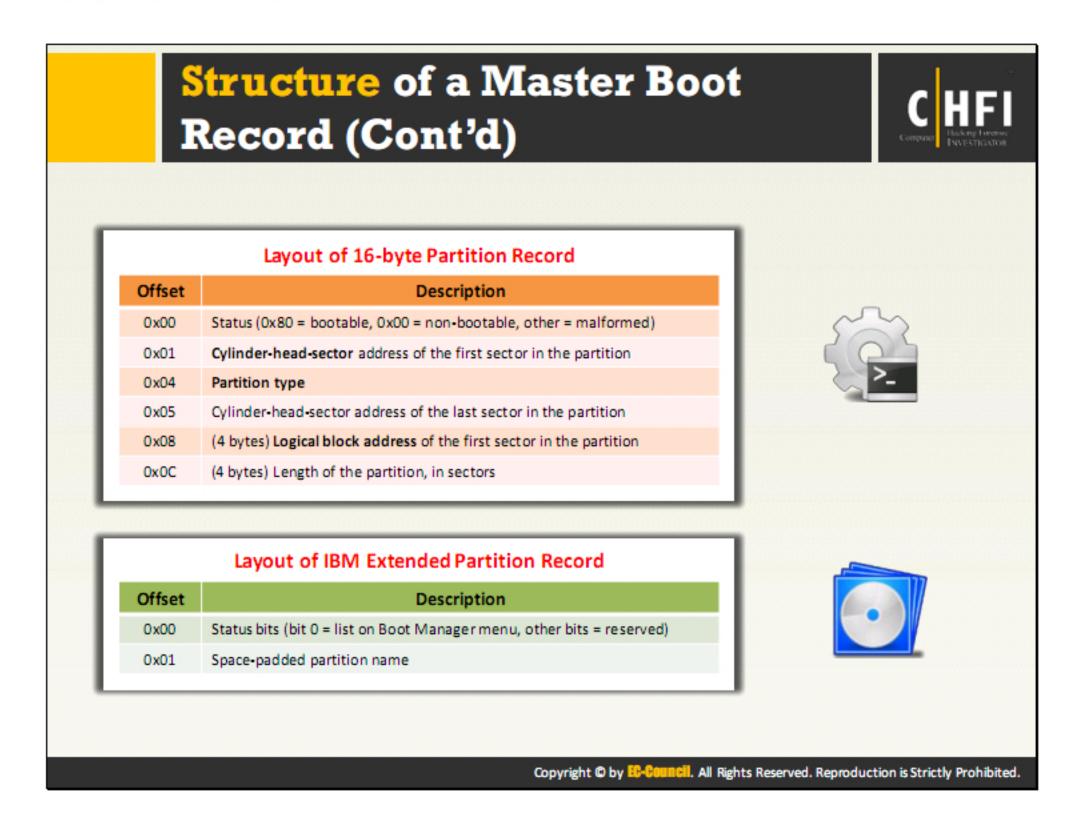
In UNIX/Linux, dd helps to create backup and restore the MBR.

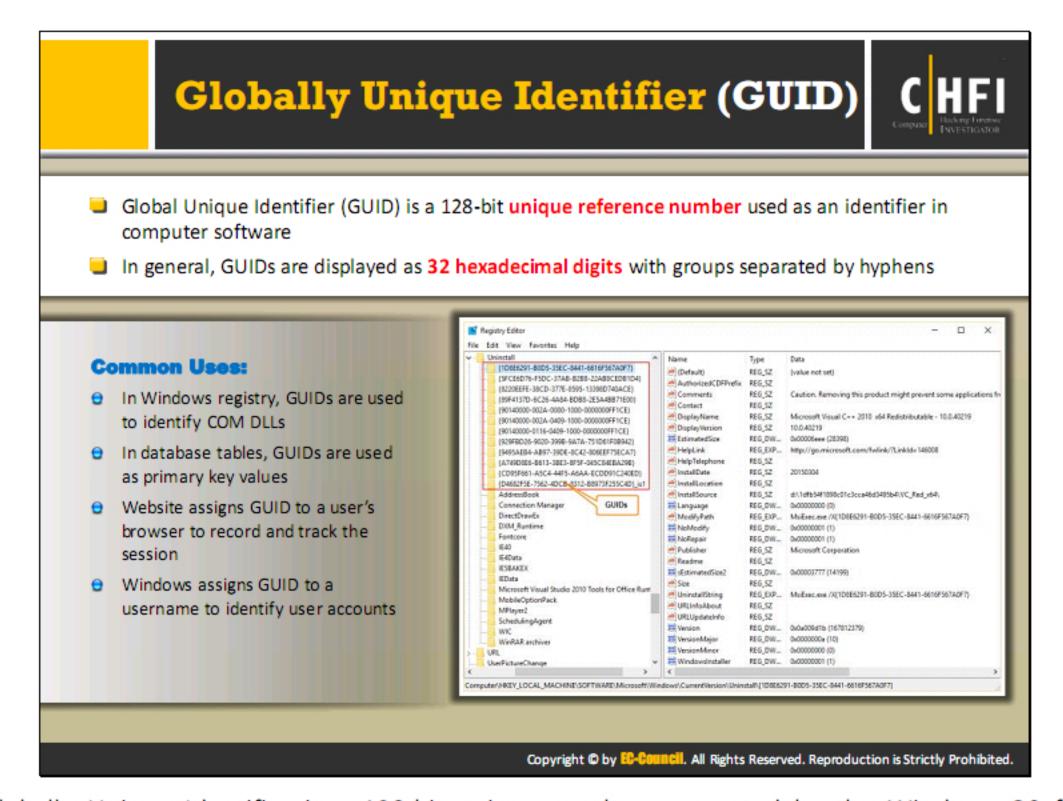
Back up the MBR

dd if=/dev/xxx of=mbr.backupbs=512 count=1

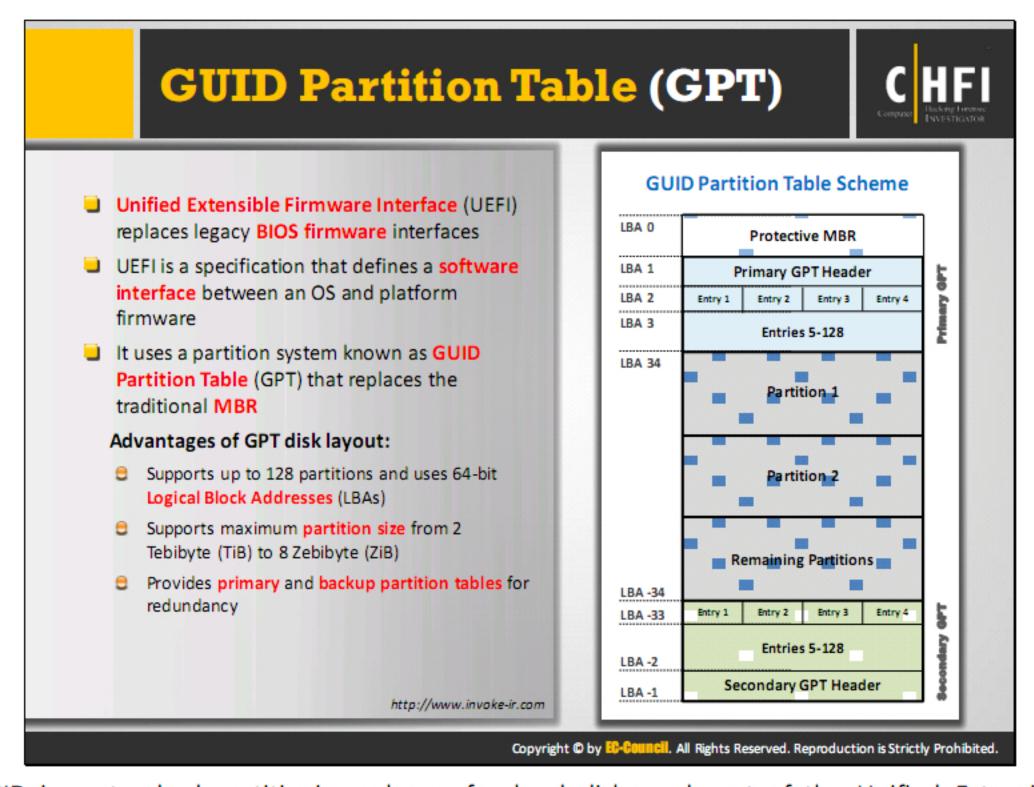
Restore the MBR

dd if=mbr.backup of=/dev/xxx bs=512 count=1





Globally Unique Identifier is a 128-bit unique number, generated by the Windows OS for identifying a specific device, document, a database entry, and/or the user. For example, while browsing a website generates a GUID and assigns to the browser, which will help in tracking and recording the user's browsing session. The Windows OS assigns a GUID to the registry in order to recognize COM DLLs (Dynamic Link Library) as well as to the user accounts by a username (domain).



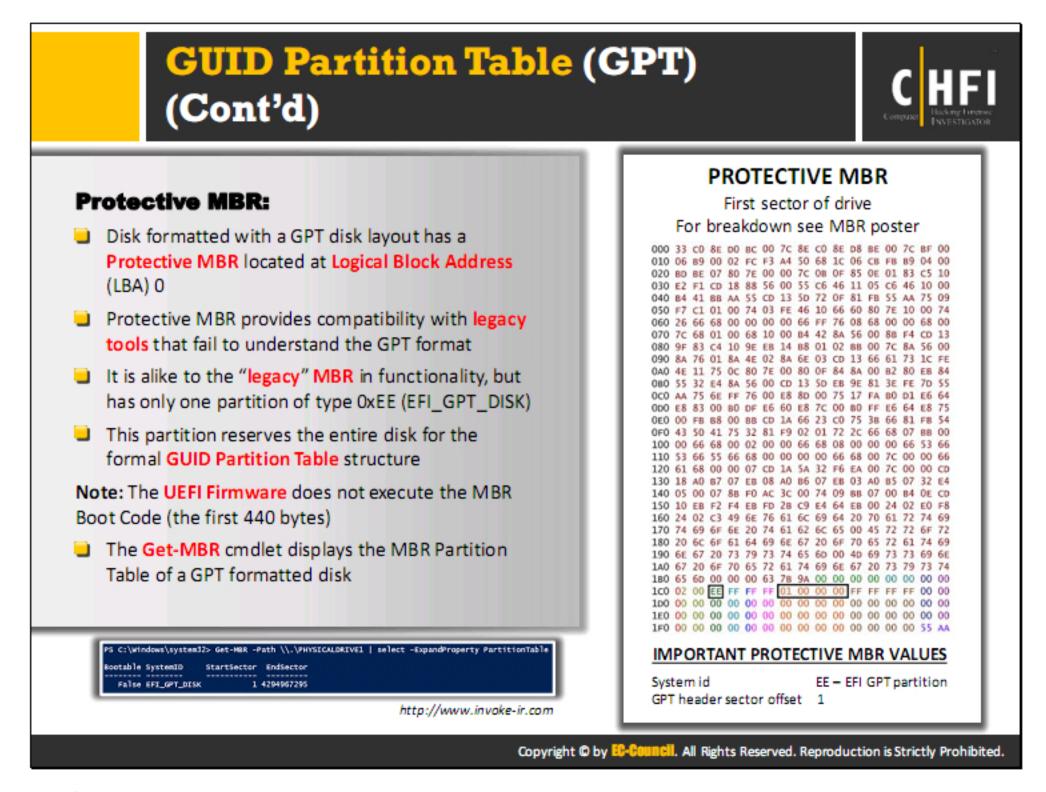
GUID is a standard partitioning scheme for hard disks and part of the Unified Extensible Firmware Interface (UEFI), which replaces legacy BIOS firmware interfaces. UEFI uses partition interfacing systems that overcome the limitations of the MBR partitioning scheme.

MBR partition scheme uses 32 bits for storing LBA (Logical Block Addresses) and the size information on 512-byte sector. In GPT, each logical block is 512 bytes and each partition entry is 128 bytes, and the negative addressing of the logical blocks starts from the end of the volume with -1 as the last addressable block. GPTs use logical block addressing (LBA) instead of the cylinder-head-sector (CHS) addressing similar to the modern MBRs. LBA 0 stores the protective MBR, LBA 1 contains the GPT header, and the GPT header comprises a pointer to the partition table or Partition Entry Array at LBA 2.

The UEFI assigns 16,384 bytes for the Partition Entry Array. Since the disk has 512-byte sectors with a partition entry array of 16,384 bytes and the minimum size of 128 bytes for each partition entry, LBA 34 will be the first usable sector.

Advantages of GPT disk layout:

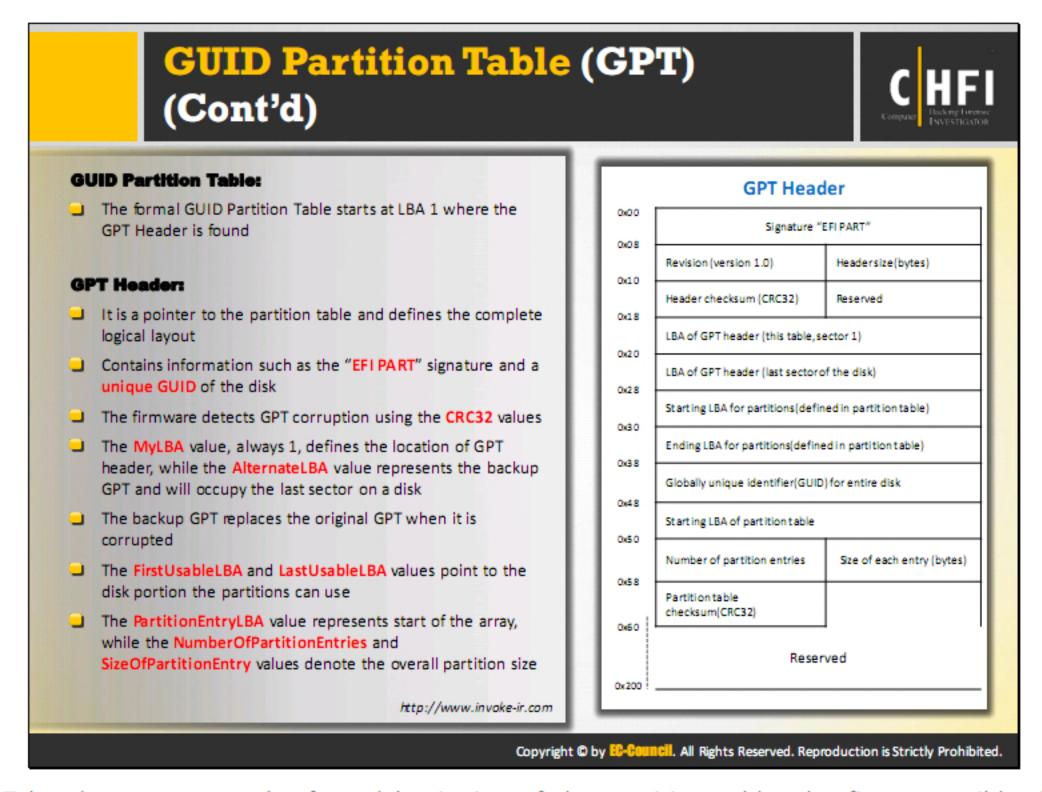
- GPT allows users to partition disks larger than 2 terabytes
- It allows users to have 128 partitions in Windows using GPT partition layout
- GPT partition and boot data is more secure than MBR, as GPT stores data in multiple locations across the disk
- It uses Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC) to ensure data integrity
- Uses CRC32 checksums that detect errors in the header and partition table



Protective MBR

Protective MBR occupies the first position of the GPT at Logical Block Address (LBA) 0. It helps the legacy issues to solve compatibility issues when they fail to understand the GPT format. It stores the startup code for the operating systems that support GPT boot disk. It will make sure that the operating systems, which are unable to identify the GPT disk, will mark it as unknown, and cannot delete without user command. Additionally, the operating systems identifying the GPT partition table will also check the protective MBR before while starting the operations.

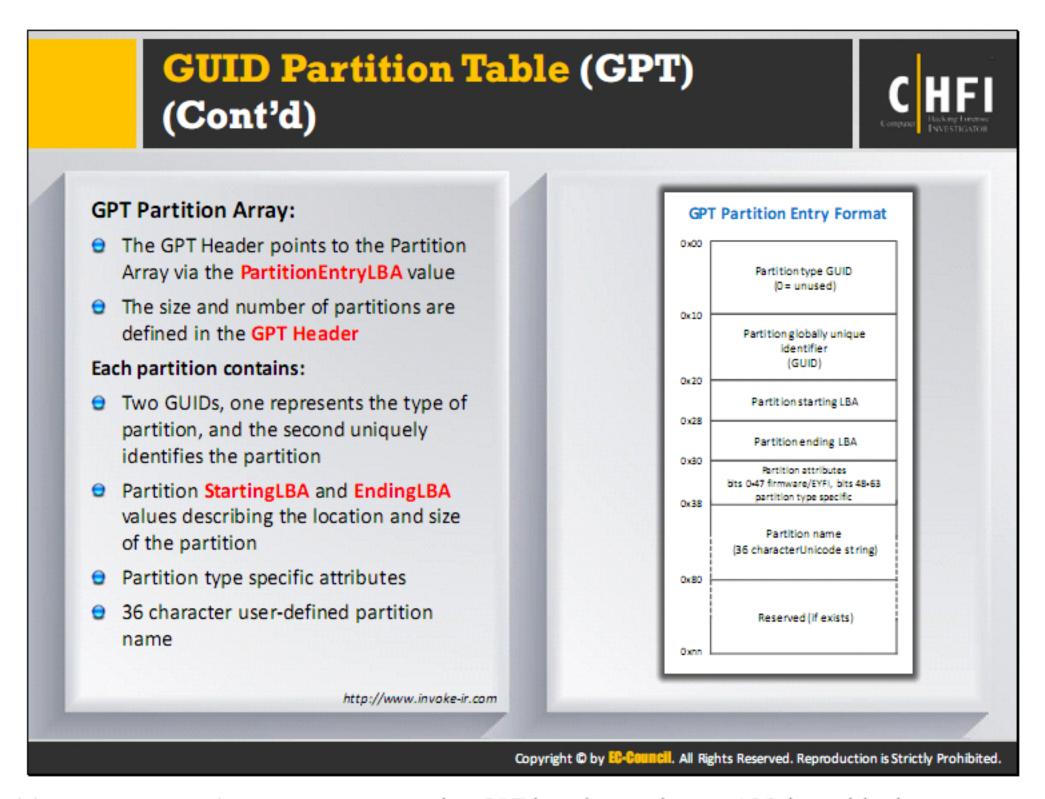
Being similar to the legacy MBR in functionality, the main difference is that the protective MBR has only one partition of type 0xEE (EFI_GPT_DISK). If the partition is not of 0xEE type or the MBR partition table consists of multiple entries, the MBR will not operate.



GPT header represents the formal beginning of the partition table, the first accessible disk space, and structure of the partition table.

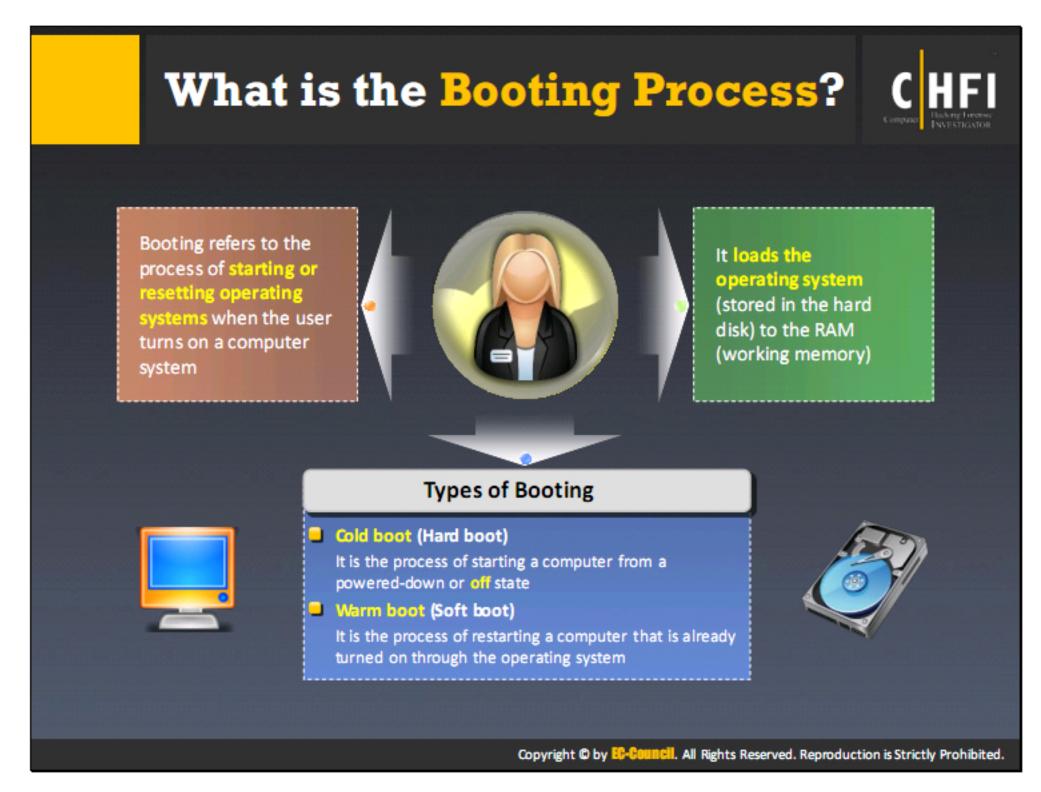
A hard disk running Windows 64 bit operating system can have up to 128 partitions with a size of 128 bytes each. Partition table header stores the disk details such as partition ID of GPT disk, the partition table header size and location, backup partition table header, position and size of the partition table.

Additionally, it stores the partition table CRC32, which is cyclic redundancy check or an error-detecting code used to detect accidental changes. The checking mechanism helps boot program, firmware, and the operating system to detect the error in a partition table. If any error occurs in the primary GPT, the users can recover the hard disk partitions from the secondary GPT, but the error in backup GPT parity can make the hard disk inaccessible.



Partition entry array is present next to the GPT header and uses 128 byte blocks per entry, of which the first 16 bytes of each block represent the partition type GUID. The next 16 bytes contain GUID specific to the partition block. Because of the unique nature of the GUID, there is no requirement for a central registry for the GUID partition type designator.

It is not necessary for each sector to be restricted to 512 bytes, (i.e. 3 primary partitions and 1 extended partition) it can have more than four partition entries in a single sector. The GPT specification describes the size and organization of the data structure on the whole (keeping aside LBA 0 and LBA 1), but not counts the number of sectors stored on the disk.

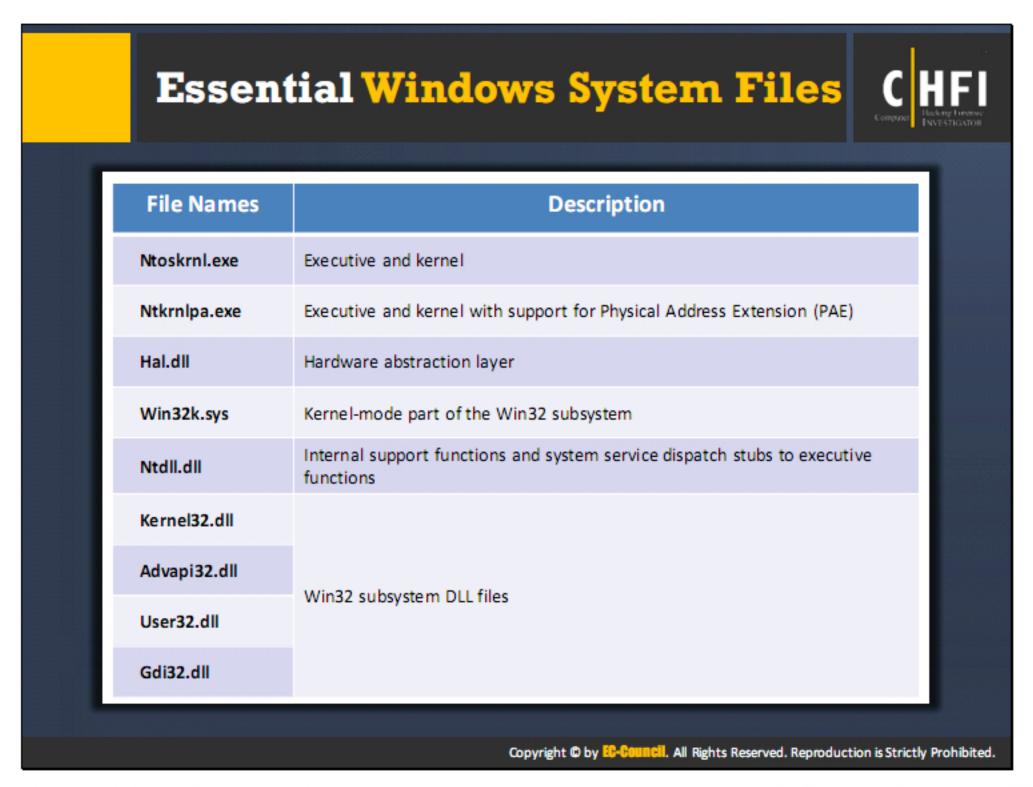


Booting is the process of starting or resetting the computer when the user turns the system on. The process includes getting both the hardware and software ready and running. The booting process is of two types:

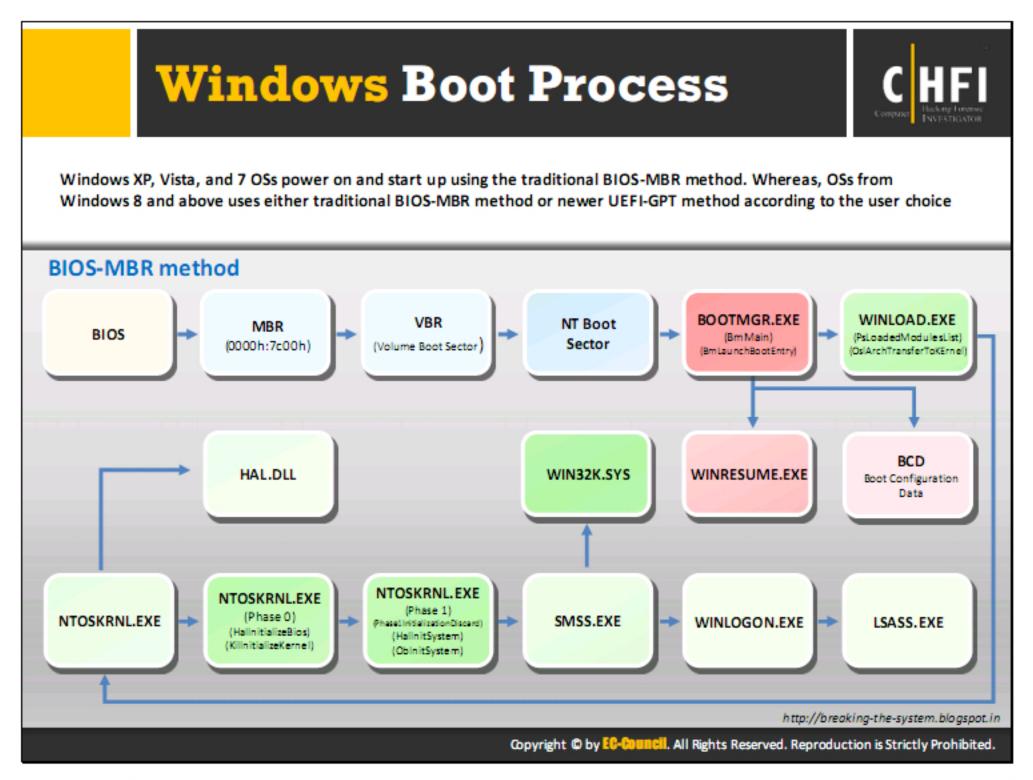
- Cold booting: The process happening when we first turn on the computer. Also called as hard boot, this happens when user completely cuts the power supply to the system.
- Warm booting is the process happening when we reset the computer. In this process, the user restarts the system via operating system.

During the process of booting, the computer loads the operating system to its memory or RAM and prepares it for use. During initialization, the system switches on the BIOS and loads it onto the ROM. BIOS stores the first instruction, which is the command to perform the power-on self-test (POST). Under POST, the system checks the BIOS chip and CMOS RAM.

If the POST detects no battery failure, it continues to start other parts of the CPU by checking the hardware devices and secondary storage devices.



After installation of an operating system, the setup program creates folders and required files on the system drive. The following are the essential Windows system files.

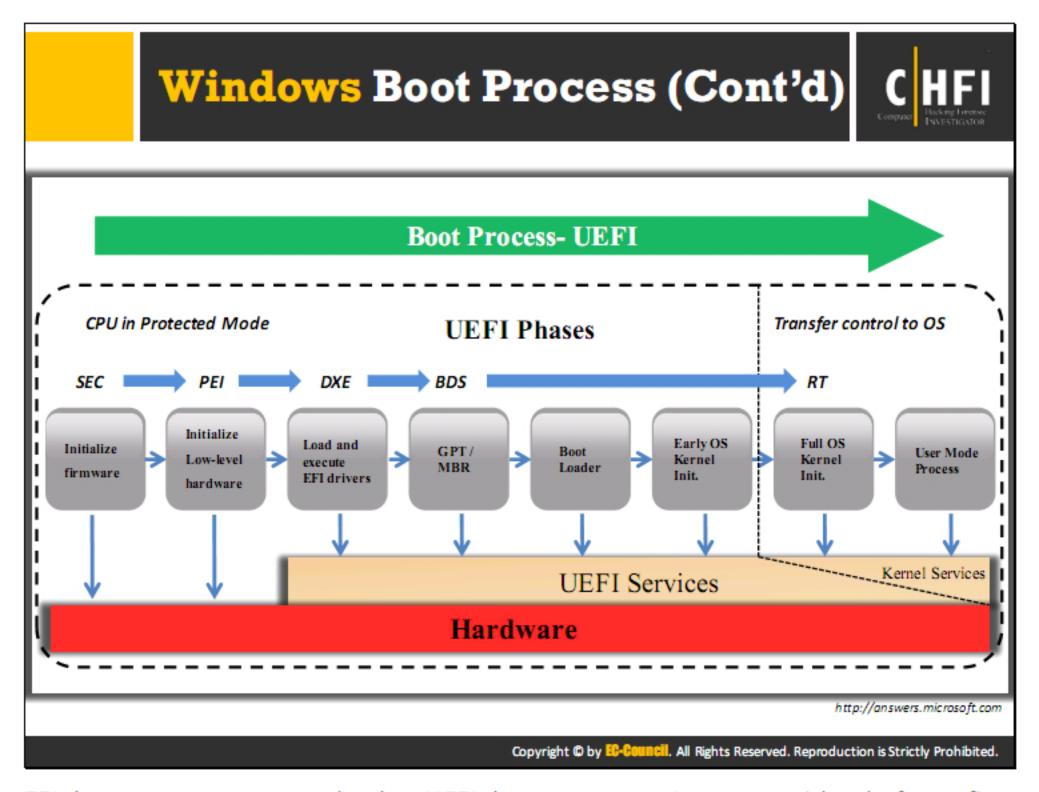


Windows XP, Vista, and 7 OSs power on and start up using the traditional BIOS-MBR method. Whereas, the Microsoft operating systems starting with Windows 8 and later versions will use either traditional BIOS-MBR method or newer UEFI-GPT method according to the user choice.

Below is process that occurs within the system when switched ON.

- When the user switches the system ON, CPU sends a Power Good signal to motherboard and checks for computer's BIOS firmware.
- BIOS starts a Power-On Self-Test (POST) which checks if all the hardware required for system boot are available and load all the firmware settings from nonvolatile memory on the motherboard.
- If POST is successful, add-on adapters perform a self-test for integration with the system.
- 4. The pre-boot process will complete with POST, detecting a valid system boot disk.
- After POST, the computer's firmware scans boot disk and loads the master boot record (MBR), which search for basic boot information in Boot Configuration Data (BCD).
- MBR triggers Bootmgr.exe, which locates Windows loader (Winload.exe) on the Windows boot partition and triggers Winload.exe.
- 7. Windows loader loads the OS kernel **ntoskrnl.exe**.

- 8. Once the Kernel starts running, the Windows loader loads HAL.DLL, boot-class device drivers marked as **BOOT_START** and the **SYSTEM registry hive** into the memory.
- Kernel passes the control of boot process to the Session Manager Process (SMSS.exe), which loads all other registry hives and drivers required to configure Win32 subsystem run environment.
- Session Manager Process triggers Winlogon.exe, which presents the user logon screen for user authorization.
- 11. Session Manager Process initiates Service control manager, which starts all the services, rest of the non-essential device drivers, the security subsystem LSASS.EXE and Group policy scripts.
- 12. Once user logs in, Windows creates a session for the user.
- 13. Service control manager starts the Explorer.exe and initiates the Desktop Window Manager (DMW) process, which set the desktop for the user.



The EFI boot manager controls the UEFI boot process. It starts with platform firmware initialization; the boot manager loads UEFI drivers and UEFI applications (including UEFI OS boot loaders) to initialize platform functions. The system loads the OS loader at the final stage and then OS starts booting. Once the OS receives the controls, it halts the UEFI boot service.

The UEFI boot process has five phases and each phase has its own role. These five phases are:

SEC (Security) Phase

This phase of EFI consists of initialization code that the system executes after powering the EFI system on. It manages platform reset events and sets the system so that it can find, validate, install, and run the PEI.

PEI (Pre-EFI Initialization) Phase

The PEI phase initializes the CPU, temporary memory, and boot firmware volume (BFV). It locates and executes the Pre Initialization modules (PEIMs) present in the BFV so as to initialize all the found hardware in the system. Finally, it creates a Hand-Off Block List with all found resources interface descriptors and passes it to the next phase i.e. the DXE phase.

DXE (Driver Execution Environment) Phase

Most of the initialization happens in this phase. Using the Hand-Off Block List (HOBL), it initializes the entire system physical memory, I/O, and MIMO (Memory Mapped Input Output) resources and finally begins dispatching DXE Drivers present in the system

Firmware Volumes (given in the HOBL). The DXE core produces a set of EFI Boot Services and EFI Runtime Services. The EFI Boot Services provided are allocating memory and loading executable images. The EFI Runtime services provided are converting memory addresses from physical to virtual while handing over to the kernel, and resetting the CPU, to code running within the EFI environment or within the OS kernel once the CPU takes the control of the system.

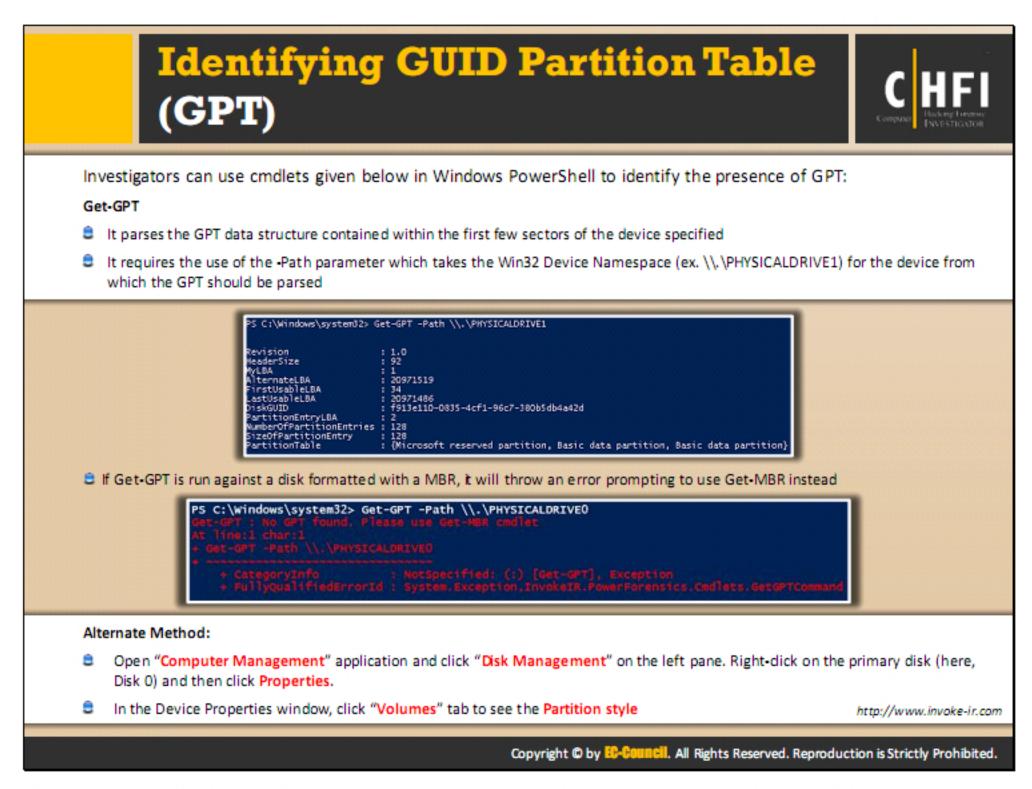
BDS (Boot Device Selection) Phase

In this phase, the BDS interprets the boot configuration data and selects the Boot Policy for later implementation. This phase works with the DXE to check if the device drivers require signature verification.

In this phase, the system loads MBR boot code into memory for Legacy BIOS Boot or loads the Bootloader program from the EFI partition for UEFI Boot. It also provides an option for the user to choose EFI Shell or an UEFI application as the Boot Device from the Setup.

RT (Run Time) Phase

At this point, the system clears the UEFI program from memory and transfers it to the OS. During UEFI BIOS update, the OS calls the run time service using a small part of the memory.



A GPT header will help an investigator analyze the layout of the disk including the locations of the partition table, partition area, and backup copies of the header and partition table. Investigators can use cmdlets given below in Windows PowerShell to identify the presence of GPT:

Get-GPT

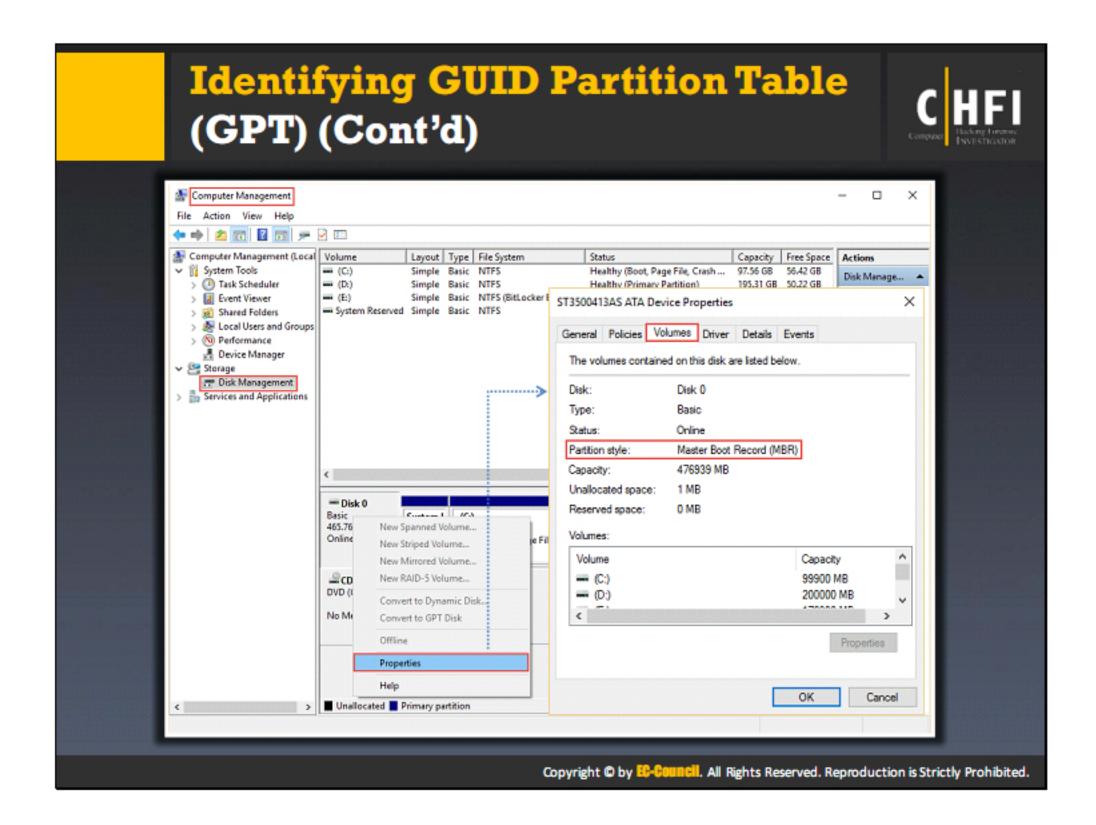
Get-GPT command helps investigator to analyze the GUID Partition Table data structure of the hard disk. It requires the use of the -Path parameter which takes the Win32 Device Namespace (ex. \\.\PHYSICALDRIVE1) for the device from which it should parse the GPT.

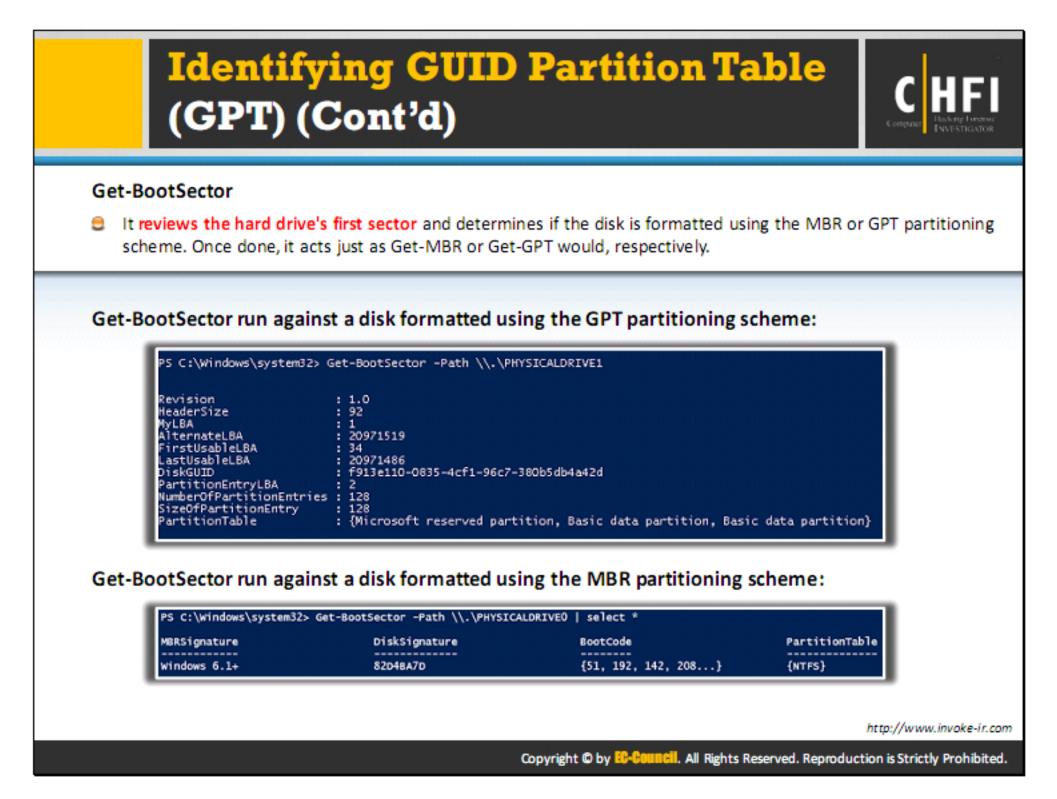
In case, the investigator uses the Get-GPT on a disk formatted with a Master Boot Record, it will display an error message prompting to use Get-MBR instead.

Alternate Method:

- Open "Computer Management" application and click "Disk Management" on the left pane. Right-click on the primary disk (here, Disk 0) and then click Properties
- In the Device Properties window, click "Volumes" tab to see the Partition style

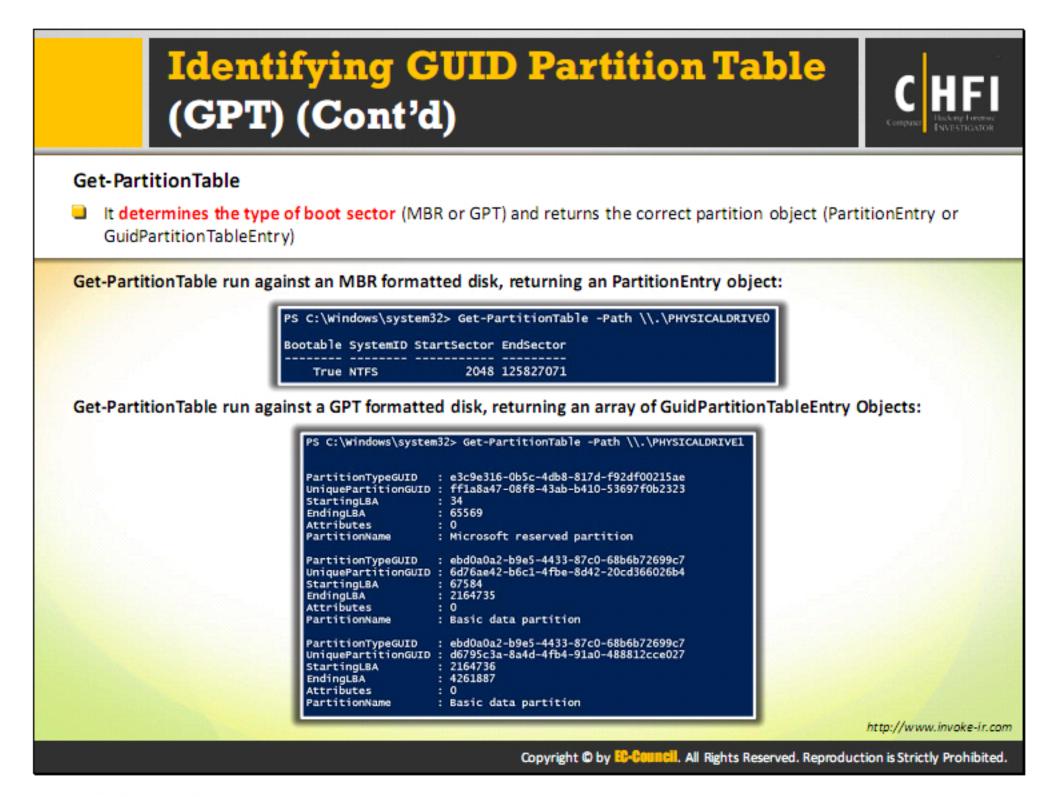
Source: http://www.invoke-ir.com





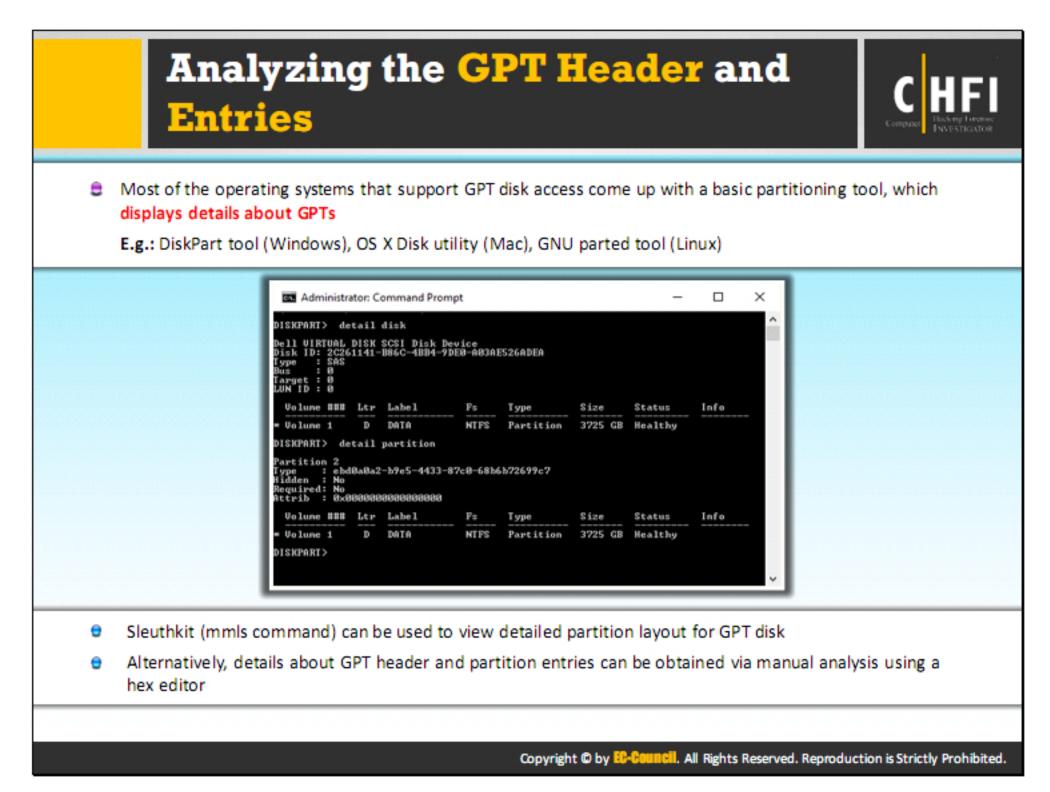
Get-Boot Sector

The Get-BootSector is a command that can help the investigator parse GPTs of both types of hard disks including the ones formatted with either UEFI or MBR. This command acts as replacement for Get-MBR and Get-GPT cmdlets. Get-BootSector analyzes the first sector of hard drive and determines the formatting type used and then parses the hard drive GPT.



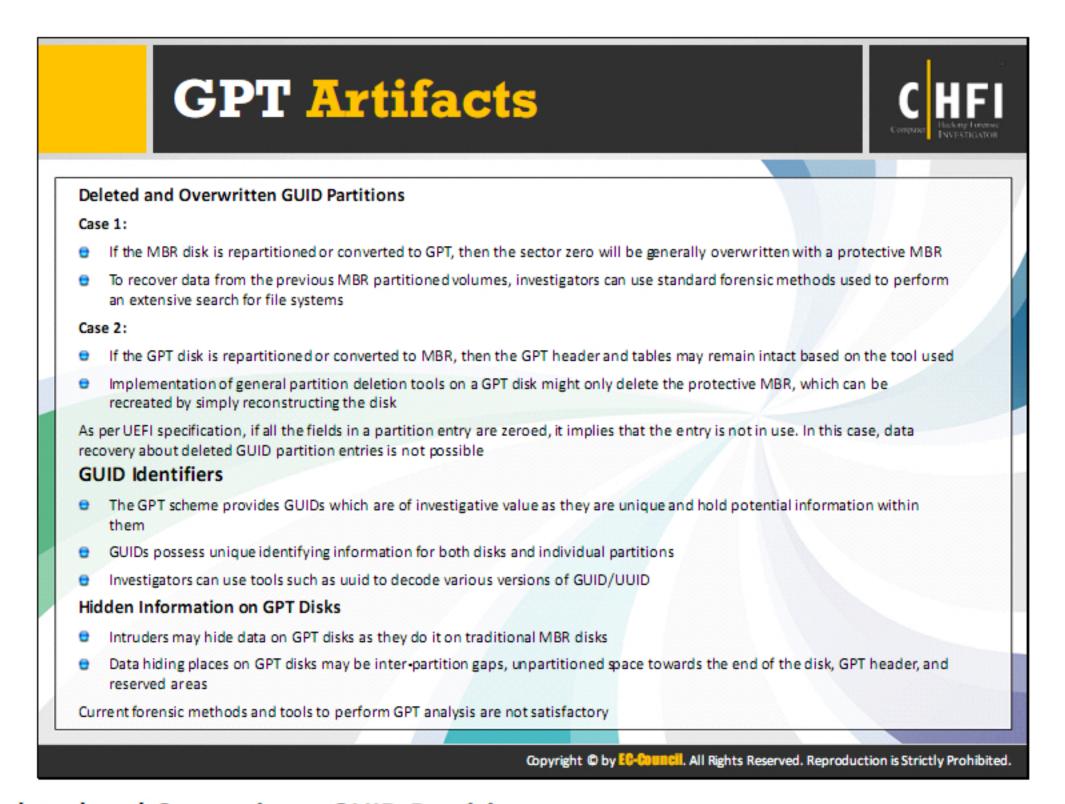
Get-PartitionTable

This command analyzes the GUID partition table to find the exact type of boot sector (Master Boot Record or GUID PartitionTable) and displays the partition object.



Most of the operating systems that support GPT disk access come up with a basic partitioning tool, which displays details about GPT partition tables. In windows tools such as DiskPart tool display the partition details, whereas MAC systems use the OS X Disk utility and Linux uses GNU parted tool.

Sleuthkit mmls command can help the investigators to view detailed partition layout for GPT disk along with the MBR details. Alternatively, investigators can gather details about GPT header and partition entries through manual analysis of disk drive using a hex calculation or editing tool called Hex editor.



Deleted and Overwritten GUID Partitions

Case 1: In hard disks, the conversion or repartition of the MBR disk to GPT will generally overwrite the sector zero with a protective MBR, which will delete all the information about the old partition table. The investigators should follow the standard forensics methods of searching the filesystems to recover data about the previous MBR partitioned volumes.

Case 2: When conversion or repartition of the GPT to MBR disk takes place, then the GPT header and tables may remain intact based on the tool used. Investigators can easily recover or analyze data of such disk partitions.

Implementation of general partition deletion tools for deletion of partition on the GPT disk might will delete the protective MBR only, which investigators can easily recreate by simply reconstructing the disk.

As per UEFI specification, if all the fields in a partition entry have zeroed values, it implies that the entry is not in use. In this case, data recovery about deleted GUID partition entries is not possible.

GUID Identifiers

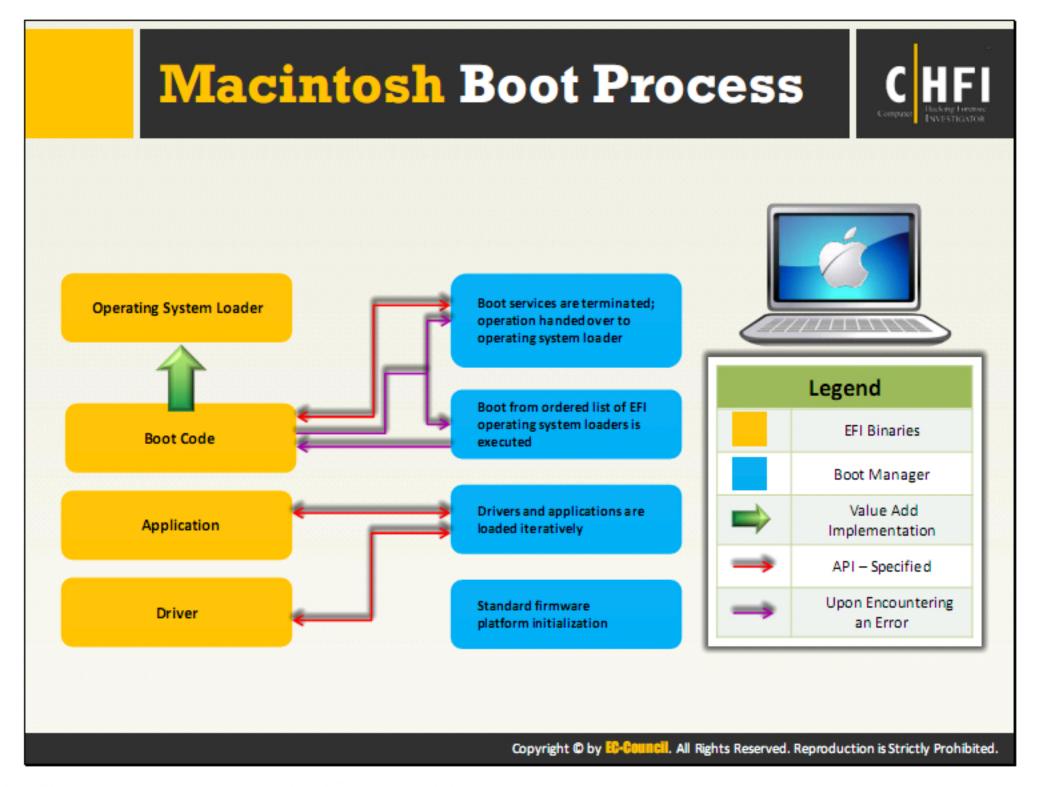
- GPT scheme provides GUIDs which are of investigative value as they are unique and hold potential information about entire disk and each partition within them
- GUIDs possess unique identifying information for both disks and individual partitions

Investigators can use tools such as UUID to decode various versions of GUID/UUID

Hidden Information on GPT Disks

Intruders may hide data on GPT disks as they do it on traditional MBR disks using a flexible and extensible disk partitioning schemes. Data hiding places on GPT disks may be inter-partition gaps, un-partitioned space towards the end of the disk, GPT header, and reserved areas. The other artifacts may include manipulated GPT headers that create place for hiding data, misplaced starting, and ending LBAs, as well as areas with reserved tag.

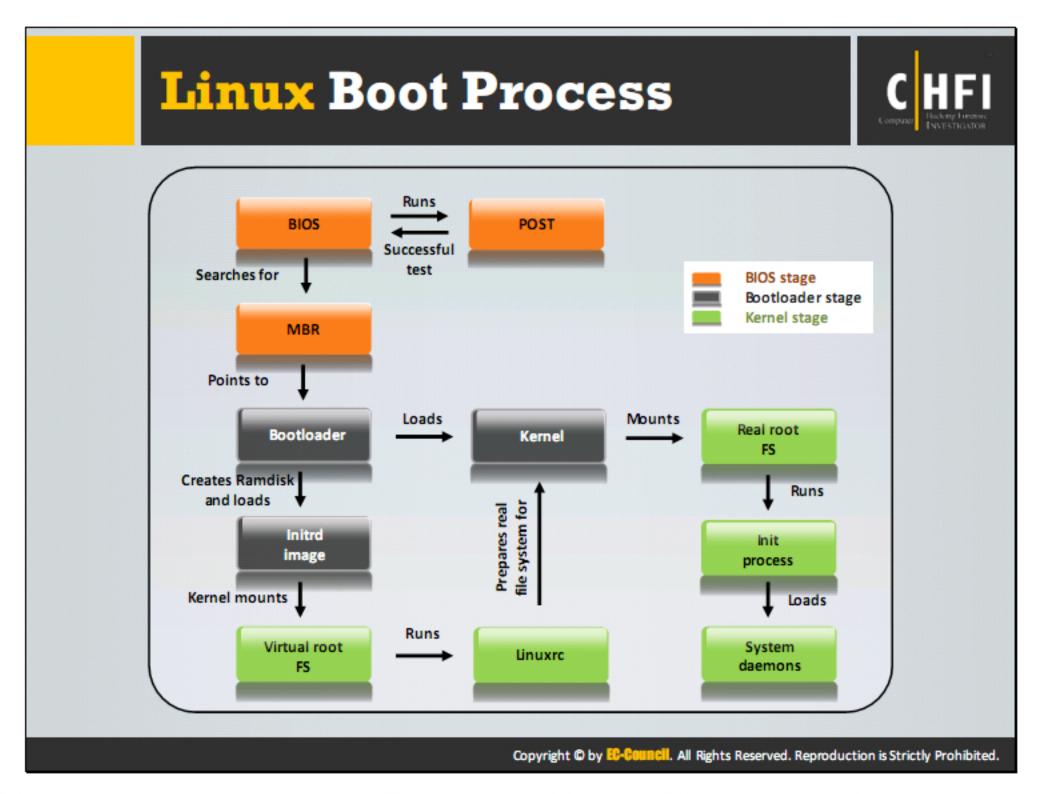
Current forensic methods and tools to perform GPT analysis are not satisfactory.



Following are the steps for the Macintosh boot process:

- The Macintosh boot process starts with the activation of BootROM, which initializes system hardware and selects an operating system to run
- Once you power on the Macintosh, BootROM performs POST (Power-On Self-Test) to test some hardware interfaces required for startup
- On PowerPC-based Macintosh computers, Open Firmware initializes the rest of the hardware interfaces
- On Intel-based Macintosh computers, EFI initializes the rest of the hardware interfaces
- After initializing the hardware interfaces, the system selects the operating system
- If the system contains multiple operating systems, then it allows the user to choose the particular operating system by holding down the Option key
- Once the BootROM operation is finished, the control passes to the BootX (PowerPC) or boot.efi (Intel) boot loader, which is located in the /System/Library/CoreServices directory
- The boot loader loads a pre-linked version of the kernel, which is located at /System/Library/Caches/com.apple.kernelcaches
- If the pre-linked kernel is missing, the boot loader attempts to load the mkext cache file, which contains a set of device drivers.

- If the mkext cache file is also missing, the boot loader searches for drivers in the /System/Library/Extensions directory
- Once the essential drivers are loaded, the boot loader starts initialization of the kernel,
 Mach and BSD data structures, as well as the I/O kit
- The I/O kit uses the device tree to link the loaded drivers to the kernel
- The launchd, which has replaced the mach_init process, runs startup items and prepares the system for the user



In Linux boot process, the process flow starts with the BIOS, which searches for active and bootable devices. The system boots Linux from hard disk, in which the MBR contains the primary boot loader.

The Linux Boot Process consists of three stages. They are as follows:

- The BIOS Stage
- The Bootloader Stage
- Kernel Stage

The BIOS Stage

The first stage of the Linux boot process is the BIOS stage. It initializes the system hardware during the booting process. The BIOS retrieves the information, stored in the CMOS chip (Complementary Metal-Oxide Semiconductor) which is a battery operated memory chip on the motherboard that contains information about the system's hardware configuration.

During the boot process, the BIOS performs a Power-On Self-Test (POST) to make sure that all the hardware components of the system are working. Once BIOS confirms that everything is fine, it starts searching for the drive or disk which contains the operating system in a standard sequence. If the first listed device is not available or not working, then it checks for the next one and so on. A drive can be bootable only if it has the Master Boot Record in its first sector known as the boot sector. The system's hard disk acts as the primary boot disk and the optical drive

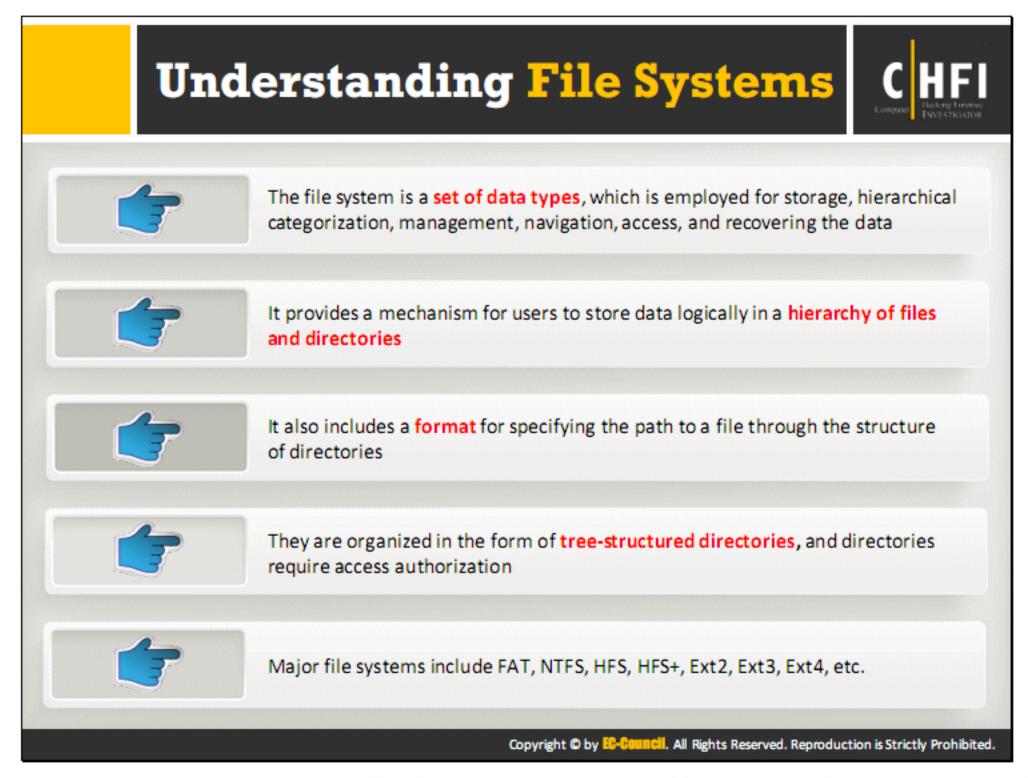
works as the secondary boot disk for booting the operating system from the removable disk if in case the main hard disk fails.

The Bootloader Stage

The bootloader stage includes the task of loading the Linux kernel and optional initial RAM disk. The kernel will help enabling the CPU to access RAM and the disk. The second pre-cursor software is an image of a temporary virtual file system called the initrd image or initial RAMdisk. Now, the system prepares to deploy the actual root file system. It then detects the device that contains the file system and loads the necessary modules. The last step of the bootloader stage is to load the kernel into the memory.

Kernel Stage

Once the control shifts from the bootloader stage to the Kernel stage, the virtual root file system created by the initrd image executes the Linuxrc program. This program generates the real file system for the kernel and later removes the initrd image. The kernel then searches for new hardware and loads any suitable device drivers found. It then mounts the actual root file system and then performs the init process. The init reads the file "/etc/inittab" and uses this file to load the rest of the system daemons. This prepares the system and the user can log in and start using it. The typical bootloaders for Linux are LILO (Linux Loader) and GRUB (Grand Unified Bootloader). These bootloaders allow the user to select which OS kernel to load during boot time.

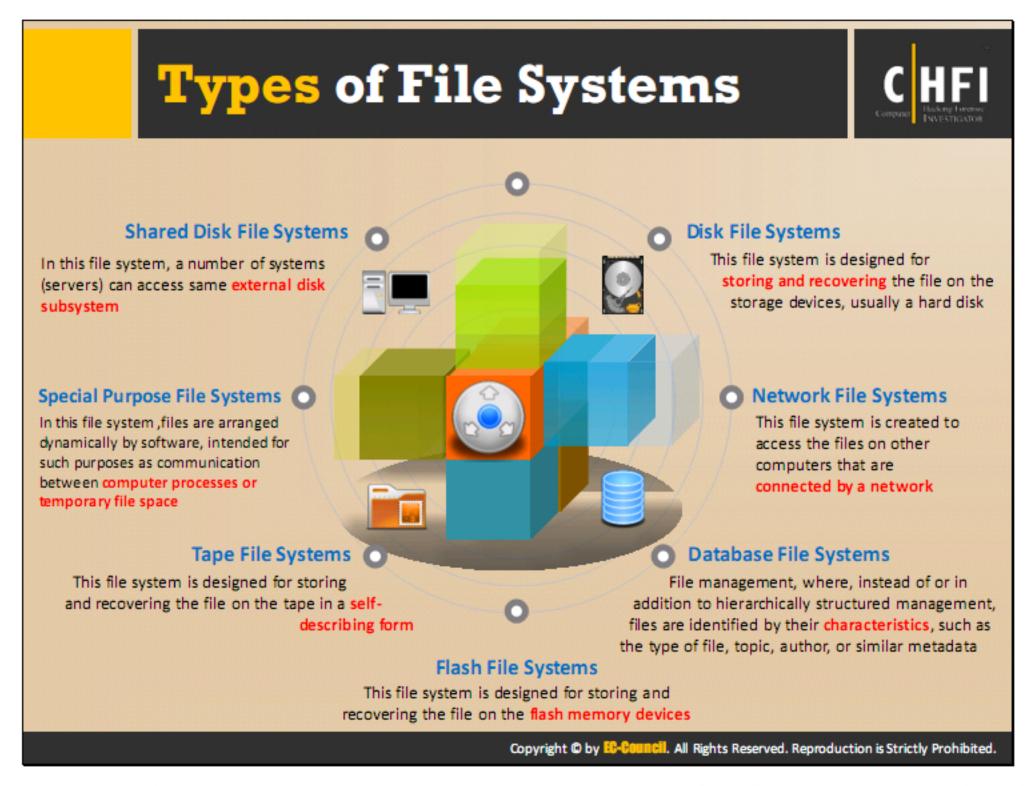


The computer not only computes data but also stores data. The issue of file structure and data storage is of prime concern. To solve this issue, manufacturers employ an effective storing and organization of the data on the computer called as a file system. The file system makes it easy to find and access the data. Data storage devices like hard disks or CD-ROMs can use the file system to store the data. The file system divides the file into smaller pieces and then stores them to hard disks or flash memory in clusters.

A file system is a set of data types employed for:

- Storage
- Hierarchical categorization
- Management
- Navigation
- Access
- Recovering the data

Major file systems include FAT, NTFS, HFS, Ext2, Ext3, etc. Users can access the files using the graphical user interfaces or command line user interfaces. File systems organize the data in the form of tree-structured directories. These are generally file cabinets and folders. Directories require authorized permission to access.



A file system refers to the structure a computer uses to organize data on media such as hard disks, CDs, DVDs, and many other storage devices or an index or database that contains the physical location of every piece of data on a hard drive or storage devices.

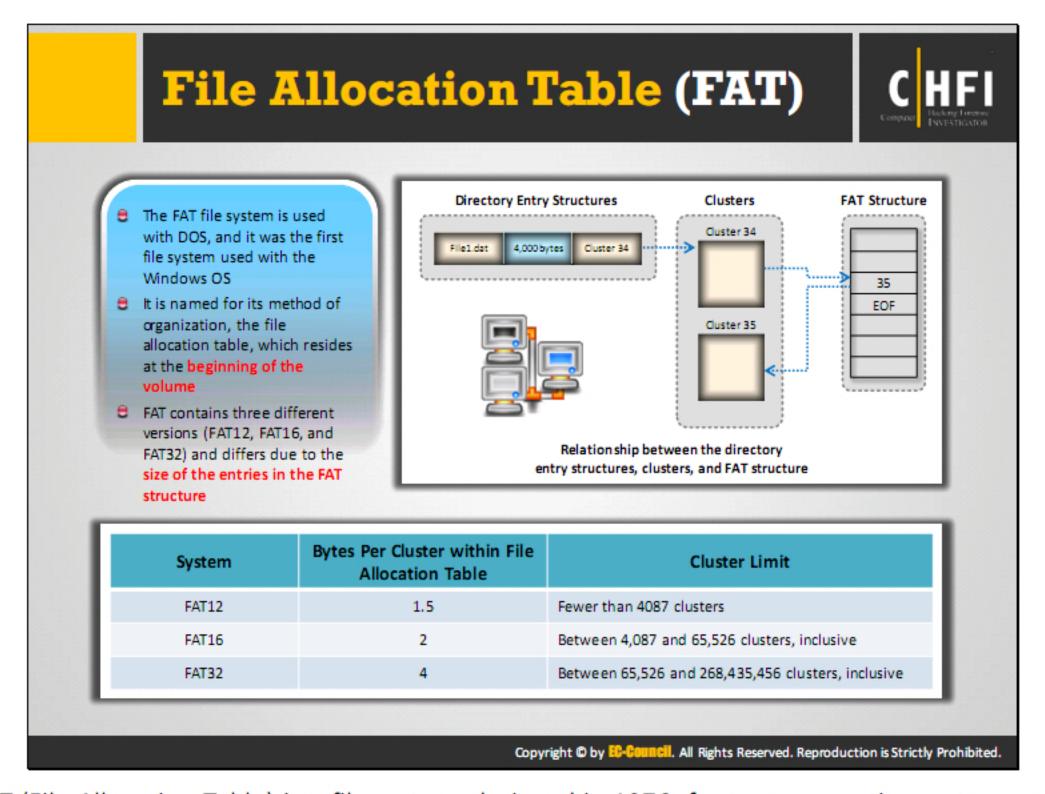
Following are the different types of file systems:

- Disk file systems: A disk file system is a technique designed for storing and recovering the file on a storage device, usually a hard disk, directly or indirectly connected to the computer. A few examples of the disk file system are FAT, NTFS, ext2, ISO 9660, ODS-5, and UDF.
- Network file systems: A network file system is a type of file system, which helps the users to access the files on other computers connected through a network. The file systems are transparent to the user. A few examples of network file systems are NFS, CIFS, and GFS.
- Database file systems: It is a new method of storing data on the computer and effectively managing the file system. Earlier file systems used hierarchical structured management, but the database file system identifies the files by their characteristics, such as the name of the file, type of the file, topic, author, or similar metadata. Therefore, a user can search for a file by formulating the SQL query or in natural speech. For example, if the user needs to find the documents written, then the query "documents written by ABC" will show the results.

- Flash file systems: This system stores the files or data in flash memory devices. In today's world, these file systems are becoming prevalent with the increasing number of mobile devices. With these file systems, the cost per memory size decreases, and the capacity of flash memory will increase.
- Tape file systems: It stores files on tape in a self-describing form. Magnetic tapes work as sequential storage media with significantly longer random data access time as compared to disks, posing challenges to the creation of a general-purpose file system with efficient management. Tape drives require a linear motion to unwind and wind potentially very long reels of media. This might take several seconds or minutes to move the read/write head.
- Shared disk file systems: A shared disk file system works on the principle of accessing an external disk subsystem (SAN) through a number of servers. The file system arbitrates access to that subsystem, to prevent write collisions.
- Special-purpose file systems: In a special-purpose file system, the software organizes files during the run time and uses them for tasks such as communication between computer processes or temporary file space. File-centric operating systems such as UNIX use this file system. Any file system that is not a disk file system or network file system is a special-purpose file system. For example, '/proc' in UNIX, can help to get information regarding processes and other operating system features.



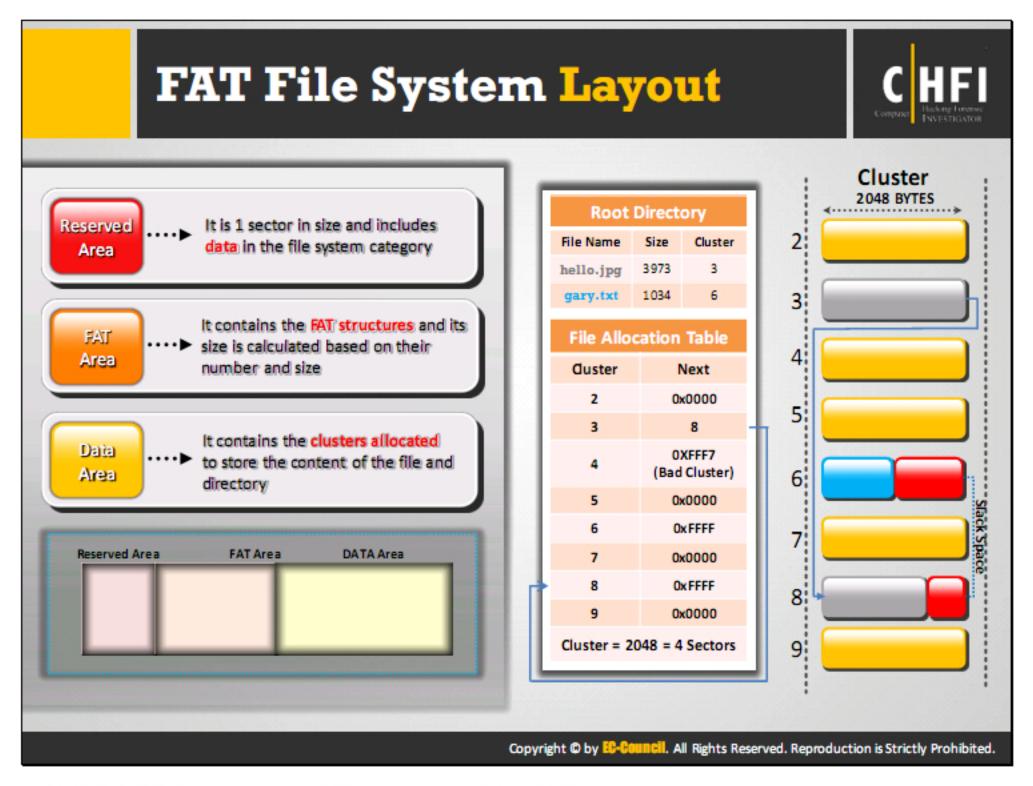
File systems are the basic storage units of any device and Windows operating systems power most of the computing devices across the globe. Therefore, the investigators are liable to come across various systems running on Windows while investigating a security incident and need to have fair knowledge on how the OS stores the files. This section will demonstrate the methods, Windows OS employs, to store the files in order to help the investigators extract and analyze them.



FAT (File Allocation Table) is a file system, designed in 1976, for many operating systems such as DOS, Windows, OpenDOS, etc. Designed for small hard disks and a simple folder structure, the FAT file system got its name from the way it organizes folders and the file allocation table. The file allocation table stores all the files and resides at the beginning of the volume.

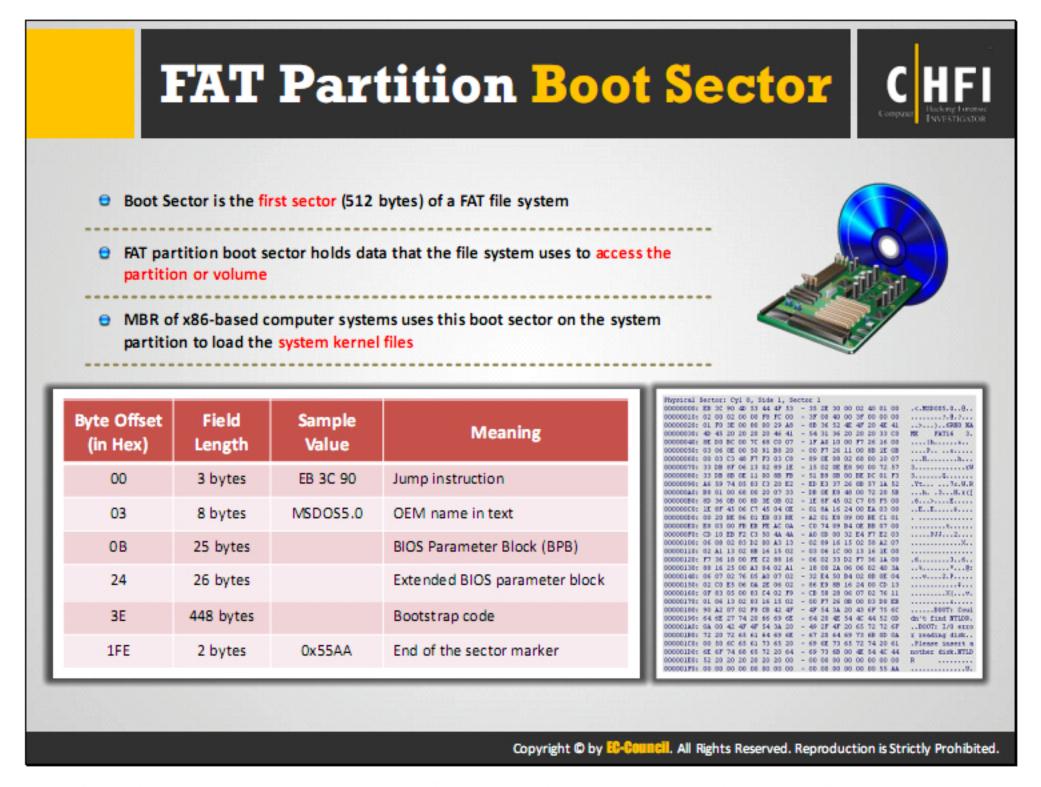
It creates two copies of the file allocation table to protect the volume from damage. The FAT file system stores the file allocation table and root folder in a permanent location. The volume formatted using the FAT file system form a cluster and size of the formatted volume determines the cluster size. The system fits the cluster number for the FAT file system in 16 bits and is in the power of two.

Few devices that implement FAT include flash memory, digital cameras, and other portable devices. Nearly almost all the operating systems installed on the personal computers implement FAT file system.



The typical FAT32 file system will comprise of the following components:

- Reserved Area: The first reserved sector is the Volume Boot Record or VBR, which
 comprises the BIOS Parameter Block (BPB) containing basic file system information, such
 as type of file system and pointers to the position of the other sections as well as the
 operating system's boot loader code.
- FAT Area: This area holds two duplicates (may change) of the File Allocation Table to help the system check for the empty or idle spaces. This area contains detailed information about clusters and their contents including files and directories. Extra copies contained in this file system are in perfect sync with writes and read, and will replace when the first or main FAT seems to include mistakes or damages.
- Data Area: This region, which occupies the largest part of a partition, stores the actual file and directory data. The FAT file system fills the unused parts or spaces with a filler estimation of 0xF6 based on the INT 1Eh's Disk Parameter Table (DPT). The FAT supports read-only, hidden, system, and archive attributes.

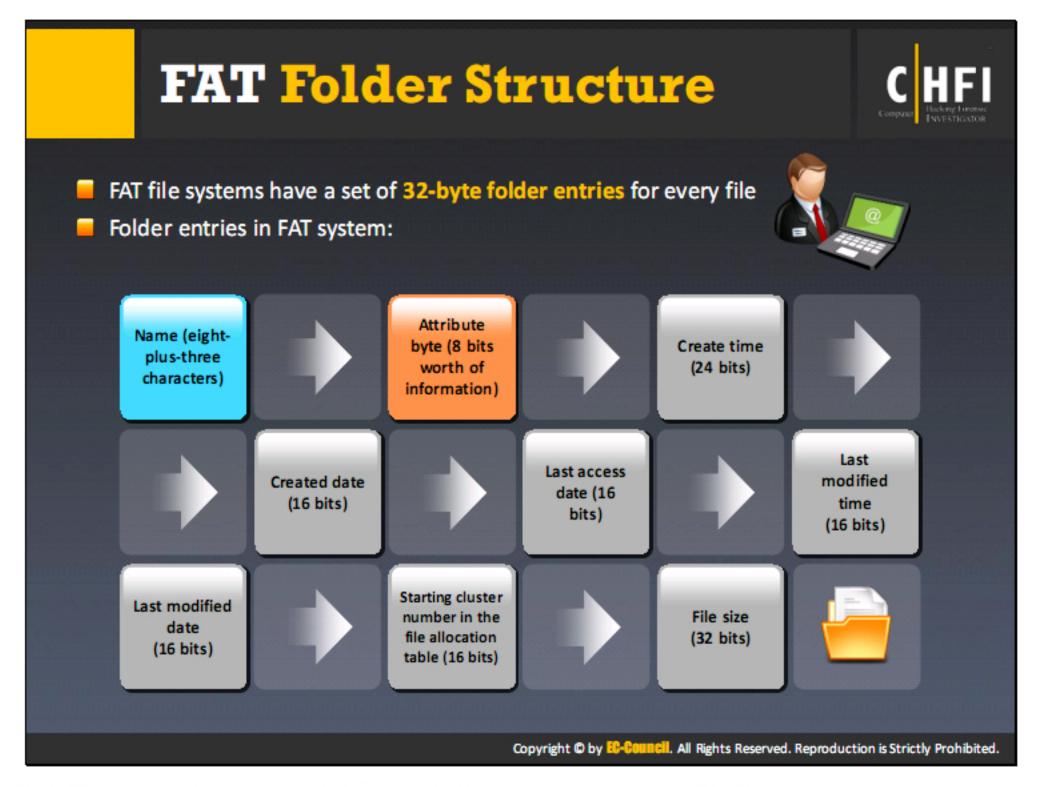


The Partition Boot Sector consists of data that the document framework uses to get to the volume. On x86-based PCs, the Master Boot Record utilizes the Partition Boot Sector on the framework parcel to stack the working framework portion documents.

In the UNIX operating system, this would be called a super block. It contains some general information.

The following is an example of the boot sector:

The 2-byte numbers are stored in a little endian. The following table has the FAT12 version and is similar to FAT16 and FAT32 versions.

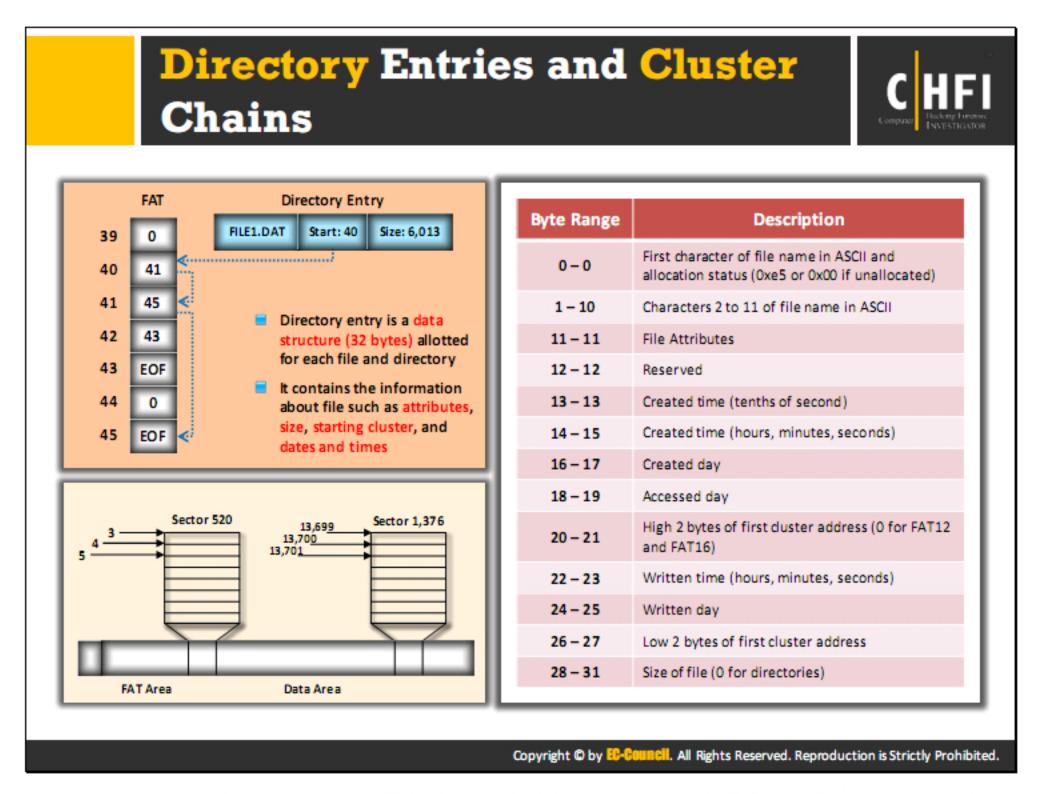


The FAT file system has a set of 32-byte folder entries for every folder.

Folder entries in the FAT system are as follows:

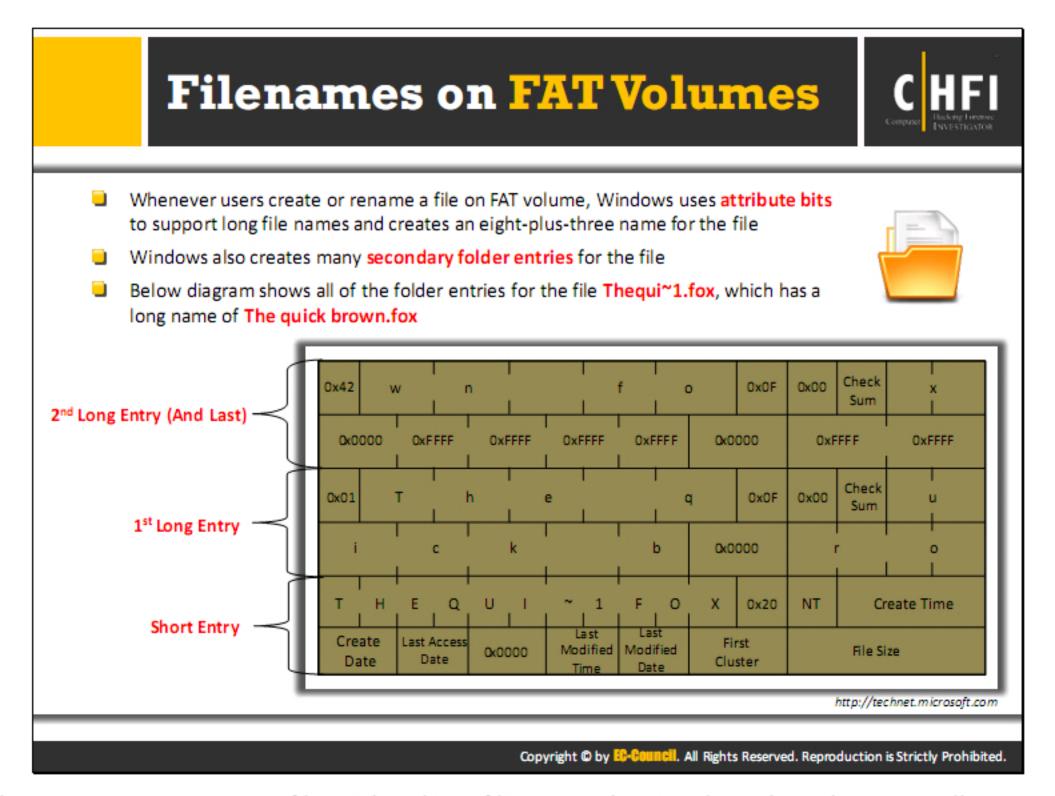
- Name (eight-plus-three characters)
- Attribute byte (8 bits worth of information, described later in this section)
- Create time (24 bits)
- Create date (16 bits)
- Last access date (16 bits)
- Last modified time (16 bits)
- Last modified date (16 bits)
- Starting cluster number in the file allocation table (16 bits)
- File size (32 bits)

All operating systems that support FAT's file system use the information present in the FAT folder.

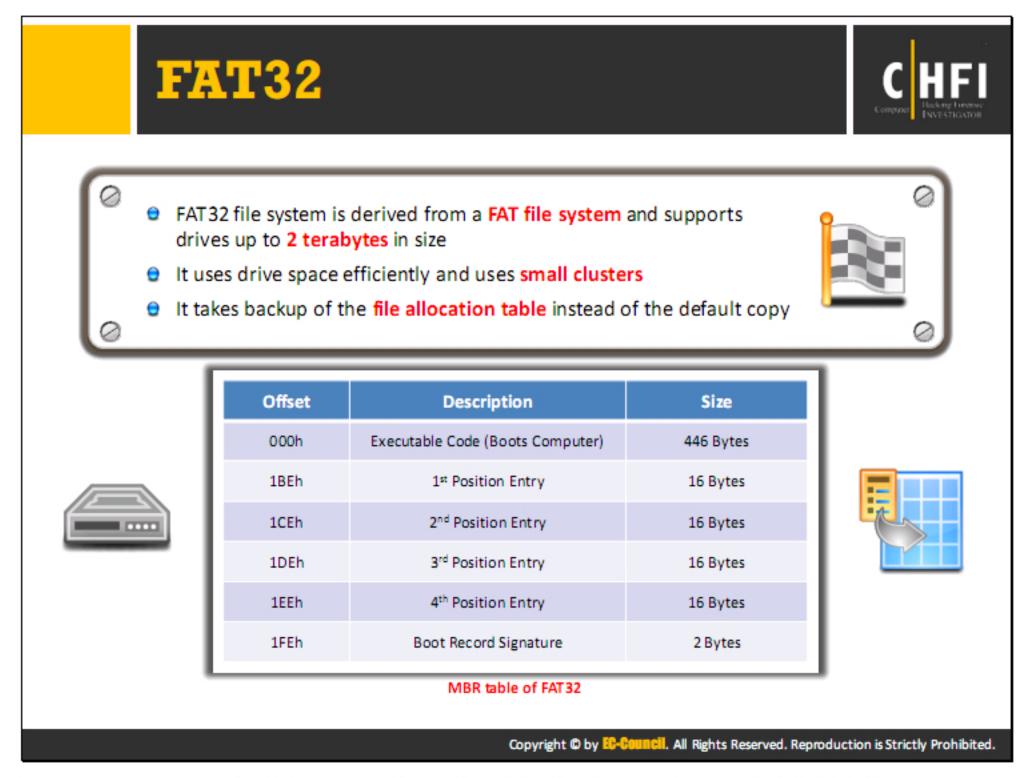


Directory entry is a data structure (32 bytes) allotted for each file and directory. Operating systems use directory entries to store additional metadata such as file passwords, access rights, owner IDs, file deletion data as well as attributes, size, starting cluster, date and time.

A file system divides the volume's data area into identically sized clusters of different sizes depending on the type of FAT file system used and the size of the partition. When users store data, each file may occupy more than one of such clusters depending on its size. Thus, a chain of these clusters represent a file.



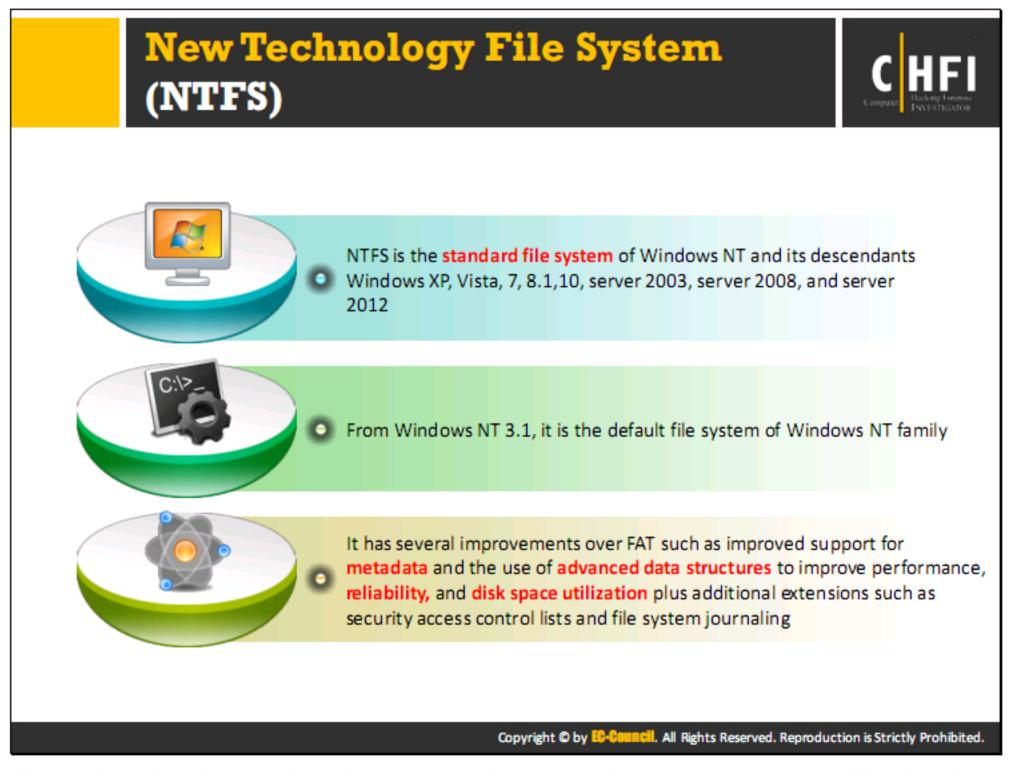
When a user generates a file with a long filename, the Windows based system allocates an eight-plus-three name for the file and creates one or more secondary folder entries. These folder entries store a corresponding part of the long filename in Unicode. Windows assembles attribute bits such as the volume, read-only, system, and hidden file of the entry to represent parts of the filename.



FAT32 is a version of the file allocation table (FAT) that replaces the FAT16 file system and is available in Windows 95 OSR 2 and Windows 98. FAT32 uses smaller clusters with more address bits to support larger disks as well as offer better storage. It always creates a backup of the file allocation table instead of the default copy.

FAT32 Features

- Utilizes space more effectively, about 10 to 15 percent, due to usage of smaller clusters
- Highly robust as it can change the destination of the root folder and utilize the backup copy of the file allocation table
- Consists of extended boot record to incorporate a backup copy of basic information structures
- Have lesser failure rate compared to the FAT16 drives
- More adaptable
- Available anywhere on the drive as the root organizer on a FAT32 drive is a standard cluster chain
- Does not have restrictions on the quantity of root folder entries
- Allows users to disable repetitions of the file allocation table



New Technology File System (NTFS) is one of the latest file systems supported by Windows. It is a high-performance file system, which repairs itself; it supports several advanced features such as file-level security, compression, and auditing. It also supports large and powerful volume storage solutions such as self-recovering disks.

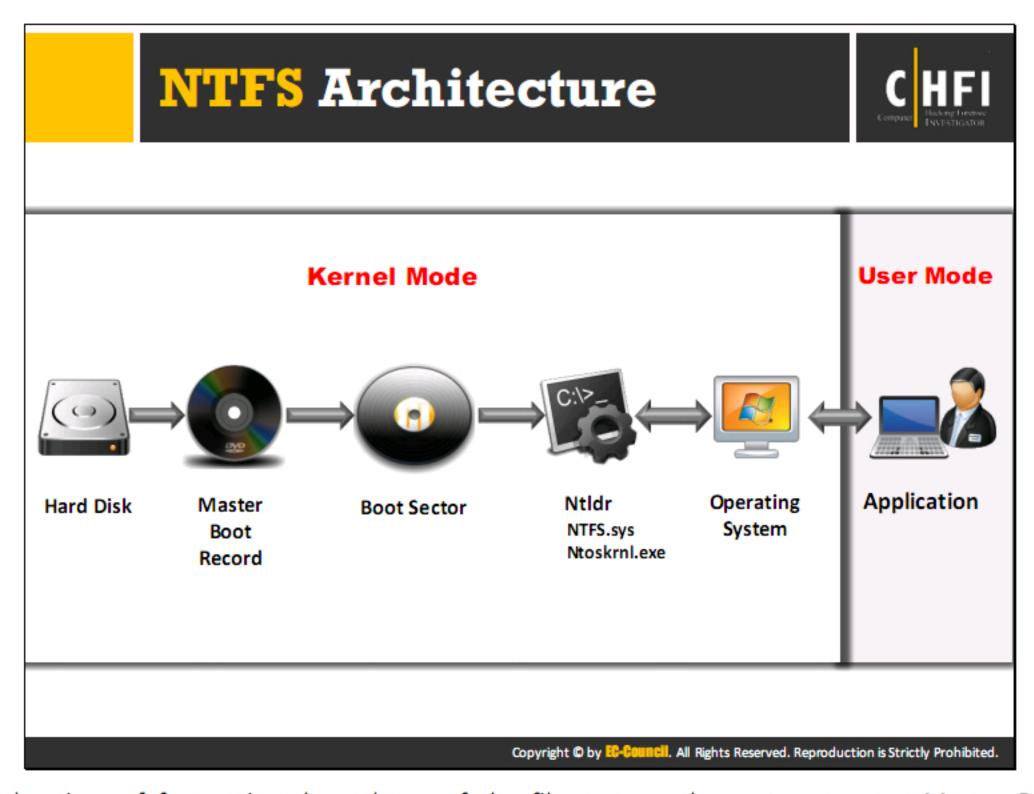
NTFS provides data security as it has the capability to encrypt or decrypt data, files, or folders. NTFS uses a 16-bit Unicode method to character set naming of files and folders. This attribute of NTFS allows users around the world to manage their files in their native languages. It has fault tolerance for the file system. If the user makes any modifications or changes to the files, NTFS makes a note of all changes in specific log files. If the system crashes, NTFS uses these log files to restore the hard disk to a reliable condition with minimal data loss. NTFS also provides the concept of metadata and master file tables. Metadata contains the information about the data stored in the computer. A master file table also contains the same information in a tabular form, but its capacity to store data in its table is comparatively less.

NTFS uses the Unicode data format. NTFS has many versions and they are as follows:

- v1.0 (found in Windows NT 3.1), v1.1 (Windows NT 3.5), and v1.2 (Windows NT 3.51 and Windows NT 4)
- v3.0, found in Windows 2000
- v3.1, found in Windows XP, Windows Server 2003, Windows Vista, and Windows 7
- These final three versions are sometimes referred to as v4.0, v5.0, and v5.1

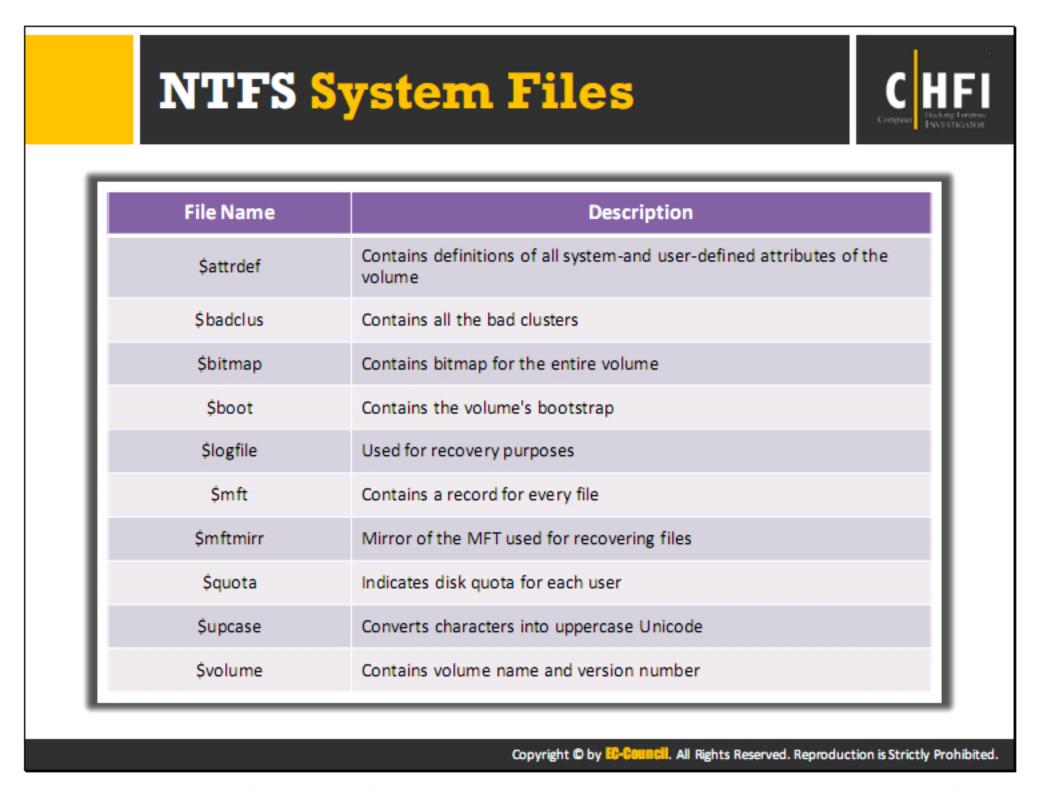
Features of NTFS include

- Uses b-tree directory scheme to store information about file clusters
- Stores the information about a file's clusters and other data within the cluster
- Supports files up to 16 billion bytes in size approximately
- An access control list (ACL) allows the server administrator to access specific files
- Integrated file compression
- Data security on both removable and fixed disks

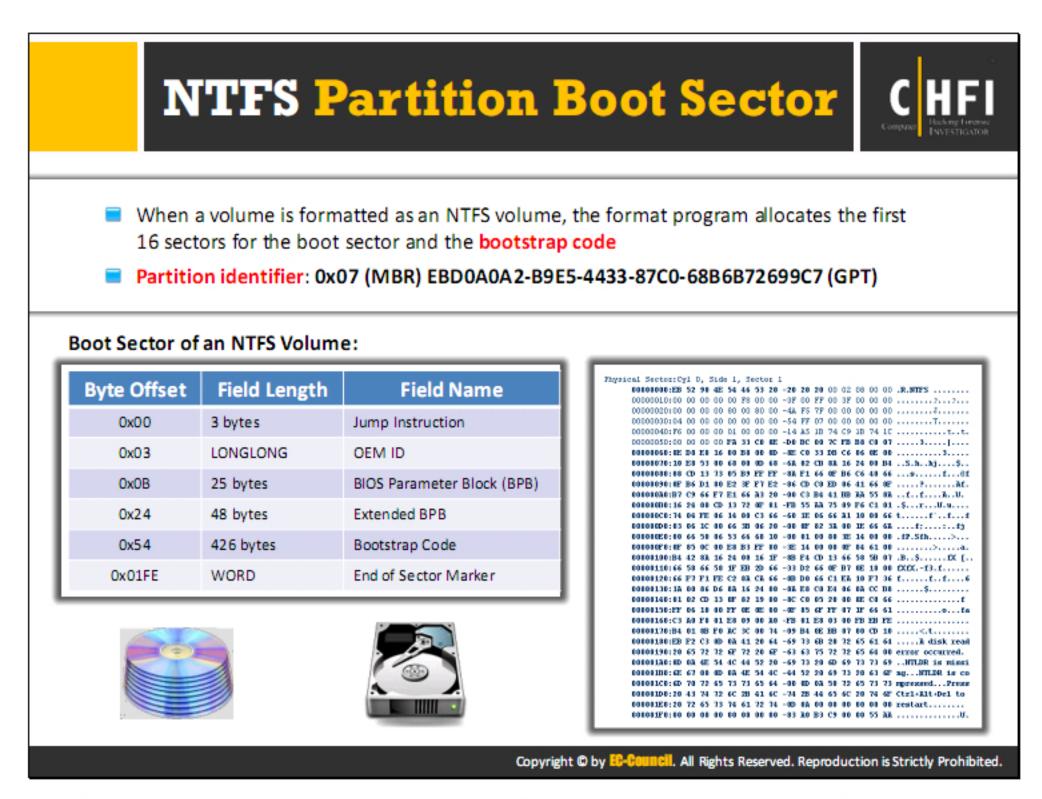


At the time of formatting the volume of the file system, the system creates Master Boot Record. It contains some executable code called a master boot code and information about the partition table for the hard disk. When a new volume is mounted, the Master Boot Record runs the executable master boot code. It also transfers control to the boot sector on the hard disk, which allows the server to boot the operating system on the file system of that particular volume. Components of the NTFS architecture are as follows:

- Hard disk: It contains one or more partitions
- Master Boot Record: It contains executable master boot code that the computer system BIOS loads into memory; this code is used to scan the Master Boot Record to locate the partition table to find out which partition is active/bootable
- Boot sector: It is a bootable partition that stores data related to the layout of the volume and the file system structures
- Ntldlr.dll: It reads the contents of the Boot.ini file
- Ntfs.sys: It is a computer system file driver for NTFS
- Kernel mode: It is the processing mode that permits the executable code to have direct access to all the system components
- User mode: It is the processing mode in which an executable program or code runs



NTFS has many system files stored in root directory of the NTFS volume that store file system metadata.



In an NTFS volume, system allocates the first 16 sectors to the boot metadata file and the next 15 sectors to the boot sector's initial program loader (IPL). The first sector, which is a boot sector, contains the bootstrap including the file system type, size, and location of NTFS data. The last sector contains an extra copy of the boot sector in order to increase file system reliability.

The following instance demonstrates the boot sector of the NTFS volume, formatted on Windows 2000. The layout has three parts, and they are as follows:

- Bytes 0x00-0x0A constitute the jump instruction and the OEM ID
- Bytes 0x0B-0x53 are the BIOS parameter block (BPB) and the extended BPB
- The remaining code is the bootstrap code and the end of the sector marker

Cluster Sizes of NTFS Volume



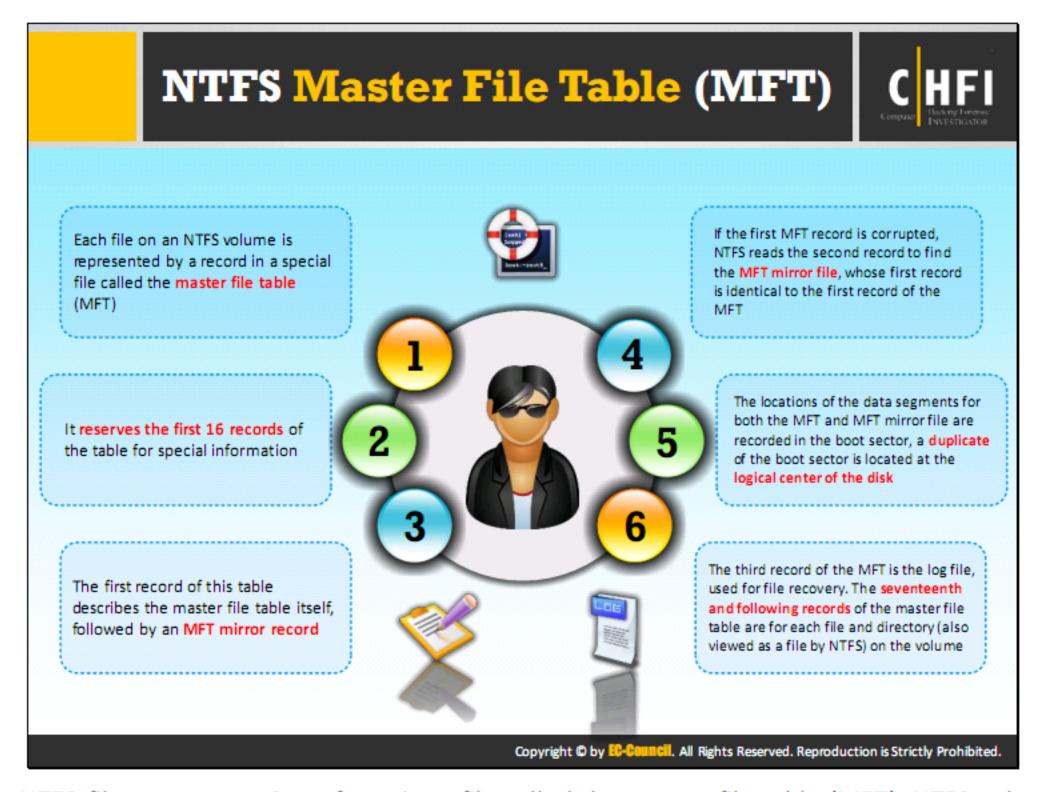
- A cluster is the smallest allocation unit on the hard disk that is used to hold a file.
- ONTFS uses clusters of different sizes to hold the files, depending on the size of the NTFS volume
- List of the default cluster sizes for NTFS volume:

Volume Size	Sectors Per Cluster	Default Cluster Size
512 MB or less	1	512 bytes
513 MB - 1024 MB (1 GB)	2	1024 bytes (1 GB)
1024 - 2048 MB (2 GB)	4	2048 bytes (2 GB)
Greater than 2049 MB	8	4 KB



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A cluster is the smallest allocation unit on the hard disk used to hold a file. NTFS uses clusters of different sizes to hold files depending on the size of the NTFS volume. The NTFS file system has a maximum number of clusters it can support. If the size of the cluster is small, the hard disk can efficiently store information because the other files cannot use the empty space within a cluster. The NTFS file system is an efficient file organization structure because it uses clusters of smaller sizes.

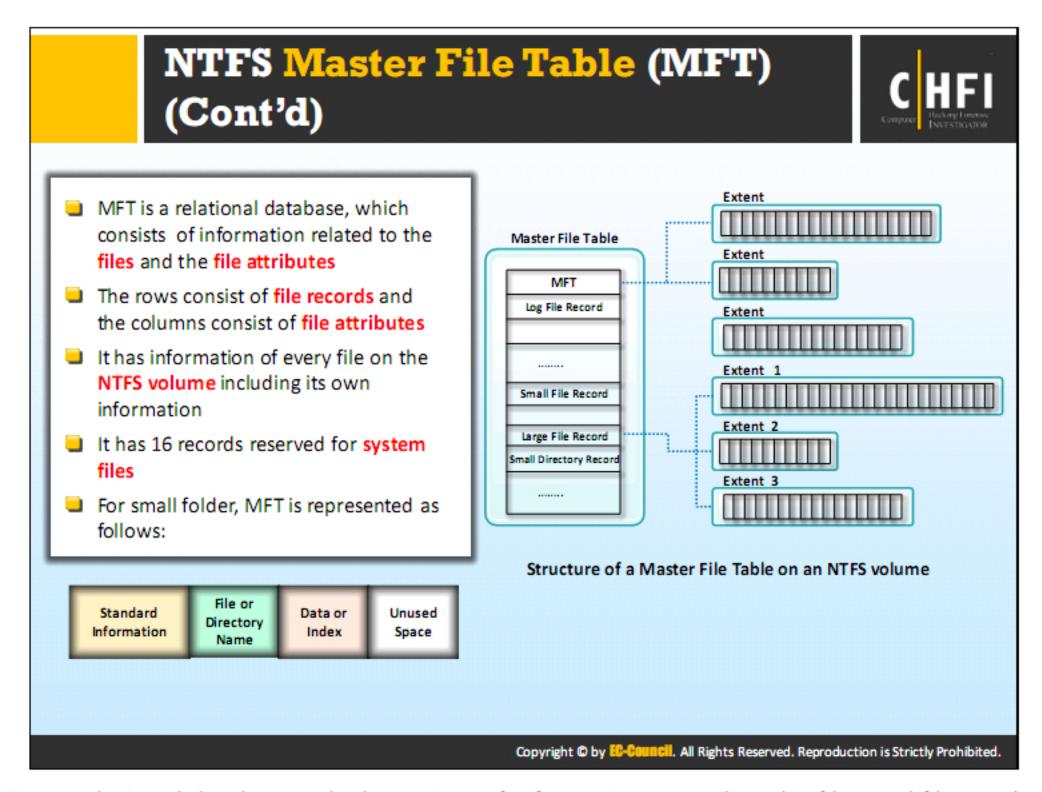


The NTFS file system consists of a unique file called the master file table (MFT). NTFS volumes have at least one entry that is stored in MFT.

MFT entries or memory spaces MFT entries describe outside themselves store information regarding the file attributes such as size, time and date stamps, permissions, and data contents. With the increase in the number of files added to the NTFS volume and the entries added to the MFT, the size of the MFT increases. When the user deletes a file from the NTFS, the file system marks the values in MFT as free and makes that place reusable.

The utilities that defrag NTFS volumes on Windows 2000-based systems cannot move MFT entries, and as unnecessary fragmentation of the MFT breaks down the performance of the file system, the NTFS saves space for the MFT to maintain it as close as possible as it expands. NTFS reserves some space for the MFT in each volume, called as the MFT zone. The allocation of space follows certain simple rules, like allocation of the volume space exterior to the MFT zone in the first place, as well as allocation of the memory to the files and directories.

NTS considers average file size and other variables while allocating memory to the reserved MFT zone or the unreserved memory on the disk as the disk fills to its capacity. Volumes having less number of relatively large files will allocate the unreserved space first, whereas, volumes with a large number of relatively small files allocate the MFT zone first.



MFT is a relational database, which consists of information regarding the files and file attributes and also defines an NTFS volume and retrieves the information about every file and directory present on it. It has a "starting point" and a sort of "table of contents" for the NTFS volume. MFT maintains a record for all the new files or directories created on the NTFS where each record's size is almost equivalent to the cluster size of the NTFS volume.

MFT stores the information regarding the files in the form of "attributes." The rows consist of file records and the columns consist of file attributes. It has 16 records reserved for system files. The figure in the above slide illustrates the small folder of MFT.

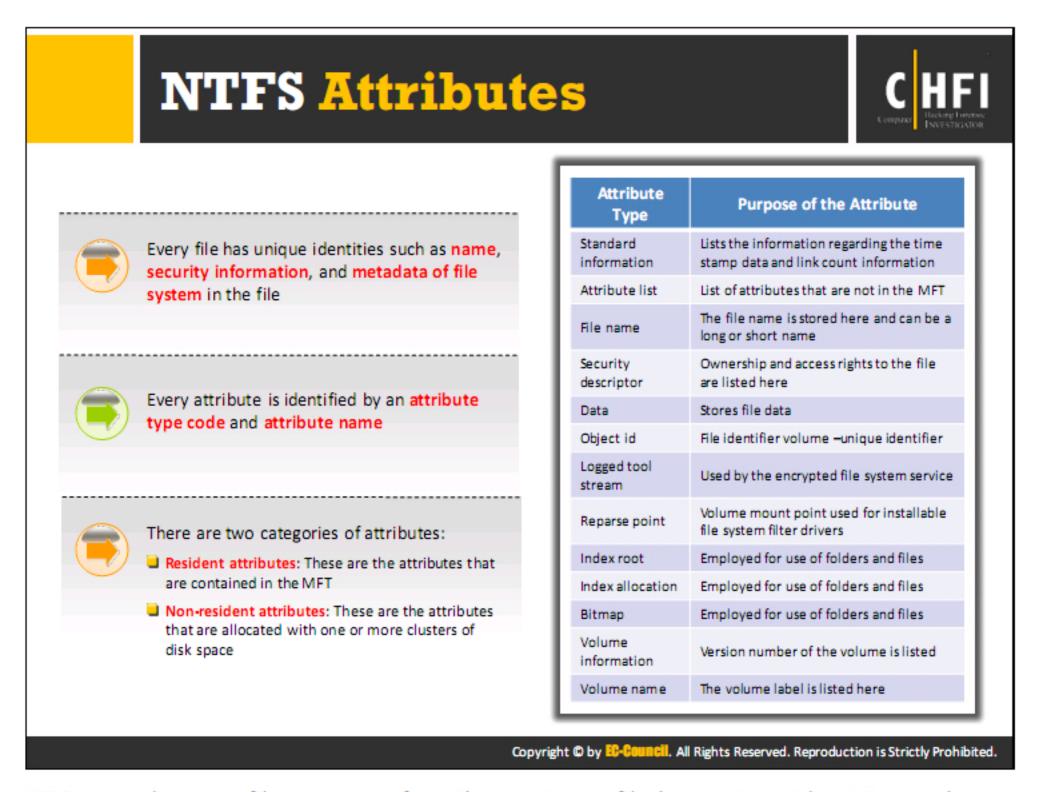
The file attributes stored within its record are resident attributes, and those that lie outside MFT are non-resident attributes. If the data attributes are small in size, then the MFT record can be stored within the record without the need of additional storage space on the NTFS volume. But it is critical that, for larger files, the additional attributes that do not fit in the MFT record moved out of the MFT record as non-resident attributes and store them as external attributes.

Metadata Files Stored in the MFT



System File	File Name	MFT Record	Purpose of the File
Master file table	\$Mft	0	It contains one base file record for each file and folder on an NTFS volume
Master file table mirror	\$MftMirr	1	It guarantees access to the MFT in case of a single-sector failure
Log file	\$LogFile	2	It contains information used by NTFS for faster recoverability
Volume	\$Volume	3	It contains information about the volume
Attribute definitions	\$AttrDef	4	It lists attribute names, numbers, and descriptions
Root file name index		5	The root folder
Cluster bitmap	\$Bitmap	6	It represents the volume by showing free and unused clusters
Boot sector	\$Boot	7	It includes the BPB used to mount the volume
Bad cluster file	\$BadClus	8	It contains bad clusters for a volume
Security file	\$Secure	9	It contains unique security descriptors for all files within a volume
Upcase table	\$Upcase	10	It converts lowercase characters to matching Unicode uppercase characters
NTFS extension file	\$Extend	11	It is used for various optional extensions

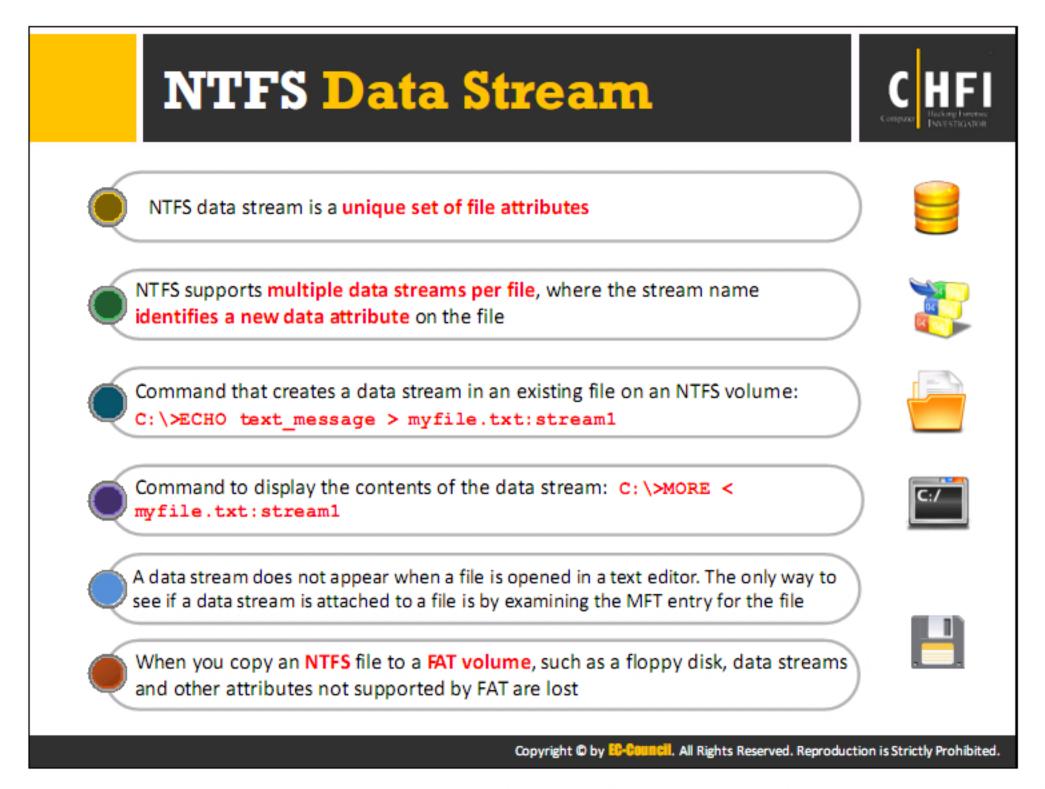
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The NTFS regards every file as a set of attributes. Every file has unique identities such as name, security information, and metadata of file system in the file. An attribute is an entity that has a name, property, and functions. The file system identifies every attribute with the help of an attribute type code and attribute name that assist in defining the file. The system stores every file and directory in two different ways. They are as follows:

- Resident Attributes: Resident attributes refer to the information, stored in the small amount of storage space directly in the MFT record. The MFT file stores common file attributes as resident attributes. For proper operation, the NTFS requires the attributes, saved in the MFT.
- Non-Resident Attributes: If there is no sufficient space for the attributes or if the attributes require more space than what exists in the MFT record, then the system stores such attributes in a different location and places a reference in the MFT to refer to the location of the file. These attributes stored out of MFT are non-resident attributes.
 - STANDARD_INFORMATION: This attribute provides general information about the file, such as CreationTime, LastChangeTime, LastModificationTime, LastAccessTime, etc.
 - ATTRIBUTE_LIST: The attribute list maintains a list of all the file attribute types. This
 attribute is present only if at least one of the attribute types is non-resident.

- \$FILE_NAME: The file name is stored in this attribute. It also consists of fields for CreationTime, LastChangeTime, LastModificationTime and LastAccessTime.
- OBJECT_ID: This attribute holds an ID that the Distributed Link Tracking Service uses.
- SECURITY_DESCRIPTOR: This attribute has the security information of the file. In the latest NTFS versions, all security information is stored in one file called \$SECURE.
 With this attribute, the files that have same security level need not store that information in every single file.
- INDEX_ROOT: A directory consists of an index, which provides information about the files related to that directory. If the index has only few entries, they are stored in the \$INDEX_ROOT attribute. If there are many entries, they are stored in the \$INDEX_ALLOCATION attribute. The entries in the index form a b-tree.



A data stream refers to a sequence of bytes. Data addition or modification is possible to the existing files during the investigation of the disk. The data stream can be meaningless or valuable data useful for evidence either intentionally or by coincidence. It is an additional attribute of files in NTFS.

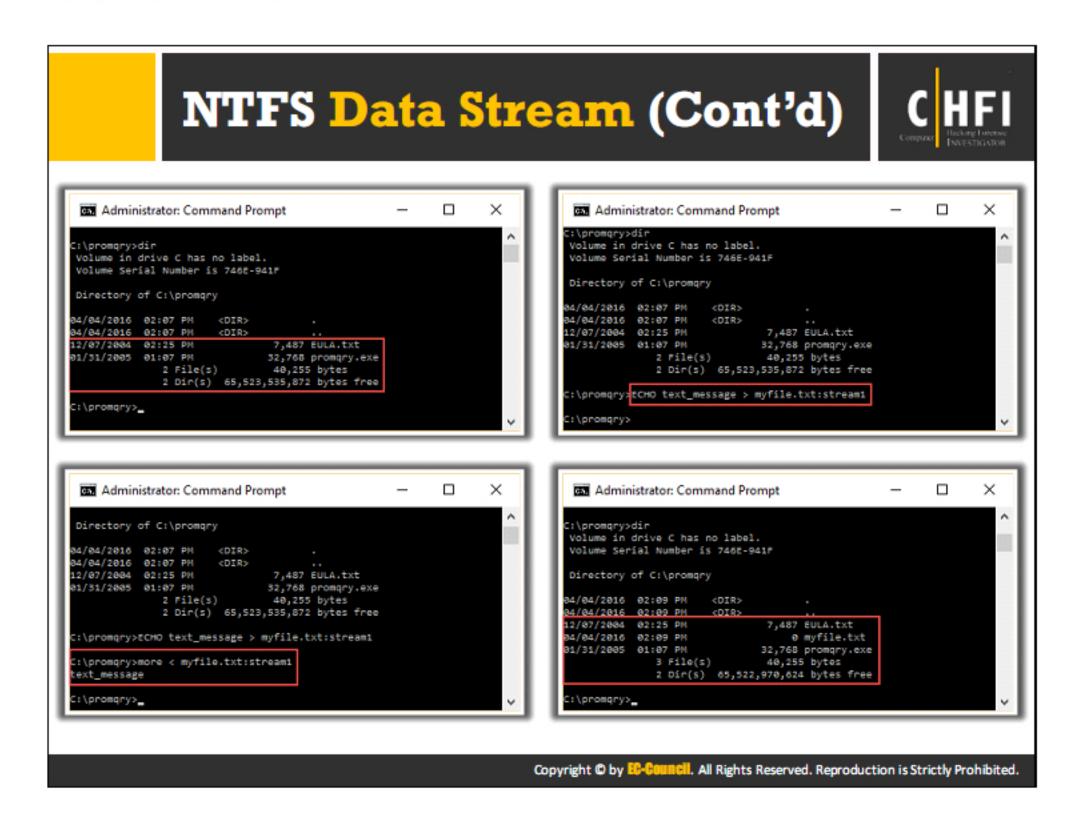
It is mandatory to use a colon (:) between the file extension and the data stream because it is the same as the data stream in the MFT.

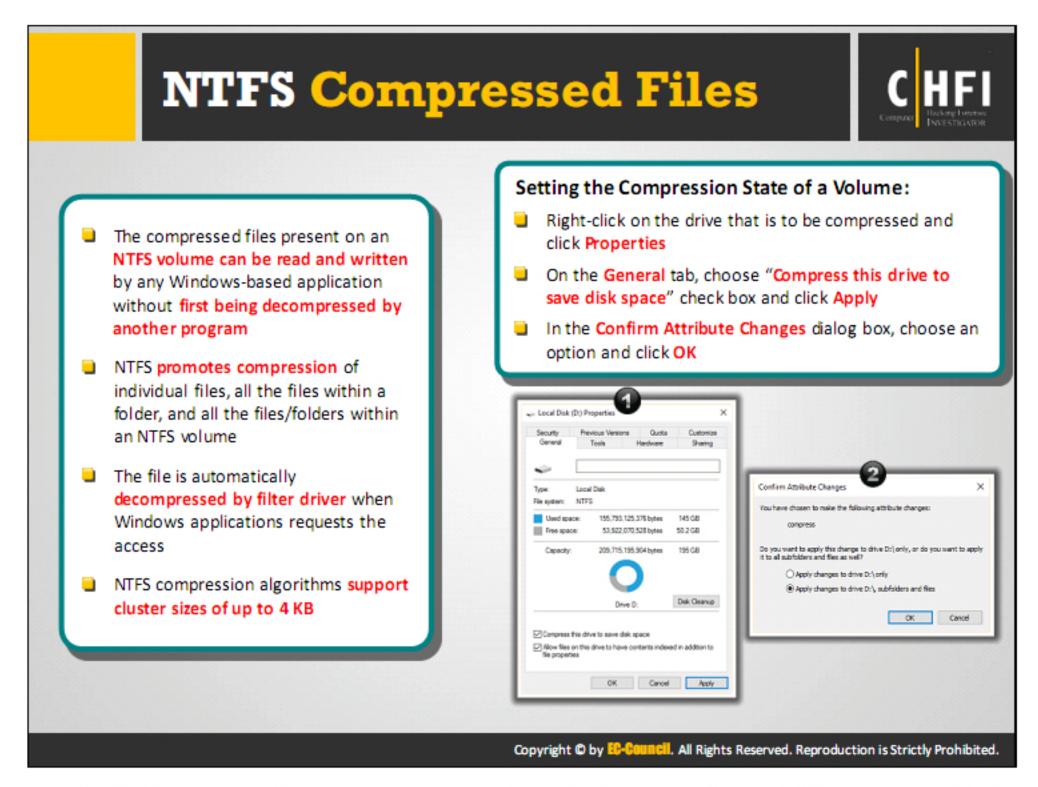
C:\ECHO text message> myfile.txt: stream1

To display the content of the data stream, use the following command:

C:\ MORE < myfile.txt.stream1</pre>

A data stream does not appear when the user opens a file stream in a text editor. The only way one can investigate whether the data stream is present in the file or not is by examining the MFT entry for the file.



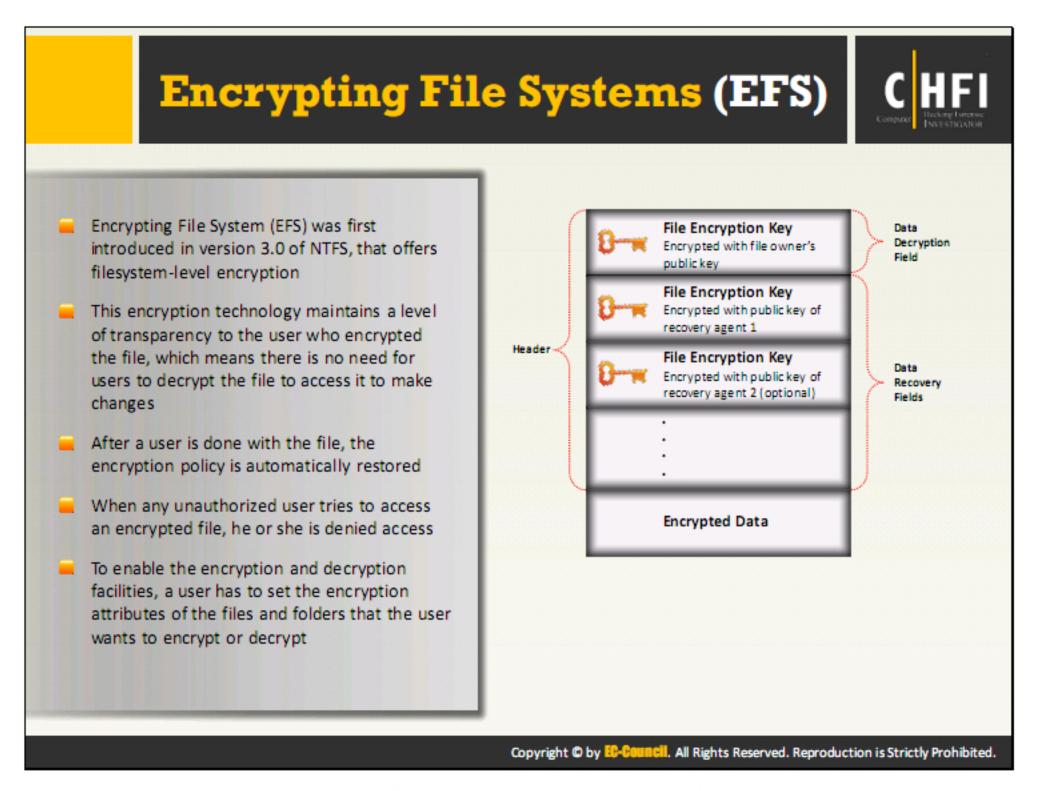


Windows NT/2000 supports compression of files, folders, and the NTFS volumes. All the any Windows-based application can read and write the files, compressed on an NTFS volume without decompressing them. The decompression occurs automatically when the system or application tries to read file and compression takes place when it closes or saves the file.

NTFS contains compression algorithms that support cluster sizes of about 4 KB. When the cluster size is greater than 4 KB on an NTFS volume, none of the NTFS compression functions are available.

Setting the Compression State of a Volume

- Right-click on the drive that is to be compressed and click Properties
- On the General tab, choose "Compress this drive to save disk space" check box and click Apply
- In the Confirm Attribute Changes dialog box, choose an option and click OK



To protect files from mishandling and to ensure their security, the system should encrypt them. NTFS has Encrypting File System (EFS) as built-in feature. Encryption in file systems uses symmetric key encryption technology with public key technology for encryption. The user gets a digital certificate with a public key and private key pair. A private key is not applicable for the users logged on to the local systems; instead the system uses an EFS key to set the key for local users.

This encryption technology maintains a level of transparency to the users, who have encrypted the file. There is no need for users to decrypt the file when they access it to make changes. Again, after the user has completed working on a file, the systems will save the changes and restore the encryption policy automatically. When any unauthorized user tries to access the encrypted file, he or she receives an "Access denied" message.

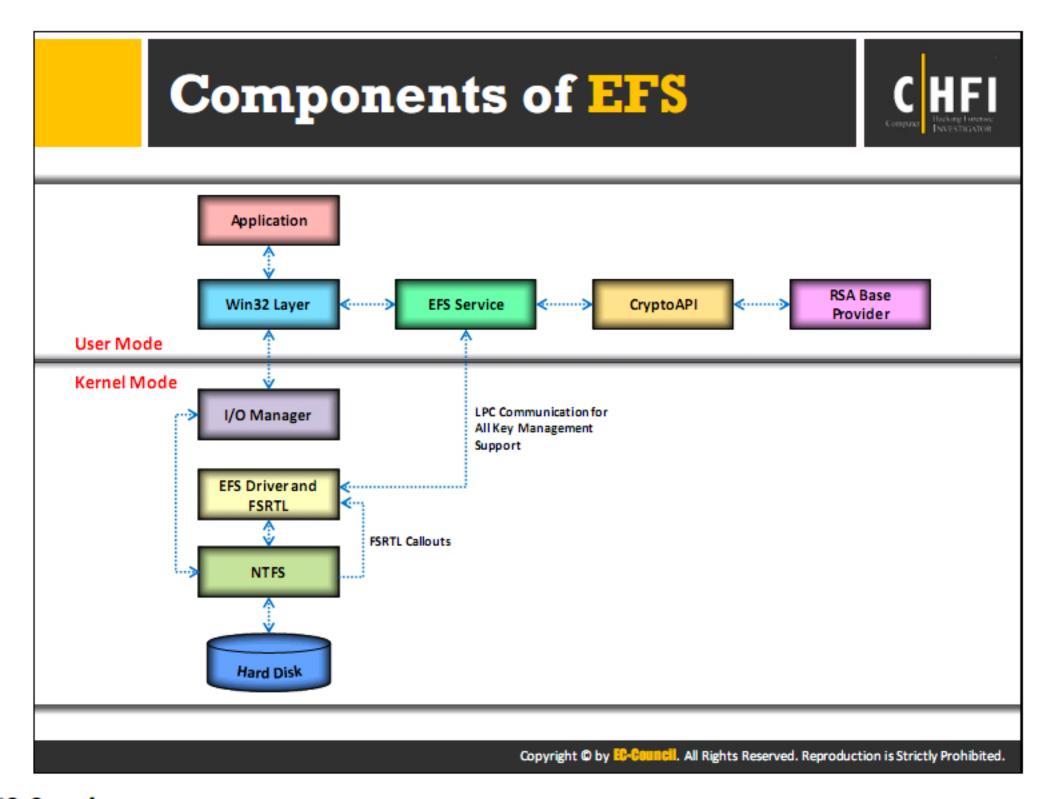
To enable encryption and decryption facilities in a Windows NT-based operating system, the user has to set the encryption attributes to files and folders that he or she wants to encrypt or decrypt.

The system automatically encrypts all the files and subfolders present in a folder. To take the best advantage of the encryption capability, experts recommend that the system should have encryption at the folder level. That means a folder should not contain encrypted files along with unencrypted files.

The users can manually encrypt the files using the graphical user interface (GUI) in Windows, or by the use of a command line tool like Cipher to encrypt a file or folder or using Windows Explorer and selecting proper options available in the menu.

Encrypting a file, as NTFS protects files from unauthorized access and ensures a high level of security, is important to the files present in the system. The system issues a file encryption certificate whenever a user encrypts a file. If the person loses that certificate and related private key (through a disk or any other reason), he or she can perform data recovery through the recovery key agent.

In a Windows 2000 server—based network, which maintains Active Directory, the domain administrator is the recovery agent by default. There is an advance preparation of recovery for the files even before the user or system encrypts them. The recovery agent holds a special certificate and related private key, which helps in data recovery, giving a scope of influence of the recovery policy supported by new versions of Windows.



EFS Service

EFS service, which is part of the security subsystem, acts as an interface with the EFS driver by using local procedure call (LPC) communication port between the Local Security Authority (LSA) and the kernel-mode security reference monitor. It also acts as interface with CryptoAPI in user mode in order to derive file encryption keys to generate data decryption fields (DDFs) and data recovery fields (DRFs). This service also supports Win32 APIs.

The EFS service uses CryptoAPI to extract the file encryption key (FEK) for a data file, uses it to encode the FEK and produce the DDF.

EFS Driver

The EFS driver is a file system filter driver stacked on top of NTFS. It connects with the EFS service to obtain file encryption keys, DDFs, DRFs, and other key management services. It sends this information to the EFS FSRTL to perform file system functions, such as open, read, write, and append.

CryptoAPI

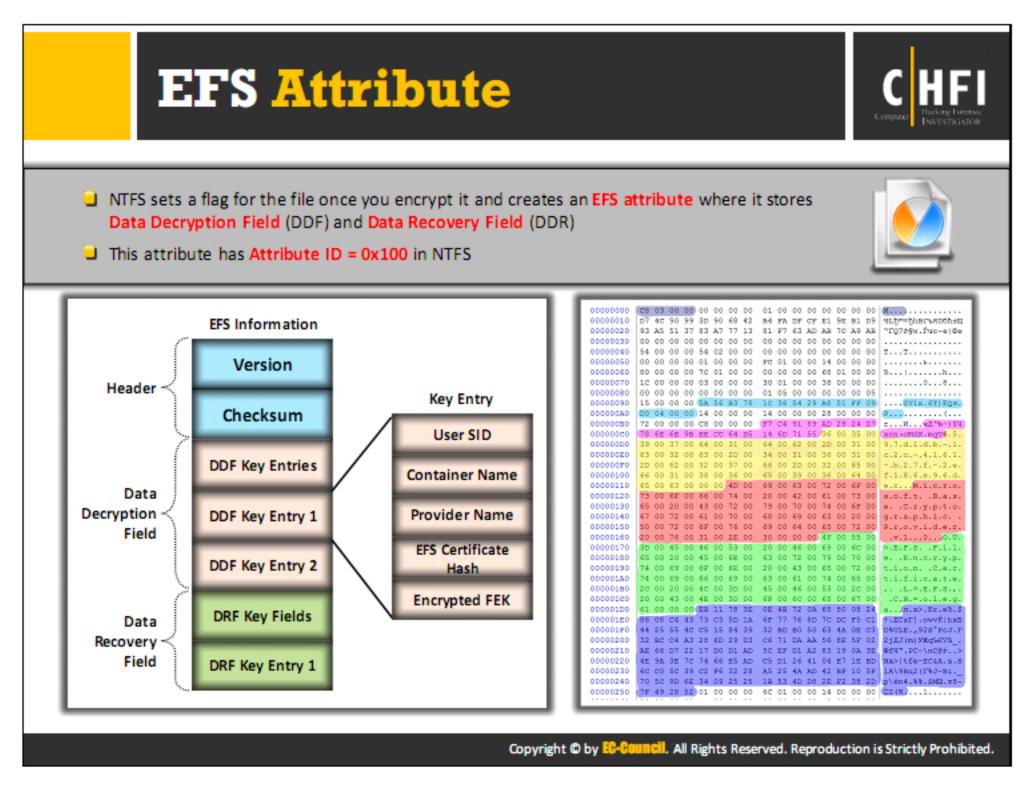
CryptoAPI contains a set of functions that allow application developers to encrypt their Win32 as the functions allow applications to encrypt or digitally sign data and also offer security for private key data. It supports public key and symmetric-key operations such as generation, management and secure storage, exchange, encryption, decryption, hashing, digital signatures, and verification of signatures.

EFS FSRTL

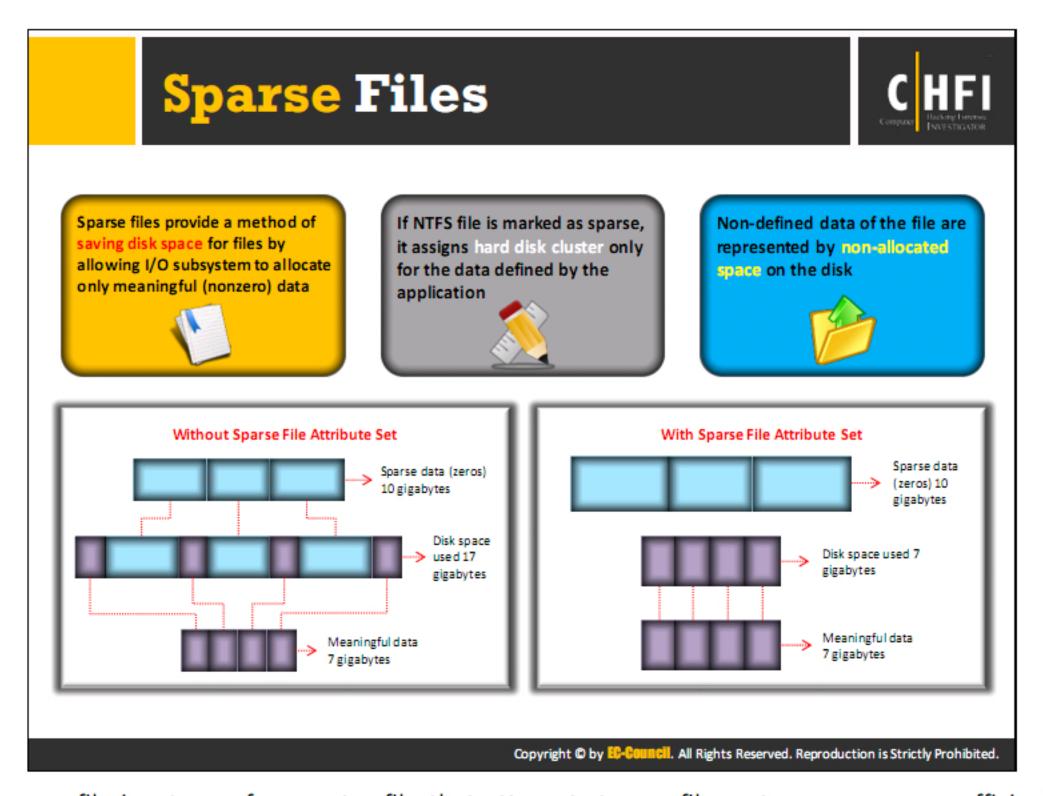
The EFS FSRTL is part of EFS driver that implements NTFS callouts to handle various file system operations such as reads, writes, and opens on encrypted files and directories, and operations to encrypt, decrypt, and recover file data when the system writes it to or reads it from disk. The EFS driver and FSRTL act as single component, but never communicate directly. They communicate by using the NTFS file control callout mechanism for sending messages to each other.

Win32 API

EFS provides an API set to expose its features that also provides a programming interface for operations such as encrypting plaintext files, decrypting or recovering cipher text files, and importing and exporting encrypted files without decrypting them.



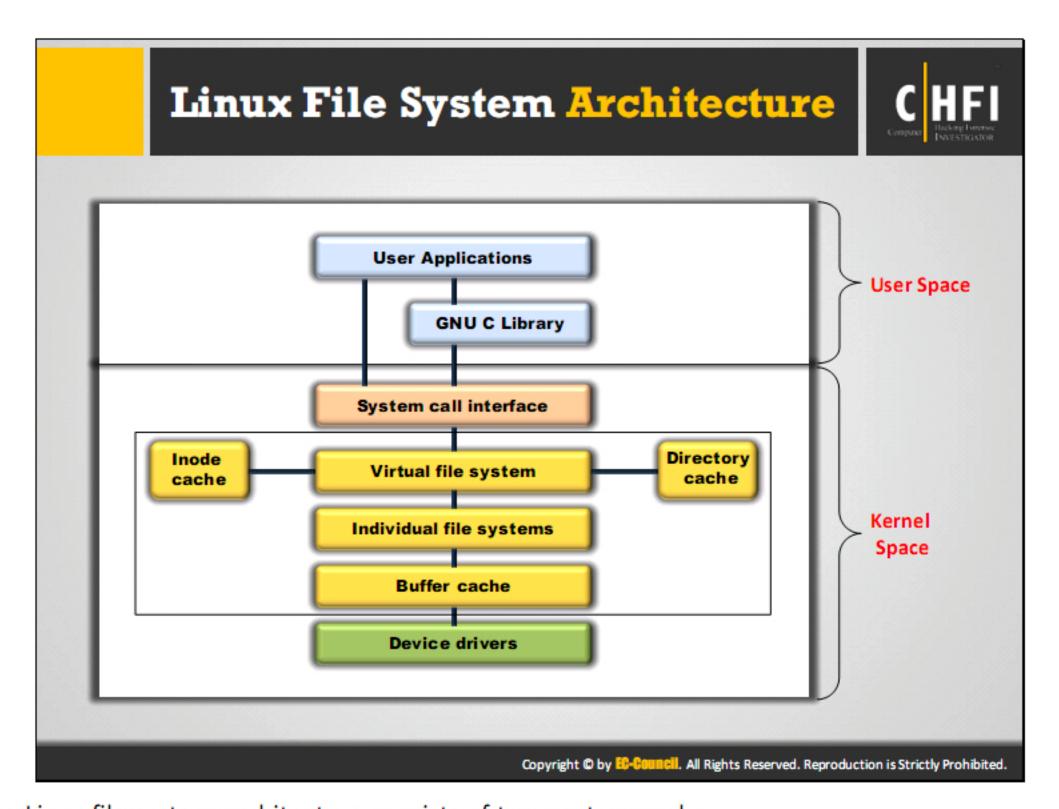
NTFS sets a flag for the file after encrypting it and creates an EFS attribute where it stores the Data Decryption Field (DDF) and Data Recovery Field (DRF). This attribute has Attribute ID = 0x100 in NTFS.



A sparse file is a type of computer file that attempts to use file system space more efficiently when blocks allocated to the file are mostly empty. For better efficiency, the file system writes brief information (metadata) about the file to the empty blocks to make up the block, using less disk space. For files, they offer a technique of saving disk space by allowing the I/O subsystem to allocate only meaningful (nonzero) data. In a sparse NFTS file, clusters assigned for the data that an application defines, and the file system marks the space as non-allocated in the case of non-defined data.



Linux OS uses different file systems to store the data. As the investigators may encounter the attack source or victim systems to be running on Linux, they should have comprehensive knowledge regarding the storage methods it employs. The following section will provide you a deep insight about the various Linux file systems and their storage mechanisms.



The Linux file system architecture consists of two parts namely:

- User Space: The protected memory area where the user processes run and this area contains the available memory.
- Kernel Space: The memory space where the system supplies all kernel services through kernel processes. The users can access this space through the system call only. A user process turns into kernel process only when it executes a system call.

The GNUC Library (glibc) sits between the User Space and Kernel Space and provides the system call interface that connects the kernel to the user-space applications.

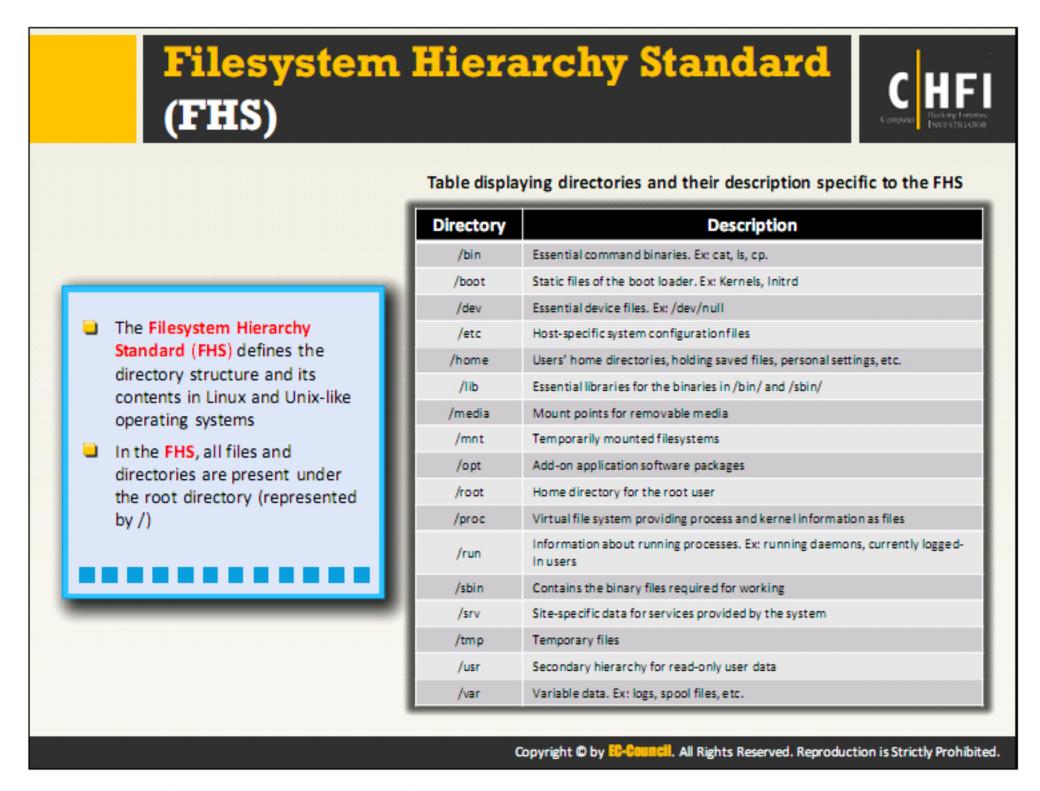
The Virtual file system (VFS) is an abstract layer, residing on top of a complete file system. It allows client applications to access various file systems. Its internal architecture consists of a dispatching layer which provides file system abstraction and numerous caches to enhance the file system operations performance.

The main objects managed dynamically in the VFS are the dentry and inode objects in cached manner to enhance file system access speed. Once a user opens a file, the dentry cache fills with entries that represent the directory levels which in turn represent the path. The system also creates an inode for the object which represents the file. The system develops a dentry cache using a hash table and allocates the dentry cache entries from the dentry_cache slab

allocator. The system uses a least-recently-used (LRU) algorithm to prune the entries when the memory is scarce.

The inode cache acts as two lists and a hash table for quick look up. The first list defines the used inodes and the unused ones are positioned in the second list. The hash table also stores the used inodes.

Device drivers are pieces of code, linked with every physical or virtual device and help the OS in managing the device hardware. Functions of the device drivers include setting up hardware, getting the related devices in and out of services, getting data from hardware and giving it to the kernel, transferring data from the kernel to the device, and identifying and handling device errors.

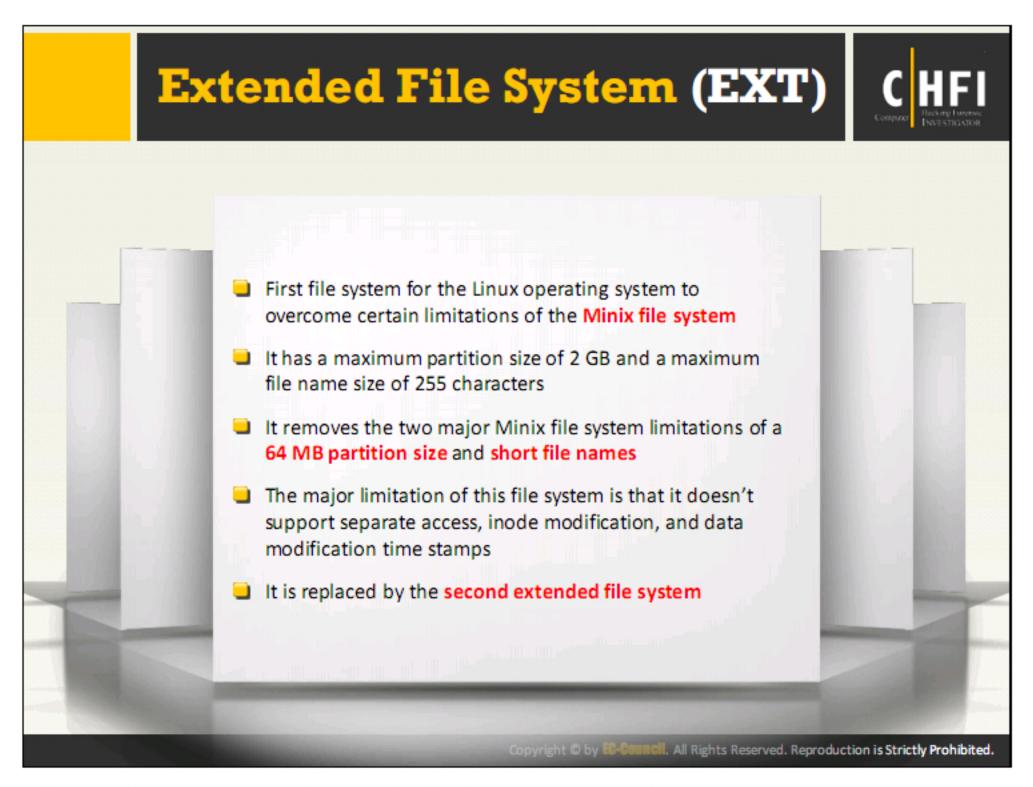


Linux is a single hierarchical tree structure, representing the file system as one single entity. It supports many different file systems. It implements a basic set of common concepts, developed for UNIX. Some of the Linux file system types are minix, Filesystem Hierarchy Standard (FHS), ext, ext2, ext3, xia, msdos, umsdos, vfat, /proc, nfs, iso 9660, hpfs, sysv, smb, and ncpfs. Minix was Linux's first file system.

The following are some of the most popular file systems:

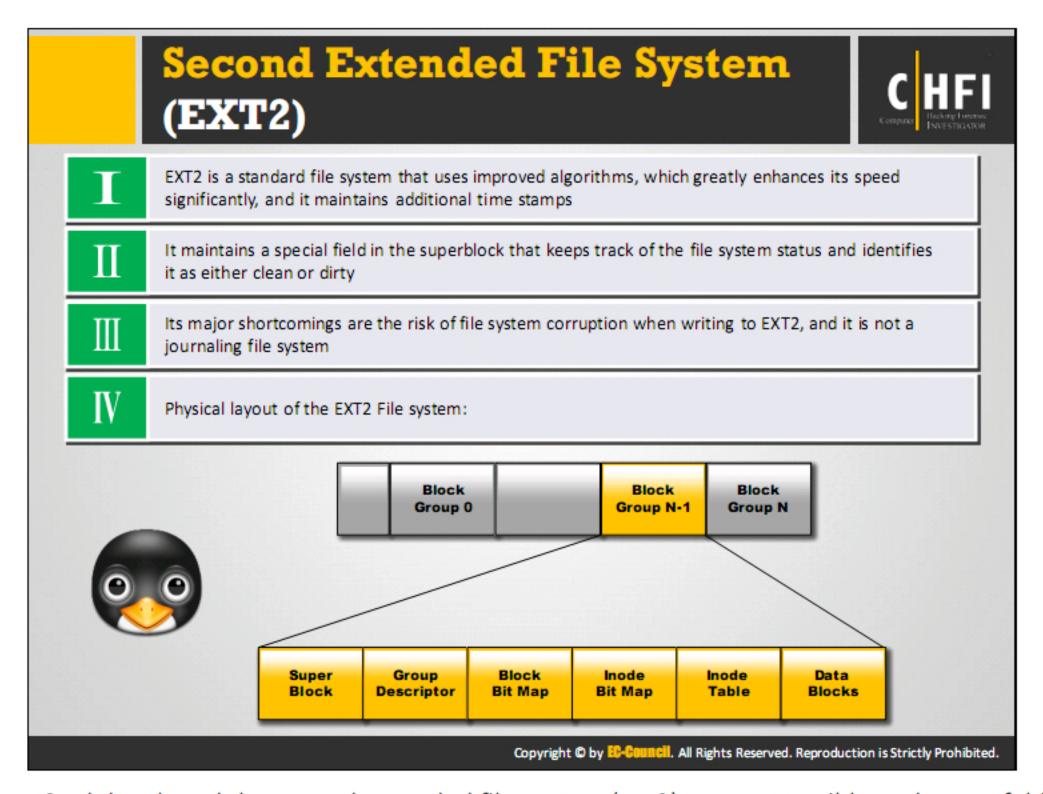
Filesystem Hierarchy Standard (FHS)

The Filesystem Hierarchy Standard (FHS) defines the directory structure and its contents in Linux and Unix-like operating systems. In the FHS, all files and directories are present under the root directory (represented by /).



The Ext file system, released in April 1992, is the first file system developed for Linux. It came as an extension of the Minix file system and to overcome some of its limitations such as 64 MB partition size and short file names. The Ext file system provides a maximum partition size of 2 GB and a maximum file name size of 255 characters. The major limitation of this file system was that it did not offer support for separate access, inode modification, and data modification timestamps. It kept an unsorted list of free blocks and inodes, and fragmented the file system.

This has a metadata structure inspired by Unix File System (UFS). Other drawbacks of this file system include only one timestamp and linked lists for free space, which resulted in fragmentation and poor performance. The second extended file system (Ext2) replaced it.



Remy Card developed the second extended file system (ext2) as an extensible and powerful file system for Linux. Being the most successful file system so far in the Linux community, Ext2 is the basis for all of the currently shipping Linux distributions.

The development of ext2 file system depends on the principle that the data storage is in the form of data blocks of the same length and. Although the length can vary between different ext2 file systems, the block size of an ext2 file system sets during its creation. The system rounds up every file size to an integral number of blocks. If the block size is 1024 bytes, then a file of 1025 bytes will occupy two 1024 byte blocks. Not all of the blocks in the file system hold data; some must contain the information that describes the structure of the file system. Ext2 defines the file system topology by describing each file in the system with an inode data structure. An inode describes the blocks, which the data within a file occupies, as well as the access rights of the file, the file modification times, and the type of the file. A single inode describes every file in the ext2 file system and each inode has a single unique number identifying it. Inode tables store all the inodes for the file system. Ext2 directories are simply special files (themselves described by inodes) that contain pointers to the inodes of their directory entries.

Superblock

This block stores information about the size and shape of the Ext2 file system. This information enables the file system manager to use and manage the file system. Generally, the system

reads only the Superblock in Block Group 0 when the user mounts the file system. But every Block Group has a duplicate copy if the file system gets corrupted.

Superblock holds the following information:

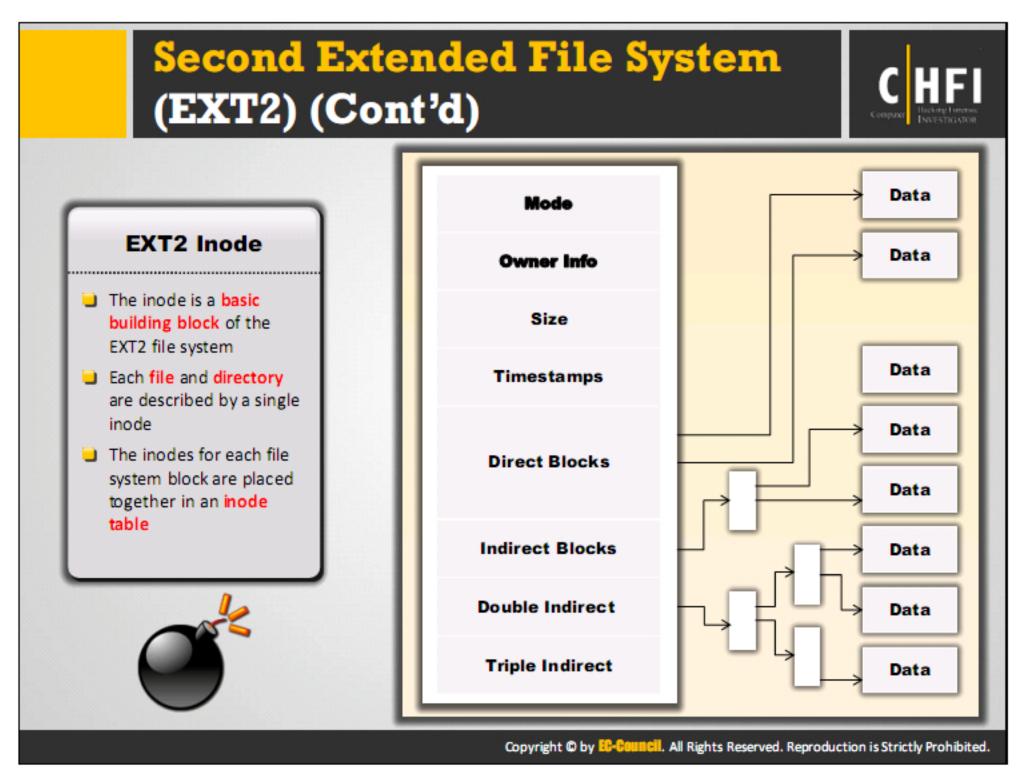
- Magic Number: It allows the mounting software to verify the Superblock for the EXT2 file system. For the present EXT2 version, it is 0xEF53.
- Revision Level: The major and minor revision levels allow the mounting code to determine whether or not this file system supports features that are only available in particular revisions of the file system. There are also feature compatibility fields that help the mounting code to determine which new features can safely be used on this file system.
- Mount Count and Maximum Mount Count: Together these allow the system to determine if it needs to fully check the file system. The mount count increments each time the system mounts the file system and displays the warning message of "maximal mount count reached, running e2fsck is recommended" when it equals the maximum mount count.
- Block Group Number: It is the Block Group number containing the Superblock copy.
- Block Size: It informs about the size of the block for the file system in bytes.
- Blocks per Group: A fixed number that mentions the number of blocks in a group.
- Free Blocks: It mentions about the number of free blocks in the file system.
- Free Inodes: It mentions about the number of free Inodes in the file system.
- First Inode: It is an inode number of the first inode of the file system.

Group Descriptor

Every Group Descriptor has the following data:

- Blocks Bitmap: It is the block number of the block allocation bitmap for the Block Group.
 It is used in block allocation and deallocation.
- Inode Bitmap: It is the block number of the inode allocation bitmap for the Block Group.
 It is used in inode allocation and deallocation.
- Inode Table: It is the block number of the starting block for the inode table for the Block Group.
- Free blocks count, Free Inodes count, and Used directory count: All the group descriptors together make the group descriptor table. Every Blocks Group has the whole group descriptors table.

Source: http://tldp.org

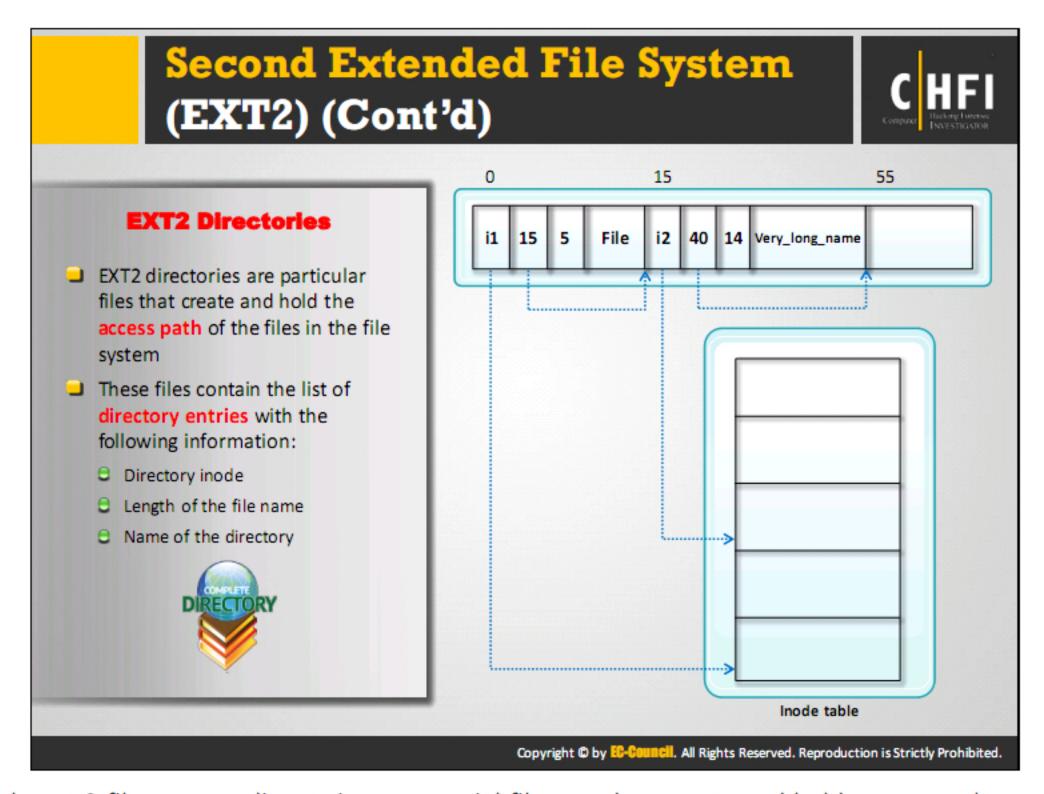


Ext2 Inode

In the ext2 file system, the inode is the basic building block. One and only one inode describes every file and directory in the file system. The file system stores the ext2 inodes for each block group in the inode table together with a bitmap that allows the system to keep track of the allocated and unallocated inodes.

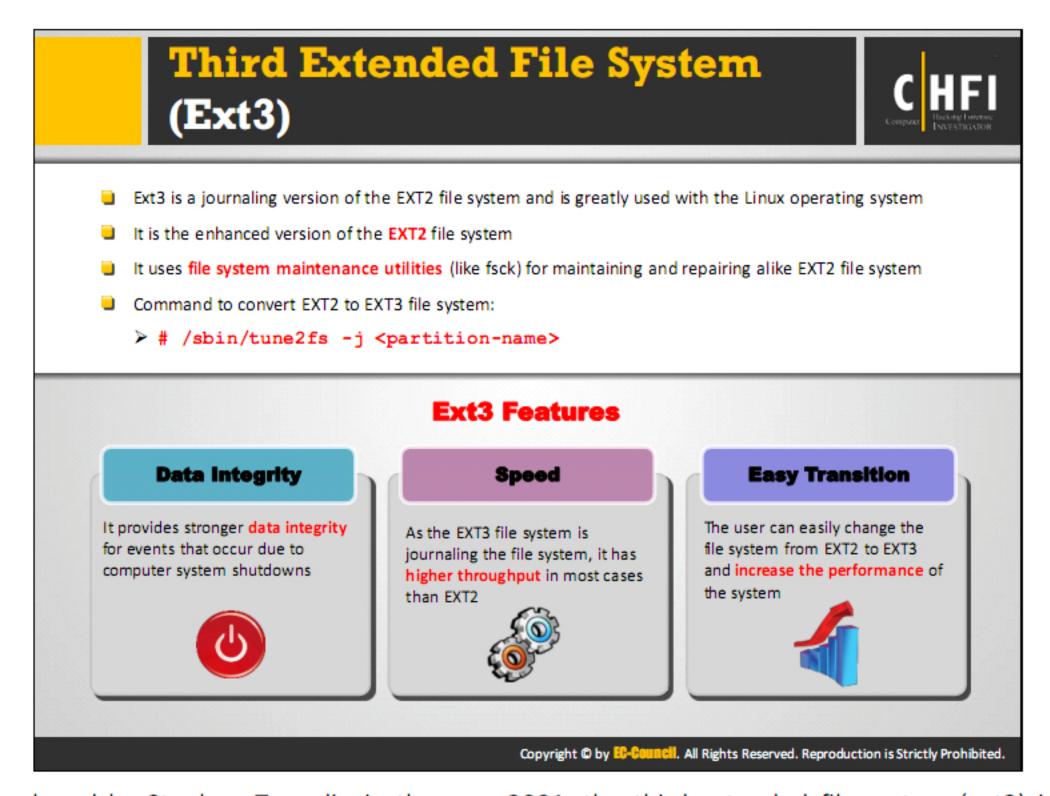
It contains the following fields:

- Mode: This holds two pieces of information: what this inode describes and the permissions that users have to it. For ext2, an inode can describe one file, directory, symbolic link, block device, character device, or FIFO.
- Owner Information: This is information about the users and group identifiers of the owners of a file or directory. It allows the file system to correctly allow the right sort of accesses.
- Size: This field holds the size of the file in bytes.
- Timestamps: This shows the inode creation time and the last modification time.
- Data blocks: Data blocks are the pointers to the blocks containing the data that this inode is describing. The first 12 are pointers to the physical blocks containing the data described by this inode, and the last 3 pointers contain more and more levels of indirection. For example, the double indirect blocks pointer points at a block of pointers to blocks of pointers to data blocks.



In the ext2 file system, directories are special files used to create and hold access paths to the files in the file system. A directory file is a list of directory entries, each one containing the following information:

- Inode: The inode for this directory entry. This is an index into the array of inodes held in the inode table of the block group.
- Name length: The length of this directory entry in bytes.
- Name: The name of this directory entry.



Developed by Stephen Tweedie in the year 2001, the third extended file system (ext3) is a journaling file system used in the GNU/Linux operating system. It is the enhanced version of the ext2 file system. The main advantage of this file system is journaling that improves reliability of the computer system. It can be mounted and used as an ext2 file system. It can make use of all of the previous programs developed in the ext2 file system.

A maximum single Ext3 file size ranges between 16 GB to 2 TB, and the whole ext3 file system size ranges between 2 TB to 32 TB. Ext3 also offers a better data integrity. It makes sure that the data is consistent with the file system state. Ext3 is faster than ext2 because the journaling feature optimizes hard disk drive (HDD) head motion. It also gives a choice of three journaling modes, which provide trade-offs between maximizing data integrity and optimizing speed.

Ext3 is also highly reliable. Ext3 also has the ability to convert ext2 partitions to ext3 and viceversa without the need for repartitioning and data backup.

Command to convert ext2 to ext3 file system:

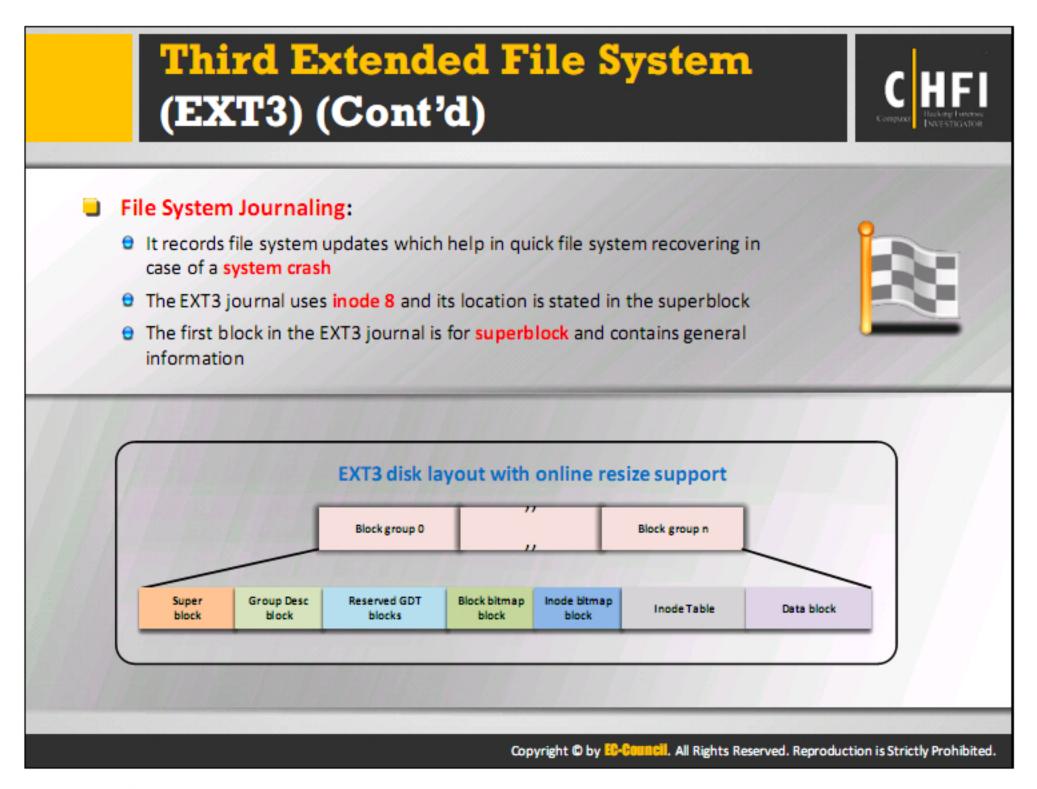
/sbin/tune2fs -j <partition-name>

For example, if the user needs to convert an ext2 file system located on the partition /dev/hda5 to an ext3 file system, he or she should use the following command:

/sbin/tune2fs -j /dev/hda5

Features of Ext3

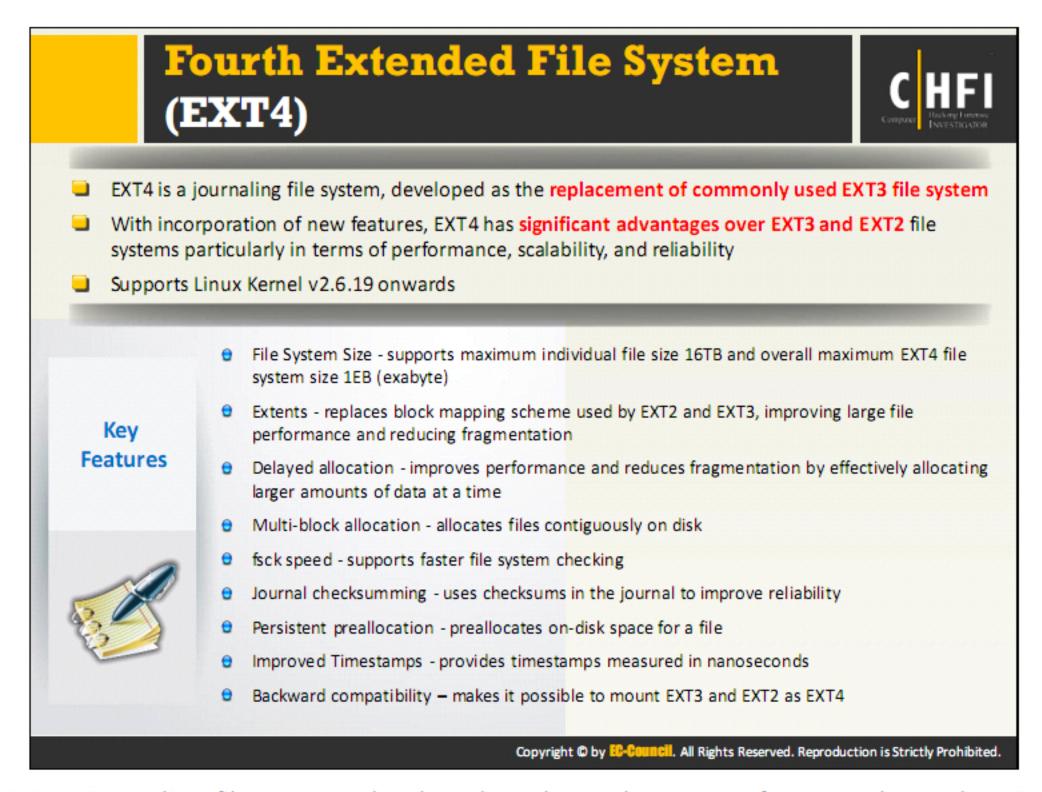
- Data integrity: It provides stronger data integrity for events that occur due to computer system shutdowns. It allows the user to choose the type and level of protection for the received data.
- Speed: As the ext3 file system is journaling the file system, it has higher throughput in most cases than ext2. The user can choose the optimized speed from three different journaling modes.
- Easy transition: The user can easily change the file system from ext2 to ext3 and increase the performance of the system by using the journaling file system without reformatting.



File System Journaling

File system journaling works as follows:

- It records updates to the file system, which helps in recovering the file system quickly in case of a system crash
- The ext3 journal uses inode 8, and the super block contains its location
- The first block in the ext3 journal is for the super block and contains general information

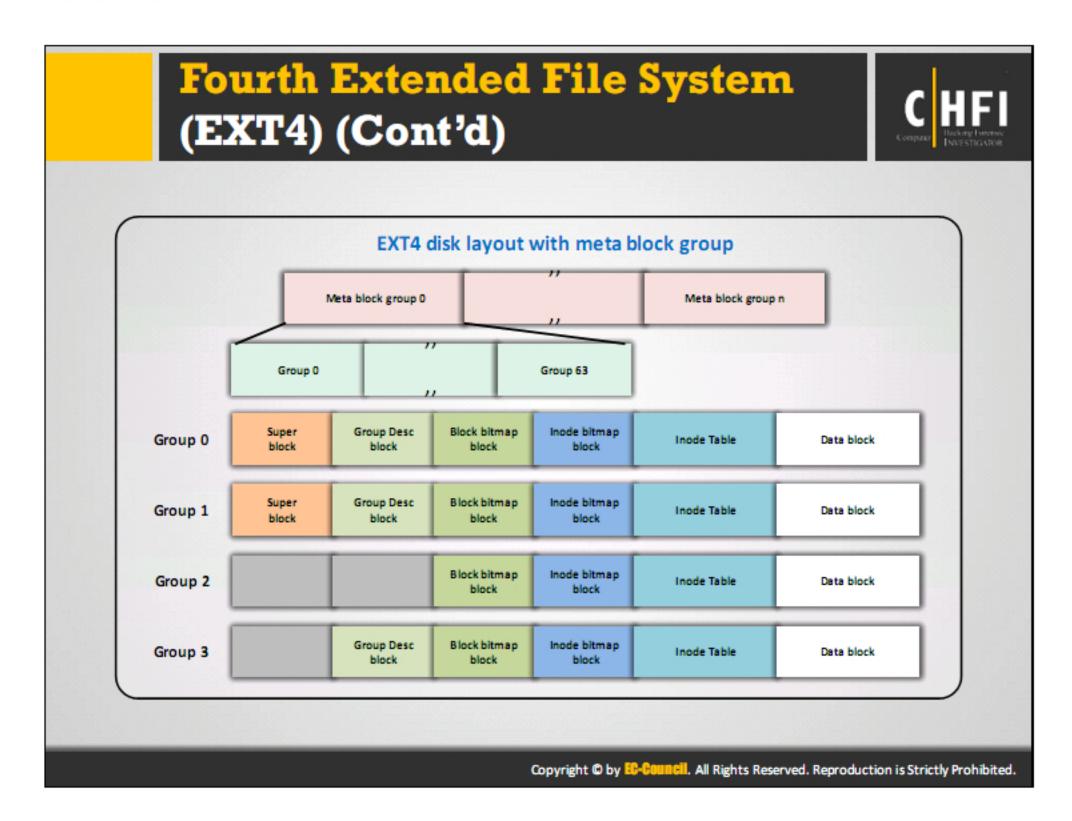


Ext4 is a journaling file system, developed as the replacement of commonly used ext3 file system, offers better scalability and reliability for supporting large file systems of 64 bit machines in order to meet the increasing disk capacity demands. Ext4 enables write barriers by default and allows users to mount an ext3 file system as an ext4 file system. The file system supports Linux Kernel v2.6.19 onwards.

Key Features

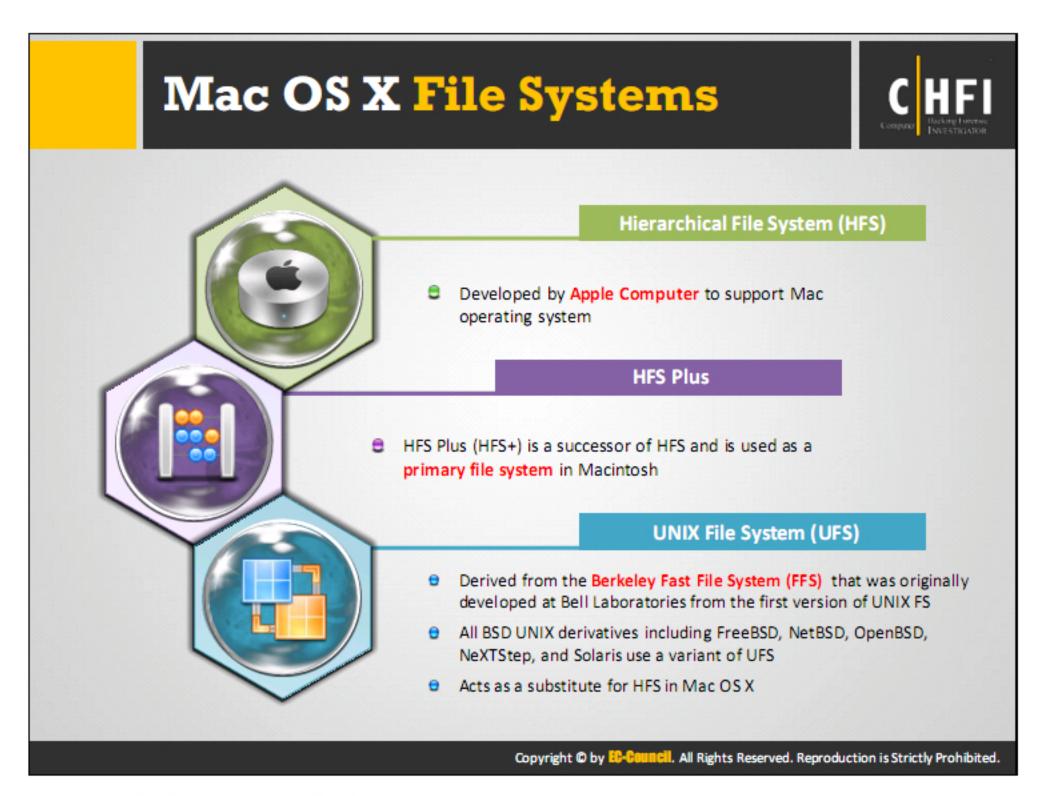
- File System Size: Supports maximum individual file sizes up to 16 TB and overall volumes of about size 1 EiB (exbibyte).
- Extents: Replaces block mapping scheme found in ext2 and ext3 in order to increase performance and reduces fragmentation.
- Delayed allocation: Improves performance and reduces fragmentation by effectively allocating larger amounts of data at a time by delaying allocation till the system flushes data to the disk.
- Multiblock allocation: Allocates multiple files contiguously on disk, thus reducing the work of calling the block allocator and optimizing the allocation of memory.
- Increased file system checking (fsck) speed: Marks unallocated block groups and sections and skips the marked elements while performing checks. Thus, supports faster file system checking.
- Journal check summing: Uses checksums in the journal to improve reliability.

- Persistent pre-allocation: The file system can pre-allocate the on-disk space for a file, by writing zeroes to it during creation.
- Improved Timestamps: Provides timestamps measured in nanoseconds and comes with support for date-created timestamps.
- Backward compatibility: The file system is backward compatible and allows the user to mount ext3 and ext2 as ext4.





Apple's Mac OS X uses a different approach in storing the data, when compared to the Windows and Linux. This section will make investigators aware of the file systems that different versions of Mac operating systems use.



Hierarchical File System (HFS)

Apple had developed the Hierarchical File System (HFS) in September 1985 to support the MAC OS in its proprietary Macintosh system and as a replacement for the Macintosh File System (MFS). HFS divides the volume into logical blocks of 512 bytes each and groups these logical blocks into allocation blocks. Each allocation block can store one or more logical blocks depending on the total size of the volume. The file system uses a 16-bit value to address allocation blocks, which restricts the number of allocation blocks to 65,535.

Five structures make up an HFS volume:

Logical blocks 0 and 1 of the volume are the boot blocks, which include system startup information, for example, the names of the system and shell files, which are loaded at startup.

Logical block 2 contains the Master Directory Block (MDB). This defines a wide variety of data about the volume itself, for instance, date and time stamps of creation of the volume; the location of the other volume structures, such as the volume bitmap' or the size of logical structures, such as allocation blocks. There is also a duplicate of the MDB called the Alternate Master Directory Block (Alternate MDB) located at the opposite end of the volume in the second to last logical block. This is intended mainly for use by disk utilities and is only updated when either the catalog file or extents overflow file grow in size.

Logical block 3 is the starting block of the volume bitmap, which keeps track of the allocation blocks in use and those which are free. A bit in the map represents each allocation block on the volume; if the bit is set then the block is in use, else if it is clear then the block is free.

The extents overflow file is a B*-tree including extra extents that store information about the files and the allocation blocks allocated to them, after the system uses the initial three extents in the catalog file. Later versions also added the ability for the extents overflow file to store extents that record bad blocks, to prevent a machine from trying to write to them.

The catalog file is another B*-tree that holds records for all the files and directories stored in the volume. It stores four types of records. Each file consists of a file thread record and a file record, while each directory contains a directory thread record and a directory record. Unique catalog node ID helps in finding the files and directories in the catalog file.

HFS Plus (HFS+)

HFS Plus (HFS+) is a successor of HFS and is a primary file system in Macintosh.

UFS (UNIX File System)

UFS is a file system utilized by many UNIX and UNIX-like operating systems. Derived from the Berkeley Fast File System, it is the first version of UNIX developed at Bell Labs.

Design:

A UFS file system is composed of the following parts:

- A few blocks at the beginning of the partition reserved for boot blocks (which must be initialized separately from the file system)
- A super block, including a magic number identifying this as a UFS file system, and some other vital numbers describing this file system's geometry and statistics and behavioral tuning parameters
- A collection of cylinder groups, of which each cylinder group has the following components:
 - A backup copy of the super block
 - A cylinder group header, with statistics, free lists, etc., and which is similar to those in the super block
 - A number of inodes, each containing file attributes
 - A number of data blocks

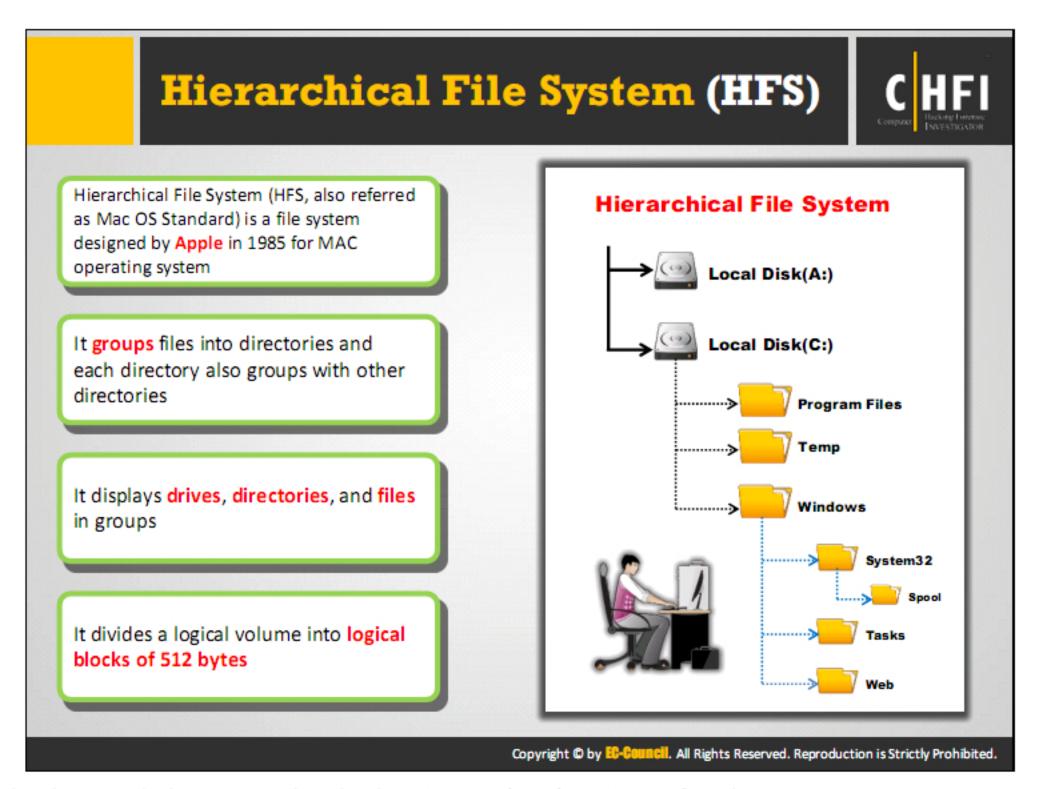
HFS vs. HFS Plus



Feature	HFS	HFS Plus	Benefit/Comment
User visible name	Mac OS Standard		
Number of allocation blocks	16 bits worth	32 bits worth	Radical decrease in disk space used on large volumes, and a large number of files per volume
Long file names	31 characters	255 characters	Obvious user benefit; also improves cross-platform compatibility
File name encoding	MacRoman	Unicode	Allows for international-friendly file names, including mixed script names
File/folder attributes	Support for fixed size attributes (FileInfo and ExtendedFileInfo)	Allows for future metadata extensions	Future systems may use metadata for a richer Finder experience
OS startup support	System Folder ID	Also supports a dedicated startup file	May help non-Mac OS systems to boot from HFS Plus Volumes
Catalog node size	512 bytes	4 KB	Maintains efficiency in the face of the other changes. (This larger catalog node size is due to the much longer file names [512 bytes as opposed to 32 bytes], and larger catalog records (because of more/larger fields)).
Maximum file size	2 ³¹ bytes	2 ⁶³ bytes	Obvious user benefits, especially for multimedia content creators.

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Apple designed the Hierarchical File System (HFS) in 1985 for the Mac operating system. It allows the user to store files in a hierarchical manner. It groups files into directories and each directory also groups with other directories. It displays drives, directories, and files in groups. It divides a logical volume into logical blocks of 512 bytes. The file system then groups these blocks into an allocation block. HFS uses a 16-bit value to address allocation blocks.

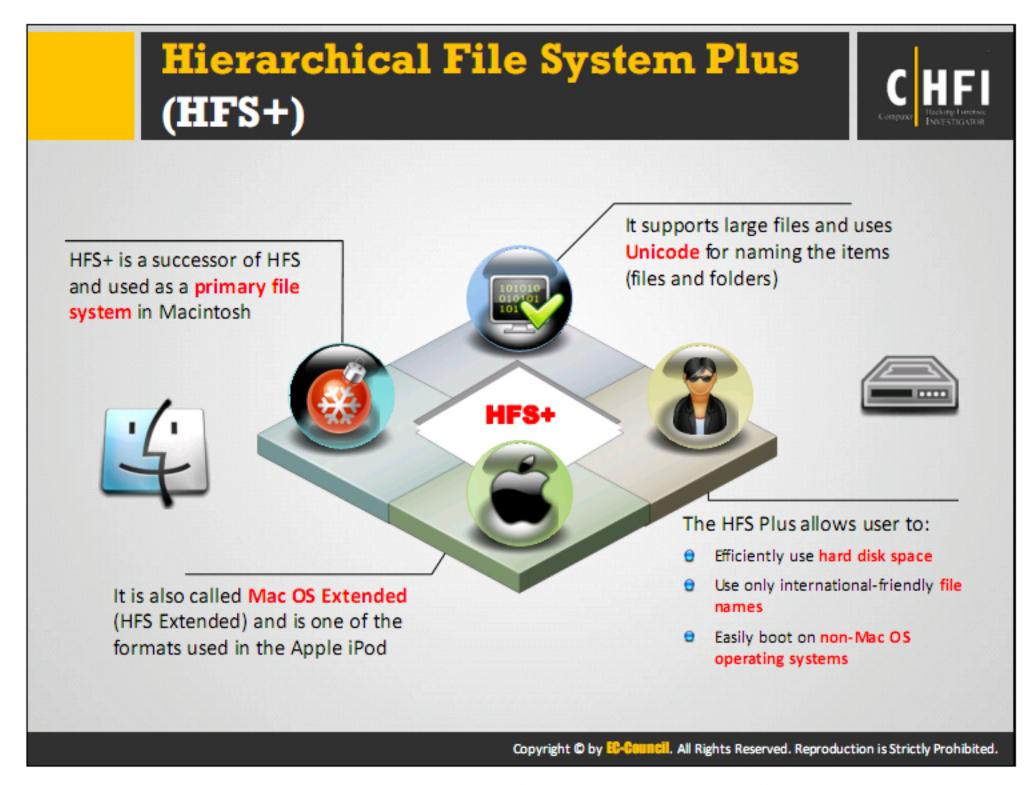
Logical volume blocks 0 and 1 are the boot blocks, which contain system startup information. For example, system names and shell files loaded at startup.

The Logical block 2 has the Master Directory Block (MDB) which defines data about the volume such as date and time stamps of volume creation, location of volume structures, volume bitmap and the size of logical structures. Alternate Master Directory Block (Alternate MDB) is a duplicate of the MDB located in the opposite end of the volume and second to last logical block. Disk utilities primarily use the alternate Master Directory Block and update it only when the extents overflow file or catalog file are large in size.

The Logical block 3 is the first block of the volume bitmap. It keeps track of the allocation blocks in use as well as the blocks that are free.

The Hierarchical File System allows the user to:

- Hierarchically organize files
- Use longer file names that include embedded spaces
- Use as many levels of directories and subdirectories as needed
- Use a CICS transaction to observe and maintain HFS files



HFS Plus (HFS+) is a successor of HFS and is a primary file system in Macintosh. It supports large files and uses Unicode for naming the items (files and folders).

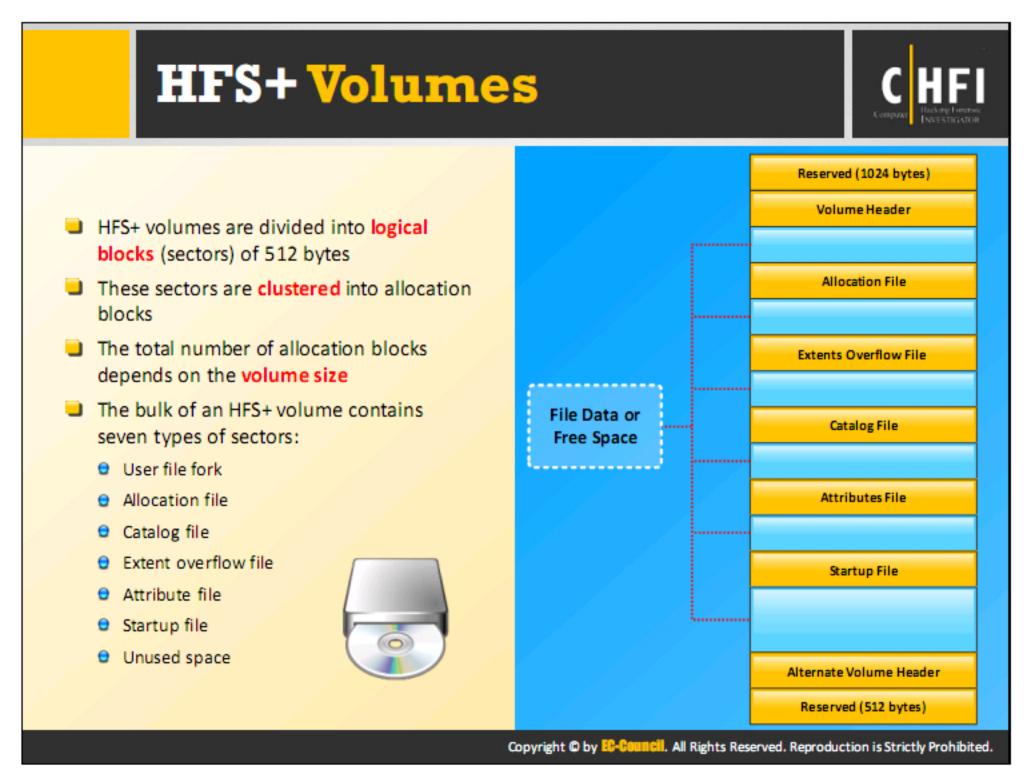
A few of the features added to HFS Plus are:

- HFS Plus uses B-tree to store the data
- It supports files with 64 bits in length
- It permits file names of 255 characters in length
- It uses a 32-bit allocation table for the mapping table, unlike 16 bits in HFS

HFS Plus allows the user to:

- Efficiently use hard disk space.
- Use only international-friendly file names.
- Easily boot on non-Mac OS operating systems.

Also called as Mac OS Extended (HFS Extended), it is the file system of some Apple iPods as well.



HFS+ volumes have further divisions called logical blocks (sectors) of 512 bytes size. These sectors cluster into allocation blocks. The total number of allocation blocks depends on the volume size.

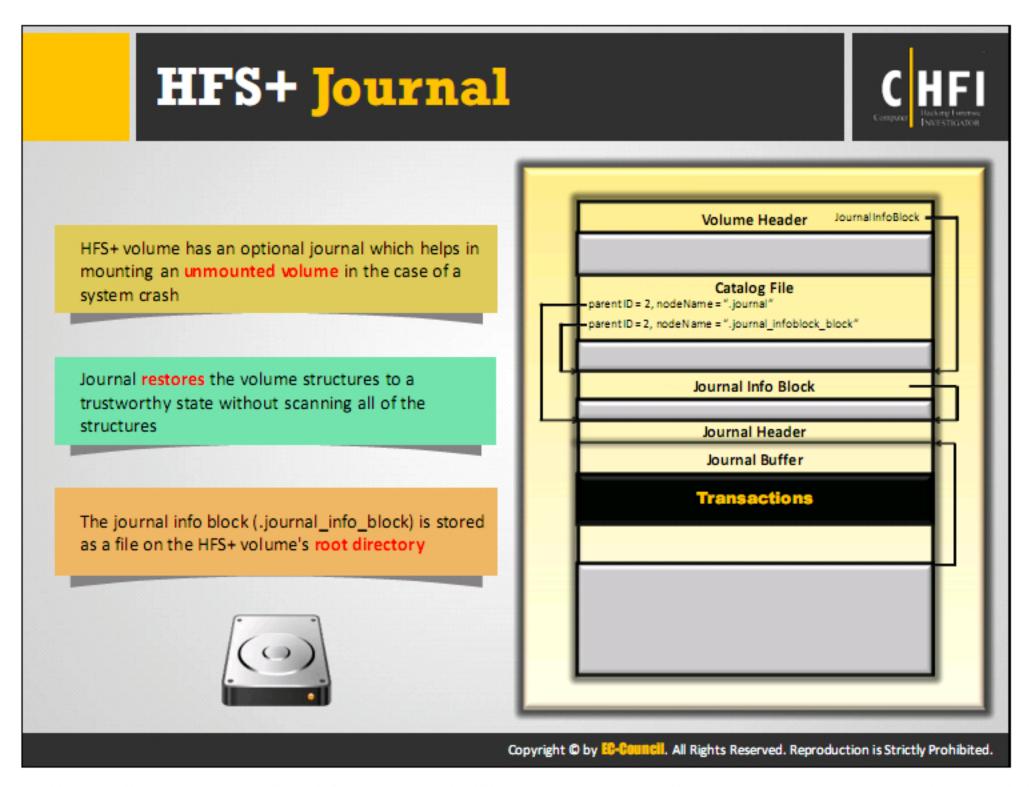
The bulk of an HFS+ volume consists of seven types of sectors:

- User file fork
- Allocation file
- Catalog file
- Extents overflow file
- Attribute file
- Startup file
- Unused space

An HFS+ volume is made of 9 main structures:

- Boot Blocks: Present in sectors 0 and 1 and are similar to the boot blocks found in HFS.
- Volume Header: Found in sector 2 and stores data about the volume such as timestamps, allocation blocks sizes, and locations volume structures like Extent Overflow File or Catalog File.

- Allocation File: This file maintains records of the blocks that are free as well as blocks in
 use and denoted by one bit. It is a regular file and does not have a reserved space at the
 beginning of the volume. Its size is variable and does not need contiguous storage within
 a volume.
- Catalog File: This is a B-tree which contains records for all files and directories stored in the volume. The HFS+ offers bigger records to provide more fields and also allows larger fields. The record fields in HFS+ can also vary based on the data stored by them.
- Extents Overflow File: This is a B-tree which records the allocation blocks allocated to each file as extents. The Catalog Files can record up to eight extents for each fork of a file and store the extra extents in the Extents Overflow File. They record even bad blocks as extents. The default file sizes are 1 KB and 4 KB in Mac OS and Mac OS X, respectively.
- Attributes File: This is a B-tree only present in HFS+ and can store three kinds of 4 KB records including Fork Data Attribute records, Inline Data Attribute records, and Extension Attribute records.
- Startup File: Developed for non-Mac OS systems, which do not have HFS or HFS+ support, the file is equivalent to the HFS volume Boot Blocks.
- Alternate Volume Header: It is present in the last but one sector of an HFS+ volume and is similar to HFS Alternate Master Directory Block.
- Last sector: Reserved for Apple's use at the time of the computer manufacturing.



HFS+ volumes have an optional journal, which helps in mounting an unmounted volume in the case of a system crash. The journal restores the volume structures to a reliable state without scanning all of the structures. The journal info block (.journal_info_block) is stored as a file on the HFS+ volume's root directory.

Apple added journaling features to HFS Plus with the release of Mac OS X 10.2.2 update in 2002 to improved data reliability. All HFS Plus volumes on all Macs are set with the journaling feature as default from OS X v10.3 version. The HFS Plus volume with a journal is denoted as HFSJ.

Oracle Solaris 11 File System: ZFS is the default disk-based and root file system used in the Oracle Solaris 11 It provides a simple management interface, which is robust, scalable, and easy to administer. Features: Benefits: ZFS Pooled Storage Model Simplifies and reduces storage management tasks Data integrity Model Increases storage agility and data protection Simplified Administration Delivers superior performance and availability Copy-on-Write transactional model End-to-End Checksums Self-Healing Data Unparalled Scalability ZFS and Solid-State Storage Snapshots and Clones Encryption Deduplication Compression http://www.oracle.com Copyright © by EG-COUNCIL. All Rights Reserved. Reproduction is Strictly Prohibited.

ZFS is a file system as well as a logical volume manager developed by Sun Microsystems. The ZFS offers features like high storage capability, data protection, data compression, volume management, copy-on-write clones, data integrity checking, and automatic repair.

Features

ZFS Pooled Storage Model

This file system uses the storage pool model, which defines the storage characteristics and acts as a random data store from the point of creation of file systems. The storage allows the ZFS file systems to share disk space with all other file systems. The users do not have to know the file system size, because the file systems are present within the disk space allotted to the storage pool. On addition of a new storage, all file systems in the pool will be able to use this additional disk space.

Data integrity Model

It protects disk data from data damage caused by current spikes, data degradation, phantom writes, bugs in disk firmware, DMA parity errors between the array, and server memory or from the driver, driver errors, etc.

Simplified Administration

ZFS provides a simple administration model. It simplifies creation and handling of file systems by using the property inheritance, hierarchical file system layout, NFS share

semantics, and automatic management of mount points. These features allow it to manage the file systems without multiple commands or editing configuration files.

Copy-on-Write transactional model

The file system implements a copy-on-write transactional object model. All the block pointers in the file system have a 256-bit checksum or 256-bit hash of the target block. It does not overwrite the blocks containing active data but allocates a new block and writes the modified data to it. Then it reads, reallocates, and writes any metadata blocks referencing to it in the same manner. In order to reduce the overhead of this process, the file system gathers several updates into transaction groups and uses a ZIL (intent log) write cache when it needs synchronous write semantics.

End-to-End Checksums and Self-Healing Data

ZFS verifies all data and metadata using a user-selectable checksum algorithm. The traditional file systems used per-block checksum algorithm leading to data errors. ZFS performs checksums at the file system layer making them transparent to the applications and to minimize the shortcomings.

ZFS provides self-healing data and supports storage pools with different levels of data redundancy. When ZFS detects a bad data block, it gets similar data from a redundant copy, repairs the bad data and replaces it.

Un-paralleled Scalability

ZFS is 128-bit file system, which allows 256 quadrillion zettabytes of storage. It allocates all the metadata dynamically and does not require pre-allocation of inodes or limit the scalability of the file system during creation. The directories can contain up to 256 trillion entries with no limits on the number of files in a file system.

Snapshots and Clones

ZFS includes the copy-on-write capability, which allows it to take space-efficient snapshots that acquire less storage and require very less capture. The file system tracks only the changes made to the data.

It can also capture writeable snapshots or clones that result in two independent file systems, which share a set of blocks. When these clone file systems observe any changes, the file system creates new data blocks to reflect those changes.

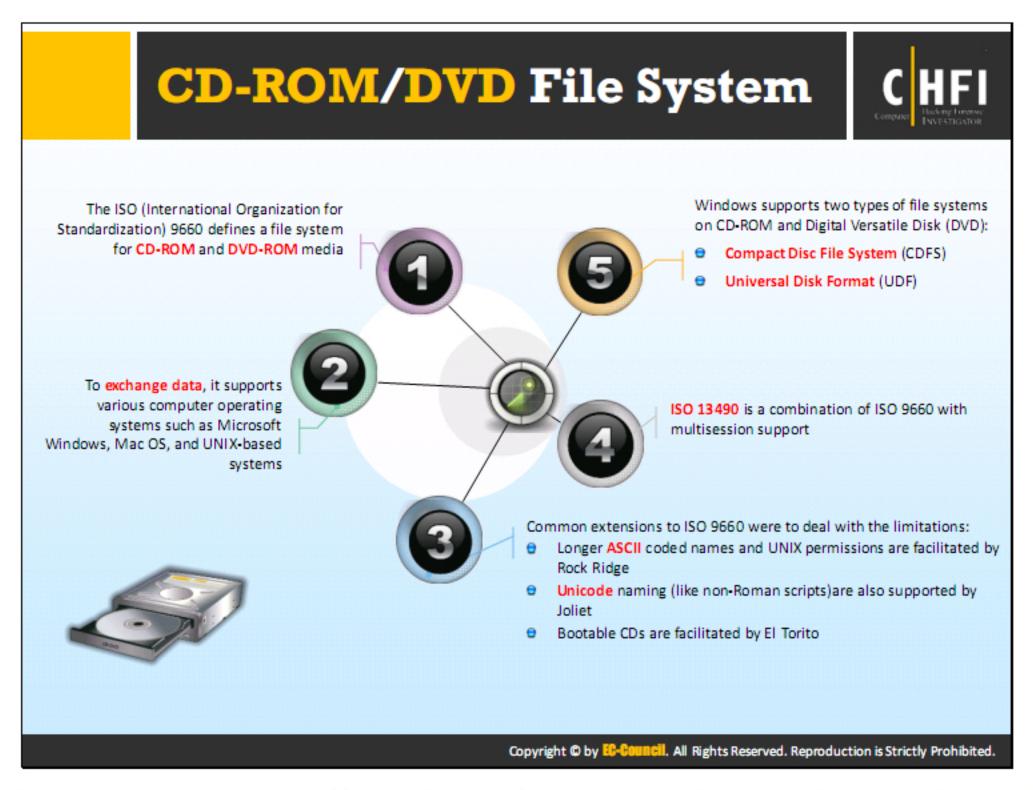
Deduplication, ZFS and Solid-State Storage and Compression

ZFS enables data deduplication, which requires large RAM capacity of up to 1 and 5 GB for every TB of storage for better use of deduplication. The lack required physical memory or ZFS cache will lead to virtual memory thrashing at the time of deduplication and also lower performance or result in complete memory starvation. Use speed up deduplication solid-state drives (SSDs) to cache deduplication tables and speed up deduplication.

Encryption

ZFS has the encryption feature embedded into the I/O pipeline and the encryption policy set at the dataset level. The file system can compress, encrypt, checksum, and deduplicate a block during writes. It also allows the users to change the encryption keys at any time without taking the file system offline.

Source: http://www.oracle.com



The computer systems require file systems, such as NTFS or UNIX, to exchange and access the data contained in files easily and quickly. They divide data stored on CD-ROMs into sectors, containing both user data and error correction codes. Users need not worry about which data is stored in which sector, but should have an understanding of the CD-ROM file structure.

ISO 9660

ISO (International Organization for Standardization) 9660 is a standard that defines uses for file systems of CD-ROM and DVD media. Its aim is to support different operating systems like MS Windows, Mac OS, and systems that follow the UNIX specification in order to exchange data.

There are some well-known extensions to ISO 9660 to deal with the limitations. For example, the Rock Ridge extension allows usage of almost all ASCII characters for file or folder names, and enables longer file names (up to 255 characters). Users can select ASCII code to store the owner's permission, for deeper directory and also for symbolic links. The El Torito Bootable CD specification allows machines to boot with the help of a CD-ROM.

ISO 13490

This standard has several improvements over 9660, the later having few drawbacks, namely POSIX attributes and multi-byte characters. It addresses the file name completely. It is an efficient format that allows incremental recording and also permit the ISO 9660 format and the ISO/IEC 13490 format to exist on the same media. It specifies using multicasting properly.

ISO 9660 Specifications

A reserved area of 32,768 bytes at the beginning of the disk is present for use in booting CD-ROMs on a computer (system area). However, it is important to note that, the ISO 9660 standard did not specify its use.

Immediately a series of volume descriptors details the contents and kind of information contained on the disk (something like the partition table of MS-DOS).

A volume descriptor describes the characteristics of the file system information present on a given CD-ROM, or volume. It has two parts: the type of volume descriptor, and the characteristics of the descriptor.

Construction of the volume descriptor is in such a manner that if a program reading the disk does not understand a particular descriptor, it can just skip over until it recognizes one, thus allowing the use of many different types of information on one CD-ROM. Also, if an error were to render a descriptor unreadable, a subsequent redundant copy of a descriptor could then allow for fault recovery. While checking CD-ROMs with a dump utility, each descriptor is present in a single logical sector on itself, and also a backup of the descriptor, a few logical sectors further.

An ISO 9660—compliant disc contains at least a primary descriptor describing the ISO 9660 file system and a terminating descriptor for indicating the end of the descriptor sequence. Joliet and UDF are examples of such file systems that are adding more descriptors to this sequence.

The primary volume descriptor acts much like the super block of the UNIX file system, providing details on the ISO 9660—compliant portion of the disc. The primary volume descriptor contains the root directory record that describes the location of the contiguous root directory. (As in UNIX, directories appear as files for the operating system's special use.) Directory entries are successively stored within this region. Evaluation of the ISO 9660 file names begins at this location. The root directory is stored as an extent, or as sequential series of sectors, that contains each of the directory entries appearing in the root. In addition, since ISO 9660 works by segmenting the CD-ROM into logical blocks, the size of these blocks is present in the primary volume descriptor as well.

The first field in a volume descriptor is the volume descriptor type (type), which can have the following values:

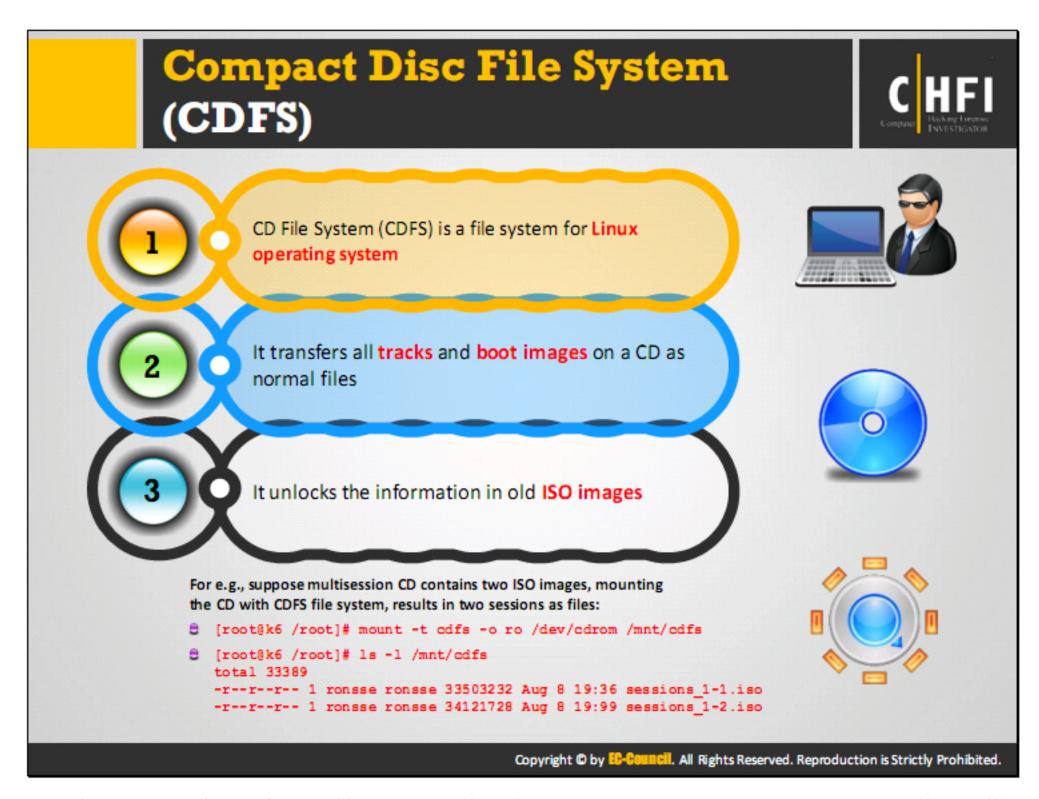
- Number 0: refers that the volume descriptor is a boot record
- Number 1: refers that the volume descriptor is a primary volume descriptor
- Number 2: refers that the volume descriptor is a supplementary volume descriptor
- Number 3: refers that the volume descriptor is a volume partition descriptor
- Number 255: refers that the volume descriptor is a volume descriptor set terminator

The second field is the standard identifier and is set to CD001 for a CD-ROM compliant to the ISO 9660 standard.

Another interesting field is the volume space size, which contains the amount of data available on the CD-ROM.

File attributes are simple in ISO 9660. The most important file attribute is determining whether the file is a directory or an ordinary file. File attributes for the file described by the directory entry are stored in the directory entry and optionally, in the extended attribute record.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org



The CD File System (CDFS) is a file system for the Linux operating system. It transfers all tracks and boot images on a CD, as normal files. These files can then be mounted (for example, for ISO and boot images), copied, and played (audio and video CD tracks). The primary goal for developing this file system was to unlock information in old ISO images.

For instance, if there is a multisession CD with two ISO images that contains the file "a," only the file "a" in the second session is seen only if the ISO 9660 file system is used:

```
[root@k6 /root]# mount -t iso9660 -o ro /dev/cdrom /mnt/cdrom
[root@k6 /root]# ls -l /mnt/cdrom
total 2
-r-xr-xr-x 1 root root 2 Aug 8 19:16 a
-r-xr-xr-x 1 root root 2 Aug 8 19:19 b

If we mount the CD with the CDFS file system, we get the two sessions as files:
[root@k6 /root]# mount -t cdfs -o ro /dev/cdrom /mnt/cdfs
[root@k6 /root]# ls -l /mnt/cdfs
```

-r--r-- 1 ronsseronsse 33503232 Aug 8 19:36 sessions_1-1.iso

-r--r-- 1 ronsseronsse 34121728 Aug 8 1999 sessions 1-2.iso

total 33389

These files can then be mounted loop back:

```
[root@k6 /root]# mount -t iso9660 -o loop /cdfs/sessions_1-1.iso /mnt/loop1
[root@k6 /root]# mount -t iso9660 -o loop /cdfs/sessions_1-2.iso /mnt/loop2
File "a" can be accessed in both sessions:
[root@k6 /root]# ls -l /mnt/loop1
total 9889
-r-xr-xr-x 1 root root 10104236 Aug 8 17:34 a
[root@k6 /root]# ls -l /mnt/loop2
total 2
-r-xr-xr-x 1 root root 2 Aug 8 19:16 a
-r-xr-xr-x 1 root root 2 Aug 8 19:19 b
```

Source: http://users.elis.ugent.be

Virtual File System (VFS) and Universal Disk Format File System (UDF)



Virtual File System (VFS)

- A VFS is programming that specifies an interface between the OS's kernel and the different file systems
- UFS gives client applications access to the various concrete file system in a systematic manner
 - E.g.: provision of transparent access to local and network storage devices without noticeable difference by the client application
- VMware Virtual Machine File System (VMFS), New Technology File System (NTFS), Global File System (GFS) and the Oracle Clustered File System (OCFS) are some of the VFS examples

Universal Disk Format File System (UDF)

- UDF is a file system specification defined by the Optical Storage Technology Association (OSTA), aimed to replace the ISO9660 file system on optical media and also FAT on removable media
- It is an open source file system based on ISO/IEC 13346 and ECMA-167 standards that defines how data is stored and interchanged on a wide variety of optical media

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Virtual File System (VFS)

In Linux, the real file systems remain detached from the operating system and system services, and are connected through an interface layer known as the Virtual File system, or VFS. A VFS is a programming that acts as an interface between the OS's kernel and the different file systems. It provides client applications with constant access to various file system through a common interface. For example, provision of transparent access to local and network storage devices without noticeable difference by the client application. VMware Virtual Machine File System (VMFS), New Technology File System (NTFS), Global File System (GFS) and the Oracle Clustered File System (OCFS) are some of the VFS examples.

The Linux VFS provides fast and efficient access to the files, while ensuring proper storage of files. The VFS also caches information in memory from each file system when mounted and used.

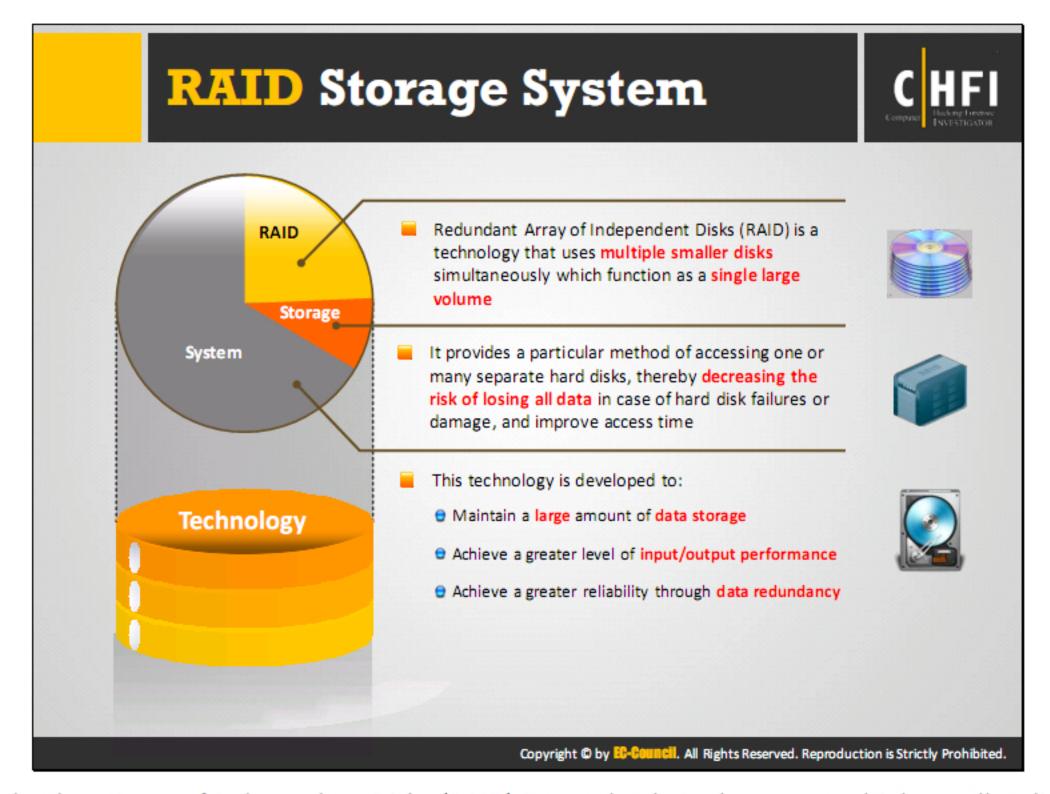
Universal Disk Format File System (UDF)

UDF is a file system specification defined by the Optical Storage Technology Association (OSTA), meant to replace the ISO9660 file system on optical media and also FAT on removable media. It is an open source file system based on ISO/IEC 13346 and ECMA-167 standards that defines how a variety of optical media store and interchange the data.

DVD-ROMs need UDF, as DVDs, CD-R and CD-RW use it to store MPEG audio/video streams in a process called packet writing, which offers more efficiency in time consumption and disk space required.

The UDF standard defines three file system variations, also called builds. These includes:

- Plain (Random Read/Write Access)
- Virtual Allocation Table also known as VAT (Incremental Writing)
- Spared (Limited Random Write Access)



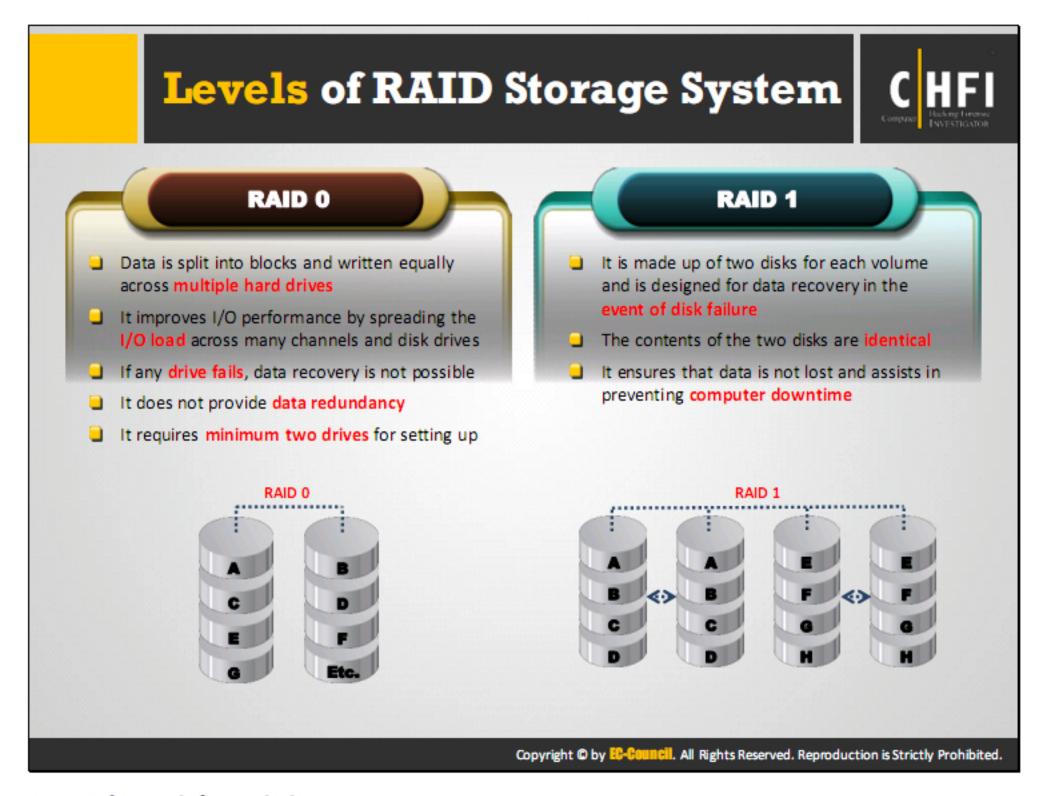
Redundant Array of Independent Disks (RAID) is a technology that uses multiple smaller disks simultaneously, which function as a single large volume. It provides a particular method of accessing one or many separate hard disks, thereby decreasing the risk of losing all data if at all a hard disk fails or is prone to damages, and it also helps in improving access time.

The RAID technology helps users to:

- Maintain a large amount of data storage.
- Achieve a greater level of input/output performance.
- Achieve greater reliability through data redundancy.

The basic idea of the RAID storage system is to group multiple small and cheap hard disks into an array of hard disks that provides performance greater than that of single large hard disk. A RAID storage system is a collection of hard disks that work as and also appear to be a single large capacity disk drive to the user. The main advantage of the RAID system is that if any disk in the RAID array fails or is susceptible to damage; the system still continues to function without any loss of data. This is possible because the data of each separate hard disk is stored on another disk in an array.

The RAID system allows multiple simultaneous accesses to different files on different hard disks, which reduces the time required to find the data on a hard disk. Data transfer considerably increases on a RAID system over a single hard disk.



RAID Level 0: Disk Striping

It is the simplest RAID level, which does not involve any redundancy and fragments the file into user-defined stripe size of the array. Then it sends these stripes to every disk in the array. As RAID 0 does not have redundancy, it allows this RAID level to offer the best overall performance characteristics of the single RAID levels.

Following are the features of RAID level 0: Disk Striping

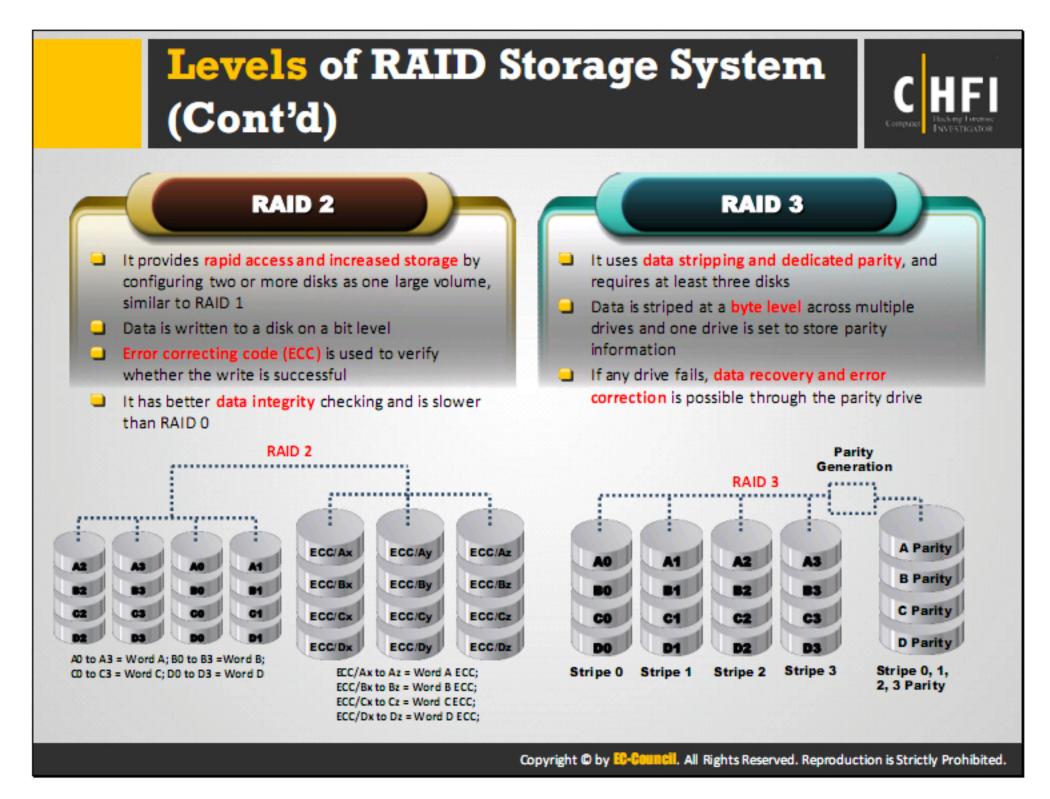
- Split data into blocks and writes equally across multiple hard drives
- If any drive fails, data recovery is not possible
- It does not provide data redundancy
- It requires a minimum of two drives to set up
- The main benefit of this level is its high level of input/output performance, as it spreads the inputs/outputs across multiple channels and hard drives
- Data transfer rate is fast and most efficient

RAID Level 1: Disk Mirroring

RAID 1 generally executes mirroring as it duplicates or copies the drive data on to two different drives using a hardware RAID controller or a software. If one of the drives fail, the other will function as a single drive until a user replaces the failed drive with a new one.

Following are the features of disk mirroring:

- Writes multiple copies of data to multiple drives at the same time
- It provides data redundancy by completely duplicating the drive data to multiple drives
- If one drive fails, data recovery is possible
- It requires a minimum of two drives to set up
- The performance of this level is faster on reading data and slower on writing data compared to the single hard drive because the data is distributed between multiple hard drives
- This level provides the best protection of data
- The main disadvantage of this level is that data access speed is slow
- It provides high data consistency and continued data availability in case of failure of any hard disk drive
- It gives 100% data redundancy and does not require rebuild time



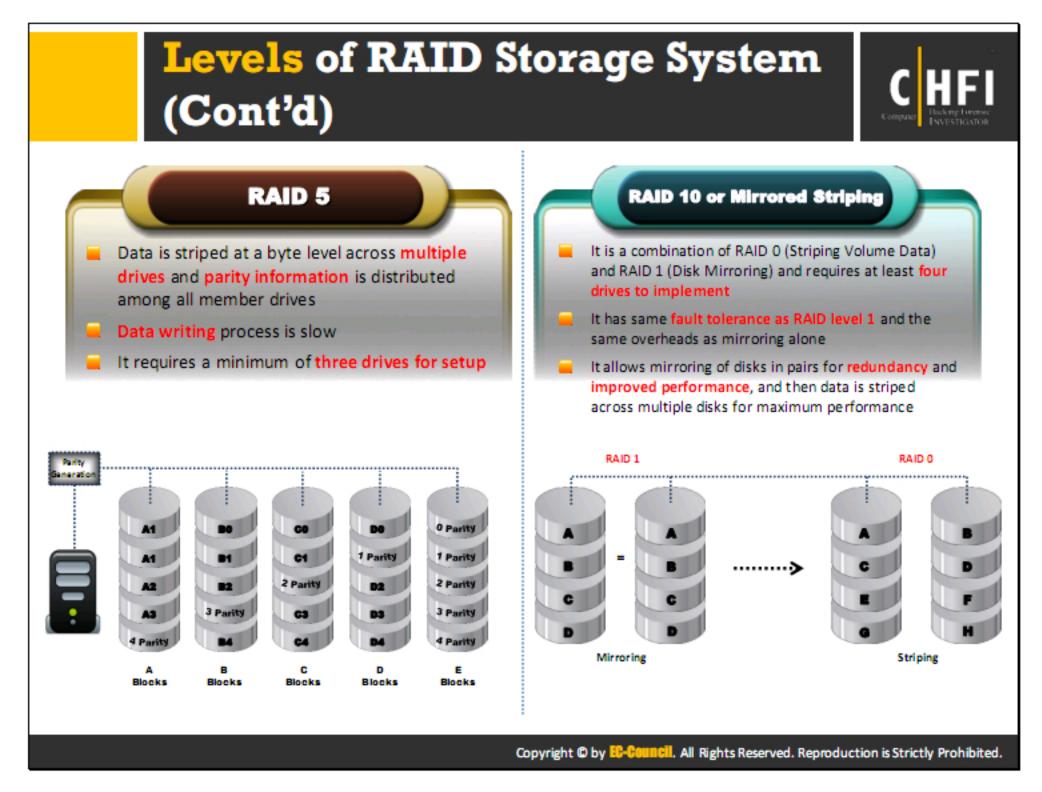
RAID 2

RAID 2 is the only level among all the RAID levels that does not implement even one of the standard techniques of parity, mirroring or striping. It uses a technique similar to striping with parity. It includes splitting of data at the bit level and distributing it to numerous data disks and redundancy disks.

Hamming codes, which is a form of error correcting code (ECC), help to calculate these redundant bits. When a user writes something to an array, the system calculates the codes and writes them together with the data to dedicated ECC disks.

RAID 3

RAID 3 uses byte-level stripping with a dedicated parity disk, which stores checksums. It also supports a special processor for parity codes calculation. This RAID cannot cater multiple data requests simultaneously. If a failure occurs, it enables data recovery by an applicable calculation of the parity bytes, and the remaining bytes which relate with them.

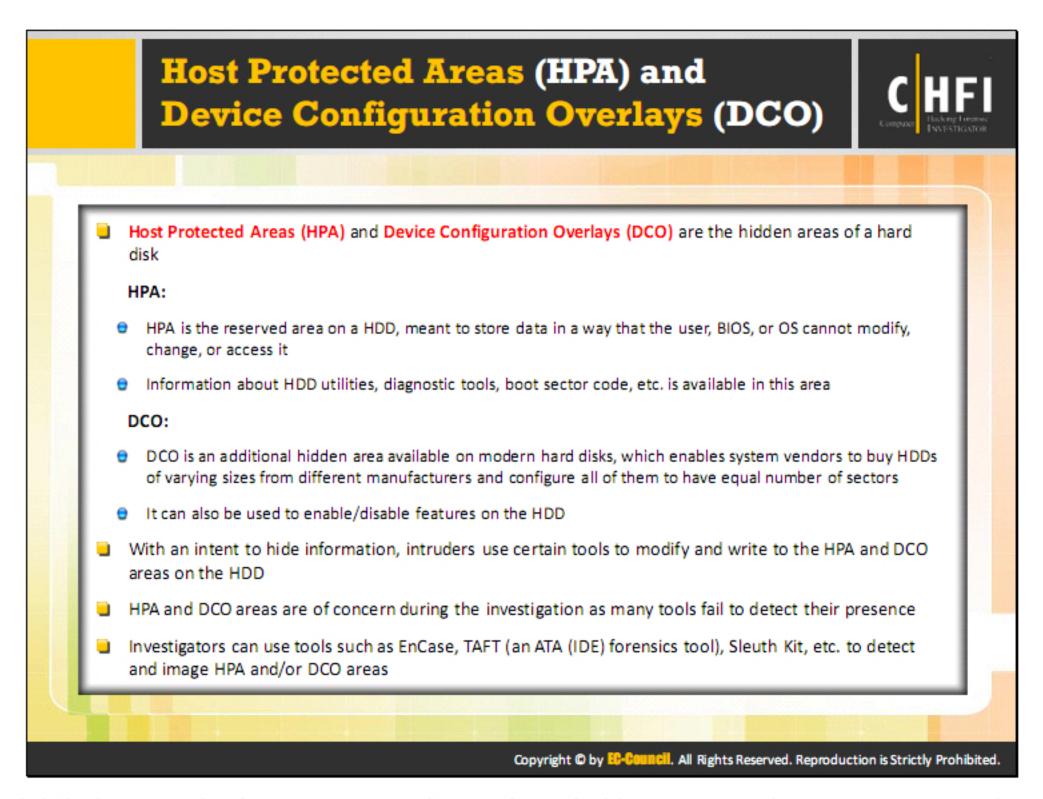


RAID 5

Uses byte level data striping across multiple drives, and distributes the parity information among all member drives. Data writing process is slow. It requires a minimum of three drives to set up. The RAID stripes and distributes the error detection and correction code or Data and parity code across three or more drives.

RAID 10

RAID 10, also known as RAID 1+0, is a combination of RAID 0 (Striping Volume Data) and RAID 1 (Disk Mirroring) to protect data. It requires at least four drives to implement. It has same fault tolerance as RAID level 1 and the same overheads as mirroring alone. It allows mirroring of disks in pairs for redundancy and improved performance, and then stripes data across multiple disks for maximum performance. The user retrieves data from the RAID if one disk in each mirrored pair is working; however, if two disks in the same mirrored pair fail, the data is not available.



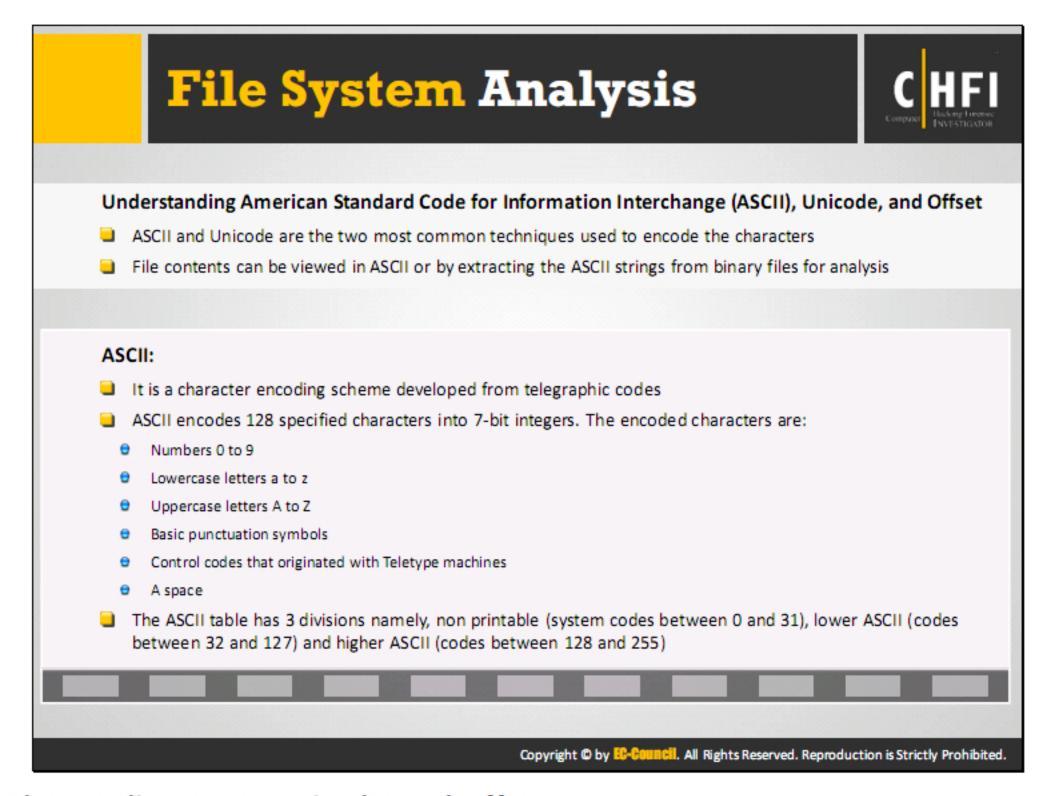
Hard disk drives and other storage media can have hidden areas such as Host Protected Areas (HPA) and Device Configuration Overlays (DCO).

Host Protected Areas (HPA): First introduced in the ATA-4 standard, HPA is a reserved area on a Hard Disk Drive (HDD) or a Solid State Drive (SSD) that is not visible to the operating system. This space stores data, which the users, BIOS or OS of a system cannot modify, change, or access it. It can store information about HDD utilities, diagnostic tools, boot sector code, etc.

The three ATA commands that can help users to create and use a hidden protected area

- IDENTIFY DEVICE
- SET MAX ADDRESS
- READ NATIVE MAX ADDRESS
- Device Configuration Overlays (DCO): First introduced in the ATA-6 standard, DCO is an additional hidden area available on modern hard disks, which enables system vendors to buy HDDs of varying sizes from different manufactures and configure all of them to have equal number of sectors. DCO refers to the area hidden from the system, BIOS, and users. It can help the users to enable/disable features on the HDD. To determine the actual size and features of a disk, it is required to use the command the DEVICE_CONFIGURATION_IDENTIFY.

These areas can prove to be tricky to the users as perpetrators can hide data in them without knowledge of the investigators. The intruders use certain tools to modify and write to the HPA and DCO areas on the HDD. Investigators can use tools such as EnCase, TAFT (an ATA (IDE) forensics tool), Sleuth Kit, etc. to detect and image HPA and/or DCO areas.



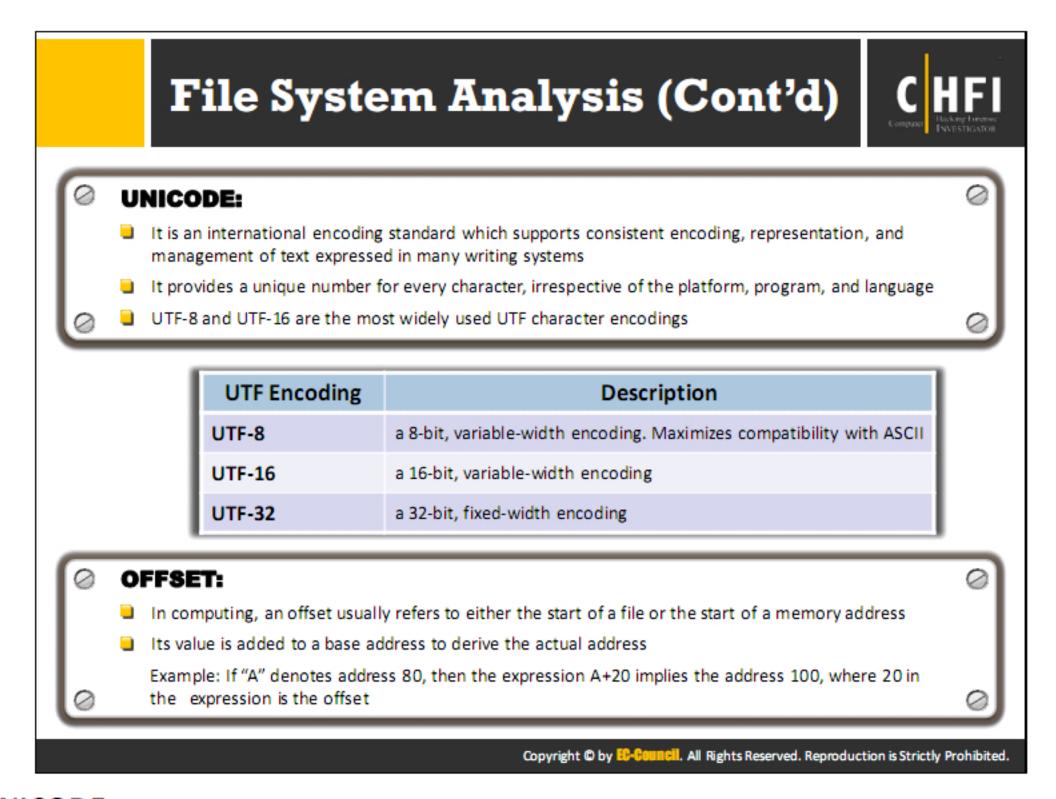
Understanding ASCII, Unicode, and Offset

American Standard Code for Information Interchange (ASCII)

Developed from telegraph codes, ASCII is a character encoding standard used in digital devices such as computers. The standard has 128 specified characters coded into 7-bit integers. Source code of a program, batch files, macros, scripts, HTML and XML documents are also ASCII files. The characters encoded are:

- Numbers 0 to 9
- Lowercase letters a to z
- Uppercase letters A to Z
- Basic punctuation symbols
- Control codes that originated with teletype machines
- A space

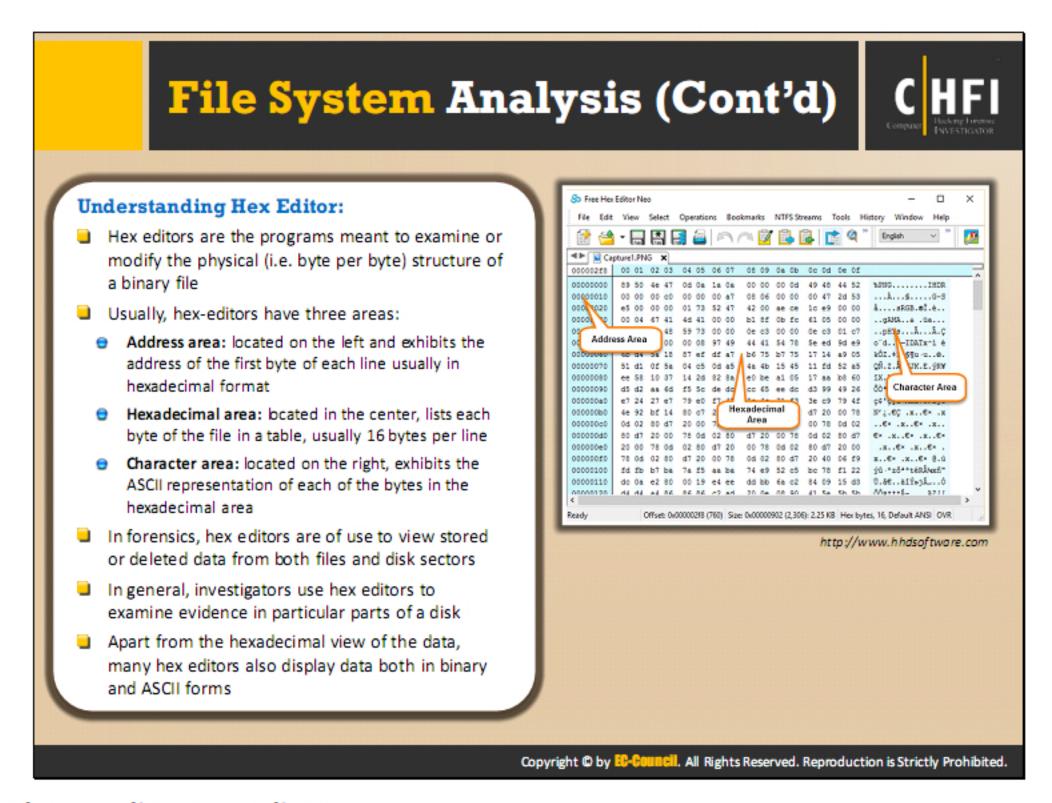
ASCII is a machine readable language, used in major digital operations such as sending and receiving emails. The ASCII table has 3 divisions namely, non-printable (system codes between 0 and 31), lower ASCII (codes between 32 and 127), and higher ASCII (codes between 128 and 255). The graphics files and documents use non-ASCII characters made in word processers, spreadsheet or database programs and sent as email file attachments.



UNICODE

Unicode is a computing standard, developed along with the Universal Coded Character Set (UCS) standard for encoding, representation, and management of texts, which most of the world's writing systems use. It provides a unique number for every character, irrespective of the platform, program, and language.

Unicode contains more than 128,000 characters from about 135 modern and historic scripts. Technologies such as modern operating systems, XML, Java, and the Microsoft .NET Framework have adopted the Unicode standards.



Understanding Hex Editor

A hex editor is a program that allows users to modify the fundamental binary data of a file. Using a hex editor, the user can see or edit the contents of a file. A hex editor has three display areas including an address area, a hexadecimal area, and a character area. Each area shows different values.

In digital forensic investigations, the hex editors allow the investigators to view any data stored in disk and also search for the remnants of deleted files. A hex editor allows investigators to view the physical contents stored on a disk, including the files, directories, or partitions.

Other functions include cracking of copy-protected software, studying of how computer viruses work, identify and retrieve hidden information.

File System Analysis (Cont'd) Binary HEX Base 10 0 0000 0 0001 **Understanding Hexadecimal Notation:** 0010 3 3 0011 Hexadecimal numeral system, also known as hex, is a 0100 numeral system with base 16 0101 In hexadecimal notation 0–9 represent zero to nine 6 0110 values and English alphabets A, B, C, D, E, and F 7 0111 7 represent ten to fifteen values 1000 E.g.: 2BA in hexadecimal is the same as 0010 1011 1010 9 1001 binary 1010 10 Hexadecimal notation allows using powers of 2 easily В 1011 11 instead of writing the whole thing in binary 1100 12 D 1101 13 Ε 1110 14 1111 15 Copyright © by EG-CONNELL. All Rights Reserved. Reproduction is Strictly Prohibited.

File Carving It is a technique to recover files and fragments of files from unallocated space of the hard disk in the absence of file metadata In this technique, file identification and extraction is based on certain characteristics like file header or footer rather than the file extension or metadata A file header is a signature (also known as a magic number) which is a constant numeric or text value that determines a file format Example: A suspect may try to hide an image from being detected by investigators by changing the file extension from .jpg to .dll However, changing the file extension does not change to the file header, and analysis tells the actual file format Example: A file format is confirmed as .jpg if it shows "JFIF" in the file header and hex signature as "4A 46 49 46" Investigators can take a look at file headers to verify the file format using tools such as 010 Editor, CI Hex Viewer, Hexinator, Hex Editor Neo, Qiew, WinHex, etc.

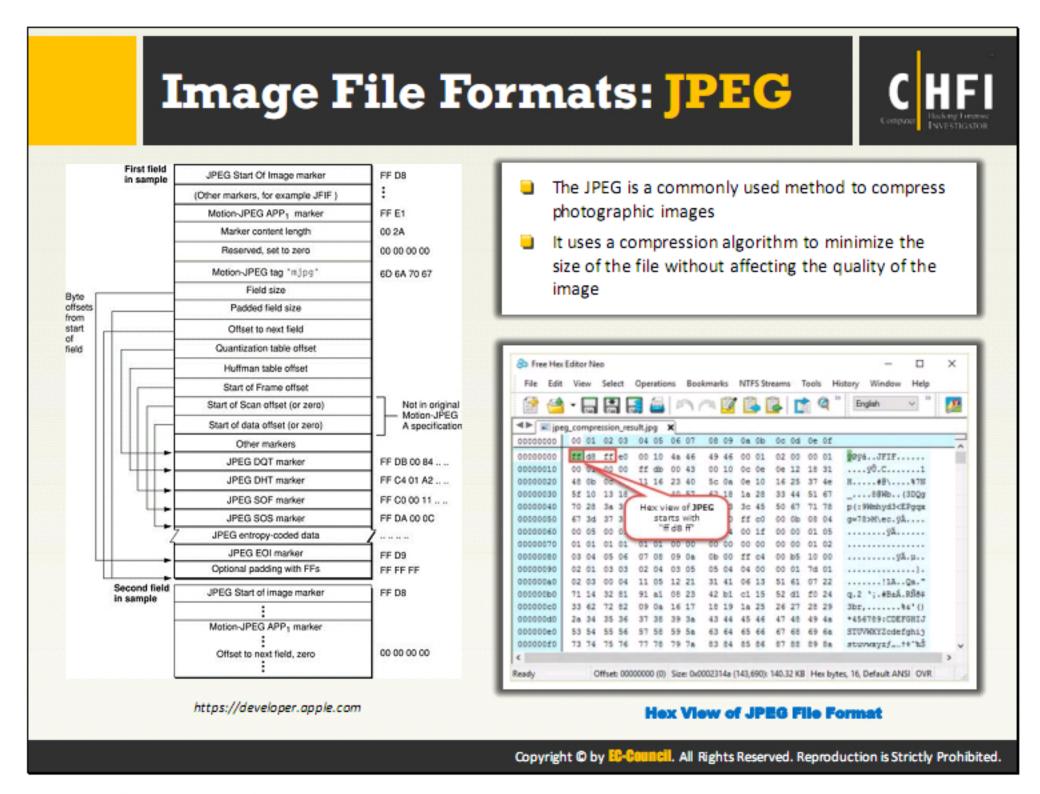
File Carving is the process of recovering files from their fragments and pieces from unallocated space of the hard disk in the absence of file system metadata. In computer forensics, it helps investigators to extract data from a storage media without any support of the file system used in creation of the file.

Unallocated space refers to the hard disk space that does not contain any file information, but store file data without the details of its location. Investigators can identify the files using certain characteristics like file header (the first few bytes) and footer (the last few bytes).

For example, a suspect may try to hide an image from detection by investigators by changing the file extension from .jpg to .dll. However, changing the file extension does not make changes to the file header, which on analyzing will reveal the actual file format.

File carving methods may vary based on different elements such as the fragments of data present, deletion technique used, type of storage media, etc. This process depends on the information about the format of the existing files of interest and guesses of the file information layout on other devices. Investigators can take a look at file headers to verify the file format using tools such as 010 Editor, CI Hex Viewer, Hexinator, Hex Editor Neo, Qiew, WinHex, etc.

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JPEG is an abbreviation for Joint Photographic Experts Group, the committee that created the JPEG standard and JPED is the term used for representing any graphic image file produced by using a JPEG standard.

It is a method of lossy compression for digital images and allows users to adjust the degree of compression, which has selectable impact on the storage size and image quality. JPEG files allow compression ratio of 90%, which is one-tenth of the size of the data.

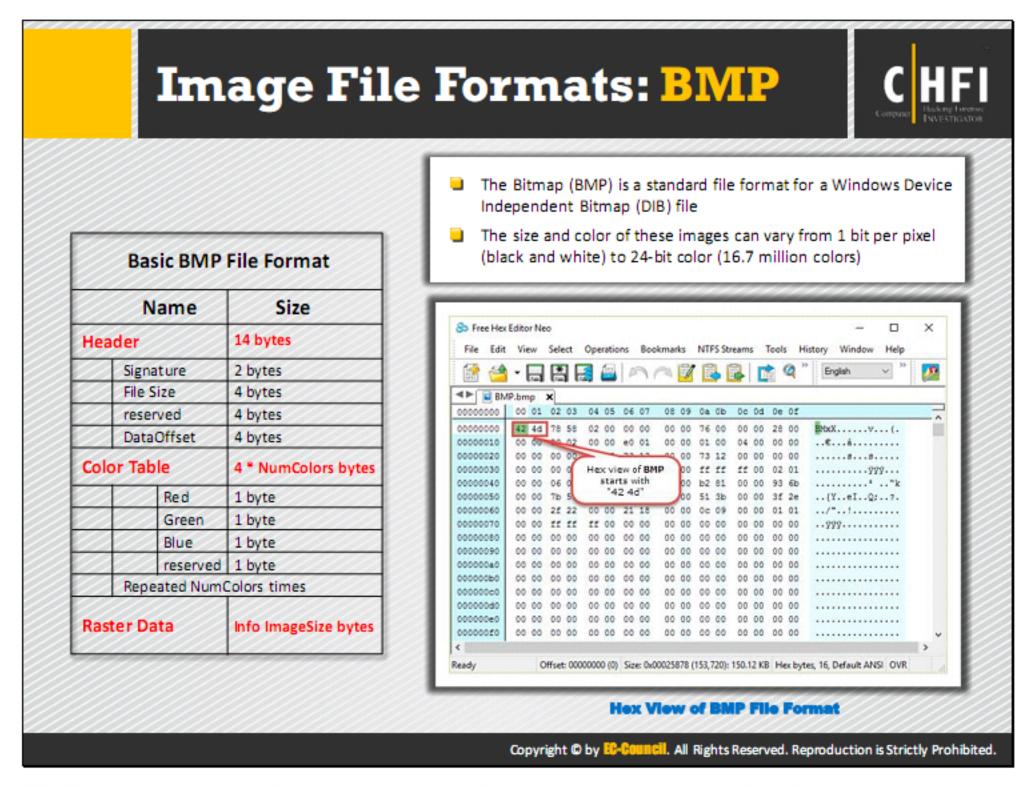
File Structure

A JPEG bit stream contains a sequence of data chunks. Every chunk starts with the marker value, each marker having a 16-bit integer value, and it is stored in big endian byte format. The most significant bit of marker is set to <code>Oxff</code>. The lower byte of the marker determines the type of marker.

The first bits of a file represent the file type and JPEG files start with binary value 0xffd8 (SOI—start of image) and end with binary value 0xffd9 (EOI—end of image). Therefore, ffd8 (the 0x is implied) at the beginning represents a JPEG file when viewed with a hex editor. A JPEG bit-stream contains a sequence of data chunks, or segments, and every chunk starts with a marker value. The basic format of a segment is the 16-bit integer value that determines the file size value. The most significant byte of the marker (the left-most bit) is 0xff. The lower byte of the marker determines the type of marker.

The basic format of a segment is as follows: 0xff marker number (1 byte) data; size (2 bytes); and data (n bytes)

For example, for the marker FF E1 00 0E, the marker (0xFFE1) has 0x000E (which equals 14) bytes of data. But the data size 14 includes the data size descriptor (2 bytes); thus, only 12 bytes of data follow after 0x000E. Figure 5-3 shows a JPEG file structure. Figure 5-4 shows possible kinds of segment markers in JPEGs.



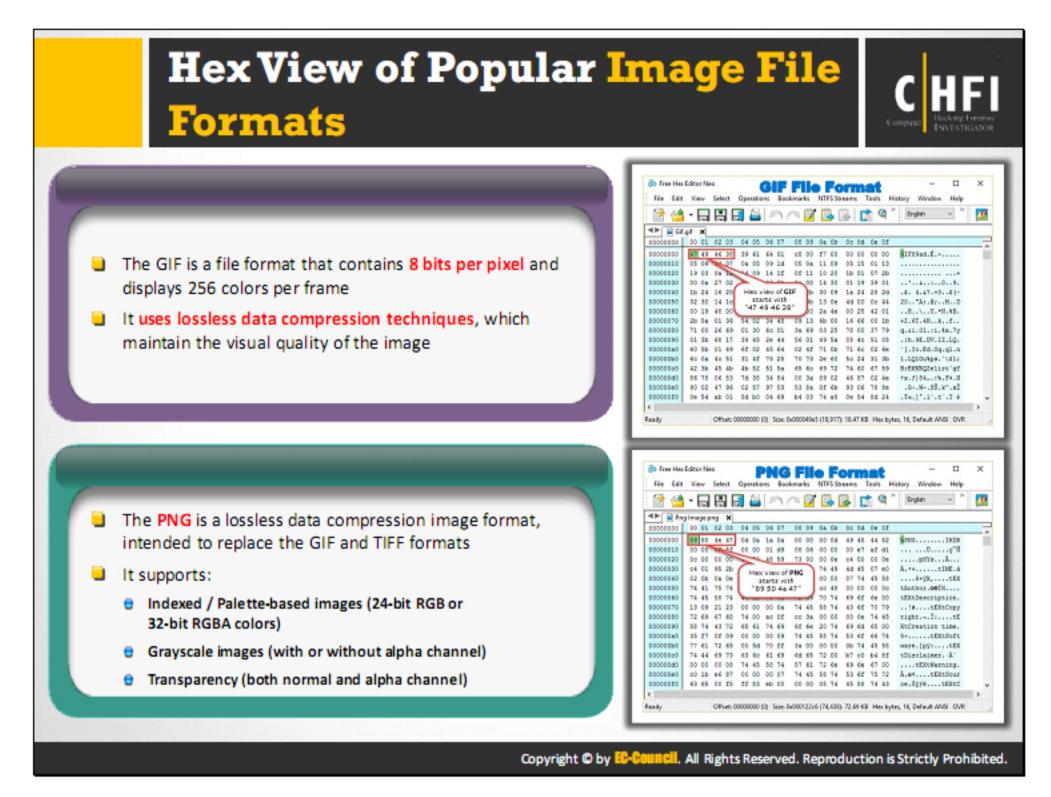
BMP file format, also called as bitmap image file or device independent bitmap (DIB) file format or a bitmap, is a standard graphics image file format used to store images on Windows operating systems. Microsoft developed this format so that Windows can display the image on any type of screens. Bitmap images can include animations. The size and color of these images can vary from 1 bit per pixel (black and white) to 24-bit color (16.7 million colors).

File Structure

BMP File Structure: Every bitmap file contains the following data structure:

- File header: The first part of the header that includes the data about the type, size, and layout of a file.
- Information header: A header component that contains the dimensions, compression type, and color format for the bitmap.
- The RGBQUAD array: A color table that comprises the array of elements equal to the colors present in the bitmap; this color table does not support bitmaps with 24 color bits, as each pixel is represented by24-bit RGB values in the actual bitmap.
- Image data: The array of bytes that contains bitmap image data; image data comprises color and shading information for each pixel.

A bitmap file always has 42 4D as the first characters in a hexadecimal representation. These characters translate to BM in the ASCII code.



GIF File Format

GIF is a file format that contains 8 bits per pixel and displays 256 colors per frame. CompuServe generated the GIF format in 1987. GIF uses lossless data compression techniques, which maintain the visual quality of the image.

There are currently two versions of GIF:

- GIF 87a: Developed in 1987; it is the first version of GIF that uses the LZW file compression technique and supports features such as interlacing, 256-color palettes, and multiple image storage.
- GIF 89a: Created in 1989; this version supports features like background transparency, delay times, and image replacement parameters. These features are useful for storing multiple images as animations.

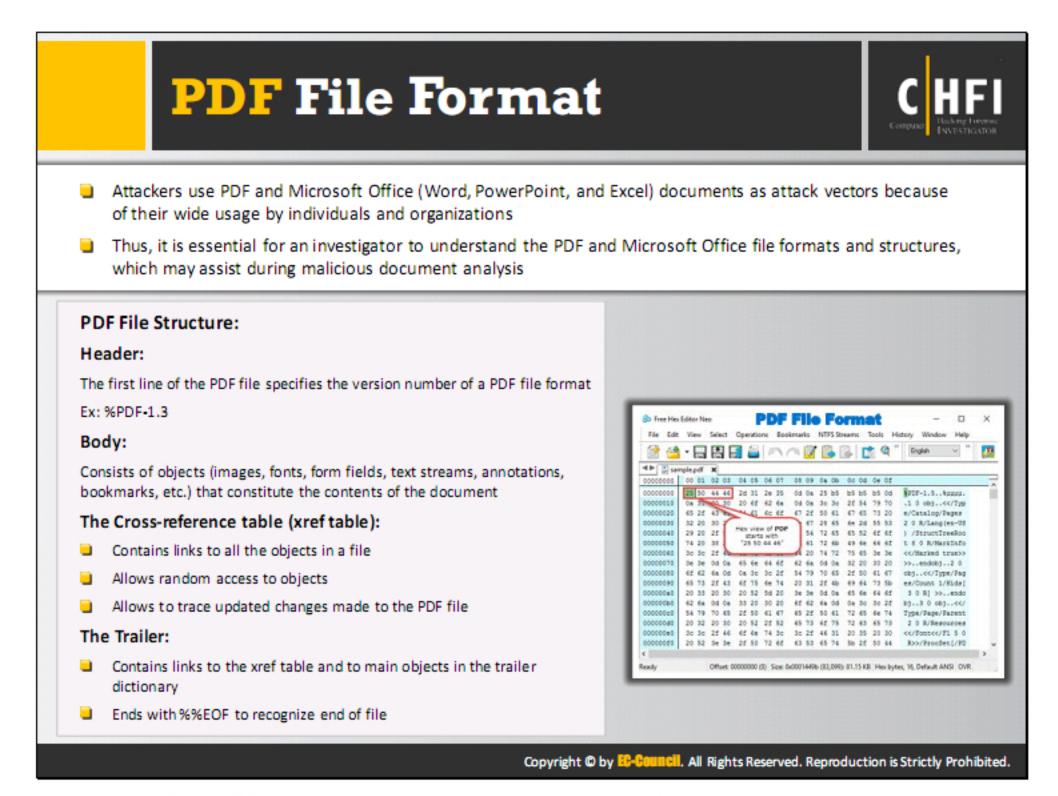
GIF file structure includes a header, image data, optional metadata, and footer. The hex value of a GIF image file starts with the values 47 49 46, which represent the GIF file name.

PNG File Format

PNG, short for Portable Network Graphics, is a lossless image format intended to replace the GIF and TIFF formats. PNG improves the GIF file format and replaces it with the image file format. It is copyright and license free. PNG file format supports 24-bit true color, transparency in both the normal and alpha channels as well as indexed/palette-based images of 24-bit RGB or 32-bit RGBA colors and grayscale images.

PNG file signature consists of the reminder of the file having single PNG image. These images are comprised of a series of chunks, starting with an IHDR chunk and ending with an IEND chunk.

PNG file hex values begin with 89 50 4e, which is the hex value for GIF.

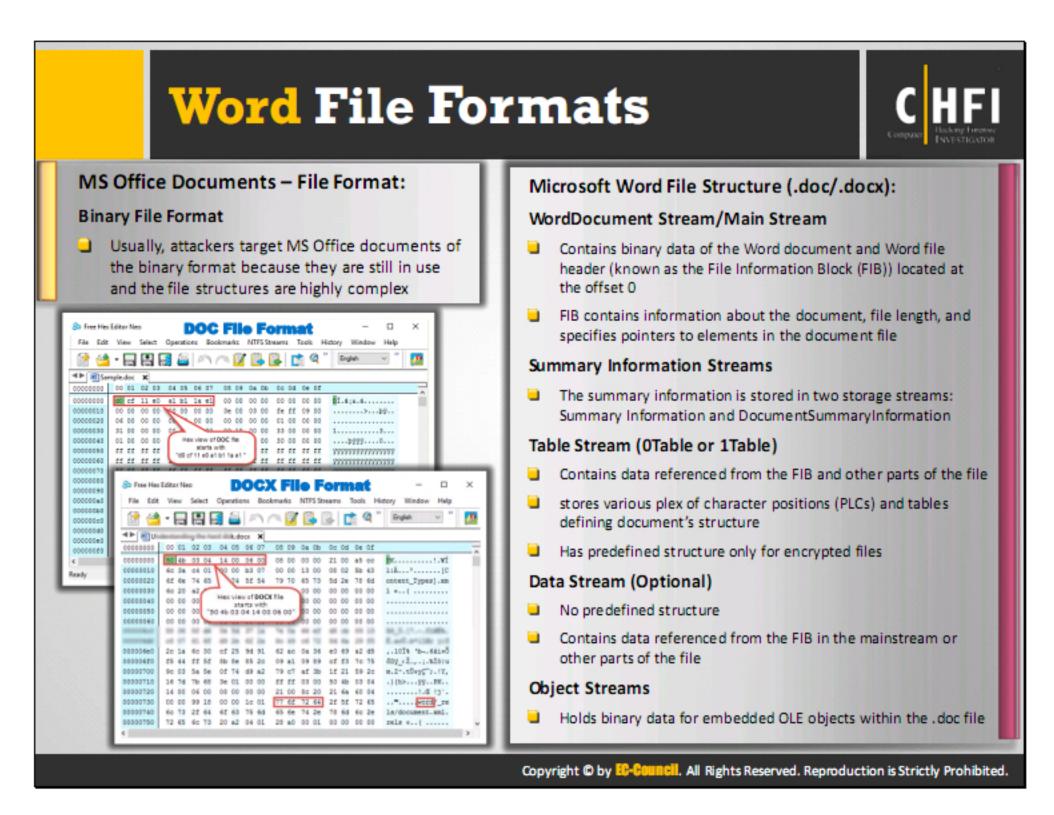


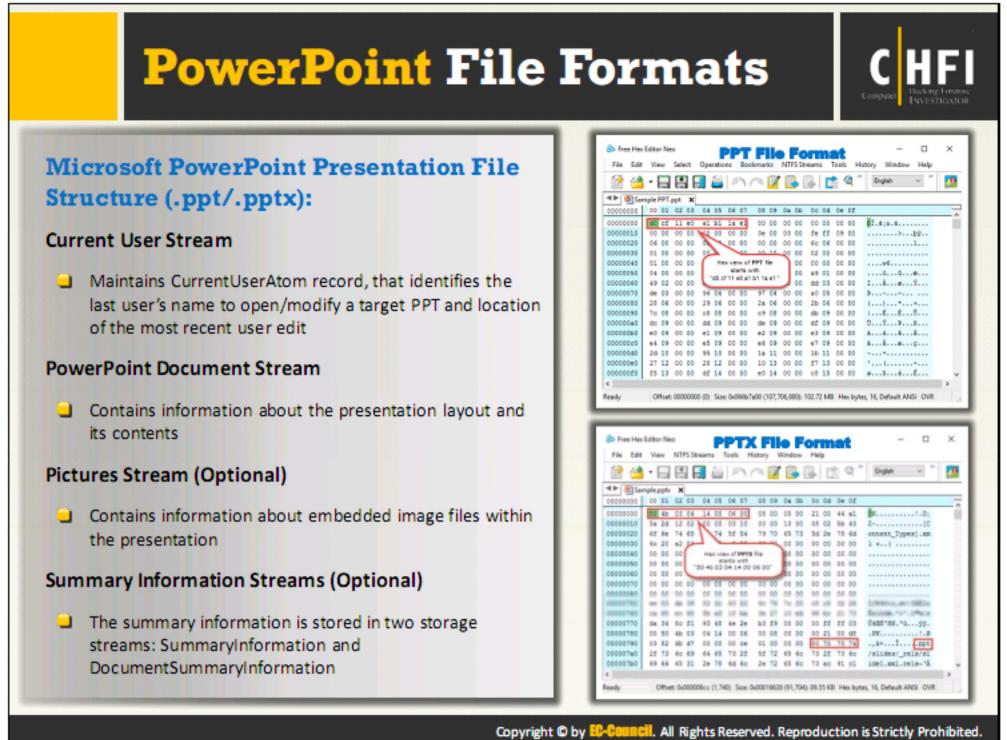
Adobe Inc. developed the Portable Document Format (PDF) file format in 1992. It helps users to easily view, save, and print a document independent of any platform, operating system, hardware or any software, which they are using. It consists of text with media components like images, links etc. An Acrobat reader can open and display the PDF files.

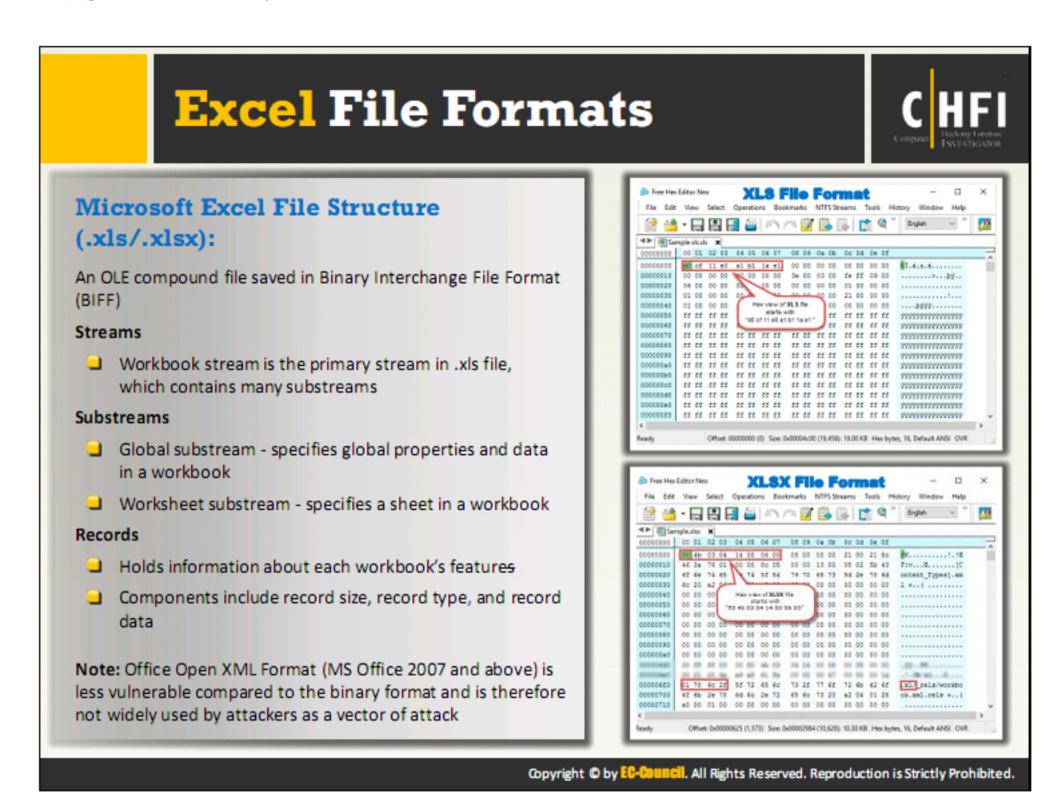
Advantages

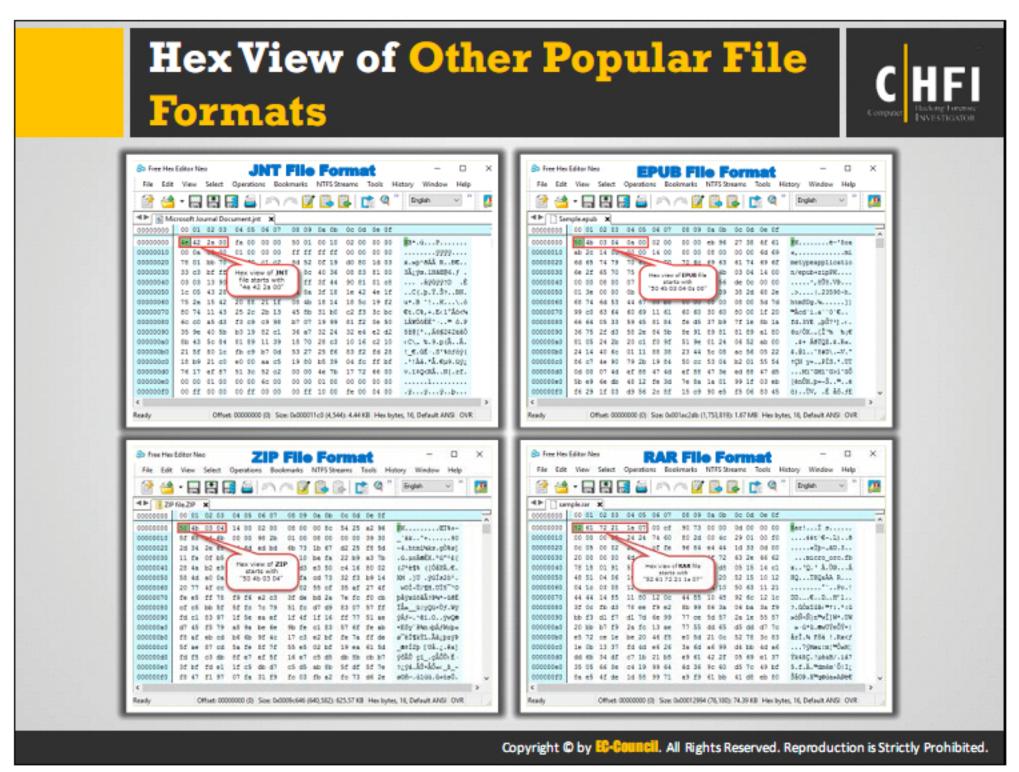
- PDF files are device independent and support different systems like MAC, Linux, etc.
- These files support different compression algorithms
- They also support several multimedia elements
- It allows password protection

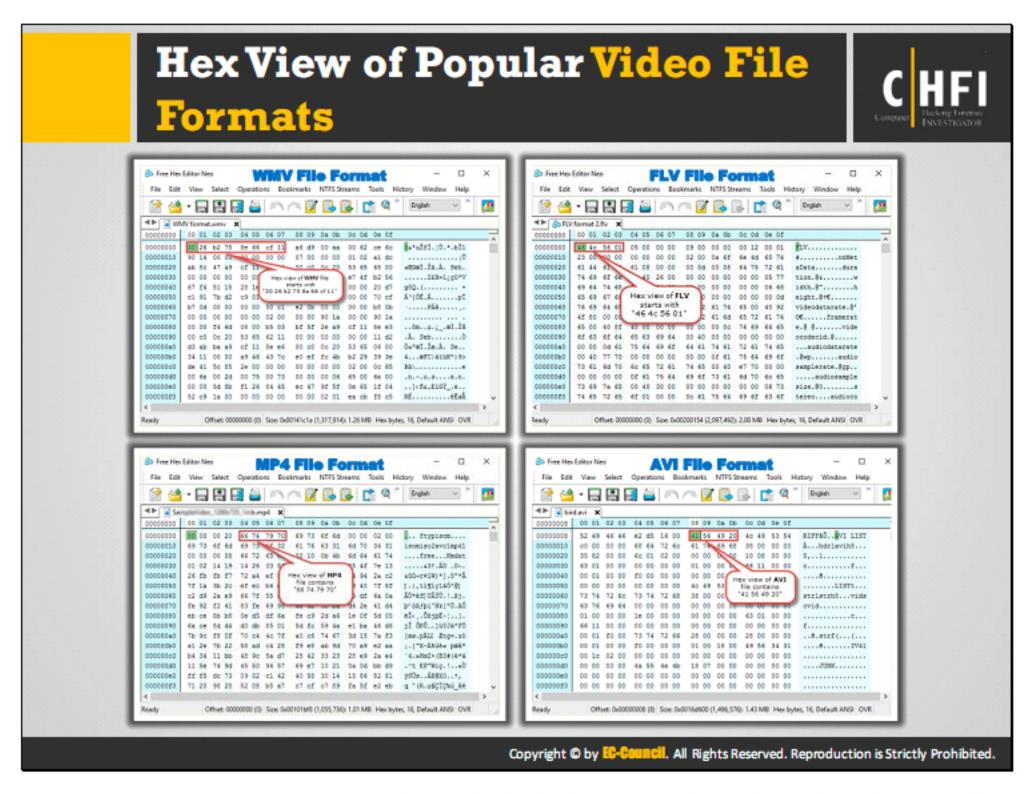
Hex values for a PDF begin with 25 50 44 46, which is the signature of every PDF file representing the %PDF values in hexadecimal form. The file version of PDF follows the signature while the file ends with %EOF value, representing the end of file.

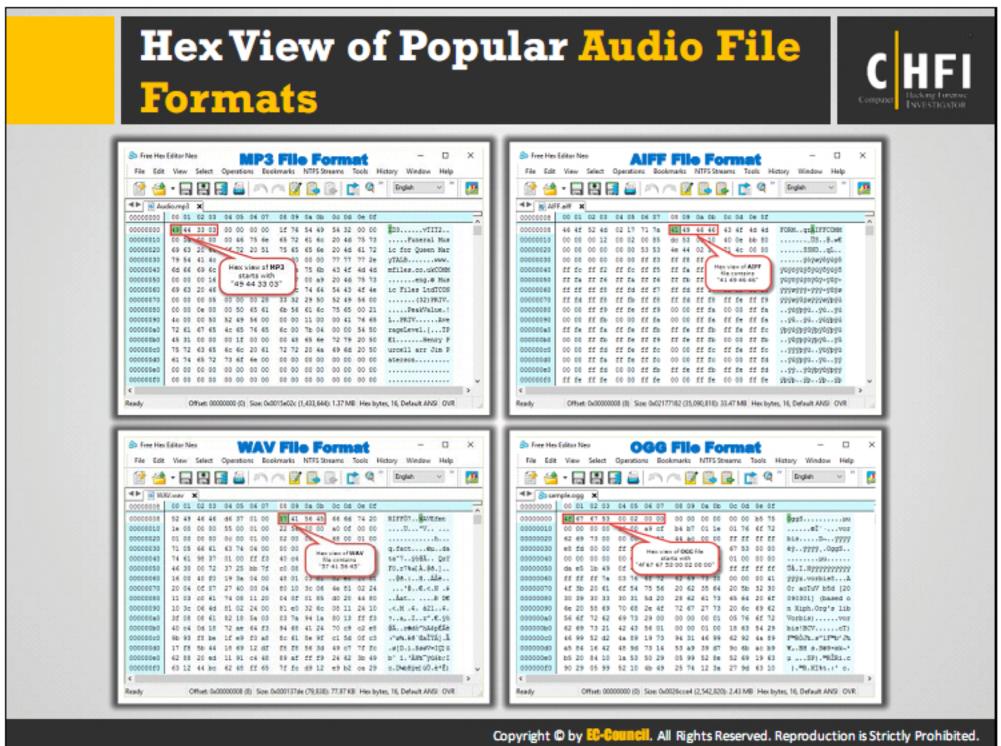


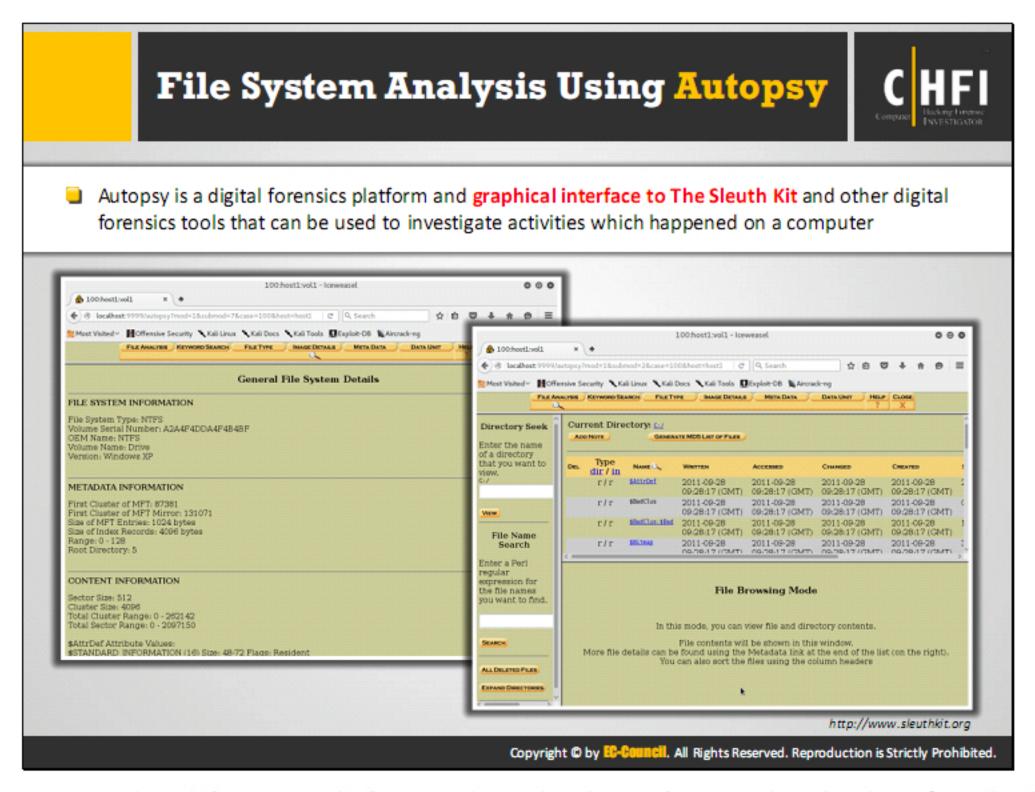








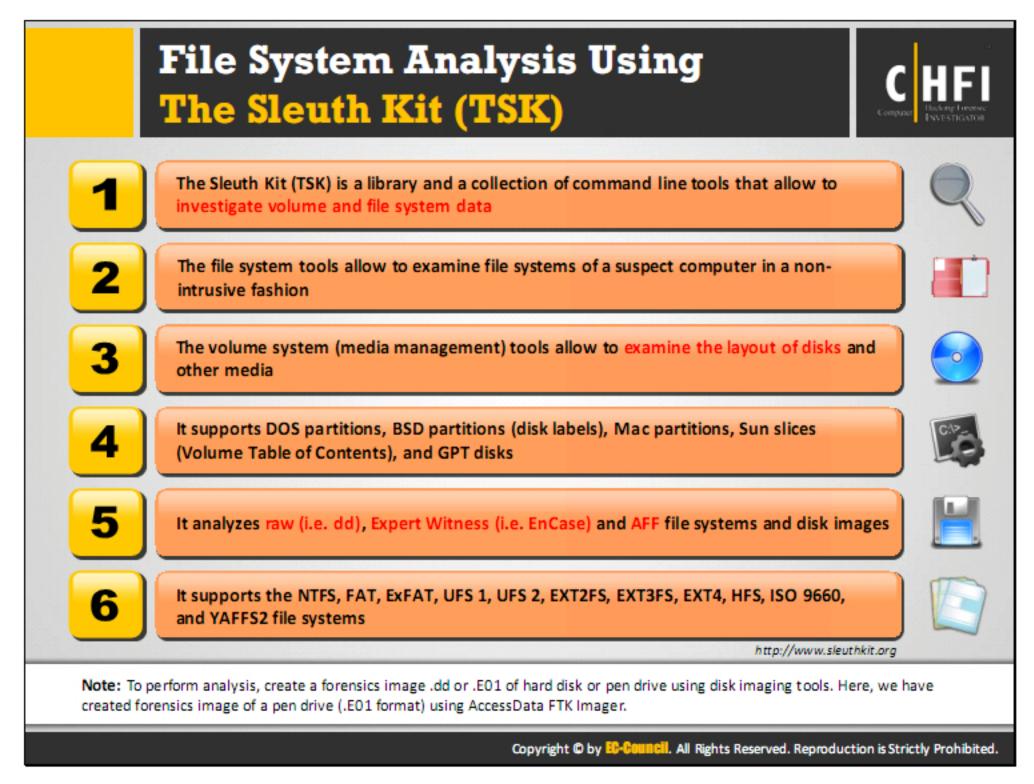




Autopsy is a digital forensics platform and graphical interface to The Sleuth Kit® and other digital forensics tools. Law enforcement, military, and corporate examiners use it to investigate what happened on a computer. You can even use it to recover photos from your camera's memory card.

Autopsy is an end-to-end platform with modules that come with it out of the box and others that are available from third-parties. Some of the modules provide:

- Timeline Analysis Advanced graphical event viewing interface (video tutorial included).
- Hash Filtering Flag known bad files and ignore known good.
- Keyword Search Indexed keyword search to find files that mention relevant terms.
- Web Artifacts Extract history, bookmarks, cookies from Firefox, Chrome, and IE.
- Data Carving Recover deleted files from unallocated space using PhotoRec.
- Multimedia Extract EXIF from pictures and watch videos.
- Indicators of Compromise Scan a computer using STIX.



The Sleuth Kit® (TSK) is a library and collection of command line tools that allow you to investigate disk images. The core functionality of TSK allows you to analyze volume and file system data. The plug-in framework allows you to incorporate additional modules to analyze file contents and build automated systems. The library can be incorporated into larger digital forensics tools and the command line tools can be directly used to find evidence.

- Volume and File System Analysis
- Plug-in Framework
- Download
- Documents
- History
- Licenses



fsstat - Display general details of a file system

Syntax

fsstat [-f fstype] [-i imgtype] [-o imgoffset] [-b dev_sector_size] [-tvV]
image [images]

Description

fsstat displays the details associated with a file system. The output of this command is file system specific. At a minimum, the range of meta-data values (inode numbers) and content units (blocks or clusters) are given. Also given are details from the Super Block, such as mount times and features. For file systems using groups (FFS and EXT2FS), the tool lists the layout of each group.

For a FAT file system, the FAT table is in a condensed format. Note that the data is in sectors and not in clusters.

Arguments

- -t type
 Print the file system type only.
- -f fstype

Specify the file system type. Use '-f list' to list the supported file system types. If not given, autodetection methods are used.

-i imgtype

Identify the type of image file, such as raw. Use '-i list' to list the supported types. If not given, autodetection methods are used.

-o imgoffset

The sector offset where the file system starts in the image.

-b dev_sector_size

The size, in bytes, of the underlying device sectors. If not given, the value in the image format is used (if it exists) or 512-bytes is assumed.

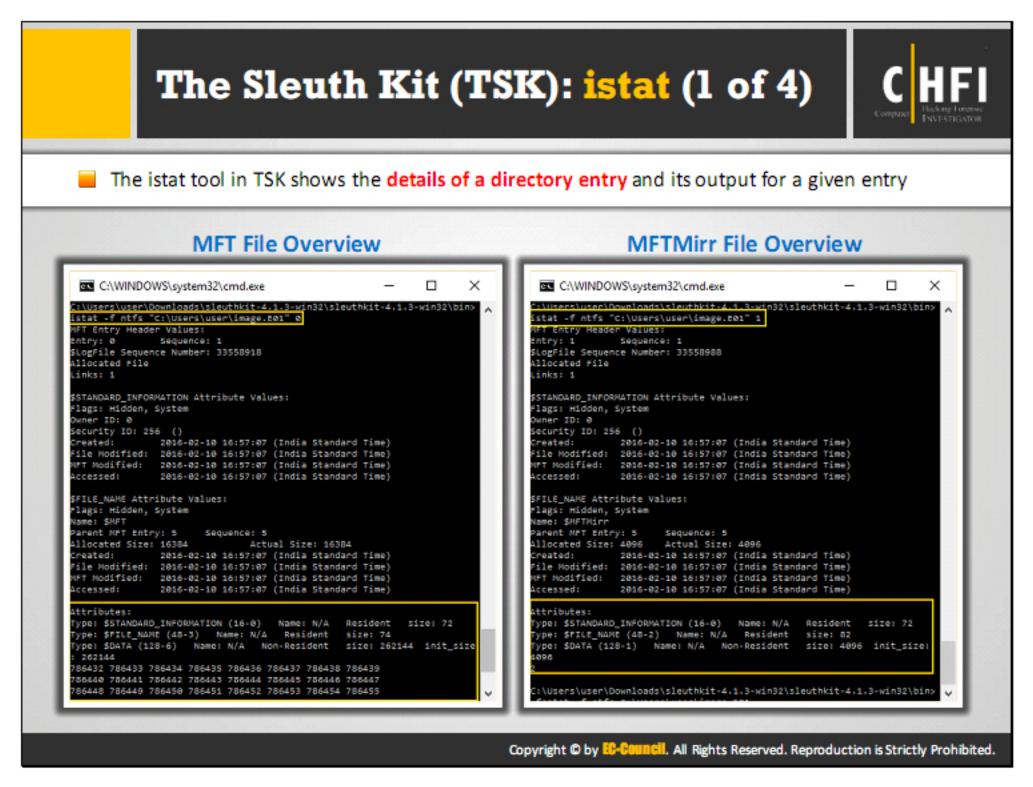
-V

Verbose output of debugging statements to stderr

-V

Display version

In the above image, the investigator uses fsstat command line tool from the Sleuth Kit to view details of an NTFS image named image. E01.



istat - Display details of a meta-data structure (i.e. inode)

Syntax

```
istat [-B num ] [-f fstype ] [-i imgtype] [-o imgoffset] [-b dev_sector_size]
[-vV] [-z zone ] [-s seconds ] image [images] inode
```

Description

istat displays the uid, gid, mode, size, link number, modified, accessed, changed times, and all the disk units a structure has allocated.

The options are as follows:

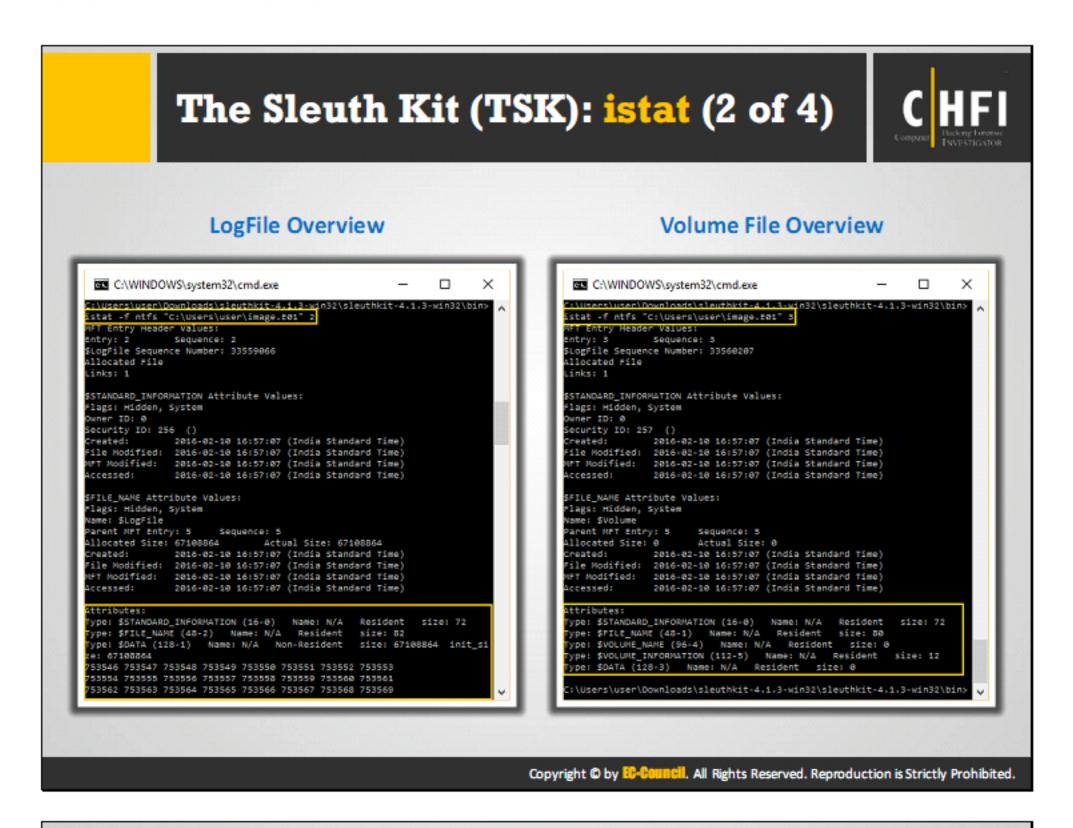
- B num: Display the addresses of num disk units. Useful when the inode is unallocated with size 0 but still has block pointers.
- -f fstype: Specify the file system type. Use '-f list' to list the supported file system types.
 If not given, autodetection methods are used.
- -s seconds: The time skew of the original system in seconds. For example, if the original system was 100 seconds slow, this value would be -100.
- -i imgtype: Identify the type of image file, such as raw. Use '-i list' to list the supported types. If not given, autodetection methods are used.
- -o imgoffset: The sector offset where the file system starts in the image.

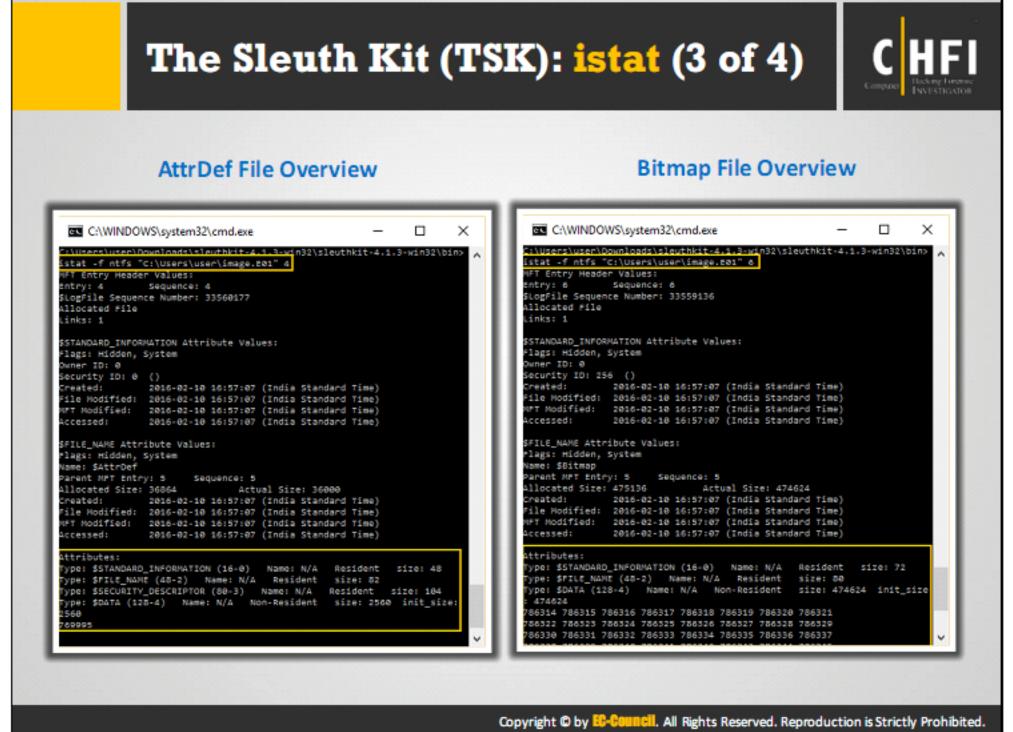
- -b dev_sector_size: The size, in bytes, of the underlying device sectors. If not given, the
 value in the image format is used (if it exists) or 512-bytes is assumed.
- -v: Verbose output of debugging statements to stderr
- -V: Display version
- -z zone: An ASCII string of the original system's time zone. For example, EST5EDT or GMT. These strings are defined by the operating system and may vary. NOTE: This has changed since TCTUTILs.
- image [images]: The disk or partition image to read, whose format is given with '-i'. Multiple image file names can be given if the image is split into multiple segments. If only one image file is given and its name is the first in a sequence (e.g., as indicated by ending in '.001'), subsequent image segments will be included automatically.
- Inode: Meta-data number to display

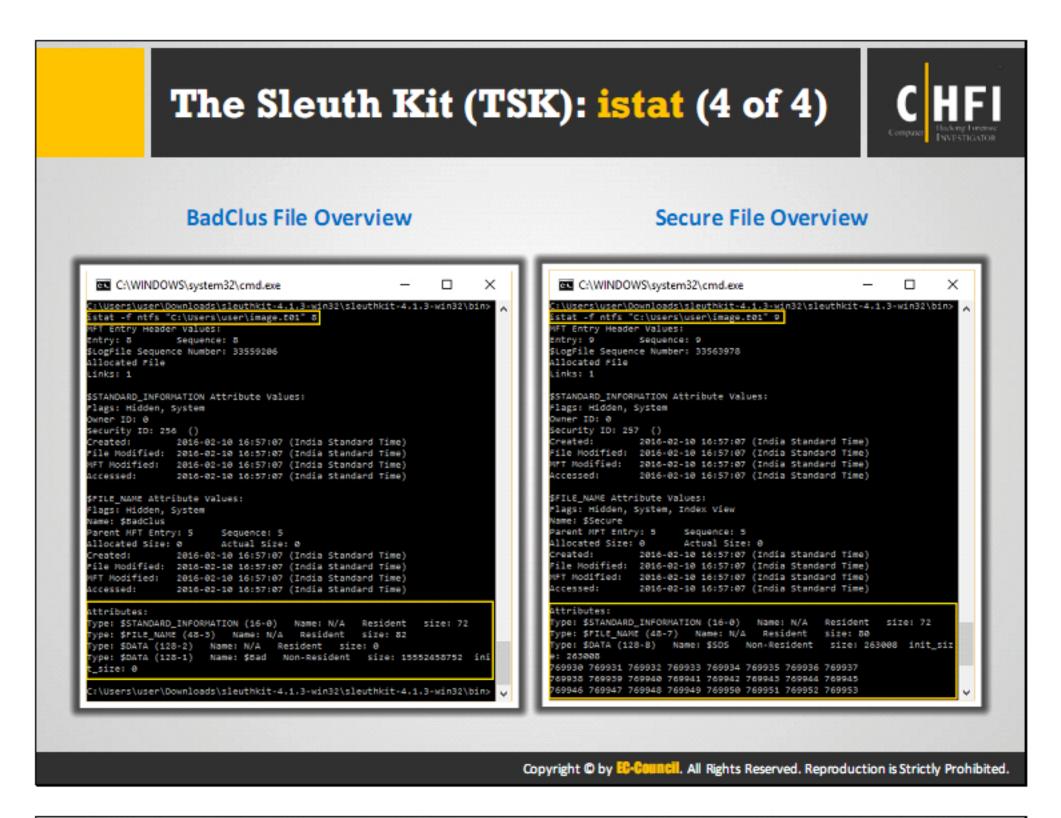
Segment Number	File Name	Purpose
0	\$MFT	Describes all files on the volume, including file names, timestamps, stream names, and lists of cluster numbers where data streams reside, indexes, security identifiers, and file attributes like "read only", "compressed", "encrypted", etc.
1	\$MFTMirr	Duplicate of the first vital entries of \$MFT, usually 4 entries (4 Kilobytes).
2	\$LogFile	Contains transaction log of file system metadata changes
3	\$Volume	Contains information about the volume, namely the volume object identifier, volume label, file system version, and volume flags
4	\$AttrDef	A table of MFT attributes that associates numeric identifiers with names.
5	•	Root directory. Directory data is stored in \$INDEX_ROOT and \$INDEX_ALLOCATION attributes both named \$130.
6	\$Bitmap	An array of bit entries: each bit indicates whether its corresponding cluster is used (allocated) or free (available for allocation).

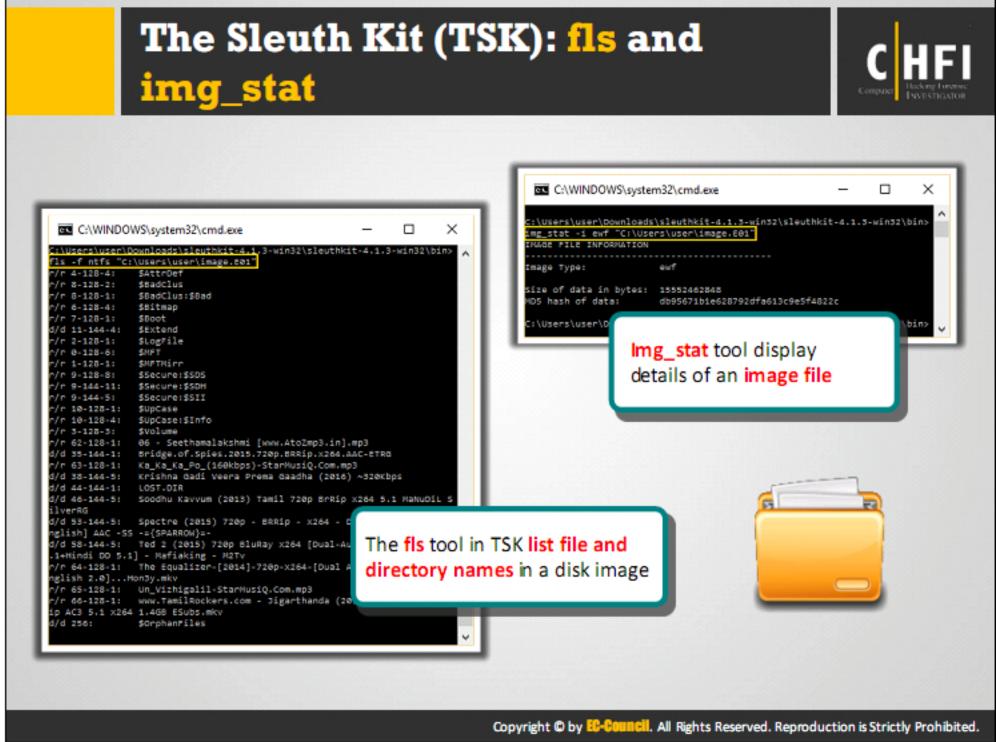
7	\$Boot	Volume boot record. This file is always located at the first clusters on the volume. It contains bootstrap code (see NTLDR/BOOTMGR) and a BIOS parameter block including a volume serial number and cluster numbers of \$MFT
8	\$BadClus	A file that contains all the clusters marked as having bad sectors. This file simplifies cluster management by the chkdsk utility, both as a place to put newly discovered bad sectors, and for identifying unreferenced clusters. This file contains two data streams, even on volumes with no bad sectors: an unnamed stream contains bad sectors—it is zero length for perfect volumes; the second stream is named \$Bad and contains all clusters on the volume not in the first stream.
9	\$Secure	Access control lists database that reduces overhead having many identical ACLs stored with each file, by uniquely storing these ACLs in this database only
10	\$UpCase	A table of unicode uppercase characters for ensuring case-insensitivity in Win32 and DOS namespaces.

TABLE 3.2: NTFS Metadata files









fls

fls - List file and directory names in a disk image.

Syntax

fls [-adDFlpruvV] [-m mnt] [-z zone] [-f fstype] [-s seconds] [-i imgtype] [-o imgoffset] [-b dev_sector_size] image [images] [inode]

Description

fls lists the files and directory names in the image and can display file names of recently deleted files for the directory using the given inode. If the inode argument is not given, the inode value for the root directory is used. For example, on an NTFS file system it would be 5 and on an Ext3 file system it would be 2.

Arguments

-a

Display the "." and ".." directory entries (by default it does not)

-d

Display deleted entries only

-D

Display directory entries only

-f fstype

Displays the type of file system. Use '-f list' to list the supported file system types. If not given, auto detection methods are used.

-F

Display file (all non-directory) entries only.

-|

Display file details in long format. The following contents are displayed:

file_type inode file_name mod_time acc_time chg_time cre_time size uid gid

-m mnt

Display files in time machine format so that a timeline can be gid created with mactime(1). The string given as mnt will be prepended to the file names as the mounting point (for example /usr).

■ -p

Display the full path for each entry. By default, it denotes the directory depth on recursive runs with a '+' sign.

-r

Recursively display directories. This will not follow deleted directories, because it can't.

-s seconds

The time skew of the original system in seconds. For example, if the original system was 100 seconds slow, this value would be -100. This is only used if -l or -m are given.

-i imgtype

Identify the type of image file, such as raw. Use '-i list' to list the supported types. If not given, auto detection methods are used.

-o imgoffset

The sector offset where the file system starts in the image.

-b dev_sector_size

The size, in bytes, of the underlying device sectors. If not given, the value in the image format is used (if it exists) or 512-bytes is assumed.

-u

Display undeleted entries only

-V

Verbose output to stderr.

-V

Display version.

-z zone

The ASCII string of the time zone of the original system. For example, EST or GMT. These strings must be defined by your operating system and may vary.

img_stat

img_stat - Display details of an image file

Syntax

img_stat [-i imgtype] [-b dev_sector_size] [-tvV] image [images]

Description

img_stat displays the details associated with an image file. The output of this command is image format specific. At a minimum, the size will be given and the byte range of each file will be given for split image formats.

Arguments

-i imgtype

Identify the type of image file, such as raw. Use '-i list' to list the supported types. If not given, autodetection methods are used.

- -b dev_sector_size
 - The size, in bytes, of the underlying device sectors. If not given, the value in the image format is used (if it exists) or 512-bytes is assumed.
- -t

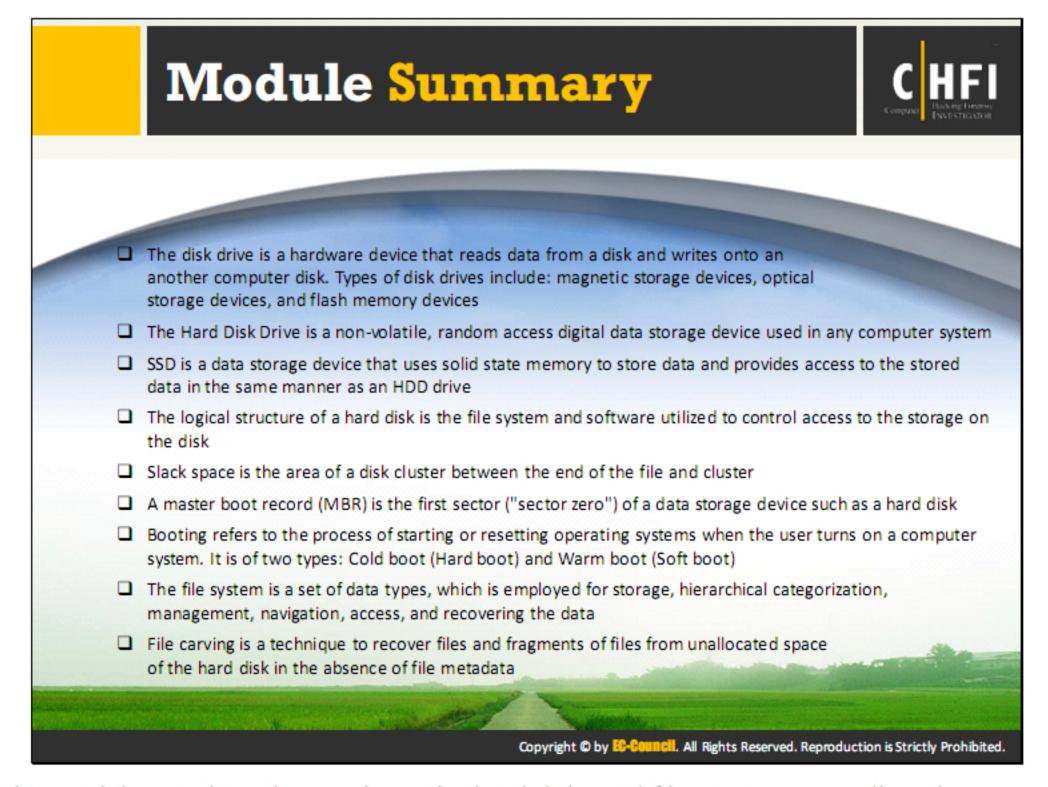
Print the image type only.

-V

Verbose output of debugging statements to stderr

-V

Display version



In this module, you have learnt about the hard disks and file systems, as well as the structure and behavior of the hard disk. This module also exposes the process of working of different types of hard disks on various operating systems such as Windows, MAC OS, and Linux. Investigators can also learn the process of analyzing a hard disk, CD-ROM/DVD, and RAID storage system in this module. The next module will discuss the data acquisition and duplication process in detail.