The types of requests vary according to level. The system-call level must provide the basic functions, such as process control and file and device manipulation. Higher-level requests, satisfied by the command interpreter or system programs, are translated into a sequence of system calls. System services can be classified into several categories: program control, status requests, and I/O requests. Program errors can be considered implicit requests for service.

The design of a new operating system is a major task. It is important that the goals of the system be well defined before the design begins. The type of system desired is the foundation for choices among various algorithms and strategies that will be needed.

Throughout the entire design cycle, we must be careful to separate policy decisions from implementation details (mechanisms). This separation allows maximum flexibility if policy decisions are to be changed later.

Once an operating system is designed, it must be implemented. Operating systems today are almost always written in a systems-implementation language or in a higher-level language. This feature improves their implementation, maintenance, and portability.

A system as large and complex as a modern operating system must be engineered carefully. Modularity is important. Designing a system as a sequence of layers or using a microkernel is considered a good technique. Many operating systems now support dynamically loaded modules, which allow adding functionality to an operating system while it is executing. Generally, operating systems adopt a hybrid approach that combines several different types of structures.

Debugging process and kernel failures can be accomplished through the use of debuggers and other tools that analyze core dumps. Tools such as DTrace analyze production systems to find bottlenecks and understand other system behavior.

To create an operating system for a particular machine configuration, we must perform system generation. For the computer system to begin running, the CPU must initialize and start executing the bootstrap program in firmware. The bootstrap can execute the operating system directly if the operating system is also in the firmware, or it can complete a sequence in which it loads progressively smarter programs from firmware and disk until the operating system itself is loaded into memory and executed.

Practice Exercises

2.1   What is the purpose of system calls?

2.2   What are the five major activities of an operating system with regard to process management?

2.3   What are the three major activities of an operating system with regard to memory management?

2.4   What are the three major activities of an operating system with regard to secondary-storage management?

2.5   What is the purpose of the command interpreter? Why is it usually separate from the kernel?

2.6 What system calls have to be executed by a command interpreter or shell in order to start a new process?

2.7 What is the purpose of system programs?

2.8 What is the main advantage of the layered approach to system design? What are the disadvantages of the layered approach?

2.9 List five services provided by an operating system, and explain how each creates convenience for users. In which cases would it be impossible for user-level programs to provide these services? Explain your answer.

2.10 Why do some systems store the operating system in firmware, while others store it on disk?

2.11 How could a system be designed to allow a choice of operating systems from which to boot? What would the bootstrap program need to do?

Exercises

2.12 The services and functions provided by an operating system can be divided into two main categories. Briefly describe the two categories, and discuss how they differ.

2.13 Describe three general methods for passing parameters to the operating system.

2.14 Describe how you could obtain a statistical profile of the amount of time spent by a program executing different sections of its code. Discuss the importance of obtaining such a statistical profile.

2.15 What are the five major activities of an operating system with regard to file management?

2.16 What are the advantages and disadvantages of using the same system-call interface for manipulating both files and devices?

2.17 Would it be possible for the user to develop a new command interpreter using the system-call interface provided by the operating system?

2.18 What are the two models of interprocess communication? What are the strengths and weaknesses of the two approaches?

2.19 Why is the separation of mechanism and policy desirable?

2.20 It is sometimes difficult to achieve a layered approach if two components of the operating system are dependent on each other. Identify a scenario in which it is unclear how to layer two system components that require tight coupling of their functionalities.

2.21 What is the main advantage of the microkernel approach to system design? How do user programs and system services interact in a microkernel architecture? What are the disadvantages of using the microkernel approach?

2.22 What are the advantages of using loadable kernel modules?

2.23   How are iOS and Android similar? How are they different?

2.24   Explain why Java programs running on Android systems do not use the standard Java API and virtual machine.

2.25   The experimental Synthesis operating system has an assembler incorporated in the kernel. To optimize system-call performance, the kernel assembles routines within kernel space to minimize the path that the system call must take through the kernel. This approach is the antithesis of the layered approach, in which the path through the kernel is extended to make building the operating system easier. Discuss the pros and cons of the Synthesis approach to kernel design and system-performance optimization.

Programming Problems

2.26   In Section 2.3, we described a program that copies the contents of one file to a destination file. This program works by first prompting the user for the name of the source and destination files. Write this program using either the Windows or POSIX API. Be sure to include all necessary error checking, including ensuring that the source file exists.

Once you have correctly designed and tested the program, if you used a system that supports it, run the program using a utility that traces system calls. Linux systems provide the `strace` utility, and Solaris and Mac OS X systems use the `dtrace` command. As Windows systems do not provide such features, you will have to trace through the Windows version of this program using a debugger.

Programming Projects

Linux Kernel Modules

In this project, you will learn how to create a kernel module and load it into the Linux kernel. The project can be completed using the Linux virtual machine that is available with this text. Although you may use an editor to write these C programs, you will have to use the *terminal* application to compile the programs, and you will have to enter commands on the command line to manage the modules in the kernel.

As you'll discover, the advantage of developing kernel modules is that it is a relatively easy method of interacting with the kernel, thus allowing you to write programs that directly invoke kernel functions. It is important for you to keep in mind that you are indeed writing *kernel code* that directly interacts with the kernel. That normally means that any errors in the code could crash the system! However, since you will be using a virtual machine, any failures will at worst only require rebooting the system.

Part I—Creating Kernel Modules

The first part of this project involves following a series of steps for creating and inserting a module into the Linux kernel.

You can list all kernel modules that are currently loaded by entering the command

```
lsmod
```

This command will list the current kernel modules in three columns: name, size, and where the module is being used.

The following program (named `simple.c` and available with the source code for this text) illustrates a very basic kernel module that prints appropriate messages when the kernel module is loaded and unloaded.

```c
#include <linux/init.h>
#include <linux/kernel.h>
#include <linux/module.h>

/* This function is called when the module is loaded. */
int simple_init(void)
{
   printk(KERN_INFO "Loading Module\n");

   return 0;
}

/* This function is called when the module is removed. */
void simple_exit(void)
{
   printk(KERN_INFO "Removing Module\n");
}

/* Macros for registering module entry and exit points. */
module_init(simple_init);
module_exit(simple_exit);

MODULE_LICENSE("GPL");
MODULE_DESCRIPTION("Simple Module");
MODULE_AUTHOR("SGG");
```

The function `simple_init()` is the **module entry point**, which represents the function that is invoked when the module is loaded into the kernel. Similarly, the `simple_exit()` function is the **module exit point**—the function that is called when the module is removed from the kernel.

The module entry point function must return an integer value, with 0 representing success and any other value representing failure. The module exit point function returns `void`. Neither the module entry point nor the module exit point is passed any parameters. The two following macros are used for registering the module entry and exit points with the kernel:

```
module_init()
```

```
module_exit()
```

Notice how both the module entry and exit point functions make calls to the `printk()` function. `printk()` is the kernel equivalent of `printf()`, yet its output is sent to a kernel log buffer whose contents can be read by the `dmesg` command. One difference between `printf()` and `printk()` is that `printk()` allows us to specify a priority flag whose values are given in the `<linux/printk.h>` include file. In this instance, the priority is `KERN_INFO`, which is defined as an *informational* message.

The final lines—`MODULE_LICENSE()`, `MODULE_DESCRIPTION()`, and `MOD-ULE_AUTHOR()`—represent details regarding the software license, description of the module, and author. For our purposes, we do not depend on this information, but we include it because it is standard practice in developing kernel modules.

This kernel module `simple.c` is compiled using the `Makefile` accompanying the source code with this project. To compile the module, enter the following on the command line:

```
make
```

The compilation produces several files. The file `simple.ko` represents the compiled kernel module. The following step illustrates inserting this module into the Linux kernel.

Loading and Removing Kernel Modules

Kernel modules are loaded using the `insmod` command, which is run as follows:

```
sudo insmod simple.ko
```

To check whether the module has loaded, enter the `lsmod` command and search for the module `simple`. Recall that the module entry point is invoked when the module is inserted into the kernel. To check the contents of this message in the kernel log buffer, enter the command

```
dmesg
```

You should see the message `"Loading Module."`

Removing the kernel module involves invoking the `rmmod` command (notice that the `.ko` suffix is unnecessary):

```
sudo rmmod simple
```

Be sure to check with the `dmesg` command to ensure the module has been removed.

Because the kernel log buffer can fill up quickly, it often makes sense to clear the buffer periodically. This can be accomplished as follows:

```
sudo dmesg -c
```

Part I Assignment

Proceed through the steps described above to create the kernel module and to load and unload the module. Be sure to check the contents of the kernel log buffer using `dmesg` to ensure you have properly followed the steps.

Part II—Kernel Data Structures

The second part of this project involves modifying the kernel module so that it uses the kernel linked-list data structure.

In Section 1.10, we covered various data structures that are common in operating systems. The Linux kernel provides several of these structures. Here, we explore using the circular, doubly linked list that is available to kernel developers. Much of what we discuss is available in the Linux source code—in this instance, the include file `<linux/list.h>`—and we recommend that you examine this file as you proceed through the following steps.

Initially, you must define a `struct` containing the elements that are to be inserted in the linked list. The following C `struct` defines birthdays:

```
struct birthday {
    int day;
    int month;
    int year;
    struct list_head list;
}
```

Notice the member `struct list_head list`. The `list_head` structure is defined in the include file `<linux/types.h>`. Its intention is to embed the linked list within the nodes that comprise the list. This `list_head` structure is quite simple—it merely holds two members, `next` and `prev`, that point to the next and previous entries in the list. By embedding the linked list within the structure, Linux makes it possible to manage the data structure with a series of *macro* functions.

Inserting Elements into the Linked List

We can declare a `list_head` object, which we use as a reference to the head of the list by using the `LIST_HEAD()` macro

```
        static LIST_HEAD(birthday_list);
```

This macro defines and initializes the variable `birthday_list`, which is of type `struct list_head`.

We create and initialize instances of `struct birthday` as follows:

```
struct birthday *person;

person = kmalloc(sizeof(*person), GFP_KERNEL);
person->day = 2;
person->month= 8;
person->year = 1995;
INIT_LIST_HEAD(&person->list);
```

The `kmalloc()` function is the kernel equivalent of the user-level `malloc()` function for allocating memory, except that kernel memory is being allocated. (The *GFP_KERNEL* flag indicates routine kernel memory allocation.) The macro `INIT_LIST_HEAD()` initializes the `list` member in `struct birthday`. We can then add this instance to the end of the linked list using the `list_add_tail()` macro:

```
list_add_tail(&person->list, &birthday_list);
```

Traversing the Linked List

Traversing the list involves using the `list_for_each_entry()` Macro, which accepts three parameters:

- A pointer to the structure being iterated over

- A pointer to the head of the list being iterated over

- The name of the variable containing the `list_head` structure

The following code illustrates this macro:

```
struct birthday *ptr;

list_for_each_entry(ptr, &birthday_list, list) {
   /* on each iteration ptr points */
   /* to the next birthday struct */
}
```

Removing Elements from the Linked List

Removing elements from the list involves using the `list_del()` macro, which is passed a pointer to `struct list_head`

```
list_del(struct list_head *element)
```

This removes *element* from the list while maintaining the structure of the remainder of the list.

Perhaps the simplest approach for removing all elements from a linked list is to remove each element as you traverse the list. The macro `list_for_each_entry_safe()` behaves much like `list_for_each_entry()`

except that it is passed an additional argument that maintains the value of the `next` pointer of the item being deleted. (This is necessary for preserving the structure of the list.) The following code example illustrates this macro:

```
struct birthday *ptr, *next

list_for_each_entry_safe(ptr,next,&birthday_list,list) {
   /* on each iteration ptr points */
   /* to the next birthday struct */
   list_del(&ptr->list);
   kfree(ptr);
}
```

Notice that after deleting each element, we return memory that was previously allocated with `kmalloc()` back to the kernel with the call to `kfree()`. Careful memory management—which includes releasing memory to prevent *memory leaks*—is crucial when developing kernel-level code.

Part II Assignment

In the module entry point, create a linked list containing five `struct birthday` elements. Traverse the linked list and output its contents to the kernel log buffer. Invoke the `dmesg` command to ensure the list is properly constructed once the kernel module has been loaded.

In the module exit point, delete the elements from the linked list and return the free memory back to the kernel. Again, invoke the `dmesg` command to check that the list has been removed once the kernel module has been unloaded.

Bibliographical Notes

[Dijkstra (1968)] advocated the layered approach to operating-system design. [Brinch-Hansen (1970)] was an early proponent of constructing an operating system as a kernel (or nucleus) on which more complete systems could be built. [Tarkoma and Lagerspetz (2011)] provide an overview of various mobile operating systems, including Android and iOS.

MS-DOS, Version 3.1, is described in [Microsoft (1986)]. Windows NT and Windows 2000 are described by [Solomon (1998)] and [Solomon and Russinovich (2000)]. Windows XP internals are described in [Russinovich and Solomon (2009)]. [Hart (2005)] covers Windows systems programming in detail. BSD UNIX is described in [McKusick et al. (1996)]. [Love (2010)] and [Mauerer (2008)] thoroughly discuss the Linux kernel. In particular, [Love (2010)] covers Linux kernel modules as well as kernel data structures. Several UNIX systems—including Mach—are treated in detail in [Vahalia (1996)]. Mac OS X is presented at http://www.apple.com/macosx and in [Singh (2007)]. Solaris is fully described in [McDougall and Mauro (2007)].

DTrace is discussed in [Gregg and Mauro (2011)]. The DTrace source code is available at http://src.opensolaris.org/source/.