

Learning Report – Embedded LINUX



L&T Technology Services



GLOBAL
ENGINEERING
ACADEMY

Genesis



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1. Embedded Linux-

1.1 What is Embedded Linux?

Embedded Linux is a type of Linux operating system/kernel that is designed to be installed and used within embedded devices and appliances. It is a compact version of Linux that offers features and services in line with the operating and application requirement of the embedded system.

1.2 What is Embedded System?

"A computer system with a dedicated function within a larger mechanical or electrical system, often with real-time computing constraints." I find it simple enough to say that an embedded system is a computer that most people don't think of as a computer. Its primary role is to serve as an appliance of some sort, and it is not considered a general-purpose computing platform.

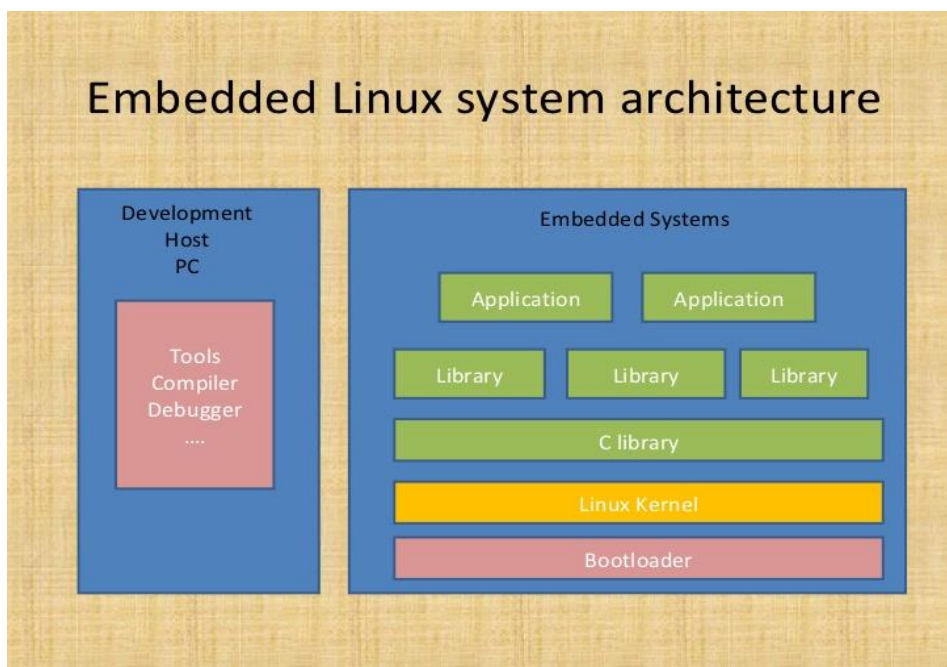


Figure. Architecture Diagram

1.3 What is Linux?

Just like Windows, iOS, and Mac OS, Linux is an operating system. In fact, one of the most popular platforms on the planet, Android, is powered by the Linux operating system. An operating system is software that manages all of the hardware resources associated with your desktop or laptop. To put it simply, the operating system manages the communication between your software and your hardware. Without the operating system (OS), the software would not function.

1.4 The Linux operating system comprises several different pieces:

1.4.1 Kernel

Linux kernel is the core part of the operating system. It establishes communication between devices and software. Moreover, it manages system resources. It has four responsibilities:

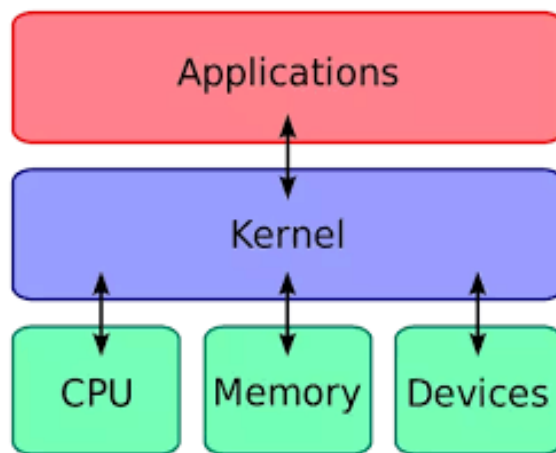


Figure: Kernel

1.4 Functions of Kernel

1.4.1 Device management: A system has many devices connected to it like CPU, a memory device, sound cards, graphic cards, etc. A kernel stores all the data related to all the devices in the device driver (without this kernel won't be able to control the devices). Thus kernel knows what a device can do and how to manipulate it to bring out the best performance. It also manages communication between all the devices. The kernel has certain rules that have to be followed by all the devices.

1.4.2 Memory management: Another function that kernel has to manage is the memory management. The kernel keeps track of used and unused memory and makes sure that processes shouldn't manipulate data of each other using virtual memory addresses.

1.4.3 Process management: In the process, management kernel assigns enough time and gives priorities to processes before handling CPU to other processes. It also deals with security and ownership information.

Handling system calls: Handling system calls means a programmer can write a query or ask the kernel to perform a task.

1.5 System Libraries

- System libraries are special programs that help in accessing the kernel's features.
- A kernel has to be triggered to perform a task, and this triggering is done by the applications. But applications must know how to place a system call because each kernel has a different set of system calls. Programmers have developed a standard library of procedures to communicate with the kernel. Each operating system supports these standards, and then these are transferred to system calls for that operating system.
- The most well-known system library for Linux is Glibc (GNU C library).

1.6 System Tools

- Linux OS has a set of utility tools, which are usually simple commands. It is a software which GNU project has written and publish under their open source license so that software is freely available to everyone.
- With the help of commands, you can access your files, edit and manipulate data in your directories or files, change the location of files, or anything.

1.7 Development Tools

With the above three components, your OS is running and working. But to update your system, you have additional tools and libraries. These additional tools and libraries are written by the programmers and are called toolchain. A toolchain is a vital development tool used by the developers to produce a working application.

1.8 End User Tools

- These end tools make a system unique for a user. End tools are not required for the operating system but are necessary for a user.
- Some examples of end tools are graphic design tools, office suites, browsers, multimedia players, etc.

1.9 Basic Linux Commands

- **ls –**

In Linux, the ls command is used to list out files and directories. Some versions may support color-coding. The names in blue represent the names of directories.

```
$ ls -l filename
```

- **cd /var/log –**

Change the current directory. The forward slash is to be used in Linux. The example is a Linux directory that comes with all versions of Linux.

When use ls -l will be able to see more details of the contents in the directory

It will list down the

```
$ cd /var/log
```

- **grep –**

The grep command searches through many files at a time to find a piece of text you are looking for.

Grep PATTERN[FILE]

```
grep failed transaction.log
```

The above command will find all of the words in the files that matched the word 'failed'.

```
$ grep 'failed' transaction.log
```

- **su / sudo command –**

SU command changes the shell to be used as a super user and until you use the exit command you can continue to be the super user

Sudo- If you just need to run something as a super user, you can use the **sudo** command. This will allow you to run the command in elevated rights and once the command is executed you will be back to your normal rights and permissions.

```
$ sudo shutdown 2
```

```
$ sudo shutdown -r 2
```

- **pwd – Print Working Directory**

It displays the current working directory path and is useful when directory changes are often

```
$ pwd
```

- **passwd –**

This command is used to change the user account password. You could change your password or the password of other users. Note that the normal system users may only change their own password, while **root** may modify the password for any account.

```
$ passwd admin
```

- **mv – Move a file**

To move a file or rename a file use the mv command

```
$ mv first.txt second.txt
```

- **cp – Copy a file**

To copy a file in the same directory

```
$ cp second.txt third.txt
```

- **rm –**

This command is used to remove files in a directory or the directory itself. A directory cannot be removed if it is not empty.

```
$ rm file1
```

```
$ rm -r myproject
```

- **mkdir – to make a directory.**

To create a directory in the name 'myproject' type

```
$ mkdir myproject
```

- **Chmod-**

To change mode of a file system object. Files can have r – read, w- write and x-execute permissions.

```
$ chmod 744 script.sh
```

2. Qemu Based Emulation

2.1 Introduction about QEMU

QEMU is a hosted virtual machine monitor, it emulates the machine's processor through dynamic binary translation and provides a set of different hardware and device models for the machine, enabling it to run a variety of guest operating systems. It also can be used with Kernel-based Virtual Machine (KVM) to run virtual machines at near-native speed (by taking advantage of hardware extensions such as Intel VT-x). QEMU can also do emulation for user-level processes, allowing applications compiled for one architecture to run on another.

Qemu is quick it's a hypervisor that allows you to run virtual machines with complete operating systems that operate like any other program on your desktop. This can be useful for general purpose computing and black box testing. The software is open-source and cross-platform. It targets a range of computer architectures beyond standard IBM PCs such as ARM and PowerPC. On Linux, it also has user-mode emulation where standard executables of one architecture can seamlessly run on another.

2.2 QEMU has multiple operating modes :-

2.2.1 User-mode emulation

In this mode QEMU runs single Linux or Darwin/macOS programs that were compiled for a different instruction set. System calls are thunked for endianness and for 32/64 bit mismatches. Fast cross-compilation and cross-debugging are the main targets for user-mode emulation.

2.2.2 System emulation

In this mode QEMU emulates a full computer system, including peripherals. It can be used to provide virtual hosting of several virtual computers on a single computer. QEMU can boot many guest operating systems, including Linux, Solaris, Microsoft Windows, DOS, and BSD; [6] it supports emulating several instruction sets, including x86, MIPS, 32 bit ARMv7, ARMv8, PowerPC, SPARC, ETRAXCRIS and MicroBlaze.

KVM Hosting

- Here QEMU deals with the setting up and migration of KVM images. It is still involved in the emulation of hardware, but the execution of the guest is done by KVM as requested by QEMU.

Xen Hosting

- QEMU is involved only in the emulation of hardware; the execution of the guest is done within Xen and is totally hidden from QEMU.

2.3 Features of QEMU:

- QEMU can save and restore the state of the virtual machine with all programs running.
- Guest operating systems do not need patching in order to run inside QEMU.
- QEMU supports the emulation of various architectures, including:
 - RISC -V
 - MicroBlaze
 - SH4 SHIX board
 - ARM development boards (Integrator/CP and Versatile/PB)
 - IA-32 (x86) PCs
 - x86-64 PCs
 - Sun's SPARC sun4m
 - Sun's SPARC sun4u
- Virtual disk images can be stored in a special format (qcow, qcow2) that only takes up as much disk space as the guest OS actually uses.
- QEMU can emulate network cards (of different models) which share the host system's connectivity by doing network address translation, effectively allowing the guest to use the same network as the host.
- The virtual network cards can also connect to network cards of other instances of QEMU or to local TAP interfaces.
- Network connectivity can also be achieved by bridging a TUN/TAP interface used by QEMU with a non-virtual Ethernet interface on the host OS using the host OS's bridging features.

3. Installation of QEMU:

3.1 Install Qemu, a full system emulator for ARM target architecture

- `sudo apt install qemu-system-arm`
- `qemu-system-arm -v`
- `qemu-system-arm -M ?`
- `qemu-system-aarch64 -v`

3.2 Rootfs

- Download
- `core-image-minimal-qemuarm.ext4`
- from <http://downloads.yoctoproject.org/releases/yocto/yocto-2.5/machines/qemu/qemuarm/>
- Rename `core-image-minimal-qemuarm.ext4` as `rootfs.img`
- Align the size of rootfs
`e2fsck -f rootfs.img resize2fs`
`rootfs.img 16M`

3.3 Toolchain

Install linaro toolchain from ubuntu package manager

- `sudo apt install gcc-arm-linux-gnueabi # soft float`
- `sudo apt install gcc-arm-linux-gnueabihf # hard float`

3.4 Binutil:

- The GNU Binutils is the first component of a toolchain. The GNU Binutils contains two very important tools:
as, the assembler, that turns assembly code (generated by GCC) to binary.
ld, the linker, that links several object code into a library, or an executable.

3.5 C library

- The C library implements the traditional POSIX API that can be used to develop userspace applications. It interfaces with the kernel through system calls and provides higher-level services.

3.6 Debugger

- The debugger is also usually part of the toolchain, as a cross-debugger is needed to debug applications running on your target machine. In the embedded Linux world, the typical debugger is GDB.

3.7 Installation of Toolchain:

- We can install linaro toolchain from Ubuntu packages manager using following steps:
 - `sudo apt install gcc-arm-linux-gnueabi //for soft float`
 - `sudo apt install gcc-arm-linux-gnueabi-hf //for hard float`
- Rootfs already comes pre-loaded with floating point computation so hard float is not required.

4. Emulation and Simulation:

- An emulator is hardware or software that enables one computer system (called the host) to behave like another computer system (called the guest).
- A simulator is a software that helps your computer run certain programs built for a different Operating System.
- Emulation advantages include better graphic quality, save space, emulation in video games, add post-processing effects, etc.
- Simulation advantages include increase safety and efficiency, avoid danger and loss of life, slowed down to study behavior more closely, etc.

4.1 First Boot (Emulation):

- First collect prebuild zImage, vexpress-v2p-ca9.dtb file.
- We have to ensure that the rootfs.img is also in the same location.
- Emulate using Qemu – sdcard approach:
 - `qemu-system-arm -M vexpress-a9 -m 1024 -serial stdio \`
`-kernel zImage -dtb vexpress-v2p-ca9.dtb \`
`-sd rootfs.img -append "console=ttyAMA0 root=/dev/mmcblk0 rw"`
- Emulate using Qemu-initrd approach:
 - `qemu-system-arm -M vexpress-a9 -m 1024 -serial stdio \`
`-kernel zImage -dtb vexpress-v2p-ca9.dtb \`

-initrd rootfs.img -append "console=ttyAMA0 root=/dev/ram0 rw"4.2 First Steps on Target:

- a) Uname -r
- b) uname -v
- c) uname -a
- d) cat /proc /cpuinfo
- e) free -m
- f) df -kh
- g) mount
- h) dmesg

5. Building Custom Kernel (QEMU):

5.1 Download Kernel Source:

- We have to download any recent LTS version of kernel source.
- It can be downloaded from the steps also:
 - git clone <https://git.kernel.org/pub/scm/linux/kernel/git/torvalds/linux.git>
 - cd linux
 - git checkout tags/v4.14 -b v4.14

A **kernel** is an important program of every device out there. **Android** is a famous operating system that features a lot of **custom kernel** out there for almost every phone nowadays. **Custom Kernels** not only offer security updates, but also various improvements over the Stock **Kernel**.

5.2 Obtain Configuration File:

- Locate default config available in KSRC/arch/arm/configs, we'll refer vexpress_defconfig for Versatil Express target being used for Qemu emulation.
- Collect any well tested configuration file as base config
 - make ARCH=arm mrproper
 - make ARCH=arm vexpress_defonfig
- Note that mrproper will remove built files, including the configuration.
- So run this only for any new build.

5.3 Customization:

- Run the menuconfig for further customization.

- make ARCH=arm menuconfig

5.4 How to build the Kernel:

- Run menuconfig for further customization.
- Build kernel image

- make ARCH=arm CROSS_COMPILE=arm-linux-gnueabi- zImage

- Build Device Tree Binaries

- make ARCH=arm CROSS_COMPILE=arm-linux-gnueabi- dtbs firmware

- Build dynamic modules

- make ARCH=arm CROSS_COMPILE=arm-linux-gnueabi- modules

- make ARCH=arm CROSS_COMPILE=arm-linux-gnueabi- modules_install \

INSTALL_MOD_PATH=<tempdir> # or mount point of target rootfs

5.5 How to test the Built outcome:

- Collect built outcome to a temporary location

- cp \$KSRC/arch/arm/boot/zImage

- cp \$KSRC/arch/arm/boot/dts/*.dtb

- Ensure rootfs.img is also in same location.
- Emulate using Qemu

- qemu-system-arm -M vexpress-a9 -m 1024 -serial stdio \

- -kernel zImage -dtb vexpress-v2p-ca9.dtb \

- -sd rootfs.img -append "console=ttyAMA0 root=/dev/mmcblk0 rw"

- # In target

- uname -r

- `uname -v`
- `ls /boot`
- `ls /lib/modules`
- # In host
 - `ls -lh $KSRC/arch/arm/boot/zImage`
 - `ls -lh $KSRC/vmlinux`

6. Cross Compiling Code:

Cross-compiling means compiling a software binary that is targeted at, or intended to run on, a CPU architecture that is different to the one on which it is compiled. This is commonly done because compiling is a CPU-intensive task and the RPI has a modest CPU. Compiling the u-boot.bin binary on your local computer would be a great deal faster than doing it directly on the RPI, and with cross-compilation, you can create native RPI binaries from the comfort of the regular development environment on your host PC.

- The cross compiling is a very essential aspect in embedded linux development. It is very helpful to create files which are emulated to run in machines other than the host.
- Cross compiling is the technique in which coding or development is done in one architecture and it is compiled to work in another other than the host architecture.
- Every board cannot be with us all the time and it is also not feasible too. Hence we require special softwares which can simulate the conditions or architecture of the target device.
- These softwares are called as emulators.
In our design, we use Qemu emulator.

6.1 Simple Hello Module:

- Write a simple hello world code and save it.
- Generate its output file with the command –
 - `arm-linux-gnueabi-gcc hello.c -o h1.out`
 - `arm-linux-gnueabi-gcc hello.c -o h2.out -o static`
 - `file h1.out h2.out`
 - `ls -lh h1.out h2.out`
 - `ldd h1.out`
 - `ldd h2.out`
- Copy the output file to the target rootfs using the command mount, copy and umount-

- `sudo mount -o loop,rw,sync rootfs.img /mnt/rootfs`
- `sudo cp h1.out h2.out /mnt/rootfs/home/root`
- `sudo umount /mnt/rootfs`

6.2 Multi file Programming:

- Create one .c test file.
- In that file simple mathematical functions will be there and one main code will be there.
- Create one Makefile for the same test file.
- It will create all the necessary file which will be further used.
- After the files are created copy all the output files to target rootfs and test.
- We can create output file by the following commands-

- `arm-linux-gnueabi-gcc test.c -c`
- `arm-linux-gnueabi-gcc sum.c -c`
- `arm-linux-gnueabi-gcc sqr.c -c`
- `arm-linux-gnueabi-gcc test.o sum.o sqr.o -o all.out`

6.3 Static Library:

When we click the .exe (executable) file of the program and it starts running, all the necessary contents of the binary file have been loaded into the process's virtual address space. However, most programs also need to run functions from the system libraries, and these library functions also need to be loaded. In the simplest case, the necessary library functions are embedded directly in the program's executable binary file. Such a program is statically linked to its libraries, and statically linked executable codes can commence running as soon as they are loaded.

- A static library or statically-linked library is a set of routines, external functions and variables
- In static library follow the same above steps and prepare the source code and generate the output files.
- Create one Makefile for this.
- We can do the steps using the following commands:
 - `arm-linux-gnueabi-ar sum.o sqr.o -o libsample.a`
 - `arm-linux-gnueabi-gcc -L. test.o -lsample -o s1.out`
 - `arm-linux-gnueabi-gcc -L. test.o -lsample -o s2.out -static`

6.4 Dynamic Linking:

Every dynamically linked program contains a small, statically linked function that is called when the program starts. This static function only maps the link library into memory and runs the code that the

function contains. The link library determines what are all the dynamic libraries which the program requires along with the names of the variables and functions needed from those libraries by reading the information contained in sections of the library.

- In the dynamic linking we will follow same steps as static library.
- Copy the libsample.so, d1.out to target rootfs and execute using the following commands.

```
# On Host
➤ arm-linux-gnueabi-gcc -shared libsample.so sum.o sqr.o
➤ arm-linux-gnueabi-gcc -L. test.o -lsample -o d1.out
➤
#On Target
➤ LD_LIBRARY_PATH=. ./d1.out
```

7. Working with U-Boot:

- Das U-Boot (Universal Boot Loader and shortened to U-Boot)
- U-Boot is both a first-stage and second-stage bootloader.
- It is loaded by the system's ROM or BIOS from a supported boot device, such as an SD card, SATA drive, NOR flash (e.g. using SPI or I2C), or NAND flash.
- If there are size constraints, U-Boot may be split into stages: the platform would load a small SPL (Secondary Program Loader), which is a stripped-down version of U-Boot, and the SPL would do initial hardware configuration and load the larger, fully featured version of U-Boot.
- U-Boot boots an operating system by reading the kernel and any other required data (e.g. device tree or ramdisk image) into memory, and then executing the kernel with the appropriate arguments.

7.1 Cross Building:

```
make ARCH=arm vexpress_ca9x4_defconfig
make ARCH=arm CROSS_COMPILE=arm-linux-gnueabi-
```

Locate generated u-boot and copy to a tempdir

7.2 Simple Boot – Rootfs in SD Card:

- It will create an image of 64Mb.
 - `qemu-img create simplesd.img 64M`
- `sudo mkfs.vfat simplesd.img`
- `sudo mount -o loop,rw,sync simplesd.img /mnt/sdcard`
- After that copy the zImage, vexpress-v2p-ca9.dtb, rootfs.img to /mnt/sdcard `umount /mnt/sdcard`
- #copy simplesd.img to tempdir, where generated u-boot is copied.
- `qemu-system-arm -M vexpress-a9 -m 1024 -serial stdio -kernel u-boot -sd sdcard.img`
- # Stop autoboot by hitting any key, Run the following commands in U-Boot shell
- `mmcinfo fatls mmc 0:0`
- `fatload mmc 0:0 0x60200000 zImage`
- `fatload mmc 0:0 0x60100000 vexpress-v2p-ca9.dtb`
- `fatload mmc 0:0 0x62000000 rootfs.img`
- `setenv bootargs 'console=ttyAMA0 root=/dev/ram0 rw rootfstype=ext4`
- `initrd=0x62000000, 16777216'`
- `bootz 0x60200000 - 0x60100000`
- # 16777216 is size of loaded rootfs image
- # for this method ramdisk support should be enabled at kernel level (menuconfig --> Device Drivers Block Devices --> RAM Block Device Support)

7.3 Prepare Partitioned in SD Card:

- In this, we will follow the below codes in order to partition the SD card successfully.
 - `dd if=/dev/zero of=sdcard.img bs=1M count=128`
 - # create two primary partitions in sdcard.img using cfdisk
 - # Keep first partition size as small as possible, say 16M
 - `sudo fdisk -l sdcard.img` # 1048576 is 2048x512, 2048 is start of first
 - partition # 17825792 is 34816x512, 34816 is start of second partition
 - `sudo losetup -o 1048576 /dev/loop20 sdcard.img`

- `sudo losetup -o 17825792 /dev/loop21 sdcard.img`
- `sudo mkfs.vfat /dev/loop20 sudo mkfs.ext4 /dev/loop21`

- `sudo mount -o loop,rw,sync /dev/loop20 /mnt/boot`
- `sudo mount -o loop,rw,sync /dev/loop21 /mnt/rootfs`
- `#copy zImage, vexpress-v2p-ca9.dtb to /mnt/boot`

- `# extract core-image-minimal-qemuarm.tar.bz2 to /mnt/rootfs`
 - `tar -jxvf core-image-minimal-qemuarm.tar.bz2 -C /mnt/rootfs`

 - `sudo umount /mnt/boot`
 - `sudo umount /mnt/rootfs`

 - `sudo losetup -d /dev/loop20`
 - `sudo losetup -d /dev/loop21`

7.4 Rootfs in Partitioned SD Card:

- `qemu-system-arm -M vexpress-a9 -m 1024 -serial stdio -kernel u-boot -sd sdcard.img`
- `#Stop autoboot by hitting any key, Run the following commands in U-Boot shell`
 - `mmcinfo`

 - `Fatls mmc 0:1`
 - `fatload mmc 0:1 0x60200000 zImage`
 - `fatload mmc 0:1 0x60100000 vexpress-v2p-ca9.dtb`

 - `setenv bootargs 'console=ttyAMA0 root=/dev/mmcblk0p2 rw rootfstype=ext4'`
 - `bootz 0x60200000 - 0x60100000`

7.5 Setup TFTP on Host:

- TFTP stands for Trivial File Transfer Protocol.
- TFTP is used to transfer a file either from client to server or from server to client without the need of FTP feature.
- Software of TFTP is smaller than FTP.
- TFTP works on 69 Port number and its service is provided by UDP.
- TFTP does not need authentication for communication.

- TFTP is mainly used for transmission of configurations to and from network devices.
- We can install tftp by following the commands:

- sudo apt install tftpd
 - # create /etc/xinetd.d/tftp
 - # with specified content
 - # replace server_args as per your machine
 - /etc/init.d/xinetd restart

```
service tftp
{
protocol      =      udp
port          =      69
socket_type   =      dgram
wait          =      yes
user          =      nobody
server        =      /usr/sbin/in.tftpd
server_args   =      /* */
disable       =      no
}
```

- sudo modprobe tun
- sudo ifconfig tap0 192.168.0.1

7.6 Booting kernel using Networking:

- We can also remotely boot the kernel via networking. For this, we will use TFTP protocol.
- Trivial File Transfer Protocol (TFTP) is a simple protocol used for transferring files. TFTP uses the User Datagram Protocol (UDP) to transport data from one end to another.
- TFTP is mostly used to read and write files/mail to or from a remote server.

7.7 Setup TFTP on host:

- First we need to install the tftpd, in order to install execute the following command,
 - `sudo apt install tftpd`
- Now create the tftp file with the required code in the “/etc/xinetd.d/tftp” location
- Restart to update the changes,
 - `/etc/init.d/xinetd restart`
- TUN/TAP provides packet reception and transmission for user space programs
 - To run the tun command,
 - `sudo modprobe tun`
- Now in order to setup the TFTP on the target machine, we need to follow series of commands
 - To run the interface in qemu by establishing a network tap0,
 - `sudo qemu-system-arm -M vexpress-a9 -m 256 -kernel u-boot -serial stdio \`
`-sd sdcard.img -net nic -net tap,ifname=tap0`
- To set the ipaddress, we take an environment variable ipaddr, the command is
 - `setenv ipaddr 192.168.0.2`
- To set the server ip,
 - `setenv serverip 192.168.0.1`
- To check the status of the network connectivity between host and target, we can use the ping command.
 - `ping 192.168.0.1`
- We load the zImage into board via Network by using the tftp protocol.
 - `tftp 0x60200000 zImage`
- In similar fashion, we load the vexpress-v2p-ca9.dtb.
 - `tftp 0x60100000 vexpress-v2p-ca9.dtb`
- Now to boot into the target, use the following command,
 - `setenv bootargs 'console=ttyAMA0 root=/dev/mmcblk0p2 rootfstype=ext4 '`
- The range of bootloader in the target board is from 0x60200000 to 0x60100000. Command is
 - `bootz 0x60200000 – 0x60100000`

8. Device Tree:

8.1 Introduction of Device Tree

- The “Open Firmware Device Tree”, or simply Device Tree (DT), is a data structure and language for describing hardware. More specifically, it is a description of hardware that is readable by an operating system so that the operating system doesn’t need to hard code details of the machine.
- Structurally, the DT is a tree, or acyclic graph with named nodes, and nodes may have an arbitrary number of named properties encapsulating arbitrary data. A mechanism also exists to create arbitrary links from one node to another outside of the natural tree structure.
- Conceptually, a common set of usage conventions, called ‘bindings’, is defined for how data should appear in the tree to describe typical hardware characteristics including data busses, interrupt lines, GPIO connections, and peripheral devices

8.2 High Level View about Device Tree

- The most important thing to understand is that the DT is simply a data structure that describes the hardware. There is nothing magical about it, and it doesn’t magically make all hardware configuration problems go away. What it does do is provide a language for decoupling the hardware configuration from the board and device driver support in the Linux kernel (or any other operating system for that matter). Using it allows board and device support to become data driven; to make setup decisions based on data passed into the kernel instead of on per-machine hard coded selections.
- The DT is simply a data structure that describes the hardware.
- Linux uses DT data for three major purposes:
 - a) Platform identification
 - b) Runtime configuration
 - c) Service population

8.2.1 Platform Identification:

First and foremost, the kernel will use data in the DT to identify the specific machine. In a perfect world, the specific platform shouldn’t matter to the kernel because all platform details would be described perfectly by the device tree in a consistent and reliable manner. Hardware is not perfect though, and so the kernel must identify the machine during early boot so that it can run machine-specific fixups.

The kernel will use data in the DT to identify the specific machine.

Hardware is not perfect though, and so the kernel must identify the machine during early boot so that it has the opportunity to run machine-specific fixups.

8.2.2 Runtime configuration

DT will be the sole method of communicating data from firmware to the kernel, so also gets used to pass in runtime and configuration data like the kernel parameters string and the location of an initrd image.

```
chosen {  
    bootargs = "console=ttyS0,115200 loglevel=8";  
    initrd-start = <0xc8000000>;  
    initrd-end = <0xc8200000>;  
};
```

8.2.3 Device population

After the board has been identified, and after the early configuration data has been parsed, then kernel initialization can proceed in the normal way. At some point in this process, `unflatten_device_tree()` is called to convert the data into a more efficient runtime representation.

8.3 Booting With Device Tree

- The kernel no longer contains the description of the hardware, it is located in a separate binary: the device tree blob
- The bootloader loads two binaries: the kernel image and the DTB
 - Kernel image remains uImage or zImage
 - DTB located in `arch/arm/boot/dts`, one per board
- U-Boot command:
`bootm <kernel img addr> - <dtb addr>`

8.4 Compatibility mode for DT booting

Some bootloaders have no specific support for the Device Tree, or the version used on a particular device is too old to have this support. To ease the transition, a compatibility mechanism was added:

`CONFIG_ARM_APPENDED_DTB`.

It tells the kernel to look for a DTB right after the kernel image. There is no built-in Makefile rule to produce such kernel, so one must manually do:

9. WHAT DO YOU MEAN BY KERNEL?

- A kernel is the central part of an operating system. It manages the operations of the computer and the hardware, most notably memory and CPU time
- It decides which process should be allocated to processor to execute and which process should be kept in main memory to execute.

9.1 There are three types of kernels:

9.1.1 A monolithic kernel

- It is one of types of kernel where all operating system services operate in kernel space. It has dependencies between systems components. It has huge lines of code which is complex
- Advantage
It has good performance.
- Disadvantage
It has dependencies between system component and lines of code in millions.

9.1.2 A micro kernel

- It is kernel types which has minimalist approach. It has virtual memory and thread scheduling. It is more stable with less services in kernel space. It puts rest in user space.
- Advantage
It is more stable.
- Disadvantage
There are lots of system calls and context switches.

9.1.3 Hybrid Kernel

- It is the combination of both monolithic kernel and microkernel. It has speed and design of monolithic kernel and modularity and stability of microkernel.
- Advantage
It combines both monolithic kernel and microkernel.
- Disadvantage
It is still similar to monolithic kernel.

10. WHAT DO YOU MEAN BY MODULES?

- **Modules are** pieces of code that **can** be loaded and unloaded into the **kernel** upon demand.
- They extend the functionality of the kernel without the need to reboot the system.
- The kernel consists of a set of kernel modules that interact with each other, each performing a specific function. Some kernel modules perform software functions exclusively, while others (such as device drivers) control the operation of system hardware components.

11 Activity QEMU installation

- QEMU is a generic and open source machine emulator and virtualizer.
- QEMU is used to emulate devices and certain privileged instructions and requires either the KQEMU or KVM kernel modules and the host operating system

Installing QEMU on ARM based architecture

- `sudo apt install qemu-system-arm`

Running QEMU by ZImage and vexpress dtb file

- `qemu-system-arm -M vexpress-a9 -m 1024 -serial stdio \ -kernel zImage -dtb vexpress-v2p-ca9.dtb \ -sd rootfs.img -append "console=ttyAMA0 root=/dev/mmcblk0 rw"`

12 Activity TOOLCHAIN Installation

- Installing soft load on ARM Architecture
- `sudo apt install gcc-arm-linux-gnueabi`

Download Kernel Source

Downloading from linux tar.xz from the source and extract it in a new folder

And then

Obtain the zImage and vexpress dtb file

Linux Commands:

- `make ARCH=arm mrproper`
- `make ARCH=arm vexpress_defconfig`

13 .Building Kernel Modules:

13.1 Simple Hello Module:

- Step 1 : Building the hello.c file and writing the contents
- Step 2: make file and writing the contents (`obj-m += hello.o`)
- Cross compile using make
 - `make -C ${KSRC} M=${PWD} modules ARCH=arm, CROSS_COMPILE=arm-linux-gnueabi-`
- testing on target
 - `sudo mount -o loop,rw,sync rootfs.img /mnt/rootfs`
 - `sudo cp hello.ko /mnt/rootfs/home/root`
 - `sudo umount /mnt/rootfs`

13.2 Simple hello Module with init and exit function

- Building the hello.c file and writing the contents
- make file and writing the contents
 - `obj-m += hello.o`
 - `KSRC = (where you have linux tar.xz location)`
 - `all: make -C ${KSRC} M=${PWD} modules`
 - `clean: make -C ${KSRC} M=${PWD} clean`
- Cross compile using make command
- Testing on the target

13.3 Hello module with parameters

- Building the hello.c file and writing the contents
 - **The contents added to be are:**
 - `int ndevices=1`
 - `module_param(ndevices,int,S_IRUGO);`
 - make file and writing the contents

make file and writing the contents

- Now in host i.e QEMU pass the arguments like `insmod ndevices = 5` or by default it will be 1

13.4 Module Dependency simple

- Building the hello.c file and writing the contents
 - The contents added to be are :
 - The functions and variable are present in the hello.c file
 - `EXPORT_SYMBOL_GPL(xvar);`
 - `EXPORT_SYMBOL_GPL(sayHello);`
 - make file and writing the contents
 - `obj-m += simple.o`
 -
 - all:**
 - make -C /home/user/eworkspace/kernel_ws/ksrc**
 - M=\${PWD} modules ARCH=arm CROSS_COMPILE=arm-linux-**
 - gnueabi-**
 - clean:**
 - **modules ARCH=arm CROSS_COMPILE=arm-linux-gnueabi-**
 - Now open the emulation using tempboot location
 - run command to print the contents `insmod (.ko) file`
 - `dmesg` will display the contents of the file

13.5 Module Dependency sample

- Building the hello.c file and writing the contents
 - The contents are added to be apart from simple
 - **extern int xvar;**
 - **extern void sayHello(void);**
 - Then after importing the module from simple we can use the functions defined in the simple module by printing in the sample module
 - We need to first run the simple module and then sample module so that we can use the functions present in the simple module

13.6 ADDING KCONFIG ENTRIES

Version 1 for K config entries:

Name a file hello.c in folder mtest

- config HELLO
 - tristate "Hello module"
 - default n
 - help
 - A Hello module
- Now making Makefile for the program:
 - obj-\$(CONFIG_SIMPLE) += hello.o
- Now update the make file present in the outside folder that is char folder
 - obj-y += mtest/
- Add the statement to the outside K config
 - source "drivers/char/mtest/Kconfig"

13.7 Version 2 for K Config entries:

- Name a file hello.c in folder mtest add into Kconfig blank file
- menu "My Custom Modules"
 - config SIMPLE
 - tristate "Simple module"
 - default n
 - help A
 - Hello module
 - endmenu

14 WHAT DO YOU MEAN BY SYSTEM CALLS?

- A **system call** is the programmatic way in which a computer program requests a service from the kernel of the operating system it is executed on.
- System call **provides** the services of the operating system to the user programs via Application Program Interface(API).

14.1 Services Provided by System Calls :

- Process creation and management
- Main memory management
- File Access, Directory and File system management
- Device handling(I/O)
- Protection
- Networking

14.2 Adding a system call:

- We need to add the syscall.h with linkage
 - `asmlinkage long sys_mytestcall(void);`
- Adding syscall number so that kernel can identify by the number:
 - 398 common mytestcall sys_mytestcall
- In kernel folder add mysys.c file :
 - kernel/mysys.c
- Update the kernel/Makefile:
 - `obj-y +=mysys.o`
- Write this code in kernel/mysys.c file:

```
SYSCALL_DEFINE0(testcall)
{
    printk("This is my test call\n");
    return 0;
}
```

Invoking System Call from Userspace:

Method 1: Generic wrapper class

Create a .c file and write this code in that file:

```
#include<stdio.h>
#include<
#define __NR_testcall 398
int main()
{
int ret;
ret=syscall(__NR_testcall);
if(ret<0)
perror("Testcall");
return 0;
}
```

Run the system calls by :

./filename.out

15 Pseudo Char Driver:

Step1 : Register Char Driver

Registering the new device to the system means assigning a major number to it, during the initialization routine. The major number is provided by the kernel for any character or block device.

Two types of ways of registering a character device driver

1. Statistically registration of character device driver
2. Dynamically registration of character device driver

15.1 Statistically registration device driver

When we know the major number in advance we can register the device using this method.

Two functions in the kernel for statistical registration of device driver:

- **register_chrdev()**

```
int register_chrdev(unsigned int major, const char *name, struct file_operations *fops);
```

- **register_chrdev_region()**

```
int register_chrdev_region(dev_t first, unsigned int count, char *name)
```

15.2 Dynamically registration of Character Device Driver

In this method, Kernel gives the highest available major number to the device.

1. **alloc_chrdev_region**

The prototype of `alloc_chrdev_region`, is declared in `<linux/fs.h>`:

```
int alloc_chrdev_region(dev_t *dev, unsigned int firstminor, unsigned int count, char *name);
```

15.3 Un-registration of character device driver

To deallocate an allocated major number use the ***unregister_chrdev()*** function. The prototype is given below and the parameters of the function are self-explanatory:

```
void unregister_chrdev_region(dev_t first, unsigned int count);
```

Step-2 : Register File Operations

The various operations a driver can perform on the devices it manages.

open device is identified internally by a file structure, and the kernel uses the `file_operations` structure to access the driver's functions.

The structure, defined in `<linux/fs.h>`, is an array of function pointers. Each file is associated with its own set of functions (by including a field called `f_op` that points to a `file_operations` structure).

The operations are mostly in charge of implementing the system calls and are thus named *open*, *read*, and so on.

We can consider the file to be an “object” and the functions operating on it to be its “methods,” using object-oriented programming terminology to denote actions declared by an object to act on itself.

```
ssize_t (*write) (struct file *, const char *, size_t, loff_t *);
```

Testing the Device Driver:

First we register the file by using :

```
insmod pseudo.ko  
upload the module by:
```

```
mknod /dev/psample c xxx 0
```

See output by :

```
cat /dev/psample
```

```
write input by target:  
echo "abc" > /dev/psample
```

Check output by:

```
dmesg
```

Remove file by:

```
rmmod filename
```

See result by:

```
rm /dev/psample
```

15.4 Device file Creation:

The device file allows transparent communication between user-space applications and hardware.

All device files are stored in /dev directory.

Use ls command to browse the directory.

```
ls -l /dev/
```

We can create a device file in two ways.

15.4.1 Manually, Automatically

Manually Creating Device File:

We can create the device file manually by using mknod.

```
mknod -m
```

15.5 Create the class:

It will create a structure under /sys/class/.

```
struct class * class_create (struct module *owner, const char *name);
```

15.5.1 Create Device:

This function can be used by char device classes. A struct device will be created in sysfs, registered to the specified class.

```
struct device *device_create (struct *class, struct device *parent, dev_t dev, const char *fmt, ...)
```

15.5.2 Device Destroy:

```
void device_destroy (struct class * class, dev_t devt);
```

Step-4: Buffer as pseudo device:

The Z-buffer device is a "pseudo device" in that drawing commands update buffers in memory rather than sending commands to a physical device or file.

To use the Z-buffer as the current graphics device, issue the IDL command:

```
pbuffer = kmalloc(MAX_SIZE, GFP_KERNEL);
```

Implement read, write operations:

A memory unit stores binary information in groups of bits called words.

Data input lines provide the information to be stored into the memory, Data output lines carry the information out from the memory.

The control lines Read and write specifies the direction of transfer of data.

16. Kernel Data Structures:

16.1 Kfifo API:

The kernel FIFO implementation, `kfifo`, is not that widely used and Stefani Seibold would like to see that change

A `kfifo` is declared using the `DECLARE_KFIFO()` macro which can be used inside of a struct or union declaration.

FIFOs declared with `DECLARE_KFIFO()` must be initialized using `INIT_KFIFO()`.

```
DECLARE_KFIFO(name, size)
```

```
INIT_KFIFO(name)
```

```
DEFINE_KFIFO(name, size)
```

```
unsigned int kfifo_in_rec(struct kfifo *fifo,  
void *from, unsigned int n, unsigned int recsize)
```

List implementation in Kernel:

Linked list is contained inside the node, structure of node.

there were multiple implementations of linked lists in the kernel. A single, powerful linked list implementation was needed to remove duplicate code.

The linked-list code is declared in `<linux/list.h>` and the data structure is simple:

```
struct list_head {  
    struct list_head *next  
    struct list_head *prev;  
};
```

A `list_head` by itself is worthless; it is normally embedded inside your own structure:

```
struct my_struct {  
    struct list_head list;  
    unsigned long dog;  
    void *cat;  
}
```

17 IPC in Kernel:

IPC mechanisms as implemented in the Linux 2.4 kernel. It is organized into four sections.

17.1 Semaphors:

Semaphores are IPCs, which means Inter-Process Communication Systems used to allow different processes to communicate with each other. It is a variable or abstract data type used to control access to a common resource by multiple processes in a concurrent system such as a multiprogramming operating system.

The functions described in this section implement the user level semaphore mechanisms. Note that this implementation relies on the use of kernel spinlocks and kernel semaphores. To avoid confusion, the term "kernel semaphore" will be used in reference to kernel semaphores. All other uses of the word "semaphore" will be in reference to the user level semaphores.

- a semaphore is based on a variable.
- binary semaphore;
- normal semaphore.

17.2 Semaphore API

semaphore API is located in the include/linux/semaphore.h header file. The semaphore mechanism is represented by the following structure.

```
struct semaphore
{
    raw_spinlock_t    lock;
    unsigned int      count;
    struct list_head   wait_list;
};
```

in the Linux kernel. The semaphore structure consists of three fields:

- lock - spinlock for a semaphore data protection;
- count - amount available resources;
- wait_list - list of processes which are waiting to acquire a lock.

```
#define DEFINE_SEMAPHORE(name) \
struct semaphore name = __SEMAPHORE_INITIALIZER(name, 1)
```


17.3 Mutex:

Mutex is a mutual exclusion object that synchronizes access to a resource. It is created with a unique name at the start of a program. The Mutex is a locking mechanism that makes sure only one thread can acquire the Mutex at a time and enter the critical section.

```
wait (mutex);  
Critical Section  
signal (mutex);
```

17.4 Spin Locks:

A spin lock is a way to protect a shared resource from being modified by two or more processes simultaneously. The first process that tries to modify the resource "acquires" the lock and continues on its way, doing what it needed to with the resource. Any other processes that subsequently try to acquire the lock get stopped; they are said to "spin in place" waiting on the lock to be released by the first process, thus the name spin lock.

```
The most basic primitive for locking is spinlock.  
static DEFINE_SPINLOCK(xxx_lock);  
unsigned long flags;  
spin_lock_irqsave(&xxx_lock, flags);  
... critical section here ..  
spin_unlock_irqrestore(&xxx_lock, flags);
```

```
Documentation/memory-barriers.txt  
(5) LOCK operations.  
(6) UNLOCK operations.
```

17.5 Reader-writer spinlocks:

If your data accesses have a very natural pattern where you usually tend to mostly read from the shared variables, the reader-writer locks (rw_lock) versions of the spinlocks are sometimes useful.

```
rwlock_t xxx_lock = __RW_LOCK_UNLOCKED(xxx_lock);  
unsigned long flags;  
read_lock_irqsave(&xxx_lock, flags);  
    read_unlock_irqrestore(&xxx_lock, flags);  
write_lock_irqsave(&xxx_lock, flags);  
write_unlock_irqrestore(&xxx_lock, flags);
```

17.6 Wait Queue API:

A wait queue is used to wait for someone to wake you up when a certain condition is true. They must be used carefully to ensure there is no race condition. You declare a `wait_queue_head_t`, and then processes which want to wait for that condition declare a `wait_queue_t` referring to themselves, and place that in the queue.

Declaring

You declare a `wait_queue_head_t` using the `DECLARE_WAIT_QUEUE_HEAD()` macro, or using the `init_waitqueue_head()` routine in your initialization code.

17.7 Generate Race Conditions in Pseudo Driver:

A race condition is a concurrency problem that may occur inside a critical section. A critical section is a section of code that is executed by multiple threads and where the sequence of execution for the threads makes a difference in the result of the concurrent execution of the critical section.

Two Types of Race Conditions

Race conditions can occur when two or more threads read and write the same variable according to one of these two patterns:

Read-modify-write

Check-then-act

18 IOCTL usage:

IOCTL is referred to as Input and Output Control, which is used to talking to device drivers. This system call, available in most driver categories. The major use of this is in case of handling some specific operations of a device for which the kernel does not have a system call by default.

Some real-time applications of ioctl are Ejecting the media from a “cd” drive, to change the Baud Rate of Serial port, Adjust the Volume, Reading or Writing device registers, etc. We already have the write and read function in our device driver. But it is not enough for all cases.

here are some steps involved to use IOCTL.

- Create IOCTL command in driver
- Write IOCTL function in the driver
- Create IOCTL command in a Userspace application
- Use the IOCTL system call in a Userspace

The **ioctl()** system call manipulates the underlying device parameters of special files. In particular, many operating characteristics of character special files (e.g., terminals) may be controlled with **ioctl()** requests. The argument *fd* must be an open file descriptor.

#include <sys/ioctl.h>

The second argument is a device-dependent request code. The third argument is an untyped pointer to memory. It's traditionally `char *argp` (from the days before `void *` was valid C), and will be so named for this discussion.

19. References:

- www.geekforgeeks.com
- Wikipedia
- Javatpoint
- W3school.com
- www.kernel.org/doc/html/latest/devicetree/usage-model.html