96 Chapter 2 Operating-System Structures

- 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.

```
#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/.