



HAL9000

An educational operating system for teaching SMP systems in an
64-bit x86 environment

Alexandru Gurzou

The 9000 series is the most reliable computer ever made. No 9000 computer has ever made a mistake or distorted information. We are all, by any practical definition of the words, foolproof and incapable of error.
- HAL 9000 [1]

Contents

1	Introduction	1
1.1	Versus Pintos	1
1.2	Project Overview	2
1.2.1	Root Directory	2
1.2.2	Source Tree Overview	4
1.2.3	Building HAL9000	6
1.2.4	Running HAL9000	7
1.3	Grading	7
1.3.1	Design	7
1.3.2	Testing	9
1.4	Useful documents and links	10
2	Project 1: Threads	11
2.1	Overview	11
2.1.1	Threading System Initialization	11
2.1.2	Synchronization	12
2.1.3	Development	13
2.2	Assignment	13
2.2.1	Timer	14
2.2.2	Priority Scheduler	15
2.2.3	Priority Donation	15
2.2.4	BONUS: Per-CPU ready lists	17
2.3	Source Files	17
2.4	FAQ	18
2.4.1	Priority Scheduler	18
2.4.2	Priority Donation	19
3	Project 2: Userprog	21
3.1	Overview	21
3.1.1	Userprog Initialization	21
3.1.2	Issuing system calls	22
3.1.3	Working with user applications	22

3.2	Assignment	24
3.2.1	Argument Passing	24
3.2.2	User memory access	25
3.2.3	System calls	25
3.2.4	Handling user-mode exceptions	27
3.3	Source Files	27
3.4	FAQ	28
4	Project 3: Virtual Memory	31
4.1	Overview	31
4.1.1	Memory Terminology	31
4.1.2	Memory Management Initialization	35
4.1.3	Resource Management Overview	35
4.2	Assignment	38
4.2.1	Per Process Quotas	38
4.2.2	System calls	38
4.2.3	Swapping	40
4.2.4	Zero Pages	40
4.2.5	Stack Growth	40
4.3	Source Files	41
4.4	FAQ	42
A	Reference Guide	43
A.1	HAL9000	43
A.1.1	Startup	43
A.1.2	Multi-core vs Single-core	46
A.1.3	Why 64-bit?	46
A.1.4	Interrupt Handling	47
A.2	Threads	50
A.2.1	Thread Structure	50
A.2.2	Thread Functions	52
A.2.3	Thread States	57
A.2.4	Thread Switching	59
A.2.5	Thread Initialization	59
A.3	Interprocessor Communication	60
A.3.1	Parameter overview	61
A.3.2	Usage Examples	62
A.4	Processes	65
A.4.1	Process Structure	65
A.4.2	Process functions	66
A.4.3	Program Startup	70
A.5	Synchronization	72

A.5.1	Primitive	74
A.5.2	Executive	77
A.5.3	Interlocked Operations	81
A.5.4	Disabling Interrupts	81
A.6	Memory Management	81
A.6.1	Physical Memory Management	82
A.6.2	Virtual Memory Management	83
A.6.3	Heap Management	84
A.6.4	Memory Management Unit	85
A.6.5	Page-fault handling	86
A.7	Virtual Addresses	86
A.8	Paging Tables	89
A.8.1	Creation, Destruction and Activation	89
A.8.2	Inspection and Updates	89
A.8.3	Accessed and Dirty Bits	90
A.9	List Structures	90
A.10	Hash Table	91
A.11	Hardware Timers	95
A.11.1	PIT Timer	95
A.11.2	RTC Timer	96
A.11.3	LAPIC Timer	96
B	Debugging	99
B.1	Signaling function failure	99
B.1.1	Interpreting STATUS values	100
B.2	Logging	101
B.3	Asserts	103
B.4	Disassembly	103
B.5	Halt debugging	112
C	Development Tools	113
C.1	Setting Up the Environment for HAL9000	113
C.1.1	Automatic Configuration	114
C.1.2	Opening the virtual machines	115
C.1.3	Enabling shared folder in the PXE virtual machine	115
C.1.4	Virtual Network Creation	116
C.1.5	System Architecture	118
C.1.6	Troubleshooting	121
C.2	Visual Studio	126
C.2.1	Keyboard Shortcuts	126
C.2.2	Check the platform toolset	128
C.2.3	Set the platform toolset	128

C.2.4	Install the desired platform toolset	132
C.3	Hg	132
C.4	Git	133
C.4.1	Why do I need it?	133
C.4.2	Installing Git	134
C.4.3	Examples	139
C.4.4	Visual git clients	144
C.4.5	Diff tools	144
D	Coding Style	145
D.1	Functional rules	145
D.2	Non-functional Rules	146
	Bibliography	147

Chapter 1

Introduction

HAL9000 is a 64-bit operating system (OS) written for x86 symmetric multiprocessor systems (SMP). It provides a simple round robin scheduler for scheduling threads on the available CPUs, support for launching user-mode applications, a basic FAT32 file-system driver and basic drivers for providing I/O operations (VGA, IDE disk, keyboard, legacy COM and ethernet).

HAL9000 can theoretically run on any physical Intel x86 PC which supports 64-bit operating mode. However, because it is cheaper, easier and safer to test in a virtual environment we will use VMWare Workstation [2] for running our OS.

The project is a semester long and consists of improving the threading and user-mode support currently available in HAL9000 .

This chapter provides the basic introduction to the project, highlights the differences between this project and a very popular one (Pintos [3]) which served as an inspiration for the conception of HAL9000 . Afterward, this section provides the basic pointers to navigating, building, running and testing the code.

1.1 Versus Pintos

HAL9000 started as the author's project during his first graduate year and as it evolved the author started thinking it could maybe replace Pintos as the OS used for teaching students operating system concepts.

The arguments made in favor of using HAL9000 instead of Pintos are the following:

- Support for multi-processor systems. This provides true concurrency and makes synchronization a bit harder (you can't just disable interrupts) and provides an environment more authentic to the real world. For more information on these differences see [A.1.2 \[Multi-core vs Single-core\]](#).
- 64-bit execution mode. Several benefits are gained by the OS by running in 64 bit mode (we will refer to this as long mode from now on): some of these benefits

are performance wise: PCIDs, syscall/sysret instruction pair while some enhance security: XD, larger virtual address spaces and protection keys. For more details, see [A.1.3 \[Why 64-bit?\]](#).

- The OS image is multiboot compliant [4], this means it can be loaded by any multi-boot loader such as grub or PXE. This makes it easy to run the OS through both hard-disk boot and network boot.
- Code is annotated using an annotation language to provide better compile-time checks and detect errors earlier. Besides improving code quality by detecting checks earlier, annotating code teaches students to better think of their design before starting to write functions by forcing them to annotate the function header before one line of the body is written. See [5] for more information about the annotation language used.
- If people are not interested strictly in OS design, but want to write their own file system, network or disk driver they could easily extend this OS to support any file system, network adapter or disk controller interface.

The arguments made in favor of using Pintos instead of HAL9000 are:

- No debugger support - we have plans to change this in the future. Unfortunately, because gdb doesn't know how to interpret pdb files it isn't as simple as adding a basic gdb stub for debugger support. **NOTE: This is on the feature list for the next project iteration.**
- Pintos is tried and tested, being part of the curriculum for many top ranked universities in the world for many years while HAL9000 is at its first iteration.
- Pintos doesn't rely as many CPU features and doesn't require the host operating system to be a 64-bit version.

Before going any further, we wish to acknowledge Pintos's contribution both as source code inspiration and as project requirements definition. Some parts of the Pintos documentation which apply to HAL9000 are taken as is without modification and some are altered.

1.2 Project Overview

1.2.1 Root Directory

The root directory as generated using the install script (see [C.1 \[Setting Up the Environment for HAL9000 \]](#)) should look like the one illustrated in [Figure 1.1 \[Project Root Directory\]](#).

```
.
|-- [ dir]  bin
|-- [ dir]  acpi
|-- [ dir]  docs
|-- [ dir]  postbuild
|-- [ dir]  PXE
|-- [ dir]  src
|   |-- [ dir]  Ata
|   |-- [ dir]  CommonLib
|   |-- [ dir]  CommonLibUnitTests
|   |-- [ dir]  Disk
|   |-- [ dir]  Eth_82574L
|   |-- [ dir]  FAT32
|   |-- [ dir]  HAL
|   |-- [ dir]  HAL9000
|   |-- [file]  HAL9000.sln
|   |-- [file]  HAL9000_WithoutApplications.sln
|   |-- [ dir]  NetworkPort
|   |-- [ dir]  NetworkStack
|   |-- [ dir]  PE_Parser
|   |-- [ dir]  shared
|   |-- [ dir]  SwapFS
|   |-- [ dir]  Usermode
|   |-- [ dir]  Utils
|   |-- [ dir]  Volume
|-- [ dir]  temp
|-- [ dir]  tests
|-- [ dir]  tools
|-- [ dir]  VM
9 directories, 0 files
```

Figure 1.1: Project Root Directory

- bin: this is the place where the binaries are placed after compilation.
- acpi: contains the external acpica library. It is used for parsing the ACPI tables.
- docs: contains this documentation and documentation related to the hardware components or external libraries used by HAL9000 .
- postbuild: contains the scripts which write the OS binary to the PXE folder, write the user applications to the VM hard disk and run the tests. You will not run these scripts directly, they are part of VS projects.
- src:
 - HAL9000.sln: project solution - this is what you need to open with VS.
 - HAL9000_WithoutApplications.sln same as HAL9000.sln except it does not contain the user-mode projects. If you feel that VS is working too slow with the full project try using this.
 - Usermode: contains all the user-mode applications and the common user-mode library.
 - Other folders belong to their respective projects, you will only have to work with the HAL9000 project, but we suggest you navigate the project only in VS, see [1.2.2 \[Source Tree Overview\]](#).
- temp: required by VS for storing temporary files - ignore it but do not delete the folder.
- tests: contains the code for parsing the test results and for validating them.
- tools: contains miscellaneous tools including the assembler and the tools required to interact with the VM and its disk.
- VM: contains the two VMs: the one which will boot HAL9000 and a PXE server.
- PXE: contains the contents required by the PXE server - this folder is shared with the PXE server VM. Upon successful compilation of HAL9000 its binary is placed here for network boot. **DO NOT TOUCH THIS FOLDER.**

1.2.2 Source Tree Overview

We highly recommend using the Visual Studio (VS) as an IDE and not using notepad++ or other editors for navigating the source code. The whole source tree is based on VS filter for grouping files, i.e. you will only see a logical separation between files if you open VS - on the file system all the files are in the same folder regardless of the component they belong to.

To open the project in VS you need to open the *HAL9000.sln* file from the src directory. You will see several projects loaded in the VS solution:

- **FAT32**
Provides a simple implementation of a FAT32 file system driver. You will not work here.
- **SwapFS**
Responsible for managing the swap partition : provides simple read/write functionality at a 4KB granularity. You will not work here.
- **PE_parser**
Parses portable executable (PE) files, i.e. Windows executables and synthesizes information for use by other components. The module is required for re-mapping the kernel and for loading user-mode applications into memory. You will not work here.
- **Eth_82574L**
Driver for the Intel 82574 GbE Controller Family. The network card emulated by VMWare belongs to this family and the driver implements all the required functionality for network reception and transmission. You will not work here.
- **NetworkPort**
Provides helper functions for ethernet drivers. This layer is added so that it is not required of each ethernet driver (such as Eth_82574L) to implement the same functionality over and over again. This layer provides helper functions which can be used by any ethernet driver. You will not work here.
- **NetworkStack**
Provides an interface for the operating system to access the network devices. You will not work here.
- **Ata**
Provides the IDE disk controller driver, it is responsible for performing disk I/O by communicating with the hard disk controller. You will not work here.
- **Disk, Volume**
These drivers provide abstraction for the operating system and the attached file systems. A file system will be mounted on a volume, while a volume will belong to a disk and the disk will be on top of a hard-disk controller. You will not work here.
NOTE: In real systems the hierarchy can be more complex (a file-system may be on multiple volumes and a volume may be on multiple disks, but in HAL9000 these mappings are one to one).

- RemoveAllTests

When this project is built causes HAL9000 's next boot not to run any tests and to accept user-given commands through the keyboard.

- RunTests

Will start a VM instance of the operating system and will wait until HAL9000 finishes running all the tests or until a timeout occurs (default: 5 minutes). Once execution of the VM finishes the results of the tests will be compared with the expected results and a summary of the results will be displayed. More details in [1.3.2 \[Testing\]](#).

- CommonLib

Contains some basic data structures and functions which would normally be present in the C standard library and several other generic constructs which are not coupled with HAL9000 . Some of the features include: string manipulation functions, reference counters, bitmaps, spinlocks, hash tables, support for termination handlers and so on.

- CommonLibUnitTests

Not relevant to the project or any of the laboratories. If you want to write user-mode C++ code to test the *CommonLib* functionality here's the place where you can do it.

- HAL

Provides the layer which works directly with the x86 architecture hardware components (CMOS, RTC, IOAPIC, LAPIC, PCI) and processor structures (CUID, MSR, GDT, IDT, MTRR, TSS).

- HAL9000

The actual operating system code. **This is the place where all your work will take place.** The project contains too many files and too much functionality to describe it all here. On each project you will get a more detailed view of the components you will work on. You can also browse the code at any time to determine what each component does.

For more information on how to navigate the solution you can read [C.2 \[Visual Studio\]](#).

1.2.3 Building HAL9000

Before building the project in VS you will first need to configure the *paths.cmd* file - this is explained in [C.1 \[Setting Up the Environment for HAL9000 \]](#).

Once you have finished configuring the *paths.cmd* file you can now build the solution. If you want to simply build the OS without starting the VM and running all the tests it is enough to build the HAL9000 project.

If you want to go through the whole test cycle rebuild the RunTests project. See more details in [1.3.2 \[Testing\]](#).

If you want to make sure next time you boot the OS no test will be run rebuild the RemoveAllTests project.

1.2.4 Running HAL9000

Firstly, you should have both your VMs configured as described in [C.1 \[Setting Up the Environment for HAL9000\]](#). We will refer to the VM on which the PXE server resides as the PXE VM and the VM on which we'll run HAL9000 as the HAL9000 VM.

You have to start up the PXE VM first and wait for it to boot, you do not have to login because the PXE server automatically starts on system boot. Once the first VM is started, the second VM (on which our OS will run) can be launched. Due to its BIOS settings this VM will boot from the network and the PXE server will hand it the HAL9000 binary as the boot image.

Once the PXE VM is up and running you can start the HAL9000 VM by hand from the VMWare Workstation interface, or you can build the RunAllTests project to validate your current implementation of one of the projects.

If you just want to give some commands by hand once the OS is up you can build the RemoveAllTests project and then start the HAL9000 VM from the VMWare Workstation interface.

1.3 Grading

We will grade your assignments based on the design quality and test results, each of which comprises 50% of your grade.

1.3.1 Design

We will judge your design based on the design document. We will read your entire design document. Don't forget that design quality, including the design document, is 50% of your project grade. It is better to spend one or two hours writing a good design document than it is to spend that time getting the last 5% of the points for tests.

Design Document

We provide a design document template for each project. For each significant part of a project, the template asks questions in four areas:

- **Data Structures**

Copy here the declaration of each new or changed struct or struct member, global or static variable, typedef, or enumeration. Identify the purpose of each in 25 words or less.

The first part is mechanical. Just copy new or modified declarations into the design document, to highlight for us the actual changes to data structures. Each declaration should include the comment that should accompany it in the source code (see below).

We also ask for a very brief description of the purpose of each new or changed data structure. The limit of 25 words or less is a guideline intended to save your time and avoid duplication with later areas.

- **Algorithms**

This is where you tell us how your code works, through questions that probe your understanding of your code. We might not be able to easily figure it out from the code, because many creative solutions exist for most OS problems. Help us out a little.

Your answers should be at a level below the high level description of requirements given in the assignment. We have read the assignment too, so it is unnecessary to repeat or rephrase what is stated there. On the other hand, your answers should be at a level above the low level of the code itself. Don't give a line-by-line run-down of what your code does. Instead, use your answers to explain how your code works to implement the requirements.

- **Synchronization**

An operating system kernel is a complex, multithreaded program, in which synchronizing multiple threads can be difficult. This section asks about how you chose to synchronize this particular type of activity.

- **Rationale**

Whereas the other sections primarily ask “what” and “how,” the rationale section concentrates on “why.” This is where we ask you to justify some design decisions, by explaining why the choices you made are better than alternatives. You may be able to state these in terms of time and space complexity, which can be made as rough or informal arguments (formal language or proofs are unnecessary).

An incomplete, evasive, or non-responsive design document or one that strays from the template without good reason may be penalized. See ?? [??] for a sample design document for a fictitious project.

1.3.2 Testing

Your test result grade will be based on our tests. Each project has several tests, testing the implementation you provide. To completely test your submission build the RunTests project and wait for the results to appear (may take up to 5 minutes). The following are performed when RunTests is built:

1. Parses the contents of the threads or userprog directory from within the tests folder to determine which tests must be run, for every test files found in these directories a test will be run.
2. Generates the *Tests.module* file and copies it to the PXE location - this file contains all the commands that must be executed by the OS to run all the tests previously parsed and to shutdown.
3. Starts the HAL9000 VM and waits for its termination.
4. Waits for the VM to terminate or, if it runs for more than 5 minutes, it forcefully shuts it down.
5. The serial log is parsed and divided into .result files having the names of the tests executed. As an example: if the OS ran the TestsThreadStart a TestsThreadStart.result file will be placed by the already existent TestsThreadStart.test file.
6. Each .result file is then parsed and a conclusion is drawn by following these steps:
 - (a) If an error is logged during execution the test is marked as FAIL.
 - (b) If a PASS string is logged during execution the test is marked as PASS.
 - (c) If a .check file is present then the perl script within it is run to validate the .result file.
 - (d) If none of the previous applied, the .result file is compared with the corresponding .test file expecting an identical file for passing the test.
7. An .outcome file is generated for each test containing the test conclusion (PASS or FAIL) and the lines which caused the conclusion - the reason may be an error logged or a PASS text or the lines differing between the .result and .test files.
8. The result of each test is shown, a summary of the results for each category and the total pass / total count are displayed.

For further details, you can check the *execute_tests.pl* file in the tests folder. If you want to run only a single test you can run the *run_single_test.cmd* script found in the src/postbuild folder. The parameters taken by the script are the project name and the

test category\name. As an example, if you would want to run the "TestThreadTimer-Absolute" test you need to run the the following command: `run_single_test.cmd threads\timer\TestthreadTimerAbsolute`.

Each test provides feedback only at completion, not during its run, to see the reason why a test succeeded or failed see the .outcome file for the test. As an example: if your implementation failed the ThreadPriorityMutex test you can open the ThreadPriorityMutex.outcome file in the tests/threads/priority-scheduler folder to determine the cause of the FAIL.

All of the tests and related files are in the tests directory. Before we test your submission, we will replace the contents of that directory by a pristine, unmodified copy, to ensure that the correct tests are used. Thus, you can modify some of the tests if that helps in debugging, but we will run the originals.

All software has bugs, so some of our tests may be flawed. If you think a test failure is a bug in the test, not a bug in your code, please point it out. We will look at it and fix it if necessary.

Please don't try to take advantage of our generosity in giving out our test suite. Your code has to work properly in the general case, not just for the test cases we supply. For example, it would be unacceptable to explicitly base the kernel's behavior on the name of the running test case. Such attempts to side-step the test cases will receive no credit. If you think your solution may be in a gray area here, please ask us about it.

1.4 Useful documents and links

- [6] - Hobbyist OS development wiki and forum. Contains a lot of tutorials on a large range of topics starting from low-level device programming to high level concepts such as scheduling. There is also a forum available where you can find additional information on certain topics or ask questions.
- [7] - Contains a tutorial for developing an operating system from scratch. Some interesting topics include memory management, programming interrupts, implementing spinlocks and developing a GUI.
- [8] - Intel System Manual: the definitive documentation for everything related to the Intel CPU: topics which may help you for the projects are Chapters 4 (Paging), 6 (Interrupt and Exception Handling), 8 (Multiple-Processor Management).
- [9] - Intel Instruction Set Reference: if you are interested in the exact effects of an x86 assembly instruction this is the manual for you.

Chapter 2

Project 1: Threads

2.1 Overview

The first project strives to improve the current threading system. You are giving a basic threading system implementation which doesn't account for thread priorities and contains an inefficient timer implementation. Your job is to improve this functionality by removing the busy waits from the timer and by making the scheduler take into account thread priorities and solving the problems which arise from this new scheduler.

Before starting work on the first assignment you should first read and understand [Chapter 1 \[Introduction\]](#). You should be able to navigate through the project files in Visual Studio, compile the code and be able to run the thread tests.

The VS configuration used for compiling the code must be **Threads**. The only difference between configuration are the tests which run when building the *RunTests* project.

2.1.1 Threading System Initialization

If you want to understand the whole HAL9000 load process you can read [A.1.1 \[Startup\]](#), in this section only the flow related to the threading system initialization will be described.

The main thread will be initialized on each CPU in *ThreadSystemInitMainForCurrentCPU()*. The initialization sequence for the main thread is shorter compared to creating a new thread, because its stack already exists and the thread was already 'running' - even if its data structure was not populated yet.

When this function returns and the main thread is initialized the executive synchronization mechanisms will be usable: these functions require information about the currently executing thread.

After more system components finish initialization *ThreadSystemInitIdleForCurrentCPU()* is called to create the idle thread (this function will also be called on each CPU). After the idle thread is created the scheduler can now function properly - it has what to schedule in case there are no threads in the ready list. The function executed

by the idle thread can be seen in `_IdleThread()` - it does nothing useful - the only reason it exists is for a consistent view of the system, i.e. as there must always be a Stark in Winterfell [10] there must always be a thread running on each CPU.

After the idle thread is initialized the interrupts will be enabled and every `SCHEDULER_TIMER_INTERRUPT_TIME_US` μ s (currently 40ms) a clock interrupt will trigger on each processor and if the current thread is running on the CPU for more than `THREAD_TIME_SLICE` clock ticks (currently 1) it will yield after it finished handling the interrupt. This is done in `ThreadTick()`.

Another reason why a thread may yield the CPU is when it is trying to acquire a resource which is currently unavailable: this may be a mutex, an executive event or an executive timer. See [A.5.2 \[Executive\]](#) for implementation details.

Also, executing threads may be nice and give up their CPU time willingly by calling `ThreadYield()` anytime.

For creating a new thread you can use the `ThreadCreate()` function. You can give the thread a name (useful only for debugging purposes), a priority (currently disregarded), a function from which to start execution and a pointer to the parameters of the function. The `ThreadCreateEx()` version is available for creating threads in the context of a usermode process - you will not need this function until project 2 when you will work on user-mode threads.

The function specified will start execution with interrupts enabled and you will **NOT** have to disable or re-enable interrupts manually. The synchronization mechanisms will do this for short (executive) or long (primitive) periods of time. See [A.5 \[Synchronization\]](#) for more details.

The exit point of any thread is `ThreadExit()` regardless of whether the thread calls it directly, it finishes the execution of its start function or it is forced terminated by another thread.

We lied to you, the first function executed by newly created kernel threads is not the startup function you give to `ThreadCreate()`, actually it's `_ThreadKernelFunction()`, see [A.2.5 \[Thread Initialization\]](#) for the detailed explanation.

If you want to wait for a thread to terminate its execution you can use `ThreadWaitForTermination()`, if you want to terminate it forcefully use `ThreadTerminate()`. Warning: this is not a good idea and should seldom be used because the thread may be holding some resources on termination and they will not be freed; as a result other threads may be deadlocked.

If you want more information read [A.2 \[Threads\]](#) and read the code in `thread.c`.

2.1.2 Synchronization

HAL9000 is a multi-threaded OS, i.e. multiple threads may access the same resources concurrently: this causes race conditions if these critical sections are not protected by proper synchronization mechanisms.

HAL9000 is also multi-processor aware and runs on all the CPUs detected in the system. Due to this fact, you cannot synchronize the code by relying on the **bad habit** of disabling interrupts on the current CPU. The thread from the current CPU (the one disabling the interrupts) will not be interrupted while executing in a critical section, but another thread (on another CPU) may also access the same data structures concurrently, hence making **disabling interrupts useless** for synchronization.

While holding a primitive lock interrupts are disabled until you release it. The only reason why you'll want to use primitive synchronization mechanisms will be to synchronize code between interrupt handlers and other functions. Because interrupt handlers can't sleep they cannot wait on executive resources (mutexes, events or timers). See [A.5.1 \[Primitive\]](#).

For all the code you'll write you should use executive synchronization mechanisms. The reason why they are called executive is because the OS manages them. In contrast with the primitive synchronization mechanisms these do not use busy waiting for resources, these block the current thread (yielding the CPU) and causing them to become un-schedulable until the resource becomes available and the thread is signaled.

These mechanisms use primitive locks internally holding them for the least amount of time necessary. See *MutexAcquire()* for a good example. The *MutexLock* is taken strictly for updating the mutex data structure. Before returning control to the caller the function restores the original interruptibility state. See [A.5.2 \[Executive\]](#).

There should be no busy waiting in your submission. A tight loop that calls *ThreadYield()* is one form of busy waiting.

2.1.3 Development

Work together as a **TEAM**. Think of the design together and piece the code as early as possible and not on the night before the submission.

Groups that do this often find that two changes conflict with each other, requiring lots of last-minute debugging. Some groups who have done this have turned in code that did not even compile or boot, much less pass any tests.

You **MUST** use a source version control tool such as Git [11] or Hg [12] (recommended). This way you'll be 'forced' to collaborate and you will be able to easily merge all your changes in time and see all your teammates code changes.

You will certainly run into many problems, when doing so it is recommended to read the debugging section ([Appendix B \[Debugging\]](#)) for tips and tricks and to validate each assumption you make (the recommended way is through ASSERTs). If you're still having problems do not hesitate to contact your TA and ask for help.

2.2 Assignment

In this project your goal is to improve the thread component.

1. Improve the timer implementation by removing busy waiting.
2. Schedule threads according to their priority.
3. Solve priority inversion problems by implementing priority donation.

2.2.1 Timer

The current implementation for timers uses busy waiting to determine when the timer should trigger. This is a very **wasteful** use of system resources: there is NO reason to keep the CPU busy when other productive threads may be scheduled or - if no thread is ready - to save some power and conserve your laptop's battery power.

The timer interface is available in [A.5.2 \[Executive Timer\]](#). A usage example is illustrated in [Listing 2.1 \[Timer Usage Example\]](#). For brevity the example does not check the result of *ExTimerInit()*, however, when you're working on your project we expect you to always check the result of all the functions you call.

Listing 2.1: Timer Usage Example

```
EX_TIMER timer;

// Initialize a periodic timer to trigger each 2 seconds
ExTimerInit(&timer, ExTimerTypeRelativePeriodic, 2 * SEC_IN_US);

// After the timer is initialized any number of threads may wait for it, however
// until the timer is started, even if the countdown expired, they must not be
// woken up

// Start the timer, if the countdown has already expired all the threads will
// be instantly woken up
ExTimerStart(&timer);

// Wait for the timer to be signaled, blocks the thread until the countdown
// triggers. In the case of one shot timers issuing a wait after the timer
// has expired will cause the calling thread to return immediately. However
// in the case of periodic timers the countdown will restart after all the
// waiting threads have been woken up and threads will be blocked again
// until the countdown triggers again.
ExTimerWait(&timer);

ExTimerWait(&timer);

ExTimerWait(&timer);

// After we have waited for the timer to trigger 3 times we will stop it
// If there are any threads still waiting on the timer they will be all
// woken up when the timer is stopped.
ExTimerStop(&timer);

// Will return instantly if the timer was stopped
ExTimerWait(&timer);

// Uninitialize the timer, free any memory
ExTimerUninit(&timer);
```

2.2.2 Priority Scheduler

HAL9000 currently implements a basic round-robin scheduler which doesn't take into account thread priorities when choosing the next thread to run.

Your objective is to prioritize thread execution, the higher priority thread should always be scheduled before a lower priority one. This means each time a thread is unblocked (resource is now available) if it has a higher priority than the one running it should be scheduled in place of the running one.

This statement is true regardless of the resource it waits for: CPU time, mutex, event, timer.

NOTE: This must hold true on a system-wide scale and not on a CPU-wide scale, i.e. even if a higher priority thread unblocks a medium priority thread it may still need to preempt the execution of a lower priority thread running on a different CPU.

Thread priorities range from *ThreadPriorityLowest* (0) and *ThreadPriorityMaximum* (31). Lower numbers correspond to lower priorities, so that priority 0 is the lowest priority and priority 31 the highest. If there's no reason to choose another priority, use *ThreadPriorityDefault* (16). These enums can be found in *thread_defs.h*.

You will have to work with both the scheduling functions (*ThreadYield()*, *_ThreadGetReadyThread()*) and with the executive synchronization mechanisms: mutex, events and timers.

2.2.3 Priority Donation

After we implement the priority scheduler we realize we have a very big problem: *priority inversion*. Consider high, medium, and low priority threads H, M, and L, respectively. If H needs to wait for L (for instance, for a lock held by L), and M is on the ready list, then H will never get the CPU because the low priority thread will not get any CPU time. A partial fix for this problem is for H to "donate" its priority to L while L is holding the lock, then recall the donation once L releases (and thus H acquires) the lock.

NOTE: Even if the L thread may gain the opportunity to run on a multi-core system in parallel with the M thread we want our OS to run on any compatible system no matter its CPU configuration. Also, it is logical when a higher priority thread depends on lower priority threads to boost their priority to be able to unblock the H thread as quickly as possible.

Implement priority donation. You will need to account for all different situations in which priority donation is required. Be sure to handle multiple donations, in which multiple priorities are donated to a single thread. You must also handle nested donation: if H is waiting on a lock that M holds and M is waiting on a lock that L holds, then both M and L should be boosted to H's priority. If necessary, you may impose a reasonable limit on depth of nested priority donation, such as 8 levels. See [Figure 2.1 \[Priority Inversion\]](#) for an illustration - figure taken from Stack Overflow.

You must implement priority donation for mutexes.

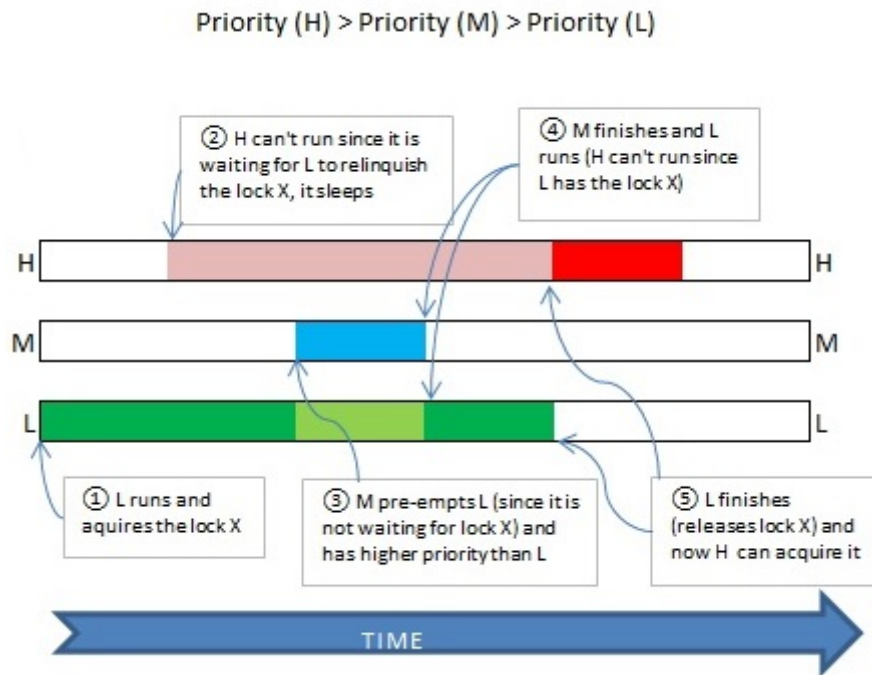


Figure 2.1: Priority Inversion

Listing 2.2: Thread priority functions

```

//*****
// Function:      ThreadGetPriority
// Description:   Returns the thread's priority. In the presence of
//               priority donation, returns the higher(donated) priority.
// Returns:       THREAD_PRIORITY
// Parameter:     IN_OPT PTHREAD Thread - If NULL returns the priority of the
//               current thread.
//*****
THREAD_PRIORITY
ThreadGetPriority(
    IN_OPT PTHREAD Thread
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadSetPriority
// Description:   Sets the thread's priority to new priority. If the
//               current thread no longer has the highest priority, yields.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     IN THREAD_PRIORITY NewPriority
//*****
void
ThreadSetPriority(
    IN THREAD_PRIORITY NewPriority
);

```

2.2.4 BONUS: Per-CPU ready lists

2.3 Source Files

We suggest always navigating the project through the Visual Studio interface, because the files are not organized into folders on the filesystem. In Visual Studio there are filters which group functionalities. For this project you will work with some of the files in the *executive* filter.

Here is a quick overview of all the files.

thread.h

thread_defs.h

These are the public thread definitions - these functions may be used by any external components such as drivers and the syscall interface.

thread_internal.h

These functions and structure definitions should only be used by a few components from the OS which work tightly with the thread functionality. Some examples include the executive synchronization mechanisms and the interrupt handler which will need access to the *ThreadTick()*, *ThreadBlock()*, *ThreadYieldOnInterrupt()* and other similar functions.

thread.c

Contains the implementation of the functionality exposed in all the thread* headers. For more information regarding the functionality and the threading mechanisms see [A.2 \[Threads\]](#).

_thread.yasm

Contains the low-level implementation of the mechanisms required for thread startup and thread switching. You will NOT have to work in these files, if you are interested in details you can read [A.2.4 \[Thread Switching\]](#) and [A.2.5 \[Thread Initialization\]](#).

mutex.h

mutex.c

Contains the mutex implementation (a.k.a. executive lock). For more information see [A.5.2 \[Mutex\]](#). You will have to work here for implementing priority scheduling and donation.

ex_event.h

ex_event.c

Contains the executive event functionality. For more information see [A.5.2 \[Executive Event\]](#). You don't have to modify these files.

ex_timer.h

ex_timer.c

Contains the executive timer implementation. You will have to work in the c file to implement the version without busy waiting. For more information see [A.5.2 \[Executive Timer\]](#).

2.4 FAQ

Q: How much code will I need to write?

A: Here's a summary of our reference solution, produced by the hg diff program. The final row gives total lines inserted and deleted; a changed line counts as both an insertion and a deletion.

The reference solution represents just one possible solution. Many other solutions are also possible and many of those differ greatly from the reference solution. Some excellent solutions may not modify all the files modified by the reference solution, and some may modify files not modified by the reference solution.

```
src/HAL9000/headers/ex_system.h      | 20 +++++
src/HAL9000/headers/ex_timer.h       | 17 +++-
src/HAL9000/headers/mutex.h          | 2 +
src/HAL9000/headers/thread_internal.h | 17 +++++
src/HAL9000/src/ex_event.c            | 4 +-
src/HAL9000/src/ex_system.c           | 247 +++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
src/HAL9000/src/ex_timer.c            | 76 ++++++-----
src/HAL9000/src/mutex.c               | 7 +-
src/HAL9000/src/system.c              | 10 ++
src/HAL9000/src/thread.c              | 156 ++++++-----
src/shared/kernel/thread.h            | 2 +
11 files changed, 525 insertions(+), 33 deletions(-)
```

2.4.1 Priority Scheduler

Q: Doesn't priority scheduling lead to starvation?

A: Yes, strict priority scheduling can lead to starvation because a thread will not run if any higher-priority thread is runnable. Strict priority scheduling is valuable in real-time systems because it offers the programmer more control over which jobs get processing time. High priorities are generally reserved for time-critical tasks. It's not "fair", but it addresses other concerns not applicable to a general-purpose operating system.

Q: What thread should run after a lock has been released?

A: When a lock is released, the highest priority thread waiting for that lock should be unblocked and put on the list of ready threads. The scheduler should then run the highest priority thread on the ready list.

Q: If the highest-priority thread yields, does it continue running?

A: Yes. If there is a single highest-priority thread, it continues running until it blocks or finishes, even if it calls *ThreadYield()*. If multiple threads have the same highest priority, *ThreadYield()* should switch among them in round robin order.

Q: Can a thread added to the ready list preempt the processor?

A: Yes. If a thread added to the ready list has higher priority than the running thread on any processor, the correct behavior is to immediately schedule the thread on the CPU executing the lowest priority thread. It is not acceptable to wait for the next timer interrupt. The highest priority thread should run as soon as it is runnable, preempting whatever thread is currently running.

2.4.2 Priority Donation

Q: What happens to the priority of a donating thread?

A: Priority donation only changes the priority of the donee thread. The donor thread's priority is unchanged. Priority donation is not additive: if thread A (with priority 5) donates to thread B (with priority 3), then B's new priority is 5, not 8.

Q: Can a thread's priority change while it is on the ready queue?

A: Yes. Consider a ready, low-priority thread L that holds a lock. High-priority thread H attempts to acquire the lock and blocks, thereby donating its priority to ready thread L.

Q: Can a thread's priority change while it is blocked?

A: Yes. While a thread that has acquired lock L is blocked for any reason, its priority can increase by priority donation if a higher-priority thread attempts to acquire L.

Q: How does *ThreadSetPriority()* affect a thread receiving donations?

A: It sets the thread's base priority. The thread's effective priority becomes the higher of the newly set priority or the highest donated priority. When the donations are released, the thread's priority becomes the one set through the function call.

Chapter 3

Project 2: Userprog

3.1 Overview

In the first project you worked with the threading system, interacted a little with the timer interrupt code and did some inter-processor communication. For the second project you will work on the user-mode kernel interface system and implement several system calls (syscalls) which will allow user applications to do useful work.

Currently, HAL9000 supports loading user-applications without passing any arguments. In this project you will add support for passing arguments to user applications.

While in the first project you only worked with kernel data, and you didn't have to validate all the input received in the functions you've written or modified because you trusted the kernel, in this project you will receive data from user-mode applications which must **NOT** be trusted.

There **MUST** be a clear separation between trusted code (which runs in kernel mode) and untrusted code (running in user-mode). It is not OK for the operating system to crash if a badly written application wants the OS to read the contents of a file to an invalid address (a NULL pointer for example).

Put shortly, these are your 3 main objectives for this project: implementing system calls, passing program arguments to loaded applications and validating all user-input not allowing it to crash the OS.

The VS configuration used for compiling the code must be **Userprog**. The only difference between configuration are the tests which run when building the RunTests project.

3.1.1 Userprog Initialization

While the initialization of the threading system was complicated, initializing support for system calls is straightforward. The only function involved in this is *SyscallCpuInit()* which is called on each CPU.

This function is responsible for setting up a few CPU registers (called MSRs), which define the kernel entry point of system calls and the RFLAGS (and implicitly the interrupt-

ibility) to be used when a system call is invoked. For more information you can look-up the SYSCALL and SYSRET instructions in [9] and the IA32_LSTAR, IA32_FMASK and IA32_STAR MSRs in [8] Chapter 35 - Model-Specific Registers (MSRs).

The kernel entry point is *SyscallEntry()* defined in *_syscall.yasm*. This function is responsible for switching to the kernel stack, for saving the user register state, for calling the C *SyscallHandler()* function. In its current implementation the function only retrieves the syscall number, logs it and sets a STATUS_NOT_IMPLEMENTED error code in the user-mode RAX register, which holds the status of the system call and will be the result seen by the user code. This is the function where most of your work will be done.

Once control is returned to *SyscallEntry()*, it will restore the initial register state, restore the user-mode stack and place the calling instruction pointer in the RCX register, and return to user land through the SYSRET instruction.

3.1.2 Issuing system calls

The user-mode code, which issues system calls, is also called *SyscallEntry()* and it is also defined in a file called *_syscall.yasm*. However, these are separate files and functions. While the kernel side functions belonged to the HAL9000 project, we can find their user land counterparts in the UsermodeLibrary project.

This function places all the parameters on the stack, and points the RBP register to point to the start of the parameters. The system call number is also placed in the R8 register, and the SYSCALL instruction is executed to perform the switch to kernel mode.

Upon return, the RAX register will hold the status of the system call.

NOTE: You don't have to modify these assembly functions or call them directly. When issuing system calls, you should use the functions defined in the *syscall.if.c*. For a description of their parametrization and usage, see *syscall_func.h* - this file is shared by both the kernel and user applications. These are the functions you will need to implement on the kernel side.

3.1.3 Working with user applications

Copying an application to HAL9000 's filesystem

All the user-mode applications can be found in the *User-mode -> Applications* VS filter. However, it is not enough to simply compile an application for it to be seen by HAL9000 . It must be copied to its file system. This can be done automatically by running the CopyUmAppsToVm VS project (*User-mode -> Utils* VS filter).

This project must be built while the HAL9000 VM is powered off, else it won't be able to mount the file system and copy the application files.

Loading an application

HAL9000 has a very basic portable executable (PE - [13]) parser and loader. Each application written for HAL9000 must statically link the UsermodeLibrary library file, which will provide the application's entry point (both for the main and for secondary threads).

You can see the entry point function for the main thread `__start()` in `um_lib.c` - this is the place where the common library and system call interface will be initialized. Once this is done the actual entry point of the application is called through the `__main()` function.

Besides the two extra underlines, this is similar to a classic C main function, where the parameters received are the program arguments (`argc` and `argv`).

The entry point for secondary threads is `__start_thread()` - this function is implemented in `um_lib_helper.c`.

These user-mode application projects must be configured in a special way so HAL9000 will be able to load them. We have provided two VS templates, so you can easily add new user applications to the solution: *HAL9000_UserApplication.zip* and *HAL9000_UserMain.zip*: the first one is a project template, while the second file is a file template (you should use it when adding the `main.c` file).

For VS to recognize these templates, you need to place the project template in *My Documents/Visual Studio 2015/Templates/ProjectTemplates* and the item template in *My Documents/Visual Studio 2015/Templates/ItemTemplates*.

Virtual Memory Layout

The VA range `[0xFFFF'8000'0000'0000, 0xFFFF'FFFF'FFFF'FFFF]` is mapped in kernel mode, while the VA range `[0x0000'0000'0000'0000', 0x0000'7FFF'FFFF'FFFF]` belongs to user-space.

In case you're wondering why there's such a huge gap between the two address spaces, this is due to a restriction in the x86 CPU architecture, which requires the value of the 47th bit to be reflected in bits 63-48. Addresses which respect this property are called canonical addresses. The CPU will generate a `#GP` exception when accessing memory using non-canonical addresses.

For more information on the organization of the kernel VA space, you can see the comments above `MmuInitSystem()`.

In case of user-mode processes, they are loaded at their preferred base address (you can see this by going to the Project's properties in VS, then *Linker* -> *Advanced* -> *Base Address*. Currently, all HAL9000 user-applications have the preferred base address set to `0x1'4000'0000`. However, this is not mandatory - HAL9000 should be able to load the application anywhere in user-land memory.

The virtual memory managed by the VMM will then start at the image base + `VA_ALLOCATIONS_START_OFFSET_FROM_IMAGE_BASE` (currently defined as 1GB). As a result, both the stack and heap allocations will have addresses over `0x1'8000'0000`.

Accessing user memory

As part of a system call, the kernel must often access memory through pointers provided by a user program. The kernel must be very careful about doing so, because the user can pass a null pointer, a pointer to unmapped virtual memory, a pointer to a user address to which it does not have the proper access rights (e.g: the pointer may be to a read-only area and the system call would write to that region), or a pointer to kernel virtual address space. All of these types of invalid pointers must be rejected, without harm to the kernel or other running processes, by failing the system call.

NOTE: For this project, we only consider issues which arise from single-thread user applications. In case of multi-threaded applications, things get more complicated: a valid user-mode address may become invalid, because it is freed by a different thread than the one which issues the system call.

There are at least two reasonable ways to access user memory correctly. The first method is to verify the validity of a user-provided pointer, then dereference it. If you choose this route, you'll want to look at *MmuIsBufferValid()*. This is the simplest way to handle user memory access.

The second method is to check only that a user specified pointer doesn't have the *VA_HIGHEST_VALID_BIT* bit set (see *_VmIsKernelAddress()* and *_VmIsKernelRange()*), then dereference it. An invalid user pointer will cause a "page fault" that you can handle by modifying the code in *VmmSolvePageFault()*. This technique is normally faster, because it takes advantage of the processor's MMU, so it tends to be used in real kernels.

In either case, you need to make sure not to "leak" resources. For example, suppose that your system call has acquired a lock, or allocated memory. If you encounter an invalid user pointer afterward, you must still be sure to release the lock or free the page of memory. If you choose to verify user pointers before dereferencing them, this should be straightforward. It's more difficult to handle, if an invalid pointer causes a page fault, because there's no way to return an error code from a memory access.

NOTE: A safer, but slower solution would be to map the physical pages described by the user addresses into kernel space. This way, you would not be bothered if the user application un-maps its VA to PA translations, as long as it is not able to free the physical pages. Also, this would allow the SMAP (Supervisor Mode Access Prevention) CPU feature to be activated, causing page faults on kernel accesses to user memory, thus ensuring the OS doesn't access user-memory by mistake.

3.2 Assignment

3.2.1 Argument Passing

If you haven't done so yet, you should read the [3.1.3 \[Loading an application\]](#) now. You will need to work in *_ThreadSetupMainThreadUserStack()* to setup the user-mode

stack of the application's main thread of execution.

You already have the command line and the number of arguments available in the *FullCommandLine* and *NumberOfArguments* fields of the *PROCESS* structure (see *process_internal.h* and [A.4 \[Processes\]](#) for more details).

All you need to do is to place the arguments on the user stack and return the resulting stack pointer in the *ResultingStack* output parameter. For more information about program loading, read [A.4.3 \[Program Startup\]](#). We recommend you to use *strchr()* available in *string.h* for parsing the command arguments.

3.2.2 User memory access

As previously stated, you need to look out for the following violations when accessing pointers received as parameters in system calls:

1. Accessing a NULL pointer.
2. Accessing an un-mapped user address.
3. Accessing a user address which does not have enough rights to perform the action required. Example: if an address is read-only and the system call would put data in the buffer, it should not do so.
4. Accessing a kernel-mode virtual address.

NOTE: All these conditions must be validated for the whole length of the buffer, and not only for its start or end position. For example, address 0x4000 and 0x6000 may be valid addresses, but 0x5000 may not.

All of these conditions are checked in the test suite.

3.2.3 System calls

Implement the system call handler in *SyscallHandler()*. The only parameter received by this function is a pointer to the state of the user applications registers at the moment of the system call. You will find the system call number in the R8 register, a pointer to the parameters in RBP, and you must place the result of the system call in the RAX register to return the status of the system call to the user application.

Your goal is to implement all the system calls defined and described in *syscall_func.h*. As you can see, all the system calls return a *STATUS* (this is the value of the RAX register).

To implement syscalls, you need to provide ways to read and write data in user virtual address space.

Also, you may be wondering what's up with the *UM_HANDLE* data type. The idea is that when an application opens a file, or creates a new thread or process, it needs a way of later referring to that created object, i.e. it's useless to open a file if it cannot later be used for reading or writing data to it. That's where handles come in: each time a user executes

a system call, which has the effect of creating or opening an object (file/thread/process), a *UM_HANDLE* will be returned to it.

This handle will later be used by the system calls, which manipulate that class of objects. For files it would be *SyscallFileRead()*, *SyscallFileWrite()* and *SyscallFileClose()*.

NOTE: While the easy solution might seem to simply return kernel pointers as handles, this is not a good design choice, and the implementation isn't so straightforward either.

The reason it is not so straightforward is that in your system call implementation, we require you to validate all handles. This means, beside validating that the handle is valid and was created for this process, you should also validate that the handle is of the appropriate type, i.e. you wouldn't want to be working with a thread handle when reading the contents of a file, or you wouldn't want process B to be able to access the files opened by process A.

Another reason reason it is a bad design decision is that this effectively introduces an information disclosure vulnerability into the kernel - CWE-200 Information Exposure, i.e. any user- application can start mapping the kernel environment by having access to information it should not know.

When you're done with this part and with [3.2.4 \[Handling user-mode exceptions\]](#), HAL9000 should be bulletproof. Nothing that a user program can do should ever cause the OS to crash, panic, fail an assertion, or otherwise malfunction. It is important to emphasize this point: our tests will try to break your system calls in many, many ways. You need to think of all the corner cases and handle them.

If a system call is passed an invalid argument, the only acceptable option is to return an error value.

File Paths

SyscallFileCreate() and *SyscallProcessCreate()* both receive a file path as one of their parameters. This may be an absolute path, starting from drive letter and specifying the full path to the file (an example would be "D:\Folder\File.txt"), or it may be a relative path, in which case the handling differs for these system calls:

- In the case of *SyscallFileCreate()*, the final path is considered to be relative to the system drive, i.e. if "Test.ini" is the path given to the syscall, internally it will try to open "%SYSTEMDRIVE%Test.ini". If for example the system drive is "C:\\" then the final path will be "C:\Test.ini".
- In the case of *SyscallProcesCreate()*, the final path is considered relative to the applications folder found on the system drive, i.e. if "Apps.exe" is the path given to the syscall, internally it will try to open "%SYSTEMDRIVE%\Applications\Apps.exe". If for example the system drive is "F:\", then the final path will be "F:\Applications\Apps.exe".

NOTE: You can use *IomuGetSystemPartitionPath()* to retrieve the system drive.

3.2.4 Handling user-mode exceptions

Besides the invalid pointer de-references you could encounter while accessing user memory in your system call implementation, you also need to protect the OS from the exceptions caused directly by the running user-code.

User applications are free to use any assembly instructions they want, and as a result, they could try to access registers which they are not allowed to access (control registers, MSRs, IO ports and so on), or these applications may suffer code errors leading to a division by zero exception.

Besides valid page faults caused by the lazy mapping mechanism, regardless of the user exception, you need to terminate the application. You need to think of a generic way to do this, and you should not care about the exception which caused the crash.

3.3 Source Files

For this project most of your work will be done in the *usermode* and *executive* filters. Here's a quick overview of the files you'll be interested in:

thread.c

You will have to implement parameter passing, so you'll need to modify `_ThreadSetupMainThreadUserStack()` to properly setup the main thread's stack.

process.h

process_defs.h

These are the public process definitions - these functions may be used by any external components such as drivers and the syscall interface.

process_internal.h

Defines the PROCESS data structure and the functions which should only be called by internal OS components which manage processes. Some examples include the functions for adding or removing a thread from a process, and the function to switch the CR3 to the new process's paging structures.

process.c

Contains the implementation exposed in all process* headers. For more information see [A.4 \[Processes\]](#). You will probably need to implement a per process handle tracking mechanism here.

um_application.h

um_application.c

Contains the implementation for reading the user application from disk and loading it into memory. You will NOT work in these files.

syscall.h

syscall.c

Provides the function to initialize the system call dispatching system, *SyscallCpuInit()*, and the system call handler: *SyscallHandler()*. Most of your work will be done in this file.

syscall_defs.h

syscall_func.h

syscall_no.h

These are files which are shared between the kernel and user-mode components. These define the system call numbers, the system call interface functions, and define basic types used by system calls such as handles, paging rights and so on.

io.h

Provides functions to work with devices. When implementing the file system system calls, you will be interested in *IoCreateFile()*, *IoCloseFile()*, *IoReadFile()* and *IoWriteFile()*.

3.4 FAQ

Q: How much code will I need to write?

A: Here's a summary of our reference solution, produced by the hg diff program. The final row gives total lines inserted and deleted; a changed line counts as both an insertion and a deletion. Files that cannot be found in the existing code, are new files created to contain additional needed data structures and functions' implementation.

The reference solution represents just one possible solution. Many other solutions are also possible and many of those differ greatly from the reference solution. Some excellent solutions may not modify all the files modified by the reference solution, and some may modify files not modified by the reference solution.

src/HAL9000/HAL9000.vcxproj		5 +
src/HAL9000/HAL9000.vcxproj.filters		15 +
src/HAL9000/headers/process_internal.h		3 +
src/HAL9000/headers/syscall_struct.h		67 ++++++
src/HAL9000/headers/um_handle_manager.h		46 +++++
src/HAL9000/src/isr.c		9 +-
src/HAL9000/src/process.c		8 +
src/HAL9000/src/syscall.c		636 ++++++
src/HAL9000/src/syscall_func.c		541 ++++++
src/HAL9000/src/thread.c		81 ++++++
src/HAL9000/src/um_handle_manager.c		248 ++++++
src/shared/common/syscall_defs.h		2 +
src/shared/kernel/heap_tags.h		3 +-
13 files changed, 1658 insertions(+), 6 deletions(-)		

Q: Any user application run crashes the system with a #PF exception

A: The first thing you have to do is make sure the stack is properly set up before any user application is run. You don't have to implement argument passing from the beginning, however you should at least reserve space on the stack for the shadow space and the return address.

Q: HAL9000 asserts with any application

A: You'll have to implement the *SyscallValidateInterface()* system call before any system call is possible. The assert is caused by the fact that the process generated a #GP in case communication through system calls is not possible.

Q: Can I set a maximum number of open handles per process?

A: No.

Q: Do I have to do any changes in user-mode code?

A: No.

Q: Do I have to implement argument passing for the tests to pass?

A: No, the argument passing functionality is necessary only for the argument passing tests: "TestUserArgsNone", "TestUserArgsOne", "TestUserArgsMany" and "TestUserArgsAll".

Chapter 4

Project 3: Virtual Memory

4.1 Overview

By now your OS can load multiple user applications at once, it can service their requests for accessing system resources and for managing processes and threads. However, the number and size of programs that can run is limited by the machine's main memory size. In this assignment, you will remove that limitation.

You will build this assignment on top of the last one. Test programs from project 2 should also work with project 3. You should take care to fix any bugs in your project 2 submission before you start work on project 3, because those bugs will most likely cause the same problems in project 3.

HAL9000 already supports some virtual memory features such as lazy mapping and memory mapped files and makes extensive use of them already, so you won't have to intervene in those areas. However, you will have to implement the system calls to allow a user-application to dynamically allocate and free virtual memory - this could allow a user application to implement a heap allocator. Moreover, this memory must be shareable by any number of processes.

You will also have to implement per process quotas: you should limit the number of physical frames a process uses and the number of open files a process can have at once.

And finally you will implement a swapping mechanism which will cause frame eviction to occur either when there are no more free frames in physical memory or when a process reaches its frame quota.

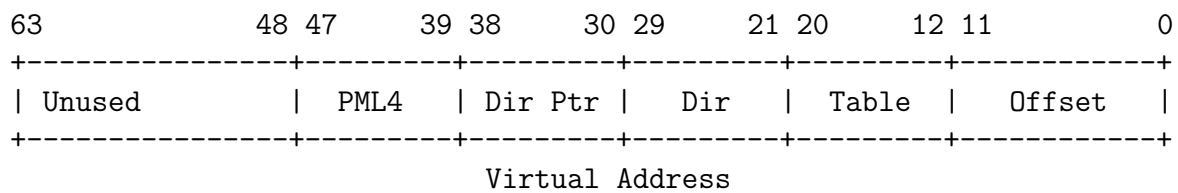
4.1.1 Memory Terminology

Careful definitions are needed to keep discussion of virtual memory from being confusing. Thus, we begin by presenting some terminology for memory and storage.

Pages

A page, sometimes called a virtual page, is a continuous region of virtual memory 4,096 bytes (the page size) in length. A page must be page-aligned, that is, start on a virtual address evenly divisible by the page size. A 64-bit virtual addresses can be divided into 6 sections as illustrated below:

- The most significant 16 bits are unused because they reflect the 47th bit.
- The next 4 sections of 9 bits each provide an index into the corresponding paging table structure.
- The final 12 bits provide the offset within the final physical address.



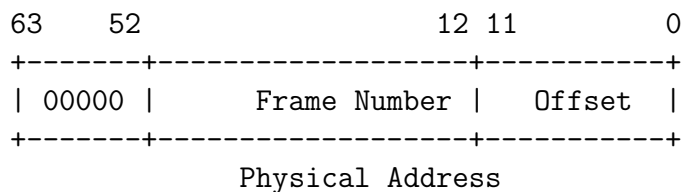
Each process has an independent set of user (virtual) pages, which are those pages below virtual address 0x8'0000'0000'0000 (128 TiB), while the kernel virtual space begins at *gVirtualToPhysicalOffset* which is typically 0xFFFF'8000'0000'0000 (almost 16 EiB). The set of kernel (virtual) pages, on the other hand, is global, remaining the same regardless of what thread or process is active. The kernel may access both user and kernel pages, but a user process may access only its own user pages. See [3.1.3 \[Virtual Memory Layout\]](#) for more information.

HAL9000 provides several useful functions for working with virtual addresses. See [A.7 \[Virtual Addresses\]](#) for details.

Frames

A frame, sometimes called a physical frame or a page frame, is a continuous region of physical memory. Like pages, frames must be page-size and page-aligned. Even if the processor runs in 64-bits mode the maximum physical address is not 2^{64} (16 EiB), the maximum addressable physical address differs from CPU to CPU (this value can be found out by querying a CPUID leaf), however, according to the Intel manual the maximum physical address size is limited to 2^{52} bits (4 PiB).

Thus, a 52-bit physical address can be divided into a 40-bit frame number and a 12-bit frame offset, (or just offset) like this:



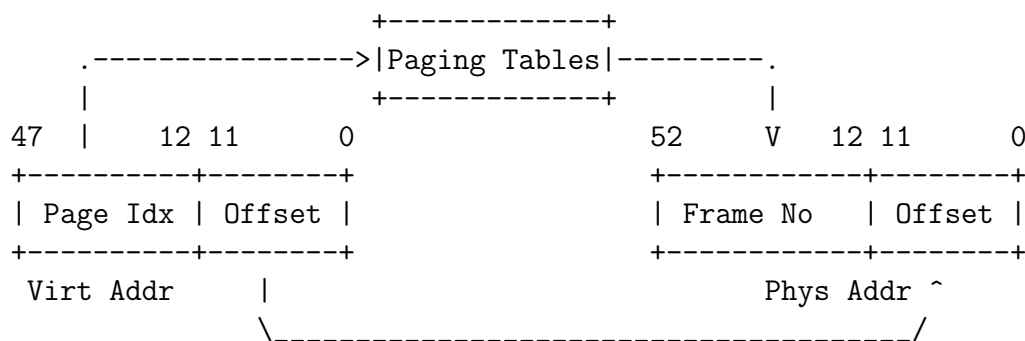
When paging is enabled the x86 architecture works with virtual addresses, transparently accessing the physical memory mapped by the address. Thus, the software executing does not need to know the actual whereabouts of the memory or the memory topology found in the system,

HAL9000 provides functions for translating between physical addresses and kernel virtual addresses. See [A.7 \[Virtual Addresses\]](#) for details.

Page Tables

The x86 processors translate virtual addresses to physical addresses through the use of some hardware defined structures, called paging tables. These are hierarchical structures which describe the virtual address space and provide the final physical address, they also specify the access rights (read/write/execute) and the privilege level required (kernel or user-mode access). HAL9000 provides page table management code in *pte.h*. See [A.8 \[Paging Tables\]](#) for more information.

The diagram below illustrates the relationship between pages and frames. The virtual address, on the left, consists of 4 page indexes (one for each paging level) and an offset. The paging tables translate the page indexes into a frame number, which is combined with the unmodified offset to obtain the physical address, on the right.



A more detailed illustration is given in [Figure 4.1 \[Detailed paging\]](#), here, what was previously called "Page Idx" is now properly separated into its 4 parts: the index in the PML4 table, the index in the PDPT table, the index in the PD table and the index in the PT table.

Swap Slots

A swap slot is a continuous, page-size region of disk space in the swap partition. Although hardware limitations dictating the placement of slots are looser than for pages and frames, swap slots should be page-aligned because there is no downside in doing so.

4.1.2 Memory Management Initialization

Before reading this section, you should first read [A.6 \[Memory Management\]](#).

The initialization of the memory subsystem begins in *MmuInitSystem()* which aggregates two other subsystems: physical memory subsystem (PMM) and virtual memory subsystem (VMM). Once these systems are initialized two heap allocators are built on top of them.

The PMM will be the first one initialized by a call to *PmmInitSystem()*, this function uses the information provided by the firmware to determine how much physical memory the system possesses and which frames are free for use. A bitmap is then initialized to track the usage of physical frames, however no additional information is kept except if the frame is available or not. Because the size of physical memory doesn't change after boot and the size of a frame is fixed to 4 KiB in size a bitmap is perfect for this job.

Once this function returns, physical frames can be allocated using *PmmReserveMemoryEx()* and freed using *PmmReleaseMemory()*: these functions simply flip some bits in the bitmap to mark if a frame is free or taken.

Now, some continuous physical frames are allocated for the new paging table structures, this is done in *_MmuInitPagingSystem()*, these structures will be mapped in virtual space at *gVirtualToPhysicalOffset* (0xFFFF'8000'0000'0000) + *PHYSICAL_ADDRESS*. Because these structures are found at continuous physical addresses and have a formula to determine their virtual address the page manipulation algorithms are simplified.

The VMM is now initialized through a call to *VmmInit()*, this initializes the virtual address space for the system process, once this call finishes *VmmAllocRegionEx()* and *VmmFreeRegionEx()* can be used. The VMM manages the address space for each process in the sense that it holds information about all the virtual memory it committed or reserved - this is required for implementing lazy mapping and memory mapped files.

The kernel image will now be remapped using the new paging tables which were previously created, two mappings are done: an identity mapping (this is required by the application processors when they start-up and activate paging) and a mapping similar to the one used for the paging tables, where the *PA2VA* and *VA2PA* macros can be used.

The change to the new paging tables is done through a simple MOV to CR3 assembly instruction using the *_writecr3()* intrinsic function. After this change two heaps will be initialized, one will be used for allocations created through *ExAllocatePoolWithTag()*, the other is used explicitly by *MmuReleaseMemory()*.

After the application processors are woken up the kernel identity mappings are discarded by a call to *MmuDiscardIdentityMappings()*.

4.1.3 Resource Management Overview

You will need to design or augment the following data structures:

- Supplemental page table

Enables page fault handling by supplementing the hardware page table, see [4.1.3 \[Managing the Supplemental Page Table\]](#).

- Frame table

Allows efficient implementation of eviction policy, see [4.1.3 \[Managing the Frame Table\]](#).

- Swap table

Tracks usage of swap slots, see [4.1.3 \[Managing the Swap Table\]](#).

You do not necessarily need to implement three completely distinct data structures: it may be convenient to wholly or partially merge related resources into a unified data structure.

For each data structure, you need to determine what information each element should contain. You also need to decide on the data structure's scope, either local (per-process) or global (applying to the whole system), and how many instances are required within its scope.

Possible choices of data structures include arrays, lists, bitmaps, and hash tables. An array is often the simplest approach, but a sparsely populated array wastes memory. Lists are also simple, but traversing a long list to find a particular position wastes time. Both arrays and lists can be re-sized, but lists more efficiently support insertion and deletion in the middle.

Although more complex data structures may yield performance or other benefits, they may also needlessly complicate your implementation. Thus, we do not recommend implementing any advanced data structure (e.g. a balanced binary tree) as part of your design.

Managing the Supplemental Page Table

The supplemental page table supplements the page table with additional data about each page. It is needed because of the limitations imposed by the page table's format. Such a data structure is often called a "page table" also; we add the word "supplemental" to reduce confusion.

The supplemental page table is used for at least two purposes. Most importantly, on a page fault, the kernel looks up the virtual page that faulted in the supplemental page table to find out what data should be there. Second, the kernel consults the supplemental page table when a process terminates, to decide what resources to free.

Because HAL9000 already supports lazy mappings and can handle page faults, such a table already exists for each process, and the structure used to describe each mapping is `VMM_RESERVATION`, see [A.6.2 \[Virtual Memory Management\]](#) for details.

You could use this already existing data structure and augment it with further information or you could use a whole different structure.

Managing the Frame Table

The frame table contains one entry for each frame that contains a user page. Each entry in the frame table contains a pointer to the page, if any, that currently occupies it, and other data of your choice. The frame table allows HAL9000 to efficiently implement an eviction policy, by choosing a page to evict when no frames are free.

The frames are obtained by calling *PmmReserveMemory()* or *PmmReserveMemoryEx()* and are freed using *PmmReleaseMemory()*.

The most important operation on the frame table is obtaining an unused frame. This is easy when a frame is free. When none is free, or when the process has reached its physical frame quota a frame must be made free by evicting some page from its frame.

If no frame can be evicted without allocating a swap slot, but the swap is full, panic the kernel. Real OSes apply a wide range of policies to recover from or prevent such situations, but these policies are beyond the scope of this project.

The process of eviction comprises roughly the following steps:

1. Choose a frame to evict, using your page replacement algorithm. The 'accessed' and 'dirty' bits in the page table, described in [A.8.3 \[Accessed and Dirty Bits\]](#) will come in handy.
2. Remove references to the frame from any page table that refers to it. Be careful, once you have implemented shared memory multiple pages can refer to the same frame at a given time.
3. If necessary, write the page to the file system or to swap.

The evicted frame may then be used to store a different page.

Managing the Swap Table

The swap table tracks in-use and free swap slots. It should allow picking an unused swap slot for evicting a page from its frame to the swap partition. It should allow freeing a swap slot when its page is read back or the process whose page was swapped is terminated.

You may obtain the swap file using *IomuGetSwapFile()*, once you have the *FILE_OBJECT* structure you can simply use the *IoReadFile()* and *IoWriteFile()* functions to read and write from the swap FS. The only restriction is that the number of bytes transferred must be exactly the size of a page and the offset must also be page aligned.

The size of the swap file is 128 MiB which should be sufficient for all the current tests (as long as cleanup properly occurs after process termination): at most 80 MiB will be used at a single time.

4.2 Assignment

4.2.1 Per Process Quotas

You must implement a mechanism to keep track of the number of files currently held open by a process and the number of physical frames it currently uses. These definitions are found in *process_internal.h* and are *PROCESS_MAX_PHYSICAL_FRAMES* and *PROCESS_MAX_OPEN_FILES* both currently defined as 16.

In case of a real OS the frames occupied by the binary would also add up to the physical frame quota, however, due to the way in which HAL9000 loads the applications in memory it would be very hard to implement this. As a result you will only have to count the frames allocated as a result of calls to *SyscallVirtualAlloc()* and the frames occupied by the user stack.

When the quota for files open is reached then that process should not be able to open any additional files until it closes another file.

When the quota for physical frames is reached the eviction mechanism must be invoked, which will pick one of the processes frames, swap it to disk and use it for another virtual memory allocation.

4.2.2 System calls

You need to implement the *SyscallVirtualAlloc()* and *SyscallVirtualFree()* system calls, these allow user applications to allocate virtual memory in their address space.

Most of the parameters are identical to their kernel counterparts: *VmmAllocRegionEx()* and *VmmFreeRegionEx()*. However, providing a MDL is not supported and instead of directly providing a FILE_OBJECT structure these system calls take a UM_HANDLE to represent the file to map.

Also, you need to ensure that the user application is not allowed to specify both writable and executable rights to a memory region. When this happens the system call should fail.

Also, the system call has an extra parameter, this is what allows the creation of shared memory (allows user applications to share data). This extra parameter is called *Key* and has the following semantics:

- If the value is 0, the virtual allocation created is private for the current process.
- If the value is non-zero then the memory backed by the virtual allocation received by the creator process can be accessed from any other process in the system. This is done by the second process calling *SyscallVirtualAlloc()* specifying the same *Key* value as the creator. This means that *Key* acts as a global identifier which can be used by any other process in the system. An illustration is shown in [Listing 4.1 \[Shared Memory\]](#).

Assumming Process 0 starts execution first, when it calls *SyscallVirtualAlloc()* the OS will see that *Key* has a value different from 0 and will check to see if there is already an allocation made with that key. Once it sees that there is none it will allocate a virtual range of a page size with write access. Because the process also specified a *Key* value different from 0 the OS will also keep track of this allocation.

When Process 1 gets to the *SyscallVirtualAlloc()* call the OS will check again if there is already an allocation using this key, it will find that there is already one previously created. Because of this the OS will use the same backing physical frames for the virtual range returned to the second process.

Because both virtual allocations (in each process) share the same frames the second process will display the string written by the first process.

Listing 4.1: Shared Memory

```
#define SHARED_KEY_VALUE    0x371

// Code executed by Process 0
void Process0Code(void)
{
    STATUS status;
    char* pData;

    status = SyscallVirtualAlloc(NULL,
    PAGE_SIZE,
    VMM_ALLOC_TYPE_RESERVE | VMM_ALLOC_TYPE_COMMIT,
    PAGE_RIGHTS_READWRITE,
    NULL,
    SHARED_KEY_VALUE,
    &pData);
    ASSERT(SUCCEEDED(status));

    strcpy(pData, "Shared memory is the coolest thing ever!");

    // ... Other code ...
}

// Code executed by Process 1
void Process1Code(void)
{
    STATUS status;
    char* pData;

    status = SyscallVirtualAlloc(NULL,
    PAGE_SIZE,
    VMM_ALLOC_TYPE_RESERVE | VMM_ALLOC_TYPE_COMMIT,
    PAGE_RIGHTS_READWRITE,
    NULL,
    SHARED_KEY_VALUE,
    &pData);
    ASSERT(SUCCEEDED(status));

    LOG("Data found in shared buffer is [%s]\n", pData);

    // ... Other code ...
}
```

4.2.3 Swapping

As previously mentioned, once a process reaches its quota for number of physical frames allocated the contents of a frame must be swapped out to disk.

After the contents have been swapped out, another virtual address may be mapped into this physical frame. From the point of view of a user-application this is transparent, the application only works with virtual addresses and has no idea where the physical memory which actually holds the data resides.

After you implemented the swap out operation be sure to also add support for swap in, else when the application accesses the virtual address corresponding to the frame previously swapped out the kernel won't be able to solve the #PF exception. For this you will probably need to make changes in *VmmSolvePageFault()* and use the supplemental page table to determine the location of the data on the swap file.

4.2.4 Zero Pages

You will also need to implement support for allocating pages initialized to zero. For this you will need to modify *VmmAllocRegionEx()*, remove the assert at line 543 and provide your own implementation:

```
ASSERT(!IsBooleanFlagOn(AllocType, VMM_ALLOC_TYPE_ZERO));
```

The trivial solution would be to simply mark that the page contains zeroes and when a page fault occurs to memzero the memory, however there are more elegant and efficient ways of implementing zero pages.

One of the tests actually checks the following scenario: allocate 2 GiB of virtual memory and read the data from each page, you should remember that the swap file is only 128 MiB and a process is restricted to 16 frames of physical memory at a time.

4.2.5 Stack Growth

Implement stack growth. In project 2, the stack was 8 pages allocated eagerly and programs were limited to that much stack.

Now, you should start with a stack of only 1 page and if the stack grows past its current size, allocate additional pages as necessary.

Allocate additional pages only if they "appear" to be stack accesses. Devise a heuristic that attempts to distinguish stack valid accesses from other invalid accesses. A valid access corresponds, for instance, to the execution of PUS instruction, describe below. An invalid access corresponds to an attempt to access memory nearby the stack through a corrupted pointer. Though, there is no way to establish with precision if a stack access attempt is valid or not. Among the other strategies to use, we should disassemble the current instruction, though even doing so would not provide us certainty.

As mention above, the x86 PUSH instruction would make a valid access to the stack. However, before storing the data on the stack and adjusting the stack pointer, it checks the memory access permissions. Because of this, it may cause a page fault 8 bytes below the current stack pointer (i.e. at a bigger address). Not doing so, PUSH would not be restartable in a straightforward fashion. There are some other PUSH-like instructions (e.g. PUSHA, PUSHAD, PUSHF, PUSHFD, PUSHFQ), which could trigger a page fault at a different distance by current stack pointer, though not all of them are valid for x64 mode or for user mode execution, so you could not consider them.

Another valid access to the stack results from the way the compiler generates executable code for a function. In particular, when entering a function, the stack pointer (i.e. RSP register) is decremented with some value, i.e. the stack is increased, in order to make space for the local variables of the function. Afterwards, the reserved space is directly accessed using MOV instructions. For our discussion, if the stack pointer gets outside the last mapped page after being decremented, the next stack accesses will trigger page faults. In that case, the page fault address is above the stack pointer (i.e. at a smaller address).

Within a page fault generated, you can retrieve the current stack pointer from the *Rsp* member of *INTERRUPT_STACK_COMPLETE* passed to *_IsrExceptionHandler()*. You should impose some absolute limit on stack size, as do most OSes. Some OSes make the limit user-adjustable, e.g. with the *ulimit* command on many Unix systems. On many GNU/Linux systems, the default limit is 8 MB. The first stack page need not be allocated lazily. You can allocate and initialize it with the command line arguments at load time, with no need to wait for it to be faulted in.

4.3 Source Files

For this project most of your work will be done in the *core/memory* filter and some will be done in *usermode*. Here's a quick overview of the files you'll be interested in:

vmm.c

Implements the page fault handler in *VmmSolvePageFault()*.

vm_reservation_space.c

Works with the *VMM_RESERVATION_SPACE* structures (a.k.a. supplemental page table entries).

syscall.c

Provides the system call dispatcher *SyscallHandler()*, you will need to implement the two system calls here.

iomu.h

Provides a pointer to an file instance to the swap file: *IomuGetSwapFile()*.

io.h

Provides the IO functions for working with files: *IoFileRead()* and *IoFileWrite()*, you will need these for working with the swap file. You do not need to open or close the file, this is done by HAL9000 .

4.4 FAQ

Q: Do we need a working Project 2 to implement Project 3?

A: Yes.

Q: How do we resume a process after we have handled a #PF?

A: Returning from *VmmSolvePageFault()* with TRUE resumes the current user process (see [A.6.5 \[Page-fault handling\]](#)). It will then retry the instruction to which the instruction pointer points.

Q: When sharing memory does *SyscallVirtualAlloc()* need to return the same virtual address for both processes?

A: No, the value of the virtual address returned is irrelevant as long as it is backed up by the same physical frames.

Q: Can we increase the size of the swap file?

A: Yes, you can, but you **MUST NOT** do so. The size was chosen as 128 MiB in such a way to accommodate all the tests requirements and to require an efficient implementation for zero pages.

Appendix A

Reference Guide

A.1 HAL9000

A.1.1 Startup

HAL9000 is a multiboot compliant OS, as a result it expects to be loaded at the physical address specified in the multiboot header in 32-bit operating mode with paging disabled.

This section will detail the execution path starting from the assembly code which runs after the multiboot loader gives us the control to the C code which initializes each component.

Assembly code

Code execution begins in the `__EntryMultiboot()` function defined in `_mboot32.yasm`. As stated earlier, we will not continue execution if we were not loaded by a multiboot loader.

The physical memory map describing the physical memory available in the system is retrieved using the INT 15H E820H BIOS interrupt function. The list of potential COM ports are retrieved from the bios data area.

After this information is acquired the OS will transition to operating in 64 bits where it will forever remain. After this transition occurs in `PM32_to_PM64()` in `_transition.yasm` the assembly code will give the control to the first C function: `Entry64()`.

C code

`Entry64()` starts by initializing the commonlib library(providing primitive synchronization mechanisms, asserts and other utility functions).

Control then reaches `SystemInit()` which validates we are capable of executing on the CPU we are currently running (`CpuMuValidateConfiguration()`). Serial communication is initialized if there was a valid COM port in bios data area.

The IDT is setup (*InitIdtHandlers()*) and exceptions will no longer cause triple faults. Most exceptions will not be handled but log messages will be generated which help debug the issue. In contrast, the page fault #PF exception is one which occurs very often and it will be handled mostly successfully - see [8] Chapter 6 - Interrupt and Exception Handling and [A.1.4 \[Interrupt Handling\]](#) for details.

The next things to initialize are the memory managers (*MmuInitSystem()*):

- The physical memory manager - *PmmInitSystem()* - responsible for allocating physical frames of memory on request. On initialization it processes the E820H memory map to determine how much physical memory the system has and to reserve the already used memory regions.
- The virtual memory manager - *VmmInit()* - responsible for allocating virtual addresses and for mapping virtual addresses (VAs) to physical addresses (PAs). It is also responsible for handling #PFs.
- The heap - *_MmuInitializeHeap()* - the heap is responsible for managing large continuous area of virtual space and for offering the possibility for other components to allocate memory at a byte level granularity from these regions managed.

MmuInitSystem() will also create a new paging structure hierarchy and will cause a CR3 switch to these new structures.

Next, if the multiboot loader passed any boot modules to us they will be loaded in memory by *BootModulesInit()*. The *Tests.module* file describing the tests to run is such a module.

The ACPI tables will be parsed by *AcpiInterfaceInit()* to determine the processors present on the system and to determine if PCI express support is available.

CpuMuAllocAndInitCpu() will then be called to allocate the CPU structure for the bootstrap processor (BSP - the processor on which the system execution starts) and to validate that the CPU is compatible with HAL9000 .

This function will activate the CPU features required for operation and those for enhancing the operating system's capabilities. Also, the main thread is created here.

IomuInitSystem() is then called to initialize the I/O capabilities of the system by initializing the following:

- the IOAPIC: this is the system interrupt controller which superseded the PIC and is responsible for interrupt delivery for legacy devices and for PCI devices which do not have support for directly delivering interrupts through MSI or MSI-X.
- the IDT handlers, for the second time - first time there were no TSS stacks allocated for the current CPU and now there are. The reason to use TSS stacks is to prevent interrupt handlers from using an invalid or corrupt stack. More information can be found in [8] Chapter 6 - Interrupt and Exception Handling.

- the PCI hierarchy, all PCI devices must be retrieved and placed in a device hierarchy so proper interrupt routing can be done.
- the clocks: RTC - used to update the clock found in the top right-hand corner of the display and the PIT - programmed to deliver the scheduler clock tick.
- the keyboard: used for receiving commands from the user operator.

SmpSetupLowerMemory() will then setup the required memory structures for all the other CPUs to start up - these are called Application Processors (APs).

ProcessSystemInitSystemProcess() will then create the "System" process and attribute the only running thread to it.

ThreadSystemInitIdleForCurrentCPU() will spawn the idle thread and will enable interrupt delivery.

The ACPI tables are parsed again through the *AcpiInterfaceLateInit()* function for additional information: the PCI routing tables which describe which entries of the IOAPIC are used by which devices. This step is required for proper interrupt setup for PCI devices without MSI/MSI-x capabilities.

All the APs will now be woken up by the *SmpWakeupAps()* function. This function returns only after all the processors have woken up - for more details see [A.1.1 \[AP initialization\]](#). Once this function returns the main thread of execution - which initially ran on the BSP - may be moved on any of the other CPUs.

After the APs have all woken up all interrupts registered for devices are enabled: keyboard and clocks.

The *IommuInitDrivers()* function is then called to initialize each driver found in the *DRIVER_NAMES* list. These are the drivers responsible for managing the disk controller, the abstract disk and volume concepts, the FAT32 file system and the ethernet network card.

Afterward, the *CmdRun()* function is executed which executes all the commands received in all the boot modules (currently only the "Tests" module) and then allows the user to issue hand-written commands.

If the `/shutdown` command is given the system shuts down. To reboot the system you can use the `/reset` command.

AP initialization

The APs start execution in 16 bits in the *TrampolineStart()* function found in the *_trampoline.yasm* assembly file. The assembly code is responsible for transitioning from real-mode in 16 bits to protected mode in 32 bits and then to long mode with paging enabled. Once these transitions have been made the *ApInitCpu()* C function is called.

Within this function the GDT and IDT are reloaded with their high-memory counterparts, the current CPU structure is initialized thus starting the main thread of execution on the AP and signaling the BSP that it has woken up. The idle thread is then initialized for the AP and the main thread exits successfully by calling the *ThreadExit()* function.

A.1.2 Multi-core vs Single-core

HAL9000 has support for multi-processor systems - what this means is that despite the fact that the OS starts execution on a single processor (the BSP) it detects any additional CPUs found in the system, initializes them and begins executing code on them as well.

Due to this fact true code concurrency is achieved, i.e. code can actually be executed at the same time on two or more processors. This cannot be said for single-core systems because only one thread may be executing at any time on a CPU - the concurrency available on single-core systems is due to the fact that while a thread is executing a function it may be interrupted and another thread may be scheduled to execute in its place and it may execute the same code - but it is not executing at the same time.

On the other hand, on multi processor systems there are as many threads executing as many processor cores are in the system, due to this fact more threads may execute the same code at the same time.

From these statements we can derive that synchronization on single-core systems is as simple as turning off interrupts in critical regions - thus making it impossible for the executing thread to be preempted. While this is a bad habit for single-core systems it is useless for multi-core systems.

When interrupts are disabled, they guarantee that the current thread is not preempted, but that doesn't stop threads executing on other processors from executing code in the same critical region. For a further discussion on the synchronization mechanisms used in HAL9000 see [A.5 \[Synchronization\]](#).

To communicate between CPUs an architectural mechanism is provided through Inter Processor Interrupts (IPIs). Any CPU can send an interrupt to himself, any other CPU, any group of CPUs or to all the CPUs in the system. For more information about this mechanism be sure to read [A.3 \[Interprocessor Communication\]](#).

A.1.3 Why 64-bit?

You're probably curious what the advantages of 64-bit code are over 32-bit code. There are several benefits both in terms of performance and of security.

The performance benefits are the following:

1. Processor Context IDentifiers (PCIDs)

When paging is enabled, i.e. a hardware mechanism is used to translate virtual addresses (VAs) to physical addresses (PAs), the CPU optimizes the translation operation by caching mapping information. Without PCIDs, on each CR3 switch, i.e. when the executing process changes, all caching information is flushed for all the user mode mappings. The kernel mappings remain cached because they are marked as global translations in their paging tables which tell the processor that those mappings are available regardless of the executing process.

When PCIDs are used the CPU will no longer flush any mappings on CR3 switches. This is because each cached mapping is also indexed by the process's PCID which will ensure the CPU will not use the wrong translation after a CR3 switch.

2. Specialized system call mechanisms: SYSCALL/SYSRET

This new mechanism available only in long mode is optimized for transitioning between user-mode code (running at ring 3) and kernel code (running at ring 0). It is much faster than using an interrupt gate for servicing system calls and a little faster and easier to use than the SYSENTER/SYSEXIT mechanism.

The security benefits are the following:

1. XD (eXecution Disable)

Pages can be marked as non-executable. This is a very important protection mechanism and is the mechanism used for DEP (Data Execution Prevention). This is a mitigation for buffer overflow attacks due to the fact that when used properly XD will disable execution of data found on the stack or dynamically allocated.

HAL9000 follows the $W \oplus X$ principle, i.e. a memory region MUST not be both executable and writable at the same time.

2. Larger virtual address space (VAS)

Because the address space is much larger when operating in long mode - 2^{48} versus 2^{32} - it is easier to randomize the address space layout of the kernel and of the user application thus making the attacker's job harder to pinpoint those addresses.

Unfortunately, in the current version, HAL9000 does not perform any address space layout randomization (ASLR) and loads the kernel and user-mode applications at fixed virtual addresses.

3. Protection Keys

This mechanism offers an additional mechanism for controlling accesses to user-mode addresses. If enabled, it can be used to disable read/write access at the page-level granularity for each user-mode address. These restrictions also apply for supervisor mode accesses.

Unfortunately, HAL9000 does not use this feature.

NOTE: The XD benefit is also available when executing in 32-bit mode with PAE enabled, but the other benefits apply exclusively to execution in long mode.

A.1.4 Interrupt Handling

An interrupt notifies the CPU of some event. For our purposes, we classify interrupts into two broad categories:

- Internal interrupts - these are synchronous interrupts caused directly by CPU instructions. Attempts at invalid memory accesses (page faults), division by 0, software interrupts and some other activities cause internal interrupts.

Because they are caused by CPU instructions, internal interrupts are synchronous or synchronized with CPU instructions and cannot be disabled.

- External interrupts - these are asynchronous events generated outside the current CPU, i.e. they may be generated by other CPUs, other hardware devices such as the system timer, keyboard, disk, network controller and so on. External interrupts are asynchronous, meaning that their delivery is not synchronized with instruction execution. Handling of external interrupts can be postponed by disabling interrupts with *CpuIntrDisable()* and related functions, see [A.5.4 \[Disabling Interrupts\]](#) for details.

The CPU treats both classes of interrupts largely the same way, so HAL9000 has common infrastructure to handle both classes. The following section describes this common infrastructure. The sections after that give the specifics of external and internal interrupts.

Interrupt Infrastructure

When an interrupt occurs, the CPU saves its most essential state on the stack and jumps to an interrupt handler routine. The 80x86 architecture supports 256 interrupts, numbered 0 through 255, each with an independent handler defined in an array called the interrupt descriptor table or IDT.

In our project, *InitIdtHandlers()* is responsible for setting up the IDT so that each entry corresponds to a unique entry point in *_isr.yasm*. The exception handlers (vectors between 0 and 31) have proper names, while the interrupt handlers are generated using a macro and have the *GenericIsrN()* name - where N is between 32 and 255. Because the CPU doesn't give us any other way to find out the interrupt number, each entry point pushes the interrupt number on the stack. For consistent interrupt handling, a dummy error code is pushed on the stack for interrupts which do not generate such error codes. After this information is saved the *PreIsrHandler()* is called - this function saves all the general purpose registers on the stack and calls the *IsrCommonHandler()* C function.

IsrCommonHandler() branches to *_IsrExceptionHandler()* for exceptions and to *_IsrInterruptHandler()* for any other interrupts. These are described in the [A.1.4 \[Internal Interrupt Handling\]](#) and [A.1.4 \[External Interrupt Handling\]](#).

If *IsrCommonHandler()* handles the interrupt successfully, i.e. either the exception was benign or the interrupt was acknowledged by a device, control returns to *PreIsrHandler()*. The registers and the stack are restored and the CPU returns from the interrupt through the IRETQ instruction.

NOTE: Execution of both classes of interrupt handlers currently happen with interrupts disabled.

As a result, an interrupt handler effectively monopolizes the CPU and delays all other activities on that CPU. Therefore, external interrupt handlers should complete as quickly as they can. Anything that require much CPU time should instead run in a kernel thread, possibly one that the interrupt unblocks using a synchronization primitive.

Internal Interrupt Handling

Internal interrupts are caused directly by CPU instructions executed by the running kernel thread or user process (from project 2 onward). An internal interrupt is therefore said to arise in a process context.

In the current project implementation, the only type of exceptions *_IsrExceptionHandler()* is able to solve are page fault exceptions (see [A.6.5 \[Page-fault handling\]](#) for more details. For any other exceptions or when a #PF cannot be satisfied the interrupt frame and some of the stack area is logged to help debug the problem and the system asserts.

External Interrupt Handling

External interrupts are caused by events outside the CPU. They are asynchronous, so they can be invoked at any time that interrupts have not been disabled. We say that an external interrupt runs in an interrupt context.

In an external interrupt, the interrupt frame or the processor state is not passed to the handler because it is not very meaningful. It describes the state of the thread or process that was interrupted, but there is no way to predict which one that is. It is possible, although rarely useful, to examine it, but modifying it is a recipe for disaster.

An external interrupt handler must **not sleep, yield or block**, which rules out using executive synchronization mechanisms - primitive synchronization or interlocked operations can still be used, see [A.5 \[Synchronization\]](#). Sleeping in interrupt context would effectively put the interrupted thread to sleep and block any interrupts of lower or equal priority than the one currently serviced. This would be disastrous and may cause the next scheduled thread to run indefinitely because the scheduler interrupt may never occur again.

Interrupt delivery to a CPU is controlled by the IOAPIC (system-wide) and the LAPIC (per CPU). If the external interrupt was acknowledged by a device driver it is considered handled and it is acknowledged (see *IomuAckInterrupt()*).

After the interrupt was acknowledged *_IsrInterruptHandler()* checks if it should preempt the current thread or not and takes the appropriate action.

To register an interrupt handler for a device *IoRegisterInterrupt()* and *IoRegisterInterruptEx()* can be used.

A.2 Threads

A.2.1 Thread Structure

The structure defining a thread is found in *thread_internal.h*.

Listing A.1: Thread structure

```
typedef struct _THREAD
{
    REF_COUNT          RefCnt;

    TID                Id;
    char*              Name;

    // Currently the thread priority is not used for anything
    THREAD_PRIORITY     Priority;
    THREAD_STATE        State;

    // valid only if State == ThreadStateTerminated
    STATUS              ExitStatus;
    EX_EVENT            TerminationEvt;

    volatile THREAD_FLAGS Flags;

    // Lock which ensures there are no race conditions between a thread that
    // blocks and a thread on another CPU which wants to unblock it
    LOCK                BlockLock;

    // List of all the threads in the system (including those blocked or dying)
    LIST_ENTRY          AllList;

    // List of the threads ready to run
    LIST_ENTRY          ReadyList;

    // List of the threads in the same process
    LIST_ENTRY          ProcessList;

    // Incremented on each clock tick for the running thread
    QWORD                TickCountCompleted;

    // Counts the number of ticks the thread has currently run without being
    // de-scheduled, i.e. if the thread yields the CPU to another thread the
    // count will be reset to 0, else if the thread yields, but it will
    // scheduled again the value will be incremented.
    QWORD                UninterruptedTicks;

    // Incremented if the thread yields the CPU before the clock
    // ticks, i.e. by yielding or by blocking
    QWORD                TickCountEarly;

    // The highest valid address for the kernel stack (its initial value)
    PVOID                InitialStackBase;

    // The size of the kernel stack
    DWORD                StackSize;

    // The current kernel stack pointer (it gets updated on each thread switch,
    // its used when resuming thread execution)
    PVOID                Stack;

    // MUST be non-NULL for all threads which belong to user-mode processes
```

```
PVOID                UserStack;

struct _PROCESS*     Process;
} THREAD, *PTHREAD;
```

We will summarize the most important fields:

- TID Id

Unique identifier, begins at 0 and is incremented by *TID_INCREMENT* (currently 4) for each thread created. There is no need for recycling the ids because a TID is defined as a QWORD and even if the increment is 4, we'll run out of IDs (i.e. wrap around to 0) after 2^{62} (4,611,686,018,427,387,904) threads are created. We *probably* won't be running for that long.

- THREAD_PRIORITY Priority

A thread priority, ranging from *ThreadPriorityLowest* (0) to *ThreadPriorityMaximum* (31). Lower numbers correspond to lower priorities, so that priority 0 is the lowest priority and priority 31 is the highest. HAL9000 as provided ignores thread priorities, but you will implement priority scheduling in project 1.

- THREAD_STATE State

This field best describes what the thread is currently doing (running on the CPU, waiting for a resource, waiting to be scheduled or dying). See [A.2.3 \[Thread States\]](#) for details.

- LIST_ENTRY AllList

This list element is used to link the thread into the list of all threads. Each thread is inserted into this list when it is created and removed when it exits. The *ThreadExecuteForEachThreadEntry()* function should be used to iterate over all threads. See [A.9 \[List Structures\]](#) to see how linked lists work in HAL9000 .

- LIST_ENTRY ReadyList

A list element used to put the thread into doubly linked lists, either ready list (the list of threads ready to run) or a list of threads waiting on an executive resource. It can do double duty because a thread waiting on an executive resource is not ready, and vice versa.

- LIST_ENTRY ProcessList

A list element used to link all the threads in the same process. On the first project you will see this list identical to the ready list because there is only one process: the "System" process representing the HAL9000 kernel.

- PVOID InitialStackBase

Useful only for debugging purposes in the first project. Will be used in the second project to determine the user threads kernel stacks. More on this in [A.1.4 \[Interrupt Handling\]](#).

- PVOID Stack

Every thread has its own stack to keep track of its state. When the thread is running, the CPU's stack pointer register tracks the top of the stack and this member is unused. But when the CPU switches to another thread, this member saves the thread's stack pointer. No other members are needed to save the thread's registers, because the other registers that must be saved are saved on the stack.

When an interrupt occurs, whether in the kernel or a user program, an *INTERRUPT_STACK_COMPLETE* structure is pushed onto the stack. When the interrupt occurs in a user program, this structure is always at the address pointed by *InitialStackBase*.

- PVOID UserStack

Will be NULL for all the threads created in the first project. This field is valid only for threads belonging to user-mode processes and points to the stack which is used by the thread when executing user-mode code.

A.2.2 Thread Functions

The functions implemented by *thread.c* are exposed in two separate files: *thread.h* containing the functions which may be used by any components (drivers or exposed as system calls) and *thread_internal.h* which should only be used by the components in HAL9000 which work closely with the thread module.

Listing A.2: Thread Public Interface

```

//*****
// Function:      ThreadCreate
// Description:    Spawns a new thread named Name with priority Function which
//                will execute the function Function which will receive as its
//                single parameter Context. The function returns a pointer
//                (handle) to the thread structure.
// Returns:       STATUS
// Parameter:     IN_Z char * Name
// Parameter:     IN THREAD_PRIORITY Priority
// Parameter:     IN PFUNC_ThreadStart Function
// Parameter:     IN_OPT PVOID Context
// Parameter:     OUT_PTR PTHREAD * Thread
// NOTE:          The thread may terminate at any time, but its data structure
//                will not be un-allocated until the handle receive in Thread is
//                closed with ThreadCloseHandle.
//*****
STATUS
ThreadCreate(
    IN_Z      char*      Name ,

```

```
    IN          THREAD_PRIORITY    Priority,
    IN          PFUNC_ThreadStart  Function,
    IN_OPT      PVOID              Context,
    OUT_PTR     PTHREAD*           Thread
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadYield
// Description:    Yields the CPU to the scheduler, which picks a new thread to
//                run. The new thread might be the current thread, so you can't
//                depend on this function to keep this thread from running for
//                any particular length of time.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     void
//*****
void
ThreadYield(
    void
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadExit
// Description:    Causes the current thread to exit. Never returns.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     IN STATUS ExitStatus
//*****
void
ThreadExit(
    IN          STATUS              ExitStatus
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadWaitForTermination
// Description:    Waits for a thread to terminate. The exit status of the thread
//                will be placed in ExitStatus.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     IN PTHREAD Thread
// Parameter:     OUT STATUS * ExitStatus
//*****
void
ThreadWaitForTermination(
    IN          PTHREAD              Thread,
    OUT         STATUS*              ExitStatus
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadCloseHandle
// Description:    Closes a thread handle received from ThreadCreate. This is
//                necessary for the structure to be destroyed when it is no
//                longer needed.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT PTHREAD Thread
// NOTE:         If you need to wait for a thread to terminate or find out its
//                termination status call this function only after you called
//                ThreadWaitForTermination.
//*****
void
ThreadCloseHandle(
    INOUT       PTHREAD              Thread
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadGetName
```

A. Reference Guide

```
// Description: Returns the thread's name.
// Returns:    const char*
// Parameter:  IN_OPT PTHREAD Thread If NULL returns the name of the
//             current thread.
//*****
const
char*
ThreadGetName(
    IN_OPT PTHREAD Thread
);

//*****
// Function:    ThreadGetId
// Description: Returns the thread's ID.
// Returns:     TID
// Parameter:   IN_OPT PTHREAD Thread - If NULL returns the ID of the
//             current thread.
//*****
TID
ThreadGetId(
    IN_OPT PTHREAD Thread
);

//*****
// Function:    ThreadGetPriority
// Description: Returns the thread's priority. In the presence of
//             priority donation, returns the higher(donated) priority.
// Returns:     THREAD_PRIORITY
// Parameter:   IN_OPT PTHREAD Thread - If NULL returns the priority of the
//             current thread.
//*****
THREAD_PRIORITY
ThreadGetPriority(
    IN_OPT PTHREAD Thread
);
```

Listing A.3: Thread Private Interface

```
//*****
// Function:    ThreadSystemPreinit
// Description: Basic global initialization. Initializes the all threads list,
//             the ready list and all the locks protecting the global
//             structures.
// Returns:     void
// Parameter:   void
//*****
void
_No_competing_thread_
ThreadSystemPreinit(
    void
);

//*****
// Function:    ThreadSystemInitMainForCurrentCPU
// Description: Call by each CPU to initialize the main execution thread. Has a
//             different flow than any other thread creation because some of
//             the thread information already exists and it is currently
//             running.
// Returns:     STATUS
// Parameter:   void
//*****
STATUS
ThreadSystemInitMainForCurrentCPU(
```

```
void
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadSystemInitIdleForCurrentCPU
// Description:    Called by each CPU to spawn the idle thread. Execution will not
//                continue until after the idle thread is first scheduled on the
//                CPU. This function is also responsible for enabling interrupts
//                on the processor.
// Returns:        STATUS
// Parameter:      void
//*****
STATUS
ThreadSystemInitIdleForCurrentCPU(
    void
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadCreateEx
// Description:    Same as ThreadCreate except it also takes an additional
//                parameter, the process to which the thread should belong. This
//                function must be called for creating user-mode threads.
// Returns:        STATUS
// Parameter:      IN_Z char * Name
// Parameter:      IN THREAD_PRIORITY Priority
// Parameter:      IN PFUNC_ThreadStart Function
// Parameter:      IN_OPT PVOID Context
// Parameter:      OUT_PTR PTHREAD * Thread
// Parameter:      INOUT struct _PROCESS * Process
//*****
STATUS
ThreadCreateEx(
    IN_Z      char*      Name,
    IN        THREAD_PRIORITY Priority,
    IN        PFUNC_ThreadStart Function,
    IN_OPT    PVOID      Context,
    OUT_PTR   PTHREAD*    Thread,
    INOUT     struct _PROCESS* Process
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadTick
// Description:    Called by the timer interrupt at each timer tick. It keeps
//                track of thread statistics and triggers the scheduler when a
//                time slice expires.
// Returns:        void
// Parameter:      void
//*****
void
ThreadTick(
    void
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadBlock
// Description:    Transitions the running thread into the blocked state. The
//                thread will not run again until it is unblocked (ThreadUnblock)
// Returns:        void
// Parameter:      void
//*****
void
ThreadBlock(
    void
);
```

```
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadUnblock
// Description:    Transitions thread, which must be in the blocked state, to the
//                ready state, allowing it to resume running. This is called when
//                the resource on which the thread is waiting for becomes
//                available.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     IN PTHREAD Thread
//*****
void
ThreadUnblock(
    IN      PTHREAD      Thread
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadYieldOnInterrupt
// Description:    Returns TRUE if the thread must yield the CPU at the end of
//                this interrupt. FALSE otherwise.
// Returns:       BOOLEAN
// Parameter:     void
//*****
BOOLEAN
ThreadYieldOnInterrupt(
    void
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadTerminate
// Description:    Signals a thread to terminate.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT PTHREAD Thread
// NOTE:         This function does not cause the thread to instantly terminate,
//                if you want to wait for the thread to terminate use
//                ThreadWaitForTermination.
// NOTE:         This function should be used only in EXTREME cases because it
//                will not free the resources acquired by the thread.
//*****
void
ThreadTerminate(
    INOUT PTHREAD      Thread
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadTakeBlockLock
// Description:    Takes the block lock for the executing thread. This is required
//                to avoid a race condition which would happen if a thread is
//                unblocked while in the process of being blocked (thus still
//                running on the CPU).
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     void
//*****
void
ThreadTakeBlockLock(
    void
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadExecuteForEachThreadEntry
// Description:    Iterates over the all threads list and invokes Function on each
//                entry passing an additional optional Context parameter.
// Returns:       STATUS
```

```
// Parameter:    IN PFUNC_ListFunction Function
// Parameter:    IN_OPT PVOID Context
//*****
STATUS
ThreadExecuteForEachThreadEntry(
    IN    PFUNC_ListFunction  Function,
    IN_OPT PVOID              Context
);

//*****
// Function:      GetCurrentThread
// Description:    Returns the running thread.
// Returns:       void
//*****
#define GetCurrentThread()    ((THREAD*)__readmsr(IA32_FS_BASE_MSR))

//*****
// Function:      SetCurrentThread
// Description:    Sets the current running thread.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     IN PTHREAD Thread
//*****
void
SetCurrentThread(
    IN    PTHREAD    Thread
);

//*****
// Function:      ThreadSetPriority
// Description:    Sets the thread's priority to new priority. If the
//                current thread no longer has the highest priority, yields.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     IN THREAD_PRIORITY NewPriority
//*****
void
ThreadSetPriority(
    IN    THREAD_PRIORITY    NewPriority
);
```

A.2.3 Thread States

The states through which each thread can go through are: *Ready*, *Running*, *Blocked* and *Dying*. This is illustrated in [Figure A.1 \[Thread States\]](#).

- Ready: The thread is in the global thread ready list waiting to receive CPU time. It is ready because it is not waiting for any resource.
- Running: The thread is currently executing on a CPU: it will run until one the following happens:
 1. The thread's time quantum expires, a clock interrupt occurs, the scheduler chooses a different thread to run and places the current one in the ready list.
 2. The thread requires a resource to continue execution and it is not currently available so it will be blocked.

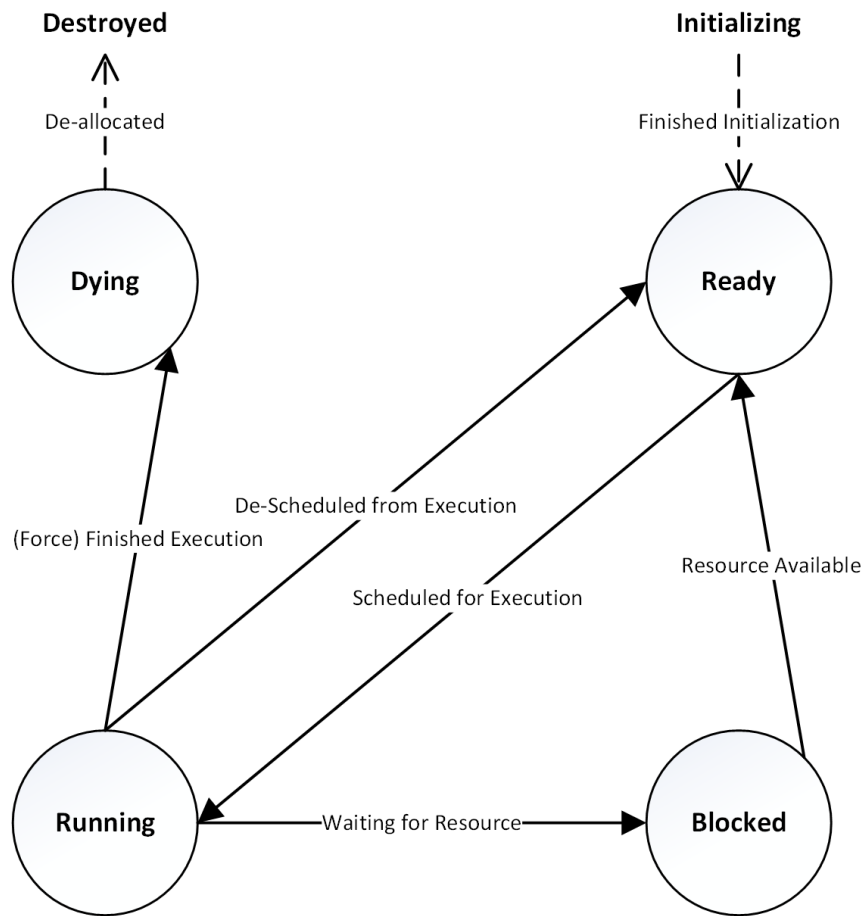


Figure A.1: Thread States

3. The thread willingly yields the CPU to another thread and gets placed in the ready list.
- **Blocked:** The thread is waiting for a currently unavailable resource. Once the resource will become available it will be moved to the ready list.
 - **Dying:** The thread has finished its execution or another thread forcefully terminated it.

The *Initializing* and *Destroyed* states are pseudo-states and have no relevance in the code. These states are illustrated for an easier understanding on where a thread starts execution and where it ends it.

A.2.4 Thread Switching

_ThreadSchedule() is responsible for switching threads. It is only called by the three exposed thread functions that need to switch threads: *ThreadBlock()*, *ThreadExit()* and *ThreadYield()*. Before any of these functions call *_ThreadSchedule()*, they disable interrupts so as not to be de-scheduled by a timer while calling these already de-scheduling functions.

The *_ThreadSchedule()* function does the following: it acquires the ready list lock, calls *_ThreadGetReadyThread()* to remove the next thread from the ready list (or the idle thread if there are no ready threads).

If there are no ready threads and the current thread is still capable of running it is preferred instead of the idle thread, but if there is a ready thread prepared it will be the one scheduled instead of the old one.

If the next thread to be executed is different than the old thread the following will happen:

- If the new process differs from the old one a CR3 switch will occur and the paging tables of the scheduled process will be activated.
- The *ThreadSwitch()* assembly function is called - this function stores a pointer to the current stack of the old thread in the *Stack* member and restores the stack pointer of the new thread.

After the thread switch occurs the *ThreadCleanupPostSchedule()* function is called to release the ready list lock (this cannot be done before the old thread is de-scheduled else it might be scheduled on two processors at once) and the block lock of the previous thread is also released if it is held by the current CPU (this cannot be released earlier either because the thread cannot be unblocked until it was blocked and it is not blocked while it is still executing on the CPU).

This function will also dereference the previous thread in case it is dying. The thread structure may still live on if its creator did not close its handle (by calling *ThreadCloseHandle()*).

The reason why there is a separate *ThreadCleanupPostSchedule()* function and these operations do not occur in the *_ThreadSchedule()* function is that the latter function is not called on thread creation while the former is. For more details see [A.2.5 \[Thread Initialization\]](#).

A.2.5 Thread Initialization

One of the trickiest parts when implementing threads is getting them to start-up. Thread switching is easy when you have running threads.

HAL9000 applies the following trick to get the first thread running: it prepares on the stack a *PROCESSOR_STATE* structure for setting up the initial register values,

the address of the *ThreadStart()* function as the first return address and an *INTERRUPT_STACK* structure for simulating a return from an interrupt (this is the only way to start a user-mode thread and there was no use of having a different start-up method for kernel threads).

For an illustration of the initial stack frame see the ASCII figure above *_ThreadSetupInitialState()* and check out the implementation for further details.

When the newly created thread starts its first execution in *ThreadSwitch()* it will call the *RestoreRegisters()* function to setup its initial register values, it will return at the start of the *ThreadStart()* function, call *ThreadCleanupPostSchedule()* and finally perform an IRETQ instruction which will cause the thread to continue execution in *_ThreadKernelFunction()* for kernel threads. For user-mode threads (project 2) see [A.2.5 \[User-mode Threads\]](#).

This function calls the PFUNC_ThreadStart function received as parameter for *ThreadCreate()*. Its only responsibility is to make sure *ThreadExit()* is called by each thread even if not explicitly coded.

User-mode Threads

The IRETQ instruction will cause the kernel mode thread to switch its privilege level from ring 0 to ring 3 and to start executing user-mode code. The user-mode function executed depends on which user thread is started.

If the main thread is started (i.e. the first thread in the user-mode process) the function executed will be determined by the *AddressOfEntryPoint* field defined in the Portable Executable (PE) header. For our project, this will correspond to the *__start()* function implemented in the UsermodeLibrary project. This function is responsible for setting up the environment for a user-mode application before actually giving it control. Similar to *_ThreadKernelFunction()* this function also makes sure that the thread exits properly through the *SyscallThreadExit()* call.

If the main thread wishes to create additional threads it should call *UmCreateThread()*. The UsermodeLibrary will internally call *SyscallThreadCreate()* with *__start_thread()* as the function. This is to ensure that the newly spawned thread properly exits through the *SyscallThreadExit()* system call.

A.3 Interprocessor Communication

HAL9000 provides an abstraction over the x86 mechanism of sending IPIs to other CPUs. This is done through the *SmpSendGenericIpi()* and *SmpSendGenericIpiEx()* functions as shown in [Listing A.4 \[IPI functions\]](#). [A.3.1 \[Parameter overview\]](#) provides an overview of the parameters required by these functions, while [A.3.2 \[Usage Examples\]](#) offers a few common usage examples.

Listing A.4: IPI functions

```
// Calls SmpSendGenericIpiEx with SmpIpiSendToAllExcludingSelf causing the
// BroadcastFunction to be executed on each CPU except the one that is calling
// the function.
STATUS
SmpSendGenericIpi(
    IN     PFUNC_IpcProcessEvent BroadcastFunction,
    IN_OPT PVOID Context,
    IN_OPT PFUNC_FreeFunction FreeFunction,
    IN_OPT PVOID FreeContext,
    IN     BOOLEAN WaitForHandling
);

STATUS
SmpSendGenericIpiEx(
    IN     PFUNC_IpcProcessEvent BroadcastFunction,
    IN_OPT PVOID Context,
    IN_OPT PFUNC_FreeFunction FreeFunction,
    IN_OPT PVOID FreeContext,
    IN     BOOLEAN WaitForHandling,
    IN     _Strict_type_match_
           SMP_IPI_SEND_MODE SendMode,
    _When_(SendMode == SmpIpiSendToCpu || SendMode == SmpIpiSendToGroup, IN)
           SMP_DESTINATION Destination
);
```

A.3.1 Parameter overview

Let's have a look at the parameters required for *SmpSendGenericIpiEx()*:

1. **BroadcastFunction** - This is the function which will be executed by the targeted CPUs.
2. Context - If you want to pass some information to the targeted CPUs you can pass a pointer to this field.
3. FreeFunction - If you have allocated your Context dynamically you can specify a function to be executed after the targets complete the BroadcastFunction - useful for cleanup.
4. **WaitForHandling**
 - When TRUE this function blocks until all the targeted CPUs execute the BroadcastFunction
 - When FALSE the function returns after sending the IPI
5. Determines the wait in which the final parameter is interpreted:
 - SmpIpiSendToSelf - Will execute the BroadcastFunction on the current CPU.
 - **SmpIpiSendToAllExcludingSelf** - Will execute the BroadcastFunction on all the CPUs **except the current CPU**.

- SmpIpiSendToAllIncludingSelf - Will execute the BroadcastFunction on all the CPUs **including the current CPU**.
 - **SmpIpiSendToCpu** - Will execute the BroadcastFunction on a specific CPU - the destination is specified in the last parameter.
 - SmpIpiSendToGroup - Will execute the BroadcastFunction on a specific group of CPUs - the destination is specified in the last paramter.
6. **Destination** - Must be completed only when SmpIpiSendToCpu or SmpIpiSendToGroup are used
- SmpIpiSendToCpu: The target CPU is given by the ApicId.
 - SmpIpiSendToGroup - The target group of CPUs are formed through a logical OR of the LogicalApicId values of the targeted processors.

A.3.2 Usage Examples

In this section we provide the following examples:

- **Listing A.5 [All the CPUs except the current one - no information passing]** - execute a function on all the CPUs except the current one. The issuing CPU does not wait for the targeted CPUs to complete execution before continuing.

A possible outcome of the execution on a 4 core system could be:

```
"Hello from CPU 0x2 [0x4]"
"Hello from CPU 0x0 [0x1]"
"Hello from CPU 0x1 [0x2]"
"Hello from CPU 0x3 [0x8]"
```

Listing A.5: All the CPUs except the current one - no information passing

```
static FUNC_IpcProcessEvent _CmdIpiCmd;

status = SmpSendGenericIpi(_CmdIpiCmd, NULL, NULL, NULL, FALSE);
if (!SUCCEEDED(status))
{
    LOG_FUNC_ERROR("SmpSendGenericIpi", status);
}

LOG("Hello from CPU 0x%02x [0x%02x]\n", pCpu->ApicId, pCpu->LogicalApicId);

static
STATUS
(__cdecl _CmdIpiCmd)(
    IN_OPT PVOID Context
)
{
    PCPU* pCpu;
```

```
    UNREFERENCED_PARAMETER(Context);

    pCpu = GetCurrentPcpu();

    LOG("Hello from CPU 0x%02x [0x%02x]\n", pCpu->ApicId, pCpu->LogicalApicId);

    return STATUS_SUCCESS;
}
```

- **Listing A.6 [All the CPUs except the current one - passing information]** is similar to the previous example in the sense that the function will be executed by all the CPUs except the issuing one, however this time the CPUs will complete in an array the timestamp at which they executed the function and the issuing CPU will wait for their execution to complete.

A possible outcome of the execution on a 4 core system could be:

```
"Timestamp for CPU 0 is 2305200"
"Timestamp for CPU 1 is 2302200"
"Timestamp for CPU 2 is 2303600"
"Timestamp for CPU 3 is 2289000"
```

Listing A.6: All the CPUs except the current one - passing information

```
static FUNC_IpcProcessEvent _CmdGetTimestamps;

// determine the number of active CPUs in the system
DWORD cpuCount = SmpGetNumberOfActiveCpus();

// allocate memory to pass to the broadcast function
QWORD* timeStamps = ExAllocatePoolWithTag(PoolAllocateZeroMemory, cpuCount * sizeof(
    QWORD), HEAP_TEMP_TAG, 0);
ASSERT(timeStamps != NULL);

status = SmpSendGenericIpi(_CmdGetTimestamps, timeStamps, NULL, NULL, TRUE);
if (!SUCCEEDED(status))
{
    LOG_FUNC_ERROR("SmpSendGenericIpi", status);
}

// when we get here all the other CPUs will have already completed the timeStamps
// array
timeStamps[GetCurrentPcpu()->ApicId] = IoMgGetSystemTimeUs();

for (DWORD i = 0; i < cpuCount; ++i)
{
    LOG("Timestamp for CPU %u is %U\n", i, timeStamps[i]);
}

// free the context - it is not used any more
ExFreePoolWithTag(timeStamps, HEAP_TEMP_TAG)

static
NTSTATUS
(__cdecl _CmdGetTimestamps)(
    IN_OPT PVOID Context
```

```
    )
{
    PCPU* pCpu;
    QWORD* timeStamps;

    // verify that we received a valid context
    ASSERT(Context != NULL);

    pCpu = GetCurrentPcpu();

    timeStamps = Context;
    timeStamps[pCpu->ApicId] = IomuGetSystemTimeUs();

    return STATUS_SUCCESS;
}
```

- **Listing A.7 [Specific target CPU]** offers an example of using the extended function (*SmpSendGenericIpiEx*) by sending a function to be executed on a specific target CPU. Because the *WaitForHandling* parameter is *TRUE* we have the guarantee that by the time we return from *SmpSendGenericIpiEx* the *BroadcastFunction* will have already been executed on the target.

The only possible outcome of the execution on a 4 core system would be:

```
"Hello from CPU 0x3 [0x8]"
"Hello from CPU 0x0 [0x1]"
```

Listing A.7: Specific target CPU

```
static FUNC_IpcProcessEvent _CmdIpiCmd;

SMP_DESTINATION destination = {0};
destination.Cpu.ApicId = 3;

status = SmpSendGenericIpiEx(_CmdIpiCmd, NULL, NULL, NULL, TRUE, SmpIpiSendToCpu,
    destination);
if (!SUCCEEDED(status))
{
    LOG_FUNC_ERROR("SmpSendGenericIpi", status);
}

LOG("Hello from CPU 0x%02x [0x%02x]\n", pCpu->ApicId, pCpu->LogicalApicId);

static
NTSTATUS
(__cdecl _CmdIpiCmd)(
    IN_OPT PVOID Context
)
{
    PCPU* pCpu;

    UNREFERENCED_PARAMETER(Context);

    pCpu = GetCurrentPcpu();

    LOG("Hello from CPU 0x%02x [0x%02x]\n", pCpu->ApicId, pCpu->LogicalApicId);

    return STATUS_SUCCESS;
}
```

A.4 Processes

A.4.1 Process Structure

The structure defining a process is found in *process_internal.h*.

Listing A.8: Process Structure

```
typedef struct _PROCESS
{
    REF_COUNT                RefCnt;

    // The PIDs will also be used for the CR3 PCID
    PID                      Id;

    char*                    ProcessName;

    // Command line related

    // The command line also contains the ProcessName
    char*                    FullCommandLine;
    DWORD                   NumberOfArguments;

    // Signaled when the last thread is removed from the
    // process list
    EX_EVENT                 TerminationEvt;

    // Valid only if TerminationEvt is signaled. The status
    // of the process is given by the status of the last
    // exiting thread from the process.
    STATUS                   TerminationStatus;

    MUTEX                   ThreadListLock;

    _Guarded_by_(ThreadListLock)
    LIST_ENTRY               ThreadList;

    _Guarded_by_(ThreadListLock)
    volatile DWORD           NumberOfThreads;

    // The difference between NumberOfThreads and ActiveThreads is the following
    // ActiveThreads represents number of threads in process which have not died have
    // NumberOfThreads includes the threads which died but have not yet been destroyed
    _Interlocked_
    volatile DWORD           ActiveThreads;

    // Links all the processes in the global process list
    LIST_ENTRY               NextProcess;

    // Pointer to the process' paging structures
    struct _PAGING_LOCK_DATA* PagingData;

    // Pointer to the process' NT header information
    struct _PE_NT_HEADER_INFO* HeaderInfo;

    // VaSpace used only for UM virtual memory allocations
    struct _VMM_RESERVATION_SPACE* VaSpace;
} PROCESS, *PPROCESS;
```

We will summarize the most important fields:

- PID Id

Unique identifier, valid values range between 1 and 4095. These can be recycled, so while process A has ID 7 after it dies, another process may take its former ID value. The reason why PIDs are implemented this way is because of the limitations of PCIDs.

- `char* ProcessName`

The name of the process running - this is the name of the executable.

- `char* FullCommandLine`

The whole process command line - including the application's name.

- `DWORD NumberOfArguments`

The number of arguments - including the process name, or put differently: the number of space separated strings in `FullCommandLine`.

- `LIST_ENTRY ThreadList`

Linked list of threads belonging to the process.

- `LIST_ENTRY NextProcess`

List entry linking the global process list.

A.4.2 Process functions

The functions implemented by `process.c` are exposed in two separate files: `process.h`, containing the functions which may be used by any components (drivers or exposed as system calls), and `process_internal.h`, which should only be used by the components in HAL9000 which work closely with the process module.

Listing A.9: Process Public Interface

```

/*****
// Function:      ProcessCreate
// Description:   Creates a new process to execute the application found at
//               PathToExe with Arguments (may be NULL). The function returns a
//               pointer (handle) to the process structure.
// Returns:       STATUS
// Parameter:     IN_Z char * PathToExe
// Parameter:     IN_OPT_Z char * Arguments
// Parameter:     OUT_PTR PPROCESS * Process
// NOTE:         All the processes's threads may terminate, but the process data
//               structure will not be un-allocated until the handle receive in
//               Process is closed with ProcessCloseHandle.
*****/
STATUS
ProcessCreate(
    IN_Z      char*      PathToExe,
    IN_OPT_Z  char*      Arguments,
    OUT_PTR   PPROCESS*   Process
);
```

```
//*****
// Function:      ProcessWaitForTermination
// Description:    Blocks until the process received as a parameter terminates
//                 execution.
// Returns:        void
// Parameter:      IN PPROCESS Process
// Parameter:      OUT STATUS* TerminationStatus - Corresponds to the status of
//                 the last exiting thread.
//*****
void
ProcessWaitForTermination(
    IN          PPROCESS    Process,
    OUT         STATUS*     TerminationStatus
);

//*****
// Function:      ProcessCloseHandle
// Description:    Closes a process handle received from ProcessCreate. This is
//                 necessary for the structure to be destroyed when it is no
//                 longer needed.
// Returns:        void
// Parameter:      PPROCESS    Process
//*****
void
ProcessCloseHandle(
    _Pre_valid_ _Post_invalid_
    PPROCESS    Process
);

//*****
// Function:      ProcessGetName
// Description:    Returns the name of the currently executing process (if the
//                 parameter is NULL) or of the specified process
// Returns:        const char*
// Parameter:      IN_OPT PPROCESS Process
//*****
const
char*
ProcessGetName(
    IN_OPT     PPROCESS    Process
);

//*****
// Function:      ProcessGetPid
// Description:    Returns the PID of the currently executing process (if the
//                 parameter is NULL) or of the specified process
// Returns:        PID
// Parameter:      IN_OPT PPROCESS Process
//*****
PID
ProcessGetPid(
    IN_OPT     PPROCESS    Process
);

//*****
// Function:      ProcessIsSystem
// Description:    Checks if a process or the currently executing process (if the
//                 parameter is NULL) is the system process.
// Returns:        BOOLEAN
// Parameter:      IN_OPT PPROCESS Process
//*****
BOOLEAN
ProcessIsSystem(
```



```

    IN_OPT      PPROCESS      Process
    );

//*****
// Function:      ProcessTerminate
// Description:    Signals a process for termination (the current process will be
//                terminated if the parameter is NULL).
// Returns:        void
// Parameter:      INOUT PPROCESS Process
//*****
void
ProcessTerminate(
    INOUT      PPROCESS      Process
    );

//*****
// Function:      GetCurrentProcess
// Description:    Retrieves the executing process.
// Returns:        PPROCESS
// Parameter:      void
//*****
PPROCESS
GetCurrentProcess(
    void
    );

```

Listing A.10: Process Private Interface

```

//*****
// Function:      ProcessSystemPreinit
// Description:    Basic global initialization. Initializes the PID bitmap, the
//                process list and their associated locks.
// Returns:        void
// Parameter:      void
//*****
_No_competing_thread_
void
ProcessSystemPreinit(
    void
    );

//*****
// Function:      ProcessSystemInitSystemProcess
// Description:    Initializes the System process.
// Returns:        STATUS
// Parameter:      void
//*****
_No_competing_thread_
STATUS
ProcessSystemInitSystemProcess(
    void
    );

//*****
// Function:      ProcessRetrieveSystemProcess
// Description:    Retrieves a pointer to the system process.
// Returns:        PPROCESS
// Parameter:      void
//*****
PPROCESS
ProcessRetrieveSystemProcess(
    void
    );

```

```
//*****
// Function:      ProcessInsertThreadInList
// Description:   Inserts the Thread in the Process thread list.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT PPROCESS Process
// Parameter:     INOUT struct _THREAD * Thread
//*****
void
ProcessInsertThreadInList(
    INOUT PPROCESS Process,
    INOUT struct _THREAD* Thread
);

//*****
// Function:      ProcessNotifyThreadTermination
// Description:   Called when a thread terminates execution. If this was the last
//               active thread in the process it will signal the processes's
//               termination event.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     IN struct _THREAD * Thread
//*****
void
ProcessNotifyThreadTermination(
    IN struct _THREAD* Thread
);

//*****
// Function:      ProcessRemoveThreadFromList
// Description:   Removes the Thread from its container process thread list.
//               Called when a thread is destroyed.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT struct _THREAD * Thread
//*****
void
ProcessRemoveThreadFromList(
    INOUT struct _THREAD* Thread
);

//*****
// Function:      ProcessExecuteForEachProcessEntry
// Description:   Iterates over the all threads list and invokes Function on each
//               entry passing an additional optional Context parameter.
// Returns:       STATUS
// Parameter:     IN PFUNC_ListFunction Function
// Parameter:     IN_OPT PVOID Context
//*****
STATUS
ProcessExecuteForEachProcessEntry(
    IN PFUNC_ListFunction Function,
    IN_OPT PVOID Context
);

//*****
// Function:      ProcessActivatePagingTables
// Description:   Performs a switch to the Process paging tables.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     IN PPROCESS Process
// Parameter:     IN BOOLEAN InvalidateAddressSpace - if TRUE all the cached
//               translations for the Process PCID will be flushed. This option
//               is useful when a process terminates and its PCID will be
//               later used by another process.
//*****
```

```
void
ProcessActivatePagingTables(
    IN      PPROCESS    Process,
    IN      BOOLEAN     InvalidateAddressSpace
);
```

A.4.3 Program Startup

In HAL9000 the UsermodeLibrary library defines the entry point of every application: `__start()` in `um_lib.c`. As you can see from the code, its job is to perform some basic initialization and make sure that the `SyscallThreadExit()` call is made after the actual application finishes.

All user applications in HAL9000 must implement the `__main()` function, which receives the standard parameters for any C main thread: `argc` and `argv`.

The kernel must put the arguments for the initial function on the stack before it allows the user program to begin executing. The arguments are passed in the same way as the normal calling convention. See MSDN Parameter Passing.

We will now consider an example on how to handle arguments for the following command: "SampleApplication Johnny is a good kid". First, break the commands into words: "SampleApplication", "Johnny", "is", "a", "good", "kid". Place the words at the top of the stack. Order doesn't matter, because they will be referenced through pointers.

Then, push the address of each string, on the stack, in right-to-left order. These are the elements of `argv`. The order ensures that `argv[0]` is at the lowest virtual address. The VS compiler assumes that the stack is aligned to 16 bytes before the return address is pushed, i.e. the address of the return address must be a multiple of 8, but not 0x10 (decimal 16), i.e. its least significant nibble must be 8 (see MSDN x64 Calling Conventions).

Then, push `argv` (the address of `argv[0]`) and `argc`, in that order. Finally, push a fake "return address": although the entry function will never return, its stack frame must have the same structure as any other function.

NOTE: The C standard requires a NULL pointer sentinel to also be pushed on the stack after the last valid string address, such that `argv[argc]` is NULL, however HAL9000 does not require this and we will not check this in our tests.

The stack is illustrated in [Figure A.2 \[Initial User Stack\]](#). In this example the stack pointer would be initialized to 0x13'FFFF'FF78.

Maybe it is worth explaining in more details how the extra 9 bytes (illustrated as "BYTES[9]" in the figure) for alligning the stack, such that the requirements for where the return address must be placed could be satisfied. The requirements say that the "Return Address" value in the figure (i.e. the address on the stack where is placed the return address from the `__start()` function of the newly created process) must be a multiple of 8, but not a multiple of 16. After writting on the stack the variable leghth strings corresponding to the command line arguments, we must compute what value will have "Return Address", considering the next values we must still write on the stack. In our example, the number of bytes already written on the stack is the sum of the legths of already written strings,

including their terminating `'\0'`, i.e.

```
strlen("kid") + 1 + strlen("good") + 1 + strlen("a") + 1 + strlen("is") + 1
+ strlen("Johnny") + 1 + strlen("SampleApplication") + 1
= 4 + 5 + 2 + 3 + 7 + 18
= 39.
```

The number of bytes that follow to be written, will be sum of the following terms:

- bytes for pointers in the *argv* array of the new process, i.e. bytes for *argc* pointers to the already written strings; in our example, this will account for `"6 * sizeof(char*) = 6 * 8 = 48"` bytes;
- bytes for arguments 3 and 4 of the `__start()` function of newly created process, in the so called shadow space on the stack (see the explanations above about the 64-bit calling convention); we do not have four arguments, but only two, still we need to reserve space for four; this account for `"2 * 8 = 16"` bytes;
- bytes for argument 2, i.e. the address of the *argv* array in the newly created process, which is just a pointer, so accounts for 8 bytes;
- bytes for argument 1, i.e. the number of arguments in command line *argv*, which accounts for 8 bytes;
- bytes for the return address from `__start()` function of the newly created process, which, being a pointer, accounts for 8 bytes.

So, the number of bytes that will be written next is: `"48 + 16 + 8 + 8 + 8 = 88"`. Adding the number of bytes already written with the number of bytes that follow to be written, results in `"39 + 88 = 127"` or `"0x7F"`. This leads to the address `"0x14'0000'0000 - 0x7F = 0x13'FFFF'FF81"`, where the return address will be placed. Address `"0x14'0000'0000"` is the base address of the stack (i.e. where it starts) and can easily be obtained by adding the bytes needed for string `"kid\0"` (i.e. 4) to the address where that string is stored, i.e. `"0x13'FFF'FFFC"`.

We can see that `"0x13'FFFF'FF81"` is not a multiple of 8, so we must align it at 8, by subtracting `"0x13'FFFF'FF81 % 8 = 1"` from `"0x13'FFFF'FF81"`, which results in the address `"0x13'FFFF'FF80"`. Though, this is a multiple of 0x10 (i.e. decimal 16), so we must subtract extra 8 bytes, to get an address being a multiple of 8, yet not a multiple of 16, i.e. `"0x13'FFFF'FF78"`. This is where the 9 bytes that must be subtracted result from.

All the above actions should be taken in `_ThreadSetupMainThreadUserStack()`. This function is called when the main (first) thread of a process is created. However, if we think a minute, we'll see that we have a problem: the OS has access to its virtual space and to the virtual space of the currently running process, i.e. we cannot directly access the stack of the newly created process.

To overcome this problem we can temporarily map the physical memory described by the user virtual pages in kernel space. For this we can use `MmuGetSystemVirtualAddressForUserBuffer()`, as a result we will obtain a kernel virtual mapping which we can

then access. Once the stack is set up we can free this virtual address using *MmuFreeSystemVirtualAddressForUserBuffer()*.

NOTE: The x64 function calling convention [14] specifies that the first four arguments of a function must be loaded in four CPU registers (namely RCX, RDX, R8, and R9, respectively). Though, space for them must still be reserved on the stack, just to give the called function a place to save them and be able to access them from stack also. This reserved space is called shadow space. In this context, we must note that actually we must not load the `argc` and `argv` on the stack, but only reserve space for them. Take care, however to the following two instructions in function *ThreadCreateEx()*, which obtain the `argc` and `argv`, respectively.

```
firstArg = (QWORD) (bProcessInitialThread ? Process->NumberOfArguments : (QWORD) Context);
secondArg = (QWORD) (bProcessInitialThread ? PtrOffset(pThread->UserStack,
    SHADOW_STACK_SIZE + sizeof(PVOID)) : 0);
```

Please note, that the `argc`'s value is not taken from stack and that `argv`'s address is considered to be at offset `SHADOW_STACK_SIZE + sizeof(PVOID)` below the current stack's pointer. You must assure the formula used by that instruction holds or, if you place the `argv` array somewhere else on that stack, change the used offset.

The two values, i.e. `firstArg` and `secondArg` are later on loaded in RCX and RDX registers in function *_ThreadSetupInitialState()* by the following instructions:

```
pState->RegisterArea.RegisterValues[RegisterRcx] = FirstArgument;
pState->RegisterArea.RegisterValues[RegisterRdx] = SecondArgument;
```

A.5 Synchronization

If sharing of resources between threads is not handled in a careful, controlled fashion, the result is usually a big mess. This is especially the case in operating system kernels, where faulty sharing can crash the entire machine. HAL9000 provides several synchronization mechanisms to help out.

Depending on where and what you'll want to synchronize you have the following classes of synchronization mechanisms:

- Primitive: these mechanisms wait for a resource through busy waiting, they do not block thread execution and do not allow for preemption because they disable interrupts before starting to acquire the resource and leave them disabled until releasing it. These synchronization mechanisms can be used anywhere in code. However, due to the fact that they disable interrupts, they should be used only when synchronization interrupt handlers with other code.
- Executive: these mechanisms rely on the OS for management. If a thread tries to acquire an executive resource which is unavailable the thread will be blocked and another will be scheduled on the processor. The thread will then get unblocked once the resource is available, thus avoiding busy waiting. This mechanism should be used to synchronize code outside of interrupt handlers.

Name	Address	Data	Type
argv[5][...]	0x13'FFFF'FFFC	'kid\0'	char[4]
argv[4][...]	0x13'FFFF'FFF7	'good\0'	char[5]
argv[3][...]	0x13'FFFF'FFF5	'a\0'	char[2]
argv[2][...]	0x13'FFFF'FFF2	'is\0'	char[3]
argv[1][...]	0x13'FFFF'FFEB	'Johnny\0'	char[7]
argv[0][...]	0x13'FFFF'FFD9	'SampleApplication\0'	char[18]
Stack alignment	0x13'FFFF'FFD0	0	BYTE[9]
argv[5]	0x13'FFFF'FFC8	0x13'FFFF'FFFC	char*
argv[4]	0x13'FFFF'FFC0	0x13'FFFF'FFF7	char*
argv[3]	0x13'FFFF'FFB8	0x13'FFFF'FFF5	char*
argv[2]	0x13'FFFF'FFB0	0x13'FFFF'FFF2	char*
argv[1]	0x13'FFFF'FFA8	0x13'FFFF'FFEB	char*
argv[0]	0x13'FFFF'FFA0	0x13'FFFF'FFD9	char*
Shadow Space	0x13'FFFF'FF98	0xDEAD'BEEF	void*
Shadow Space	0x13'FFFF'FF90	0xDEAD'BEEF	void*
argv	0x13'FFFF'FF88	0x13'FFFF'FFA0	char**
argc	0x13'FFFF'FF80	6	QWORD
Return Address	0x13'FFFF'FF78	0xDEAD'CODE	void*

Figure A.2: Initial User Stack

- Interlocked operations: if a basic data type is shared and the operations performed on the data are simple then atomic interlocked operations can be used. Some operations include: increment, addition, exchange, compare and exchange. These mechanisms are implemented at the hardware level.

A good way to think of the difference between primitive and executive mechanisms is the following: the primitive mechanisms are used to synchronize CPUs, while the executive mechanisms synchronize threads.

In both the primitive and executive cases the difference between locks and events can be thought of in terms of ownerships. Locks have owners, the owner (either the CPU or thread) must be the one releasing the lock, while in the case of the event anyone can signal the event or clear it.

Also, when it comes to events, both primitive and executive events are classified in two categories:

1. Notification events: once an event is signaled it remains that way until it is manually cleared. This means that if N CPUs/threads are waiting for an event they are all notified when the event is signaled and will continue execution.
2. Synchronization events: once an event is signaled it will remain that way only until a CPU or thread receives the signal. This means that if N CPUs/threads are waiting for an event only one of them will receive the notification and it will atomically clear the event not allowing any one else to continue execution.

A.5.1 Primitive

As said earlier, this class of synchronization mechanisms disables interrupts from the moment they try to acquire the resource until they release it.

If the OS used only primitive mechanisms a tight bottle-neck would be created allowing interrupts to come only for short periods of time, thus increasing system latency and making everything less responsive. In this regard you should be careful and use them as little as possible.

These should be used only when synchronizing data which is shared between an interrupt handler and other code.

Locks

HAL9000 supports basic spinlocks (see [Listing A.11 \[Spinlock Interface\]](#)), monitor locks (see *monlock.h*), read/write spinlocks (see *rw_spinlock.h*) and recursive read/write spinlocks (see *rec_rw_spinlock.h*).

There's no use in shoving the interface for every kind of lock in this document. If you're curious you can check out the mentioned files and read the comments to find out how they work. You should not use the spinlock or monitor lock functions directly, but instead you should use the interface exposed in *lock_common.h*.

If the *LockInit()*, *LockAcquire()*, etc, functions will be used then the operating system will determine dynamically which basic lock type to use: spinlocks or monitor locks (if the MONITOR feature is supported in the CPU). Monitor locks function the same as spinlocks except they conserve power and reduce memory contention by using a hardware mechanism to MONITOR and be notified (MWAIT) when a memory store occurs to the monitored region.

Listing A.11: Spinlock Interface

```
//*****
// Function:      SpinlockInit
// Description:    Initializes a spinlock. No other spinlock* function can be used
//                before this function is called.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     OUT PSPINLOCK Lock
//*****
void
SpinlockInit(
    OUT      PSPINLOCK    Lock
);

//*****
// Function:      SpinlockAcquire
// Description:    Spins until the Lock is acquired. On return interrupts will be
//                disabled and IntrState will hold the previous interruptibility
//                state.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT PSPINLOCK Lock
// Parameter:     OUT INTR_STATE * IntrState
//*****
void
SpinlockAcquire(
    INOUT     PSPINLOCK    Lock,
    OUT       INTR_STATE*  IntrState
);

//*****
// Function:      SpinlockTryAcquire
// Description:    Attempts to acquire the Lock. If it is free then the function
//                will take the lock and return with the interrupts disabled and
//                IntrState will hold the previous interruptibility state.
// Returns:       BOOLEAN - TRUE if the lock was acquired, FALSE otherwise
// Parameter:     INOUT PSPINLOCK Lock
// Parameter:     OUT INTR_STATE * IntrState
//*****
BOOL_SUCCESS
BOOLEAN
SpinlockTryAcquire(
    INOUT     PSPINLOCK    Lock,
    OUT       INTR_STATE*  IntrState
);

//*****
// Function:      SpinlockIsOwner
// Description:    Checks if the current CPU is the lock owner.
// Returns:       BOOLEAN
// Parameter:     IN PSPINLOCK Lock
//*****
BOOLEAN
SpinlockIsOwner(
    IN      PSPINLOCK    Lock
```



```

    );

//*****
// Function:      SpinlockRelease
// Description:   Releases a previously acquired Lock. OldIntrState should hold
//               the value previous returned by SpinlockAcquire or
//               SpinlockTryAcquire.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT PSPINLOCK Lock
// Parameter:     IN INTR_STATE OldIntrState
//*****
void
SpinlockRelease(
    INOUT    PSPINLOCK    Lock,
    IN       INTR_STATE   OldIntrState
);

```

Event

These mechanisms are not used for protecting a critical region, but for notifying one or more CPUs that an event has occurred. If the event is a synchronization event only one CPU receives the signal, while if it's a notification event all the CPUs are informed when the signal occurs.

Listing A.12: Event Interface

```

//*****
// Function:      EvtInitialize
// Description:   Creates an EVENT object. The behavior differs depending on the
//               type of event:
//               -> EventTypeNotification: Once an event is signaled it remains
//               signaled until it is manually cleared.
//               -> EventTypeSynchronization: Once an event is signaled, the
//               first CPU which will wait detect the signal in EvtWaitForSignal
//               will also clear it, i.e. a single CPU acknowledges the event,
//               whereas the notification case all the CPUs acknowledge it.
// Returns:       STATUS
// Parameter:     OUT EVENT * Event
// Parameter:     IN EVENT_TYPE EventType
// Parameter:     IN BOOLEAN Signaled
//*****
SAL_SUCCESS
STATUS
EvtInitialize(
    OUT    EVENT*    Event,
    IN     EVENT_TYPE EventType,
    IN     BOOLEAN   Signaled
);

//*****
// Function:      EvtSignal
// Description:   Signals an event.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT EVENT * Event
//*****
void
EvtSignal(
    INOUT    EVENT*    Event
);

```

```

//*****
// Function:      EvtClearSignal
// Description:   Clears an event signal.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT EVENT * Event
//*****
void
EvtClearSignal(
    INOUT  EVENT*      Event
);

//*****
// Function:      EvtWaitForSignal
// Description:   Busy waits until an event is signaled.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT EVENT * Event
//*****
void
EvtWaitForSignal(
    INOUT  EVENT*      Event
);

//*****
// Function:      EvtIsSignaled
// Description:   Checks if an event is signaled and returns instantly.
// Returns:       BOOLEAN - TRUE if the event was signaled, FALSE otherwise.
// Parameter:     INOUT EVENT * Event
//*****
BOOLEAN
EvtIsSignaled(
    INOUT  EVENT*      Event
);

```

A.5.2 Executive

These synchronization mechanisms are aware of the operating system and are managed more efficiently due to this.

These mechanisms differ from the primitive ones due to the fact that they block thread execution and remain that way until the resource is freed and they are unblocked.

These mechanisms rely on the primitive ones for their implementation, but where the primitive mechanisms disable interrupts for the whole duration, these require interrupts disabled only a small amount of time in their acquire and release function; however once an executive resource has been acquired interrupts remain enabled.

Mutex

Depending on their initialization, mutexes may either be recursive or not. If a mutex is not recursive then the same thread is not allowed to take the mutex more than once before releasing it.

If the mutex is recursive the same thread can take the mutex as many times as it wants (up to 255 times) but it must also release it the same number of times it has acquired it.

Listing A.13: Mutex Functions

```
//*****
// Function:      MutexInit
// Description:   Initializes a mutex.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     OUT PMUTEX Mutex
// Parameter:     IN BOOLEAN Recursive - if TRUE the mutex may be acquired
//               several times by the same thread, else only once.
// NOTE:         A recursive mutex must be released as many times as it has been
//               acquired.
//*****
_No_competing_thread_
void
MutexInit(
    OUT          PMUTEX    Mutex,
    IN          BOOLEAN    Recursive
);

//*****
// Function:      MutexAcquire
// Description:   Acquires a mutex. If the mutex is currently held the thread
//               is placed in a waiting list and its execution is blocked.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT PMUTEX Mutex
//*****
ACQUIRES_EXCL_AND_REENTRANT_LOCK(*Mutex)
REQUIRES_NOT_HELD_LOCK(*Mutex)
void
MutexAcquire(
    INOUT        PMUTEX    Mutex
);

//*****
// Function:      MutexRelease
// Description:   Releases a mutex. If there is a thread on the waiting list it
//               will be unblocked and placed as the lock's holder - this will
//               ensure fairness.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT PMUTEX Mutex
//*****
RELEASES_EXCL_AND_REENTRANT_LOCK(*Mutex)
REQUIRES_EXCL_LOCK(*Mutex)
void
MutexRelease(
    INOUT        PMUTEX    Mutex
);
```

Executive Event

Listing A.14: Executive Event Functions

```
//*****
// Function:      ExEventInit
// Description:   Initializes an executive event. As in the case of primitive
//               events, these may be notification or synchronization events.
// Returns:       STATUS
// Parameter:     OUT EX_EVENT * Event
// Parameter:     IN EX_EVT_TYPE EventType
// Parameter:     IN BOOLEAN Signaled
//*****
STATUS
```

```
ExEventInit(  
    OUT    EX_EVENT*    Event,  
    IN     EX_EVT_TYPE  EventType,  
    IN     BOOLEAN      Signaled  
);  
  
//*****  
// Function:    ExEventSignal  
// Description:  Signals an event. If the waiting list is not empty it will  
//              wakeup one or multiple threads depending on the event type.  
// Returns:     void  
// Parameter:    INOUT EX_EVENT * Event  
//*****  
void  
ExEventSignal(  
    INOUT EX_EVENT*    Event  
);  
  
//*****  
// Function:    ExEventClearSignal  
// Description:  Clears an event signal.  
// Returns:     void  
// Parameter:    INOUT EX_EVENT * Event  
//*****  
void  
ExEventClearSignal(  
    INOUT EX_EVENT*    Event  
);  
  
//*****  
// Function:    ExEventWaitForSignal  
// Description:  Waits for an event to be signaled. If the event is signaled it  
//              will place the thread in a waiting list and block its  
//              execution.  
// Returns:     void  
// Parameter:    INOUT EX_EVENT * Event  
//*****  
void  
ExEventWaitForSignal(  
    INOUT EX_EVENT*    Event  
);
```

Executive Timer

Listing A.15: Timer functions

```
//*****  
// Function:    ExTimerInit  
// Description:  Initializes a timer to trigger at a specified time.  
//              Once this function returns, the timer can be waited by multiple  
//              threads at once. When the timer triggers - no matter its type -  
//              all the threads waiting on it must be woken up.  
// Returns:     STATUS  
// Parameter:    OUT PEX_TIMER Timer - Timer to initialize  
// Parameter:    IN EX_TIMER_TYPE Type - Defines the periodicity of the timer  
//              (one-shot or periodic) and defines the meaning of the 3rd  
//              parameter (if absolute or relative to the current time).  
// Parameter:    IN QWORD TimeUs  
//  
// Examples:  
// Initialize a one-shot timer to trigger after 1 second:
```

A. Reference Guide

```
// ExTimerInit(&timer, ExTimerTypeRelativeOnce, 1 * SEC_IN_US);
//
// Initialize a periodic timer to trigger every minute:
// ExTimerInit(&timer, ExTimerTypeRleativePeriodic, 60 * SEC_IN_US);
//
// Initialize an absolute timer after the OS has run 2 minutes:
// ExTimerInit(&timer, ExTimerTypeAbsolute, 120 * SEC_IN_US);
//*****
STATUS
ExTimerInit(
    OUT     PEX_TIMER      Timer,
    IN      EX_TIMER_TYPE  Type,
    IN      QWORD          TimeUs
);

//*****
// Function:      ExTimerStart
// Description:   Starts the timer countdown. If the time has already elapsed all
//               the waiting threads must be woken up.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     IN PEX_TIMER Timer
//*****
void
ExTimerStart(
    IN     PEX_TIMER      Timer
);

//*****
// Function:      ExTimerStop
// Description:   Stops the timer countdown. All the threads waiting must be
//               woken up.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     IN PEX_TIMER Timer
//*****
void
ExTimerStop(
    IN     PEX_TIMER      Timer
);

//*****
// Function:      ExTimerWait
// Description:   Called by a thread to wait for the timer to trigger. If the
//               timer already triggered and it's not periodic or if the timer
//               is uninitialized this function must return instantly.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT PEX_TIMER Timer
//*****
void
ExTimerWait(
    INOUT   PEX_TIMER      Timer
);

//*****
// Function:      ExTimerUninit
// Description:   Uninitialized a timer. It may not be used in the future without
//               calling the ExTimerInit function. All threads waiting for the
//               timer must be woken up.
// Returns:       void
// Parameter:     INOUT PEX_TIMER Timer
//*****
void
ExTimerUninit(
    INOUT   PEX_TIMER      Timer
);
```

```
);

//*****
// Function:      ExTimerCompareTimers
// Description:    Utility function to compare to two timers.
// Returns:        INT64 - if NEGATIVE => the first timers trigger time is earlier
//                - if 0 => the timers trigger time is equal
//                - if POSITIVE => the first timers trigger time is later
// Parameter:      IN PEX_TIMER FirstElem
// Parameter:      IN PEX_TIMER SecondElem
//*****
INT64
ExTimerCompareTimers(
    IN     PEX_TIMER    FirstElem,
    IN     PEX_TIMER    SecondElem
);
```

A.5.3 Interlocked Operations

If you do a quick search in the project you will see there are over 50 calls to `_Interlocked` functions. These functions are very useful when access to only a basic primitive type must be synchronized.

One example would be `_IommuUpdateSystemTime()`: the scheduler clock tick occurs on each CPU, thus each one will want to increment the system uptime with a few microseconds. There is no reason for using a lock and causing unnecessary busy waiting when the hardware architecture can guarantee that we can atomically add a value to a memory address.

A.5.4 Disabling Interrupts

You should never have to use this mechanism for your project. The technique and usefulness is described here only for completeness.

Interrupts are disabled by primitive synchronization mechanisms, because their execution cannot be preempted because they are responsible of synchronizing different CPUs and once a primitive lock is taken on a CPU nothing else should be scheduled on that core until the lock is released.

Another region where interrupts are disabled is during a thread switch, if a thread was interrupted while it was already in the process of yielding the CPU to another thread its state will become inconsistent and the whole system will surely crash.

A.6 Memory Management

One of the main responsibilities of an operating system is resource management. Well, one of the most important resources is the system's memory: either physical memory (RAM or device memory) or virtual memory.

You should be familiar with the concepts of virtual memory and physical memory. If you're not sure what the difference is between these memory types you really should review a basic Operating Systems course and come back after.

To put it very shortly, the physical memory (as the name suggests) is physical memory which either belongs to the RAM memories in the system, or to other peripheral devices connected to the system (network cards, hard-disk controllers, USB controllers and so on).

However, HAL9000 and other operating systems do not work directly with physical memory, these benefit from a mechanism implemented on the CPUs to offer a virtual address space (VAS) to software running on the system.

Once the OS has setup the paging structures, each time the CPU performs a memory access, the address used to access this memory is a virtual address (VA). The paging structures will tell the CPU where the VA points to in physical memory, and what are the access rights for which the memory can be accessed. If the VA is not mapped to a physical address (PA) or if the access rights are insufficient (i.e. a user-mode application wants to access a kernel-mode address or a kernel-mode application wants to write a read-only page), a page fault (#PF) occurs.

For more information on how HAL9000 handles #PFs see [A.6.5 \[Page-fault handling\]](#), for more information on how paging works you can read [8] Chapter 4 - Paging.

The following sections go in more detail on how physical, virtual and heap memory is managed.

A.6.1 Physical Memory Management

The physical memory manager (PMM) is responsible for managing the system's physical memory. This means determining upon system initialization what memory is available, marking memory as reserved when used and releasing it when it is no longer needed.

All this functionality is exposed in *pmm.h*. Using the INT15H E820H memory map retrieved on system initialization, the extents of physical memory is determined. This memory map is actually an array of ranges of memory found in the system - some of it being available, while other being already reserved by the firmware or hardware devices.

The PMM tracks the availability of physical frames in the *m_pmmData.AllocationBitmap* bitmap. The size of the bitmap depends on the highest physical address available. Physical memory may contain gaps, so we cannot use the size of available memory to determine the size of the bitmap. Upon initialization, all physical memory from 0 to the highest available is marked as reserved, after which the INT15H E820H memory map is traversed, and as available memory is found, it is 'released'.

Once the PMM finishes its initialization, the OS can request memory using *PmmReserveMemory()* or *PmmReserveMemoryEx()* and free it using *PmmReleaseMemory()*. You probably will **NOT** have to call these functions directly in any of your projects, we will see in the following sections how these functions are used.

A.6.2 Virtual Memory Management

The virtual memory manager (VMM) interface is exposed in *vmm.h*. This is the component responsible for managing the VAS of each process and for performing the VA to PA translations by working with the CPU's paging structures.

Each VAS is managed through a `VMM_RESERVATION_SPACE` structure. Thus, each process has its own reservation space, pointed to by the *VaSpace* member of the `PROCESS` structure.

When memory is allocated through *VmmAllocRegion()*, a reservation is created in the system process' VAS. When memory is allocated through *VmmAllocRegionEx()*, reservations could be done in the VAS of any particular process, given by the *VaSpace* and *PagingData* arguments. When those two arguments are `NULL`, the reservation is done in the VAS of system process, while when they are the fields with the same names in the current process' `PROCESS` structure, the reservation is done in the current process' VAS.

Each reservation is described by a `VMM_RESERVATION` structure. This specifies the VA range reserved through the *StartVa* and *Size* fields, the access rights with which the memory was reserved, if the memory is uncacheable and if the memory is backed by a file it contains a pointer to a file object. The reservation also maintains a bitmap which describes which of the pages reserved are actually committed.

You may ask what's the difference between the two: when a VA range is reserved that range may no longer be reserved by any other application. This is useful, for example, when you want to make sure you have a continuous region of virtual space, but you don't want to use it yet.

However, when you want to start using the memory you reserved, you need to commit it - this can be done at a page level granularity, as an example you may reserve 4 pages of memory, but you may want to commit only the first one and the last one.

When memory is committed it is NOT also mapped to a physical address. This is because the VMM is lazy - see [A.6.2 \[Lazy Mapping\]](#) for details. However, if you want to make sure that once you commit a VA range it is mapped you can specify the `VMM_ALLOC_TYPE_NOT_LAZY` flag to the allocate function.

To release previously allocated memory, call *VmmFreeRegion()* or *VmmFreeRegionEx()*. De-committing memory can be done at the page level granularity, however releasing memory (i.e. freeing the reservation completely) is an all or nothing operation: either you don't release the memory, either you release it all.

NOTE: The VMM also provides functions for mapping and un-mapping memory, however you should not use these and use the MMU provided functions instead, see [A.6.4 \[Memory Management Unit\]](#).

The functions, which effectively work with the CPU paging structures to setup VA to PA translation and to remove them are *VmmMapMemoryInternal()* and *VmmUnmapMemoryEx()*.

Lazy Mapping

The way in which mappings from virtual to physical addresses are created can be either eager or lazy. In eager mapping, once the virtual address is allocated it's also mapped to a physical address. In contrast, when using lazy mapping, the VA may be allocated, but it will not be mapped to a physical address until it is actually needed, i.e. on first access to that region.

Because the lazy mapping approach is much faster than the eager one, it is commonly used in modern operating systems. Also, it is more practical not to reserve physical frames for virtual memory allocated, because most of the time most of the memory space will not be used. For example HAL9000 allocates 5 GB of virtual memory for each user-mode process for their VAS management structures, but most processes will not use more than a few KB - some even less.

Additionally, eager mapping may be impossible when allocating large ranges of virtual addresses, as an example we may want to allocate a VA range of 1TB - however most systems on which the OS will run certainly do not have 1TB of physical space - thus making eager mapping impossible without supporting swap space.

In case lazy mapping is used, and the 1TB range is allocated, the physical frames are allocated only to the VAs actually accessed on a per-page granularity, i.e. if from the 1TB range, we access only the first 100 bytes and the last 5 bytes, we'll only have allocated 2 physical frames of memory.

HAL9000's default behavior is to lazy map virtual addresses, however, if you need to make sure that once you allocated a VA range, it is also backed by physical memory, you can set the *VMM_ALLOC_TYPE_NOT_LAZY* flag when allocating virtual memory.

Okay, so how does the OS know that a virtual address is accessed for the first time and it needs to be assigned to a physical frame? Well, a #PF will occur because the VA is not mapped, and once the physical frame is reserved, and the paging structures are updated to hold the VA to PA mapping, execution of the faulting instruction is restarted. For more information about handling page faults, see [A.6.5 \[Page-fault handling\]](#).

A.6.3 Heap Management

A heap is a data structure for dynamically allocating memory. A heap is initialized by calling *HeapInitializeSystem()* - this function uses the VMM exposed function *VmmAllocRegion()* to reserve and commit a continuous region of virtual memory (remember - because of the lazy nature of the VMM, this will allocate physical frames only when that memory is actually accessed).

Heap memory can then be allocated through calls to *HeapAllocatePoolWithTag()* and freed by calls to *HeapFreePoolWithTag()*. The heap is the entity responsible for managing the continuous region of virtual memory.

The reason why we need a heap and we don't just use the VMM allocation functions is because most of the time we won't need to allocate regions larger than a page size (VMM

functions work at page size granularity), and we'd waste a lot of space for nothing: while the VAS is large and this wouldn't be a problem, a physical frame will still be allocated for every allocation, even if it is just one byte in size.

Both the allocation and de-allocation functions require a DWORD Tag as a parameter - this is used only for extra-validation: when an allocation is done, the heap allocation is marked with the requested tag. When memory is de-allocated, the same tag must be used, else an ASSERT will trigger. This reduces the probability of releasing the inappropriate memory due to code errors, and is also a helpful debugging feature for tracking memory leaks, i.e. it is easier to pinpoint the component causing the leak.

Another parameter received by the allocation function is the alignment: you may sometimes need to allocate memory which must follow a certain alignment rule.

NOTE: For managing heap memory, you should use the *ExAllocatePoolWithTag()* and *ExFreePoolWithTag()* functions exposed in *ex.h*.

A.6.4 Memory Management Unit

The memory management unit (MMU) is responsible for initializing and coordinating the PMM, VMM, and the heaps. This unit is responsible for creating the paging structures, which will be used by the system process, for performing the switch to these structures, and for mapping and reserving the whole kernel memory.

Interface

The MMU is also responsible for aggregating the functionality exposed by the PMM, VMM, and heap for easier use and convenience. Here is a summary of what the MMU provides (see *mmu.h*):

- Support for performing PA to VA translations through the *MmuMapMemoryEx()* and *MmuUnmapMemoryEx()* functions.
- Support for retrieving the VA to PA translation either in the context of the current process or by using different paging structures: *MmuGetPhysicalAddress()* and the Ex variant.
- Support for validating if a buffer is valid and the process has the required access rights for the operation desired: *MmuIsBufferValid()*.
- Support for mapping a user-mode VA to a kernel-mode VA through the *MmuGetSystemVirtualAddressForUserBuffer()* function.
- Support for loading an executable in memory and mapping it in the context of a process: *MmuLoadPe()*.

NOTE: For managing heap memory you should use the *ExAllocatePoolWithTag()* and *ExFreePoolWithTag()* functions exposed in *ex.h*.

A.6.5 Page-fault handling

When a page fault occurs the internal exception handler will call *MmuSolvePageFault()* passing the faulting address (read from CR2) and the error code (pushed on the stack by the CPU) as parameters.

This function in turns determines the access rights requested on the faulting address from the error code, determines the paging structures which must be used (the global kernel ones or the per user ones) from the access type (user-mode or kernel mode) and calls *VmmSolvePageFault()*.

This later function checks to see if user-mode access was requested on a kernel page or if a kernel mode access was requested on a user page and if any of these hold true the function fails to solve the #PF.

The next step is to check if the faulting address has a reservation allocated and if the memory accessed is committed, this is done by calling *VmReservationCanAddressBeAccessed()*. If these checks pass then the VA should be mapped to a PA so HAL9000 will reserve a frame of physical memory through *PmmReserveMemory()*.

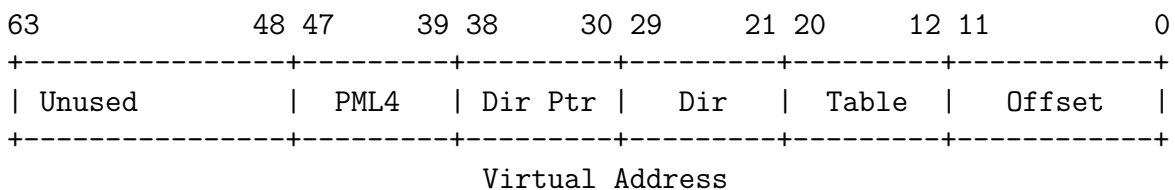
The next step is to actually map the VA to the newly acquired PA through *MmuMapMemoryInternal()*. If this reservation is backed by a file then the contents of the file from the proper offset is read in memory by calling *IoReadFile()*.

If the file was not backed by a file, or the contents of the file did not occupy a whole page the remaining memory is set to 0.

If all these steps happen successfully then the exception handler will return and without any modification on any of the processor's state before the exception the instruction which caused the #PF will be re-executed and the memory access will now complete successfully.

A.7 Virtual Addresses

A 64-bit virtual addresses can be divided into 6 sections as illustrated in [Figure A.3 \[Linear-Address Translation - \[8\]\]](#).



Because of the way 64-bit mode works, accesses to virtual addresses require the 47th bit to be reflected in bits 63:48, as a result these are useless for determining the table to be used for address translation.

The next 4 pairs of 9 bits (PML4, Dir Ptr, Dir, Table) each give us an index inside a table which takes us to an entry which holds the physical address of the next table, or

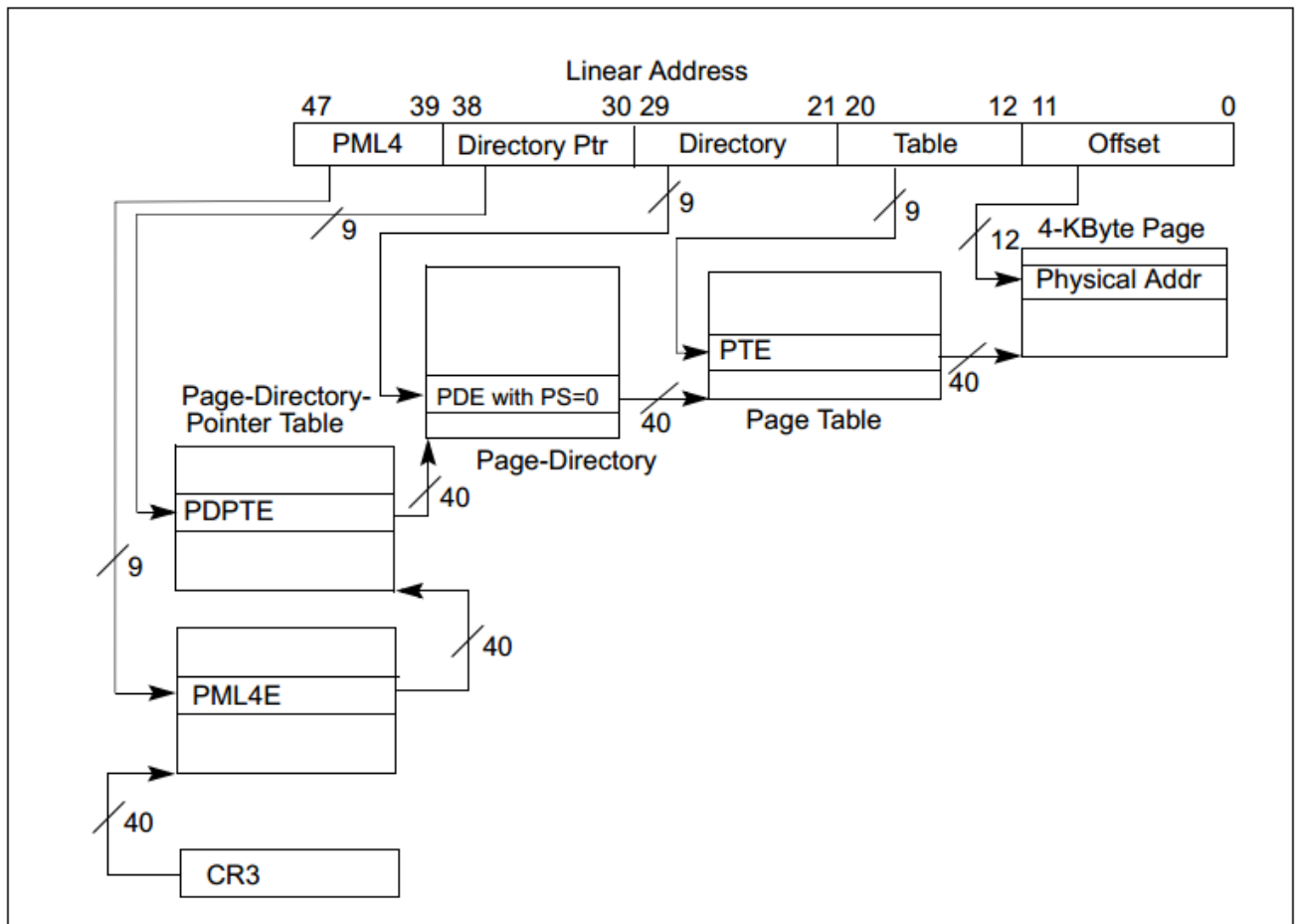


Figure 4-8. Linear-Address Translation to a 4-KByte Page using IA-32e Paging

Figure A.3: Linear-Address Translation - [8]

in the case of the last 9 bits it gives us the final physical address where the virtual address is mapped.

The final 12 bits give us the offset inside the physical frame.

HAL9000 offers the following macros and functions for working with virtual addresses:

- *VmmGetPhysicalAddressEx()*: Retrieves the physical address for a virtual address. In case the virtual address is not mapped the returned value is NULL. This function can also be used to retrieve and reset the accessed and dirty bits, for details on this see [A.8.3 \[Accessed and Dirty Bits\]](#).
- *MmuMapMemoryEx()*: maps a physical address range into the virtual space of a process or only into the virtual space of the kernel. The caller can specify the access

rights requested for the virtual address and the cacheability. The function returns the virtual mapping allocated for the requested physical address.

- *MmuUnmapMemoryEx()*: unmaps a virtual address from the address space of a process or of the kernel.
- *MmuIsBufferValid()*: checks if a virtual address range can be accessed from the address space of a process with certain access rights.
- *_VmIsKernelRange()*: heuristically checks if an address looks like a kernel one, i.e. it checks if bit 47 is set.
- *MmuGetSystemVirtualAddressForUserBuffer()*: maps a virtual range of addresses from the virtual address space of the specified process to a kernel virtual address range. The kernel access rights can also be specified.
- *MmuFreeSystemVirtualAddressForUserBuffer()*: frees a previously mapped user virtual range.
- *gVirtualToPhysicalOffset*: the first valid kernel virtual address.
- *PAGE_SIZE*: defines the size of a page, 4 KiB.

The x86 doesn't provide any way to directly access memory given a physical address. This ability is often necessary in an operating system kernel, for example, when working with the actual paging structures. HAL9000 works around it by mapping certain regions of kernel virtual memory one-to-one to physical memory. That is, in the case of these regions of memory the virtual address *gVirtualToPhysicalOffset* accesses physical address 0, virtual address *gVirtualToPhysicalOffset* + 0x1234 accesses physical address 0x1234, and so on up. Thus, adding *gVirtualToPhysicalOffset* to a physical address obtains a kernel virtual address that accesses that address; conversely, subtracting *gVirtualToPhysicalOffset* from a kernel virtual address obtains the corresponding physical address. Header *HAL9000.h* provides a pair of macros to do these translations:

- *VA2PA*: Returns the virtual address corresponding to a physical address.
- *PA2VA*: Returns the physical address corresponding to a virtual address.

NOTE: do not use these macros to perform the translations for any kind of addresses. As previously mentioned these are only valid for certain memory regions, for the whole 'list', see the ASCII diagram above *MmuInitSystem()*.

A.8 Paging Tables

There is a lot to talk about paging, however the Intel manuals does this better than we could ever describe them here, so have a look over [8] sections 4.5 "IA-32e Paging", 4.6 "Access Rights" and 4.8 "Accessed and Dirty Bits". This section only provides a very brief summary of the interface provided by HAL9000 to interact with the paging structures.

A.8.1 Creation, Destruction and Activation

These functions create, destroy, and activate page tables. The base HAL9000 code already calls these functions where necessary, so it should not be necessary to call them yourself. However, we advise you to have a look at where they're used:

- *_MmuCreatePagingTables()*: Creates a new base table (PML4), each process has a its own such table. The new page table contains HAL9000 's normal kernel virtual page mappings, but no user virtual mappings.
- *_MmuDestroyPagingTables()*: Destroys a paging structure freeing all its used user memory.
- *MmuChangeProcessSpace()*: Switches the currently used paging structures for a new set of paging structures. Called on process switches.

A.8.2 Inspection and Updates

These functions examine or update the mappings from pages to frames encapsulated by a page table. They work on both active and inactive page tables (that is, those for running and suspended processes), flushing the TLB as necessary.

Again, these functions are already used by HAL9000 and provided at a higher level interface so you do not need to call them directly, however, you should have a look at them.

- *PteMap()*: Creates an entry in a page table to a physical address. The caller can also specify the access rights and privilege level.
- *PteUnmap()*: Zeroes a page entry thus marking it as not present.
- *PteIsPresent()*: Checks if a page is present or not.
- *PteGetPhysicalAddress()*: Returns the physical address mapped by the paging table entry.

All of these functions work indifferently of the hierarchy level of the paging structure.

A.8.3 Accessed and Dirty Bits

x86 hardware provides some assistance for implementing page replacement algorithms, through a pair of bits in the page table entry (PTE) for each page. On any read or write to a page, the CPU sets the accessed bit to 1 in the page's PTE, and on any write, the CPU sets the dirty bit to 1. The CPU never resets these bits to 0, but the OS may do so.

You need to be aware of aliases, that is, two (or more) pages that refer to the same frame. When an aliased frame is accessed, the accessed and dirty bits are updated in only one page table entry (the one for the page used for access). The accessed and dirty bits for the other aliases are not updated.

When you implement page sharing you must manage these aliases somehow. For example, your code could check and update the accessed and dirty bits for both addresses.

Using *VmmGetPhysicalAddressEx()* both the accessed and dirty bits can be retrieved for a virtual address from its corresponding page table entry. This is done by setting the corresponding output pointer to a non-NULL address where to place the value. This function can be found in *vmm.h*. **NOTE: When retrieving the value of the accessed or dirty bit the corresponding bit is cleared from the paging table by HAL9000 .**

A.9 List Structures

Doubly linked lists are ubiquitous in HAL9000 and you should learn how to use them before working on the project. These lists are represented through `LIST_ENTRY` structures. Their interface is exposed in *list.h*. You do not need to learn how they work internally, in this section we'll describe the functions exposed to work with lists. However, if you're curious on the implementation you can go to the header file and read the comments at the start of the file.

For those familiar with Microsoft's `LIST_ENTRY` implementation this section can be skipped because HAL9000's implementation is almost identical.

Each structure that is a potential list element must embed a `LIST_ENTRY` member. All of the list functions operate on these `LIST_ENTRY` members. The `CONTAINING_RECORD` macro allows conversion from a `LIST_ENTRY` back to a structure object that contains it.

The head of the list is also represented through a `LIST_ENTRY`, however this must not be embedded in any structure.

An example on how to perform basic operations on a list is shown in [Listing A.16 \[List Usage Example\]](#) and is described next.

Each structure can be in as many lists at once as `LIST_ENTRY` members it has, the `THREAD` structure has 3 such list entries because it is at the same time in the all threads list, in the ready/block list and in the process list. In our example `MY_DATA` has a single `ListEntry` thus can belong to only one list at once.

On line 15 the list head is initialized, this must be done only ONCE and must be done BEFORE any entry is inserted into the list.

On line 21 a new element is inserted at the back of the list, *InsertHeadList()* is available for insertion in the front of the list and *InsertOrderedList()* for inserting the element in the list following a certain order.

On line 23 we check to see if the list is empty or not.

On line 26 an element is removed from the head of the list, if we want to remove an element from its back we can use *RemoveTailList()*. NOTE: it wasn't necessary to check if the list is empty before removing an element from it, if we want to remove an element from an empty list we'll receive a pointer to the head of the list which can be easily validated.

A search in the list can be done using *ListSearchForElement()* and for executing a function for each list element *ForEachElementExecute()* can be used.

Real usage examples can be found throughout the HAL9000's code, especially in *thread.c*, *process.c*, *heap.c*, *iomu.c*.

Listing A.16: List Usage Example

```
1  // list head
2  LIST_ENTRY gGlobalList;
3
4  typedef struct _MY_DATA
5  {
6      ...
7      // MY_DATA elements will link in the global list through the ListEntry field
8      LIST_ENTRY ListEntry;
9      ...
10     BYTE Data;
11 } MY_DATA, *PMY_DATA;
12
13 void SomeFunction(void)
14 {
15     InitializeListHead(&gGlobalList);
16
17     PMY_DATA pData = ExAllocatePoolWithTag(0, sizeof(MY_DATA), HEAP_TEST_TAG, 0);
18     ASSERT(pData != NULL);
19
20     // Inserts the data element at the end of the list
21     InsertTailList(&gGlobalList, &pData->ListEntry);
22
23     if (!IsListEmpty(&gGlobalList))
24     {
25         // Removes the first element from the list
26         PLIST_ENTRY pListEntry = RemoveHeadList(&gGlobalList);
27
28         // Retrieves a pointer to the beginning of the structure
29         pData = CONTAINING_RECORD(pListEntry, MY_DATA, ListEntry);
30     }
31 }
```

A.10 Hash Table

HAL9000 provides a basic implementation of a hash table through the HASH_TABLE structure. Functions to insert, lookup, remove or iterate through elements are provided,

as well as a couple of generic hashing functions for keys which have a size of less than 8 bytes.

The implementation solves collisions through chaining, thus if multiple elements hash to the same key they will be placed in a doubly linked list. The only dynamically allocated memory needed is when initializing the hash table, this is due to the fact that a doubly linked list is needed for each unique key and the number of keys in a hash table is configurable and passed as a parameter when pre-initializing the hash table.

The way we work with the hash elements is similar to the way we work with doubly linked list entries, however instead of using `LIST_ENTRY` fields we will use `HASH_ENTRY` fields. In this section we will illustrate how we can use a hash table, also, if you go to *hash_table.h* you will see some usage examples as well.

We will discuss the operation in three stages: initializing the hash table, using the hash table and destroying it.

An example of how to initialize a hash table is provided in [Listing A.17 \[Hash Initialization Example\]](#):

- On lines 6-14 we have the declaration of the `MY_PROCESS` structure, because it holds a field of type `HASH_ENTRY` it can be inserted in a hash table.
- On line 23 we see a call to *HashTablePreInit()*: here we specify the number of unique keys we want the hash table to hold and the size of the key. The number of unique keys must be known because the size allocated for the internal hash table data depends on this: for each unique key a doubly linked list header is required to hold the element chain. The size of the key is required by the hashing functions.
- On line 30 we see a call to *HashTableInit()* which provides the newly allocated memory for the hash table internal structure, the hashing function and the difference in bytes between the field used as the key (in our case *Id*) and the field used for chaining the element in the hash table (in our case *HashEntry*).
- After the hash table has been initialized it can now be populated with elements.

Listing A.17: Hash Initialization Example

```
1  #define NO_OF_KEYS          8
2
3  // global hash table of processes
4  HASH_TABLE gHashTable;
5
6  typedef struct _MY_PROCESS
7  {
8      PID                Id;
9      ...
10     // MY_PROCESS elements will link in the global list through the HashEntry field
11     HASH_ENTRY          HashEntry;
12     ...
13     BYTE                Data;
14 } MY_PROCESS, *PMY_PROCESS;
15
```

```
16 void InitProcessHashTable(void)
17 {
18     // Pre-initialize the hash table, specify the maximum number of keys we want it to
19     // have and the size of the key. This function returns the size in bytes required
20     // for its internal HASH_TABLE_DATA structure, we will need to allocate this
21     // memory dynamically.
22     DWORD requiredHashSize = HashTablePreinit(&gHashTable, NO_OF_KEYS, sizeof(PID));
23
24     PHASH_TABLE_DATA pUnknown = ExAllocatePoolWithTag(0, requiredHashSize,
25         HEAP_TEST_TAG, 0);
26     ASSERT(pUnknown != NULL);
27
28     // Initialize the hash table to use the HashFuncGenericIncremental hashing
29     // function and specify the difference in bytes between the offset to the Key
30     // field and the offset to the HASH_ENTRY field
31     HashTableInit(&gHashTable,
32         pUnknown,
33         HashFuncGenericIncremental,
34         FIELD_OFFSET(MY_PROCESS, Id) - FIELD_OFFSET(MY_PROCESS, HashEntry));
35 }
```

The code in [Listing A.18 \[Hash Usage Example\]](#) provides some usage examples:

- On line 7 an initialized MY_PROCESS structure is inserted into the hash table. Because the size of the key, the hashing function and the offset between the HASH_ENTRY and the key are already known the only parameters required by this function are the hash table and the HASH_ENTRY to insert.
- On line 10 the previously allocated element is removed.
NOTE: while it is possible to simply perform a `RemoveEntryList(&pProcess->HashEntry)` to remove the entry from the hash table it is not advisable to do so, the hash table maintains a count of elements and it cannot maintain a proper count if the explicit hash functions are not used. Also, in the future the HASH_ENTRY structure may not be defined as a LIST_ENTRY.
- On line 15 the element whose key is 0x4 is removed from the hash table. If the element was not present a NULL pointer is returned.
- On line 23 a check is made to make sure that the element whose key is 0x4 is no longer present in the hash table.
- On line 25 the number of elements in the hash table is logged.
- On lines 29-36 an iterator is initialized and the whole hash table is traversed element by element. The HASH_TABLE_ITERATOR structure always maintains the position of the next element in the hash table, that's why while traversing the hash table with an iterator we can always remove the current element and continue the iteration. Once there are no more elements in the hash table *HashTableIteratorNext()* returns NULL.

Listing A.18: Hash Usage Example

```
1 void UsageFunction(void)
2 {
3     PMY_PROCESS pProcess = ExAllocatePoolWithTag(0, sizeof(MY_PROCESS), HEAP_TEST_TAG,
4         0);
5     // ... Initialize process structure ...
6     // Insert the new element into the hash table
7     HashTableInsert(&gHashTable, &pProcess->HashEntry);
8
9     // Remove previously added element
10    HashTableRemoveEntry(&pHashTable, &pProcess->HashEntry);
11
12    // Remove a process by searching for a certain ID
13    PID idToRemove = 0x4;
14
15    PHASH_ENTRY pEntry = HashTableRemove(&gHashTable, &idToRemove);
16    if (pEntry != NULL)
17    {
18        PMY_PROCESS pProcess = CONTAINING_RECORD(pEntry, MY_PROCESS, HASH_ENTRY);
19        // ... work with the process structure ...
20    }
21
22    // Check if the element is still in the list
23    ASSERT(HashTableLookup(&gHashTable, &idToRemove) == NULL);
24
25    LOG("Number of elements in the hash table is %u\n", HashTableSize(&gHashTable));
26
27    // Iterate through all the elements of the list
28    // The iterator maintains the current traversal state within the hash table
29    HASH_TABLE_ITERATOR it;
30
31    HashTableIteratorInit(&gHashTable, &it);
32
33    while ((pEntry = HashTableIteratorNext(&it) != NULL)
34    {
35        // process the entry
36    }
37 }
```

Finally, the code listed in [Listing A.18 \[Hash Usage Example\]](#) provides an example of how to destroy the hash table:

- On line 19 we see the call which will empty the hash table and call the provided *ProcessFreeFunc()* for each element in the hash table.
- On lines 1-10 we see the function which is called for each element removed from the hash table when *HashTableClear()* is called. The Object parameter will point to the HASH_ENTRY field from the structure, thus to get to the actual element we will use the CONTAINING_RECORD macro. Once we have the element we can free its memory.
- On line 22 we see the call to free the memory which was allocated for the hash table internal implementation: it is no longer needed.

Listing A.19: Hash Destruction Example

```
1 void
```

```
2  (_cdecl ProcessFreeFunc)(
3      IN      PVOID      Object,
4      IN_OPT  PVOID      Context
5  )
6  {
7      PMY_PROCESS pProcess = CONTAINING_RECORD(Object, MY_PROCESS, HashEntry);
8
9      ExFreePoolWithTag(pProcess, HEAP_TEST_TAG);
10 }
11
12 void DestroyProcessHashTable(void)
13 {
14     PVOID pUnknown = gHashTable->TableData;
15
16     // Free all the elements in the hash table, the ProcessFreeFunc function
17     // will be called for each element, the pointer received as the first
18     // parameter will point to the HASH_ENTRY field in MY_PROCESS
19     HashTableClear(&gHashTable, ProcessFreeFunc, NULL);
20
21     // Free the hash table internal memory allocated at initialization
22     ExFreePoolWithTag(pUnknown, HEAP_TEST_TAG);
23 }
```

A.11 Hardware Timers

Modern x86 systems possess a diverse range of hardware timers which can be programmed to achieve different functionalities:

- High-precision timers: HPET and LAPIC.
- General usage timers: RTC, PIT, ACPI timer.

All the timers enumerated except the LAPIC timer are system-wide, i.e. there is only one hardware timer available on a given system. The LAPIC timer is available on a per-CPU basis.

HAL9000 currently uses only the PIT and RTC timers. The PIT is used for dispatching the scheduler, while the RTC is used for updating the system time. Also, code for programming the LAPIC timer is already implemented and can be used without modification.

Because HAL9000 does not interact with the HPET (High Precision Event Timer) or the ACPI (Advanced Configuration and Power Interface) timer at all these are not described here.

A.11.1 PIT Timer

The PIT (Programmable Interval Timer) has 3 programmable timers:

1. Channel 0: this is used by HAL9000 for the scheduler interrupt. It is setup as a periodic interrupt to trigger every *SCHEDULER_TIMER_INTERRUPT_TIME_US* μ s (the default value is 40ms).

2. Channel 1: unused.
3. Channel 2: used by *PitSleep()* to wait for a certain number of Microseconds to pass. This is not programmed to generate an interrupt, it continuously polls the PIT to determine if the timer has expired or not.

The timer is initialized in *_IomuSetupPit()* and the interrupt registered is *_IomuSystemTickInterrupt()*.

Further information is available [15] Chapter 12.3 Timer I/O Registers and OS dev - PIT.

A.11.2 RTC Timer

HAL9000 uses the RTC (Real Time Clock) timer to update the system time, i.e. the one displayed in the upper right-hand corner of the screen. It is programmed to trigger an interrupt only when the BIOS CMOS memory clock updates its second counter, i.e. when a second passes.

The interrupt function is *OsInfoTimeUpdateIsr()*. It is registered in *_IomuSetupRtc()* - this function is also responsible of actually programming the hardware timer to trigger only on timer updates. The RTC can also be programmed to generate two additional interrupts:

1. Periodic interrupts: the interrupt triggers each timer the timer period expires. The range of interrupt frequencies is from 122 μ s to 500 ms.
2. Alarm interrupt: the interrupt is generated when the system time reaches a software programmed value (hour:minute:second).

More information about the RTC can be found in [15] Chapter 12.6 Real Time Clock Registers and OS dev - RTC..

A.11.3 LAPIC Timer

The LAPIC (Local Advanced Programmable Interrupt Controller) timer is a hardware timer implemented on each CPU core. It is currently not used by HAL9000 , but the following function is available for programming it:

Listing A.20: LAPIC Timer

```

//*****
// Function:      LapticSystemSetTimer
// Description:   Enables the LAPIC timer on the current CPU to trigger every
//               Microseconds ms. If the argument is 0 the timer is stopped.
// Parameter:     IN DWORD Microseconds - Trigger period in microseconds.
// Parameter:     OUT_PTR PTHREAD * Thread
// NOTE:          This only programs the LAPIC timer on the current CPU.
//*****
void
```

```
LapicSystemSetTimer(  
    IN DWORD Microseconds  
);
```

If the argument passed is 0 the timer is stopped, else it is enabled in periodic mode to trigger every *Microseconds*. When the interrupt triggers `_SmpApicTimerIsr()` will be executed.

More information about the LAPIC timer can be found in [8] Chapter 10.5.4 APIC Timer and OS dev - LAPIC Timer.

Appendix B

Debugging

HAL9000 is a complex project and sometimes when you'll make a change in the code you'll see that what's actually happening in the system differs from what you were expecting.

Unfortunately, HAL9000 doesn't have support for a debugger, YET! We wish to write one for the third iteration of the project.

However, in the author's opinion sufficient tools are available to solve any bugs which may arise in the code.

The following sections will go through the different techniques available for debugging code and detecting errors:

- Signaling function failure: by returning (preferably) unique status values for functions which could fail you could pinpoint the location of the error more easily.
- Logging: simply write messages logging the data which interests you, usually when there are bugs the information logged will differ from what you were expecting.
- Asserts: validate all assumptions. Even if you know that the sun rises in the east or that only threads in the dying state can be destroyed make sure those conditions stand.
- Disassembly: follow the assembly instructions which caused your system to crash and determine the call stack.
- Halt debugging: when you're desperate and the system reboots in an infinite loop place some HLT instructions in the code to diagnose the problem.

B.1 Signaling function failure

When working with HAL9000 you'll often see that most functions return a STATUS type value, depending on this value you can determine if the function failed or succeeded.

The recommended way of doing this is by using the *SUCCEEDED* macro, which returns TRUE in case of success, and FALSE in case of an **error** or **warning** status.

The reason why this format was chosen is so that it can be used in Windows applications as well without conflicting with existing Microsoft defined statuses. The format is defined by Microsoft - you don't need to know the details, but the idea is that this format is very extensible and can be used by many different vendors (or in our case components) without overlaying results.

B.1.1 Interpreting STATUS values

The easiest way of interpreting a STATUS value is by copying its value in the Windows calculator application - or any other application which displays the bit values of a number.

The STATUS type is simply a DWORD - 4 bytes and is interpreted in the following way:

0x**S****CCC****VVVV**.

Where

- S stands for Severity:
 1. 0xE - Error
 2. 0xA - Warning
 3. 0x4 - Informational
 4. 0x0 - Success
- CCC stands for Component:
 1. 0x800 - General
 2. 0x100 - CPU
 3. 0x080 - Communication
 4. 0x040 - Timers
 5. 0x020 - Heap
 6. 0x010 - Memory
 7. 0x008 - Storage
 8. 0x004 - Disk
 9. 0x002 - Apic
 10. 0x001 - Device

- VVVV stands for the value within the component - unfortunately there are too many values to enumerate here, but once you go to *status.h* you can easily determine the exact status.

Let's take an example of a status value and determine what it means: we have the following log message: *[ata.c]/[82]AtaInitialize failed with status: 0xE0010001*.

- First of all, the text between the first set of brackets tells us the file in which the message was logged - *ata.c*
- Then, we have the number between the second set of brackets which indicate the line number - 81.
- And finally we see the status value 0xE0010001.

We always start interpreting from the LEFT to the RIGHT (starting from the MSB going to the LSB).

The severity is 0xE meaning it is an error message. The component is 0x001 meaning it is a device error message. And finally the value of the general error message is 0x0001, going to *status.h* and searching for the value within the statuses marked with *DEVICE_MASK* we find the status name being *STATUS_DEVICE_DOES_NOT_EXIST*.

When the status name is not explicit enough to understand what it means or when it is returned you can always search in the whole solution to see where that status value is used.

Ideally, statuses should not be too generic, but they should be specific enough for the programmer to be able to pinpoint the location (or few locations) from which the value could have been returned.

NOTE: It is recommended that you add new status values when you're working on your project and the code added can fail in a way not described by the existing values.

B.2 Logging

The easiest thing to do if you don't understand something is to log it. There are different logging levels which you may use depending on the importance of the logged information: trace, info, warning and error.

You can setup the logging level you want to use when calling the *LogSystemInit()* for initializing the logging system or *LogSetLevel()* for changing the log level any time.

For a log message to be shown, its log level must be greater than or equal to the logging level set, i.e. if currently the system logging level is *LogLevelWarning* then only warning and error messages will be displayed and info and trace messages will be ignored.

Also, there are different components which may log trace messages, and you may activate/deactivate logging trace messages based on the component logging them. This

can be set, as logging level, either when initializing the logging system or by calling *LogSetTracedComponents()* at a later time. For example, if you want to log all trace messages only from the generic and exception component you would either do as shown in [Listing B.1 \[Logging Init\]](#) or as shown in [Listing B.2 \[Logging Change\]](#) after logging has been initialized.

Listing B.1: Logging Init

```
LogSystemInit(LogLevelTrace,
              LogComponentGeneric | LogComponentException,
              TRUE
            );
```

Listing B.2: Logging Change

```
LogSetTracedComponents(LogComponentGeneric | LogComponentException);
```

All of the logging functions and the definitions can be found in the *log.h* file. At first, things may seem confusing, but here's the basic things that you need to know:

- *LOG()* If you want to log a simple message.
- *LOGP()* If you want to log a message plus the CPU id from which it is logged.
- *LOGL()* If you want to log a message plus the file and line from which the log occurs.
- *LOGTPL()* If you want to log a message plus the thread, CPU, file and line from which the log occurs.
- *LOG_WARNING()* If you want to log warnings, these should be unexpected things from which the function can recover.
- *LOG_ERROR()* If you want to log errors, these should be used if the errors cannot be handled and the function emitting the message failed execution.
- *LOG_TRACE_THREAD()* If you want to log a message on behalf of the threading component and include the CPU id and file and line from which the log occurred.

Other logging mechanism exist for each component: *LOG_TRACE_**() functions. Be careful when logging, not to log too much in functions called often, this can slow down the system considerably until the point that close to 0 progress is made.

Logging is safe to be used in both normal executing code and in interrupt handlers because it uses primitive locks for synchronization. However, you cannot log messages in the logging functions, this would cause infinite recursion and the OS will crash due to a #PF caused by a stack overflow which cannot be solved.

If you want to dump a raw memory region to find out what's there you can use the *DumpMemory()* function or you can use more specialized functions available in the *dmp_*.h* files which display information about a specific component/device/entity in a more organized way. As an example see *DumpInterruptStack()* or *DumpProcess()*.

B.3 Asserts

Another mechanism to make sure everything works as expected is to use asserts. The code is already full of them (1000+ instances). **DO NOT REMOVE ANY OF THE EXISTING ASSERTS!**

When you place an assert in the code you set as the condition the thing you're expecting to be true a.k.a an invariant, if the condition does not hold once execution reaches that point the current CPU will stop execution, notify the other CPUs that a fatal error has occurred and log the condition which failed the assert.

As an example, lets go to the `_ThreadSchedule()` function and have a look at one of its asserts : `ASSERT(INTR_OFF == CpuIntrGetState())`. When execution will reach this point the condition will be verified to see if it's true, i.e. interrupts are disabled when entering the function, if this is not the case and for some reason the interrupts are enabled execution will stop and you will see the following message in the log file:

```
[ERROR] [hal_assert.c] [29] [CPU:00]Kernel panic!  
[ERROR] [hal_assert.c] [31] [CPU:00]Thread: [main-00]  
[ERROR] [hal_assert.c] [33] [CPU:00] [ASSERT] [thread.c] [1029]Condition: ((0 ==  
CpuIntrGetState())) failed
```

One can easily see that `0 == CpuIntrGetState()` didn't hold true and you can see that the check is happening in the `thread.c` file at line 1029.

HAL9000 is full of such asserts to make sure the functions are called correctly and if some code changes all the invariants are still respected. This project is a large one and the work effort invested in it spans almost a year and without these asserts it's very easy to forget how a code change in a component can affect other components and alter the system's behavior. This is why asserts are used and this is why you should not remove any of them.

Each time you work on your project you should be asking yourself, what conditions have to hold for the function to work properly? These conditions should validate the state of the system and, if the function is one which can be only be used by other OS components, the parameters. You should NOT assert the validity of parameters received in a system call because these are user provided parameters, but you should assert if your `ThreadSetPriority()` function receives an invalid priority because this function can only be called by other TRUSTED OS components.

To continue the example when writing the `ThreadSetPriority()` function you should assert that the thread priority is a valid one and that `GetCurrentThread()` returns a valid non-NULL thread.

B.4 Disassembly

Sometimes, when you make code changes some errors may occur which are not caught by asserts or any other type of validation. These errors may lead to exceptions on

the processor which will cause the system to crash.

In case such an event occurs HAL9000 will log the interrupt stack and the processor registers when the exception took place. The only way to see where the operation took place is to disassemble the instructions near the RIP which caused the exception. We recommend using WinDbg or IDA [16] for this.

The choice of which tool to use depends on how you have built HAL9000. More specifically, you need to know what **platform toolset** was used to build HAL9000. [C.2.2 \[Check the platform toolset\]](#) describes how to check your platform toolset. You can use WinDbg regardless of which platform toolset was used for build. However, at the time of writing this, the newest free version of IDA cannot open the symbols for HAL9000 if it was built with platform toolset version **v142**. If you have built HAL9000 with toolset version **v142** and for whatever reason you would like to use IDA, you will have to downgrade to toolset version **v140** (check [C.2.3 \[Set the platform toolset\]](#)).

WinDbg

WinDbg is a multipurpose debugger distributed by Microsoft. It has two versions, **WinDbg** and **WinDbg Preview**. Both can be downloaded from <https://docs.microsoft.com/ro-ro/windows-hardware/drivers/debugger/debugger-download-tools>. We recommend downloading WinDbg Preview because it takes less time, but you can also download WinDbg. The commands that they accept are the same.

The advantage of WinDbg over IDA is that given an address, it will show you both the disassembled assembly code and the C source code at that address. IDA will only show you the disassembled assembly code.

IDA

IDA (or Interactive Disassembler) is a disassembler for computer software which generates assembly language source code from machine-executable code. IDA can be downloaded from https://www.hex-rays.com/products/ida/support/download_freeware.shtml

Most of the time, it is easy to pinpoint the function and the exact place where the exception took place once we look at the disassembled code. Either because there is a log function close to the faulting RIP which also logs the file and line or we can easily determine the function to which the instruction belongs to.

We will now look into an example on how to diagnose a #PF using WinDbg or IDA.

We made some changes to the code and now HAL9000 crashes due to an un-handled page fault. The last lines of the log file looks like this:

```
[thread.c] [184] [CPU:00] _ThreadInit succeeded
```

[ERROR][isr.c][149]Could not handle exception 0xE [#PF - Page-Fault Exception]

Interrupt stack:

Error code: 0x0

RIP: 0xFFFF800001032CFB

CS: 0x18

RFLAGS: 0x10086

RSP: 0xFFFF85014365E850

SS: 0x20

Control registers:

CR0: 0x80010031

CR2: 0x20

CR3: 0x1140000

CR4: 0x100020

CR8: 0x0

Processor State:

RAX: 0x0

RCX: 0xC0000100

RDY: 0xFFFF850100000000

RBX: 0x80800

RSP: 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC

RBP: 0xFFFF800001006125

RSI: 0x408

RDI: 0xFFFF85014365E860

R8: 0xFFFF85014365E8B8

R9: 0xFFFF85014365E658

R10: 0xFFFF800001118000

R11: 0x1

R12: 0x0

R13: 0x0

R14: 0x0

R15: 0x0

RIP: 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC

Rflags: 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC

Faulting stack data:

[0xFFFF85014365E850]: 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC

[0xFFFF85014365E858]: 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC

[0xFFFF85014365E860]: 0xFFFF85014365E918

[0xFFFF85014365E868]: 0xFFFF80000103330F

[0xFFFF85014365E870]: 0x0

```
[0xFFFF85014365E878] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E880] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E888] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E890] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E898] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E8A0] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E8A8] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E8B0] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E8B8] : 0x80800000306C3
[0xFFFF85014365E8C0] : 0x1FABFBFFF7FA3223
[0xFFFF85014365E8C8] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E8D0] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E8D8] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E8E0] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC00
[0xFFFF85014365E8E8] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E8F0] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E8F8] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E900] : 0x4110860067F20473
[0xFFFF85014365E908] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E910] : 0xCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
[0xFFFF85014365E918] : 0xFFFF85014365EBB8
[0xFFFF85014365E920] : 0x80800
[0xFFFF85014365E928] : 0xFFFF80000106AE90
[0xFFFF85014365E930] : 0x0
[0xFFFF85014365E938] : 0xFFFF850140000390
[0xFFFF85014365E940] : 0xFFFF8000010EECA8
[0xFFFF85014365E948] : 0xFFFF8000010EEC9C
[ERROR] [hal_assert.c] [29] [CPU:00]Kernel panic!
[ERROR] [hal_assert.c] [31] [CPU:00]Thread: [main-00]
[ERROR] [hal_assert.c] [33] [CPU:00] [ASSERT] [isr.c] [152]Condition: (exceptionHandled)
failed
Exception 0xE was not handled
```

We can clearly see the value of the faulting RIP as being 0xFFFF800001032CFB and the faulting address 0x20 (in CR2). When you see these low valued addresses you can be sure that they are caused by a NULL pointer dereference, i.e. a field at offset 0x20 from a structure is accessed through a NULL pointer.

We can now open the binary file with WinDbg or IDA.

NOTE: the .pdb file should be in the same folder as the binary file when you open it. Because of this, our recommendation is to load the *HAL9000.bin* file from the bin folder.

NOTE: Be careful not have re-compiled HAL9000 since the time of the crash. If

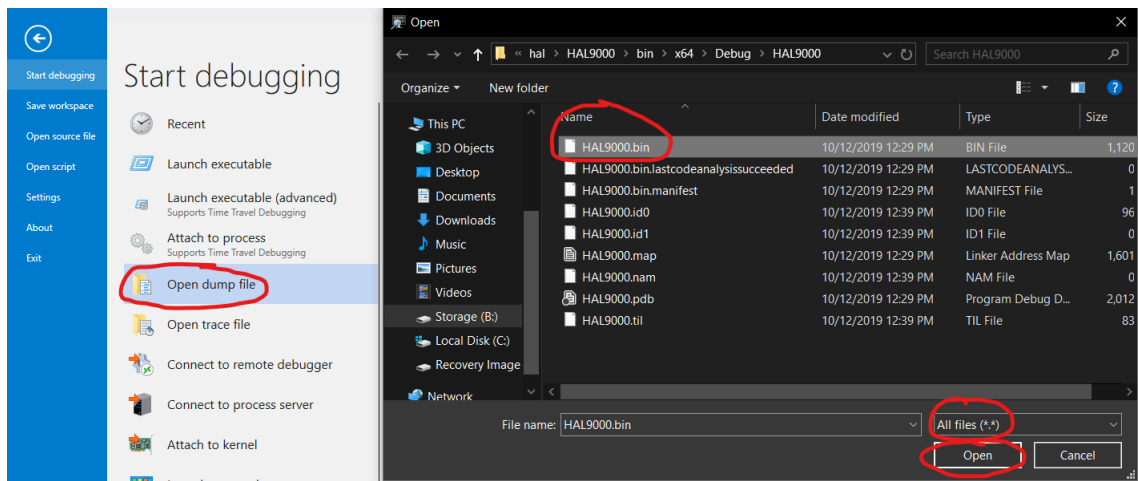


Figure B.1: Open HAL9000.bin in WinDbg

you have done so, the disassembled instructions will not match those which generated the crash.

NOTE: You may notice that we are using different addresses in the WinDbg and IDA tutorial. The disassembled code may also differ. This is because the code was recompiled before creating the WinDbg tutorials, but the bug that we are trying to find is the same.

WinDbg

Open WinDbg / WinDbg Preview (use windows search to find them).

Click **File** → **Open dump file**. Select "All files" in the Open dialog and open the file HAL9000\bin\x64\Debug\HAL9000\HAL9000.bin, as shown in [Figure B.1 \[Open HAL9000.bin in WinDbg\]](#).

NOTE: Be sure to close WinDbg before trying to rebuild the project. Otherwise you will get a build error.

IDA

Open **idaq64.exe** from the folder where you have downloaded/installed IDA.

Choose to open **New file**, and choose the file located at HAL9000\bin\x64\Debug\HAL9000\HAL9000.bin

Do not change any load options and click Ok.

Once we opened the binary, we have to examine the faulting instruction.

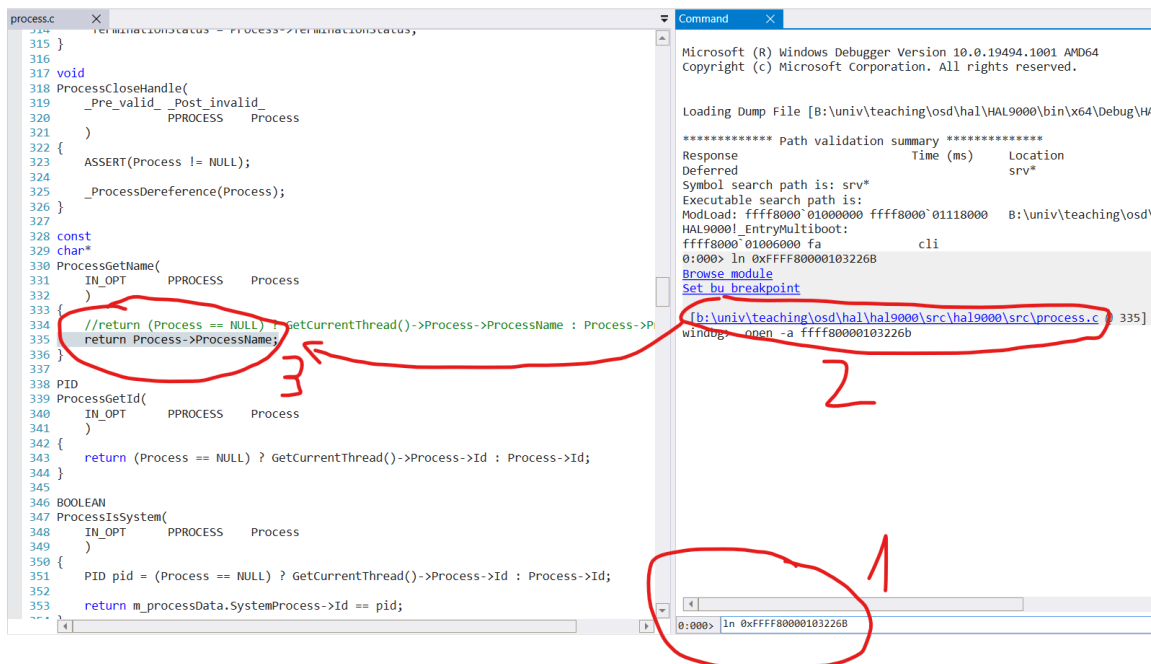


Figure B.2: WinDbg: ln command

WinDbg

In WinDbg we can use the **ln** command to jump to the source code line where the faulting instruction was executed. To do this, type in **ln <address>** and hit Enter. Then, click on the path in blue to open the source code where the exception occurred. The process is shown in [Figure B.2 \[WinDbg: ln command\]](#).

To view the assembly code, click **View** → **Disassembly**, type the address in the **Address:** field and hit Enter.

The process is shown in [Figure B.3 \[WinDbg: Disassembly\]](#).

IDA

In IDA we can use the Jump to Address (G keyboard shortcut) to jump to the faulting instruction: 0xFFFF800001032CFB. In our case we see [Figure B.4 \[IDA disassembly near RIP\]](#).

As previously stated, RAX+0x20 is dereferenced and because RAX is NULL the faulting address is 0x20. The function in which this takes place is *ProcessGetName()*. If we press CTRL + X once the function name is selected we can see that this function is only called from 3 other functions - illustrated in [Figure B.5 \[ProcessGetName\(\) References\]](#). You can also see where a function is reference in Visual Studio by placing

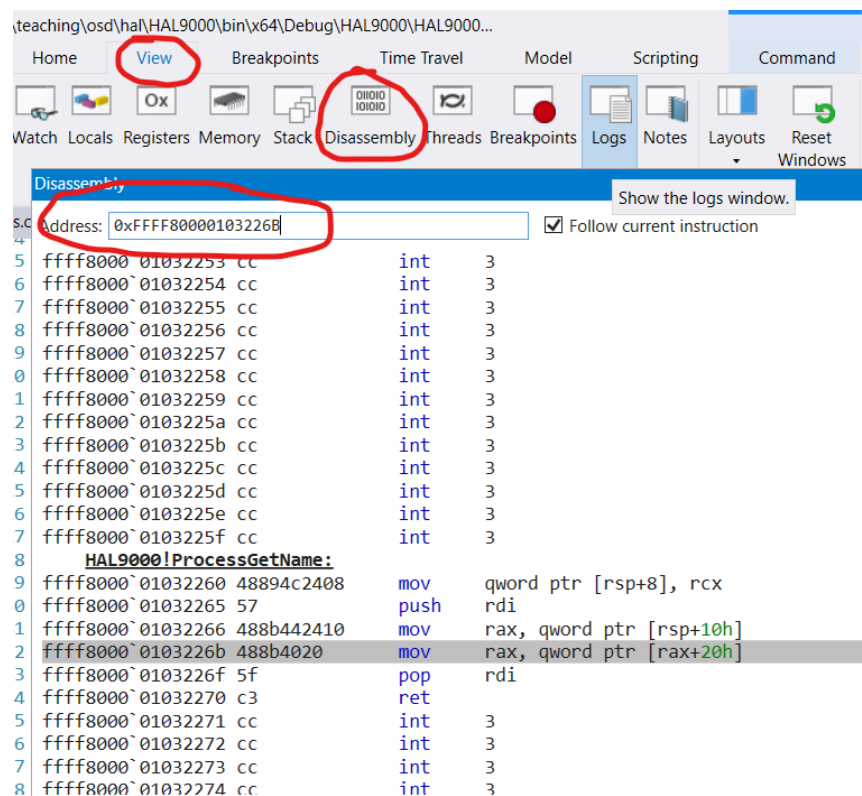


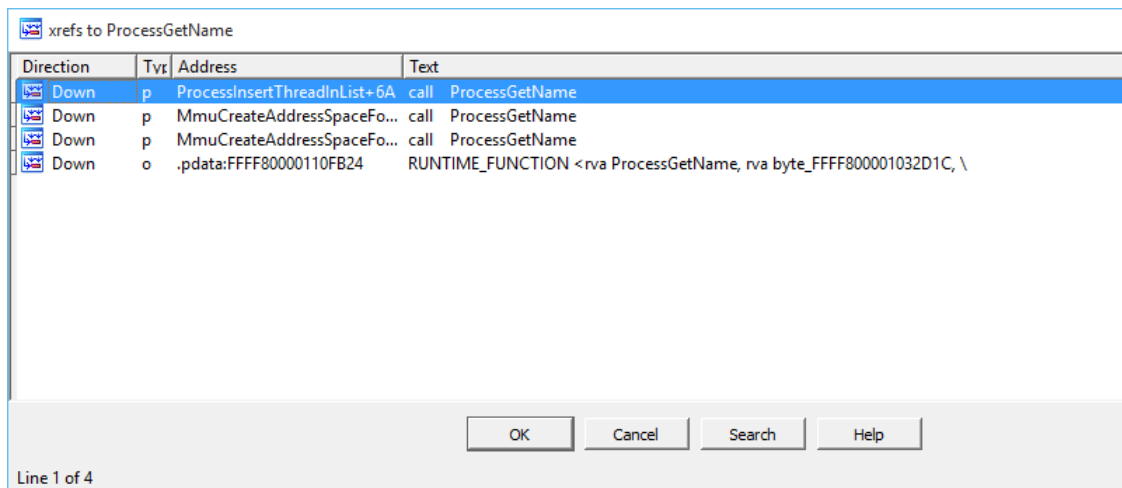
Figure B.3: WinDbg: Disassembly

```

.text:FFFF800001032CC0
.text:FFFF800001032CC0 ; const char *__cdecl ProcessGetName(_PROCESS *const Process)
.text:FFFF800001032CC0 ProcessGetName proc near ; CODE XREF: ProcessInsertThreadInList+6A↓p
.text:FFFF800001032CC0 ; MmuCreateAddressSpaceForProcess+138↓p ...
.text:FFFF800001032CC0 var_18 = qword ptr -18h
.text:FFFF800001032CC0 arg_0 = qword ptr 8
.text:FFFF800001032CC0
.text:FFFF800001032CC0 mov [rsp+arg_0], rcx
.text:FFFF800001032CC5 push rdi
.text:FFFF800001032CC6 sub rsp, 10h
.text:FFFF800001032CCA mov rdi, rsp
.text:FFFF800001032CCD mov ecx, 4
.text:FFFF800001032CD2 mov eax, 0CCCCCCCCh
.text:FFFF800001032CD7 rep stosd
.text:FFFF800001032CD9 mov rcx, [rsp+18h+arg_0]
.text:FFFF800001032CDE cmp [rsp+18h+arg_0], 0
.text:FFFF800001032CE4 jnz short loc_FFFF800001032D05
.text:FFFF800001032CE6 mov ecx, 0C0000100h
.text:FFFF800001032CEB rdmsr
.text:FFFF800001032CED shl rdx, 20h
.text:FFFF800001032CF1 or rax, rdx
.text:FFFF800001032CF4 mov rax, [rax+0F8h]
.text:FFFF800001032CFB mov rax, [rax+20h]
.text:FFFF800001032CFF mov [rsp+18h+var_18], rax
.text:FFFF800001032D03 jmp short loc_FFFF800001032D12
.text:FFFF800001032D05 ; -----
.text:FFFF800001032D05 loc_FFFF800001032D05: ; CODE XREF: ProcessGetName+24↑j
.text:FFFF800001032D05 mov rax, [rsp+18h+arg_0]
.text:FFFF800001032D0A mov rax, [rax+20h]
.text:FFFF800001032D0E mov [rsp+18h+var_18], rax
.text:FFFF800001032D12 loc_FFFF800001032D12: ; CODE XREF: ProcessGetName+43↑j
.text:FFFF800001032D12 mov rax, [rsp+18h+var_18]
.text:FFFF800001032D16 add rsp, 10h
.text:FFFF800001032D1A pop rdi
.text:FFFF800001032D1B retn
.text:FFFF800001032D1B ProcessGetName endp
.text:FFFF800001032D1B
00032CFB|FFFF800001032CFB: ProcessGetName+3B

```

Figure B.4: IDA disassembly near RIP

Figure B.5: *ProcessGetName()* References

the cursor on the name of the function and pressing **Shift + F12**.

From these 3 functions we can deduce that the one which actually called *ProcessGetName()* is *ProcessThreadInsertIntoList()* because the last thing logged before the exception is from *thread.c* line 184 which belongs to the *ThreadSystemInitMainForCurrentCPU()* function, which doesn't interact with the other 2 candidate functions.

Usually, at this point we can remember exactly (or look at the diffs in our source control system) to see what code changes we have made in this region.

In case this is not enough information we can also look at the stack dump from the end of the log to determine the call stack hierarchy. Addresses which begin with 0xFFFF85 correspond to dynamically allocated memory, so we only have to look at addresses which are of the form 0xFFFF8000010. These addresses belong either to code, or to data segments. This can be determined with 100% precision by looking at the PE, but because there are very few such addresses on the stack we can easily examine the position of each address using methods presented for WinDbg and IDA (In command and Jump To Address (G)).

If we go to 0xFFFF80000103330F we will see that we're in *ProcessInsertThreadInList()*, if we want to go further up the hierarchy we look for the next potential code address candidate. Once we find it, in our case 0xFFFF80000106AE90, we go to it and discover that the address belongs to *ThreadSystemInitMainForCurrentCPU()*.

The next candidates are 0xFFFF8000010EECA8 and 0xFFFF8000010EEC9C, however once we go to their addresses we will see that these are data values and not code. If we want more data dumped from the stack we can increase the value of *STACK_BYTES_TO_DUMP_ON* macro from *isr.c*, recompile HAL9000 and re-run the code.

B.5 Halt debugging

Sometimes you will have bugs in the early boot stages of the operating system. Unfortunately, until the interrupt handlers are setup every exception generated by the processor leads to a system reboot. This is because each exception generated leads to a double fault (#DF) because the interrupt handlers are not setup and there's nothing to handle the exception. The double fault can't be handled either and a triple fault is generated, a triple fault automatically reboots the system.

HAL9000 initializes the interrupt handlers in *InitIdtHandlers()* which is called by *SystemInit()* pretty early in the initialization stage (before the memory managers are initialized).

It is possible, due to bugs in the code, for the processor to generate triple faults in some situations even after the interrupt handlers have been setup. However this is very unlikely, if you have a triple fault it is very probable it is caused by the code executed before the call to *InitIdtHandlers()*.

If the problem occurs before the call to *SerialCommunicationInitialize()* it is impossible for you to log anything. The method I suggest for debugging these issues is by placing HLT instructions causing the processor's execution to stop.

Pick a place in HAL9000, insert a call to *__halt()*, recompile and run. There are two likely possibilities:

- The machine hangs without rebooting. If this happens, you know that the HLT instruction was reached and executed. That means that whatever caused the reboot must be after the place you inserted the HLT. Now move HLT later in the code sequence.
- The machine reboots in a loop. If this happens, you know that the machine didn't make it to the HLT instruction. Thus, whatever caused the reboot must be before the place you inserted the HLT instruction. Now move the HLT instruction earlier in the code sequence.

If you move around the HLT instruction in a "binary search" fashion, you can use this technique to pin down the exact spot that everything goes wrong. It should only take a few minutes at most.

NOTE: Instead of using the HLT instruction you could place an infinite loop as suggested in the Pintos documentation.

Appendix C

Development Tools

C.1 Setting Up the Environment for HAL9000

The following steps describe the setup required for configuring your development system to be able to run, build and test HAL9000 . Except the first 3 steps, and the last 3, all the other steps can be done automatically by running either the script *HAL9000_checkout.pl* (preferred, because it pulls all the latest changes from the HAL9000 repository) or *HAL9000_install.pl* (uses source files from *HAL9000_SRC.zip*, which might not be up to date). (see [C.1.1 \[Automatic Configuration\]](#)).

1. Download and install Visual Studio 2019 Community.
2. Download and install Active Perl x86.
3. Download and install VMWare workstation (**VMWare player will not good or other virtualization solutions are not good!**). You can download it from here and later activate it using your student license.
4. Unzip HAL9000 's source code, we will refer to the folder where you unzipped it as *PROJECT_ROOT_DIRECTORY*.
5. Find the install path of VMware Workstation. We will refer to VMware install folder as: *PATH_TO_VIX_TOOLS*. If VMware is installed in the default location it should be: *C:\ProgramFiles(x86)\VMware\VMwareWorkstation*
6. Unzip the two virtual machines HAL9000_VM and PXE_VM. We will refer to the folder where you unzipped the HAL9000_VM as *PATH_TO_HAL9000_VM*.
7. Unzip the PXE archive, we will refer to the folder where you unzipped the files as *PATH_TO_PXE*.

8. Open the HAL9000 VM and change its processor configuration so that the number of virtual CPUs given to the machine equals to the number of CPUs available on the physical machine.
9. Edit the *PROJECT_ROOT_DIRECTORY*/src/postbuild/paths.cmd file by adding the following lines before the ":end" label:

```
:config\_var{COMPUTER_NAME}

set PXE_PATH=\var{PATH_TO_PXE}
set PATH_TO_VM_DISK=\var{PATH_TO_HAL9000_VM}\HAL9000.vmdk
set PATH_TO_VIX_TOOLS=\var{PATH_TO_VIX_TOOLS}
set PATH_TO_LOG_FILE=\var{PATH_TO_HAL9000_VM}\HAL9000.log
set PATH_TO_VM_FILE=\var{PATH_TO_HAL9000_VM}\HAL9000.vmx

goto end
```

And the following line after "if _%COMPUTERNAME%_==_ALEX-PC_ goto config_ALEX-PC" :

```
if _%COMPUTERNAME%_==_\var{COMPUTER_NAME}_ goto config\_var{COMPUTER_NAME}
```

Where the \raw variables must be replaced with the proper paths as mentioned in the configuration steps.

10. Open the virtual machines as described in [C.1.2 \[Opening the virtual machines\]](#).
11. Enable shared folder as described in [C.1.3 \[Enabling shared folder in the PXE virtual machine\]](#).
12. Create a new virtual network as described in [C.1.4 \[Virtual Network Creation\]](#).

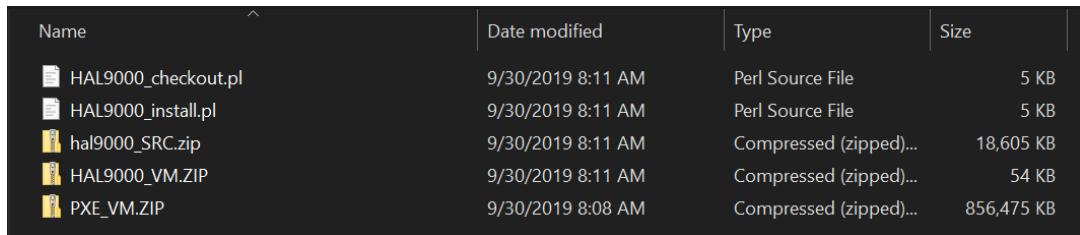
C.1.1 Automatic Configuration

Because of the many steps involved in the configuration of the project, we wrote two perl installation scripts which handle all the configuration steps except the first 3 and the last 3.

Unfortunately we haven't been able to automate those steps so you'll have to do them manually.

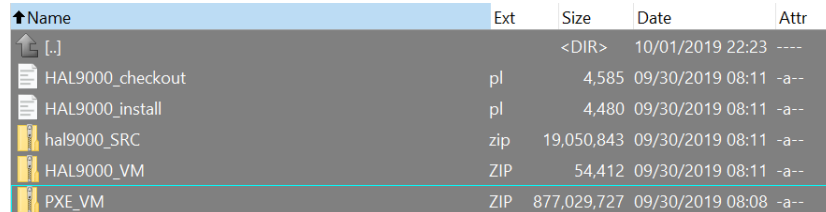
These two scripts are *HAL9000_checkout.pl* and *HAL9000_install.pl*.

Use ***HAL9000_checkout.pl***, which pulls the latest source files from the HAL9000 repository. *HAL9000_install.pl* takes the source files from *HAL9000_SRC.zip* (which might be outdated if we do not update them).



Name	Date modified	Type	Size
HAL9000_checkout.pl	9/30/2019 8:11 AM	Perl Source File	5 KB
HAL9000_install.pl	9/30/2019 8:11 AM	Perl Source File	5 KB
hal9000_SRC.zip	9/30/2019 8:11 AM	Compressed (zipped)...	18,605 KB
HAL9000_VM.ZIP	9/30/2019 8:11 AM	Compressed (zipped)...	54 KB
PXE_VM.ZIP	9/30/2019 8:08 AM	Compressed (zipped)...	856,475 KB

Figure C.1: Folder structure for automatic configuration (File Explorer)



Name	Ext	Size	Date	Attr
[.]		<DIR>	10/01/2019 22:23	----
HAL9000_checkout	pl	4,585	09/30/2019 08:11	-a--
HAL9000_install	pl	4,480	09/30/2019 08:11	-a--
hal9000_SRC	zip	19,050,843	09/30/2019 08:11	-a--
HAL9000_VM	ZIP	54,412	09/30/2019 08:11	-a--
PXE_VM	ZIP	877,029,727	09/30/2019 08:08	-a--

Figure C.2: Folder structure for automatic configuration (Total Commander)

Once you completed the first two steps you should download each archive described in the configuration step and place them so that the folder layout looks like [Figure C.1 \[Folder structure for automatic configuration \(File Explorer\)\]](#) or [Figure C.2 \[Folder structure for automatic configuration \(Total Commander\)\]](#).

You can run the chosen script without any parameters and the script will extract all the archives in a HAL9000 directory which it will create in the current directory. The script will do all the configuration steps described in steps 4 to 9 (inclusive).

To run a perl script, open a Command Prompt window, navigate to the directory shown in [Figure C.1 \[Folder structure for automatic configuration \(File Explorer\)\]](#) and type `perl HAL9000_checkout.pl`.

Once the script finishes execution, you need to continue the configuration manually with [C.1.2 \[Opening the virtual machines\]](#).

C.1.2 Opening the virtual machines

You need to open the two virtual machines in VMware Workstation. To do this, navigate to the VM\PXE folder and double click on the `PXE.vmx` file - choose the default program as VMWare workstation if a popup appears. If VMware prompts you if the VM was copied or moved, select "I copied it". Do the same with VM\HAL9000_VM\HAL9000.vmx.

C.1.3 Enabling shared folder in the PXE virtual machine

Shared folders should be enabled in the PXE virtual machine so that it can grab the binary of HAL9000. VMware will disable shared folders when the PXE virtual machine is started for the

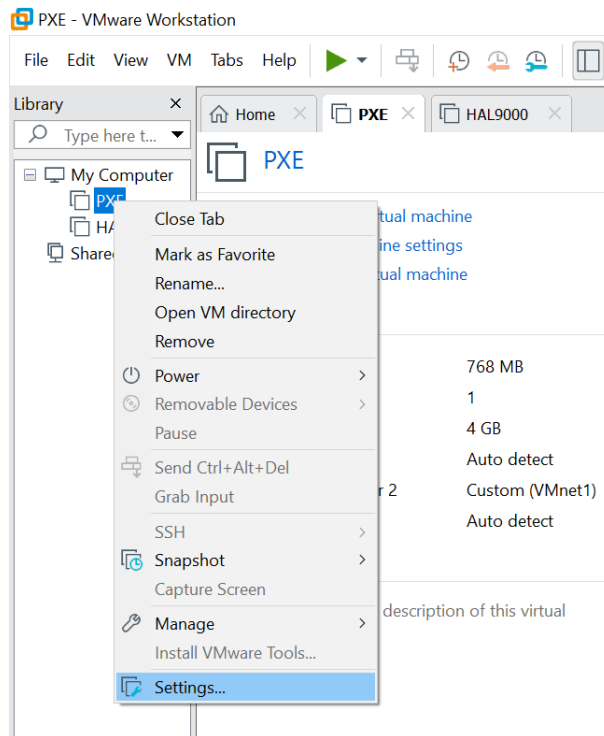


Figure C.3: PXE virtual machine settings

first time, so you have to do the following:

1. Start the PXE VM and wait for it to boot to the log in screen (you are not required to log in).
2. Enable shared folders from the settings of VMware as shown in [Figure C.3 \[PXE virtual machine settings\]](#) and [Figure C.4 \[Enabling shared folder\]](#).
3. Reset/Restart the PXE VM so that the changes take effect.

C.1.4 Virtual Network Creation

A host-only virtual network must be configured before to be able to perform a PXE boot. The following steps must be followed:

1. Open VMWare workstation and in the *Edit* menu choose the *Virtual Network Editor* option as shown in [Figure C.5 \[Edit -> Virtual Network Editor\]](#).
2. Once in the *Virtual Network Editor* click *Change Settings*.
3. Click *Add Network...* and select *VMnet1* as the network to add. See [Figure C.6 \[Add new network\]](#).

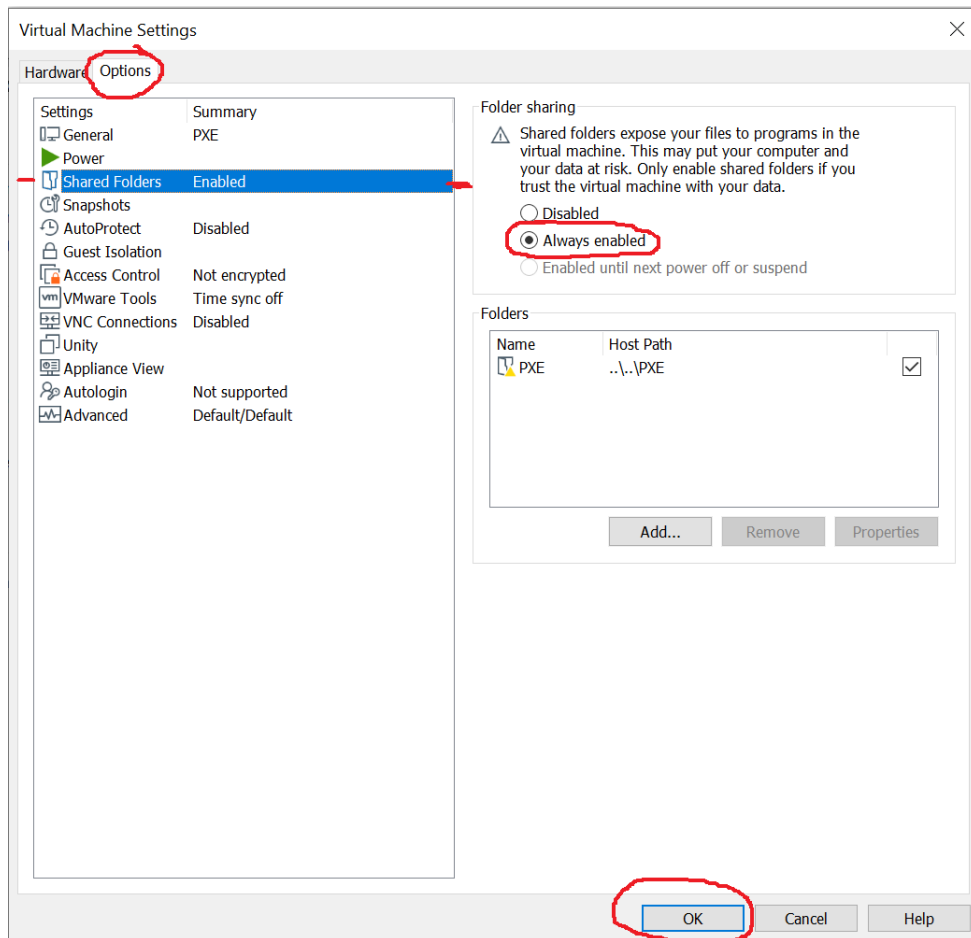


Figure C.4: Enabling shared folder

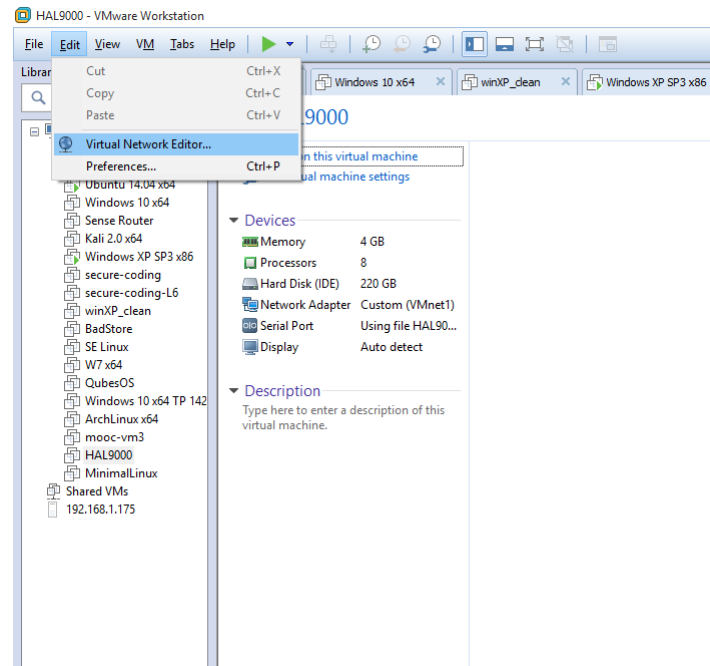


Figure C.5: Edit -> Virtual Network Editor

4. Once you added a new network select it as configure it as a *Host-only* network, check the *Connect a host virtual adapter to this network* option and un-check the *Use local DHCP service to distribute IP address to VMs* option. Write in the *Subnet IP* field 192.168.224.0 and set the *Subnet mask* to 255.255.255.0. This is illustrated in [Figure C.7 \[VMnet1 Configuration\]](#)

C.1.5 System Architecture

The final architecture after you have successfully configured your system should look like the one illustrated in [Figure C.8 \[System Architecture\]](#).

You will have a virtual network called *VMnet1* with network IP 192.168.224.0, subnet 255.255.255.0 and DHCP on host disabled.

You will have a PXE VM connected on VMnet1 which will host a DHCP and TFTP server and has a static IP assigned to 192.168.224.2. This VM has access to a shared folder from the host operating system from which it will supply the boot image to the HAL9000 VM for network boot through PXE.

You will have a HAL9000 VM which is connected to VMnet1 and which will boot from the network. On boot PXE VM will provide the boot image and the OS will be automatically loaded and started. All the messages logged by HAL9000 VM will be written into the *HAL9000.log* file on the host machine.

You will have a Visual Studio solution which will hold many projects, 2 of which

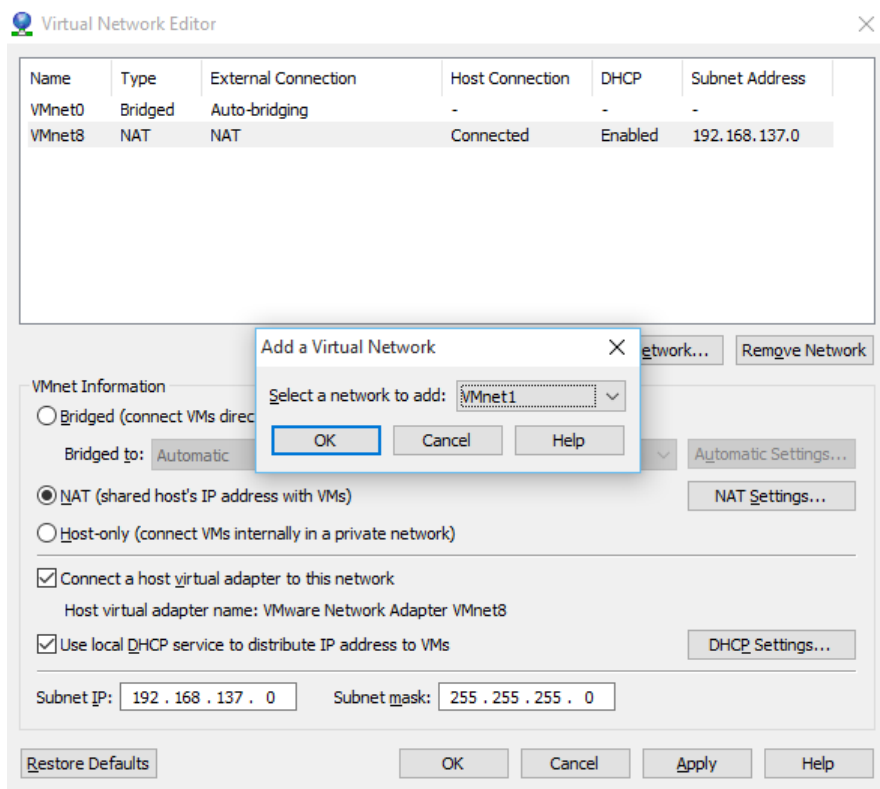


Figure C.6: Add new network

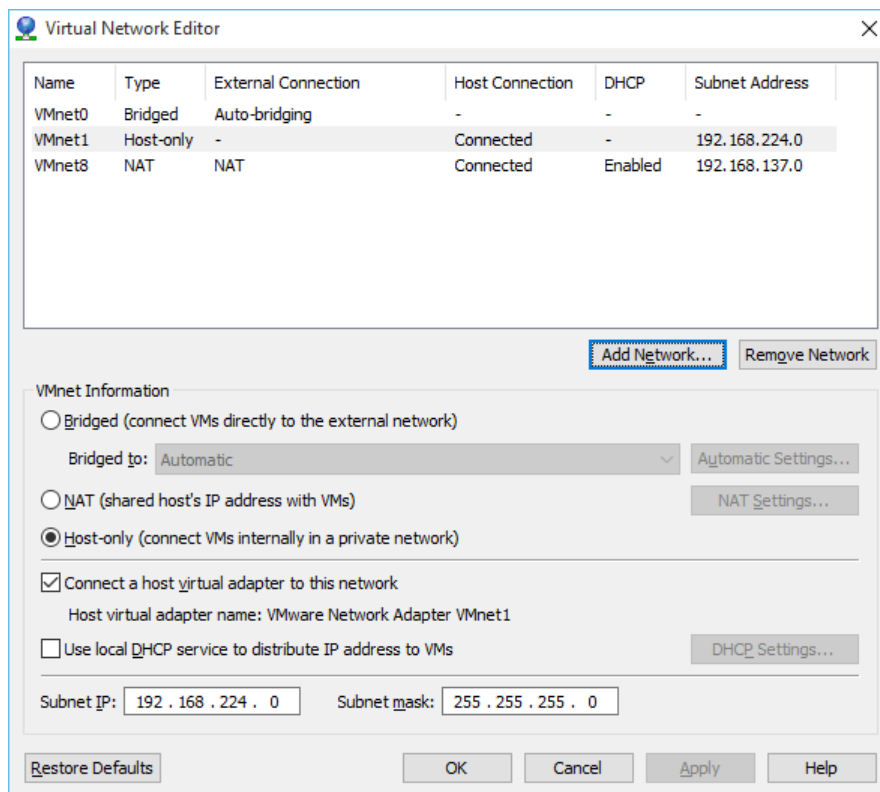


Figure C.7: VMnet1 Configuration

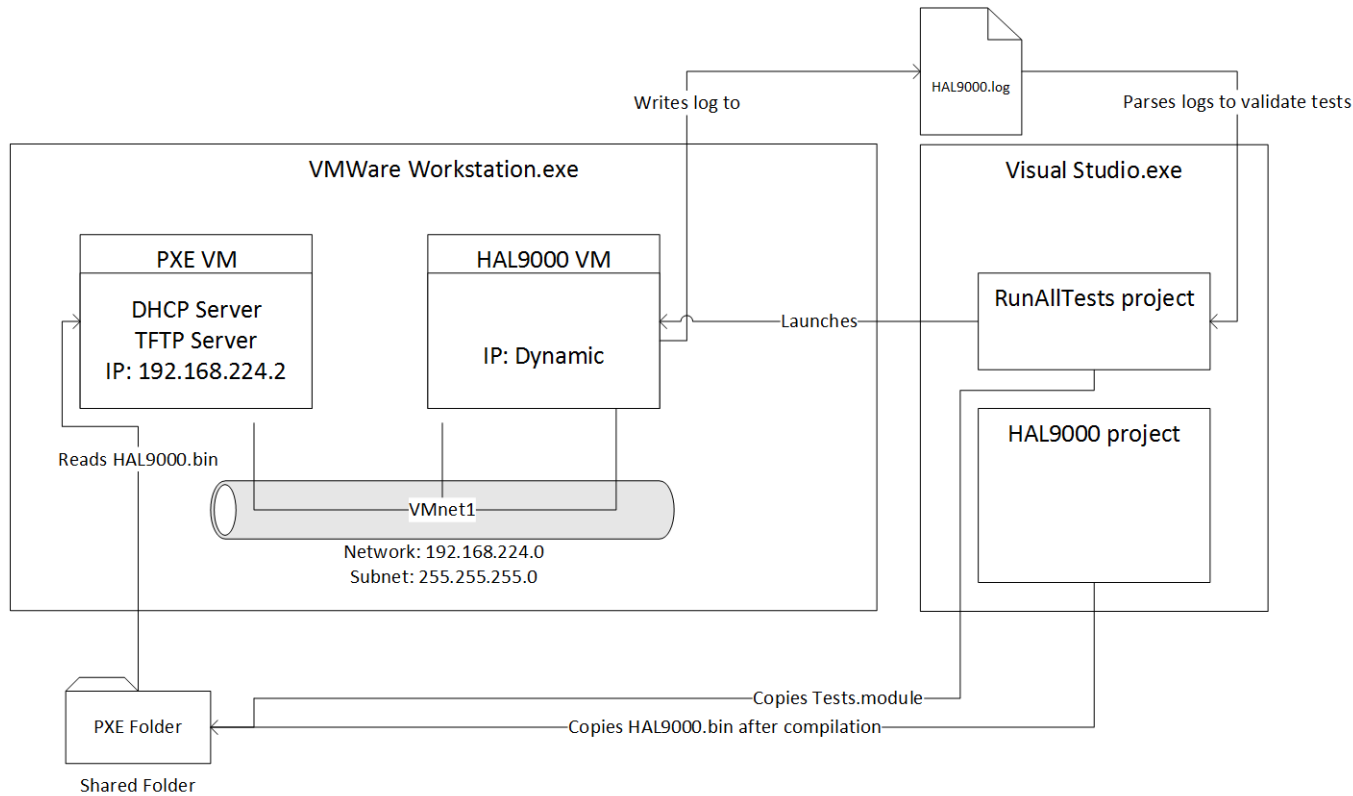


Figure C.8: System Architecture

are very important:

- The HAL9000 project: upon successful build the binary is copied to the PXE shared folder so the PXE VM will be able to instantly provide the new image to the HAL9000 VM.
- RunAllTests project: copies the Tests.module file to the PXE share and starts the HAL9000 VM. The .module file is the one which tells the HAL9000 operating system which tests it needs to run and validate.

After the HAL9000 VM has finished execution the log file, *HAL9000.log*, will be parsed by the project and the results of each test and a summary will be displayed.

C.1.6 Troubleshooting

HAL9000 VM not receiving an IP

If you're in the situation illustrated in [Figure C.9 \[DHCP fail\]](#) it means you are not receiving an IP address. The reason is one of the following:

```
Network boot from Intel E1000e
Copyright (C) 2003-2014 VMware, Inc.
Copyright (C) 1997-2000 Intel Corporation

CLIENT MAC ADDR: 00 0C 29 E9 3C 88  GUID: 564DE148-D926-D541-C40E-592DD5E93C88
PXE-E51: No DHCP or proxyDHCP offers were received.

PXE-M0F: Exiting Intel PXE ROM.
-
```

Figure C.9: DHCP fail

- VMnet1 is not configured properly. It is important to use the IP and subnet addresses specified in [C.1.4 \[Virtual Network Creation\]](#).
- HAL9000 VM is not connected to VMnet1. You can check this by going to the virtual machine, *Edit virtual machine settings* -> *Hardware* -> *Network Adapter* and make sure the network selected is Custom: VMnet1. Also make sure *Connect at power on* is checked for the network adapter.
- PXE VM is not connected to VMnet1. Apply the same steps as if HAL9000 VM was not connected to VMnet1.
- PXE VM is not turned on.

HAL9000 VM TFTP open timeout

If you're in the situation illustrated in [Figure C.10 \[TFTP fail\]](#) it means the TFTP folder is not accessible to the PXE VM.

This is probably caused by the fact that the shared folders are disabled for the PXE VM. To fix the problem power off the PXE VM and go to *Edit virtual machine settings* -> *Options* -> *Shared Folders* and make sure *Always Enabled* is checked. Re-start the PXE VM and the problem should be solved.

HAL9000 VM boot file not found

If you're in the situation illustrated in [Figure C.11 \[File not found\]](#) it means that the shared PXE folder is missing the HAL9000.bin file. The following reasons are most probable:

```
Network boot from Intel E1000e
Copyright (C) 2003-2014 VMware, Inc.
Copyright (C) 1997-2000 Intel Corporation

CLIENT MAC ADDR: 00 0C 29 E9 3C 88  GUID: 564DE148-D926-D541-C40E-592DD5E93C88
CLIENT IP: 192.168.224.208  MASK: 255.255.255.0  DHCP IP: 192.168.224.2
PXE-E32: TFTP open timeout
TFTP._
```

Figure C.10: TFTP fail

```
CLIENT IP: 192.168.224.208  MASK: 255.255.255.0  DHCP IP: 192.168.224.2
PXE->EB: !PXE at 9E4E:0070, entry point at 9E4E:0106
        UNDI code segment 9E4E:0BD2, data segment 98B8:5960 (610-637kB)
        UNDI device is PCI 0B:00.0, type DIX+002.3
        610kB free base memory after PXE unload
gPXE initialising devices...

gPXE 1.0.1 -- Open Source Boot Firmware -- http://etherboot.org
Features: AoE HTTP iSCSI DNS TFTP bzImage COMBOOT ELF Multiboot NBI PXE PXEXT

net0: 00:0c:29:e9:3c:88 on UNDI (open)
  [Link:up, TX:0 TXE:0 RX:0 RXE:0]
DHCP (net0 00:0c:29:e9:3c:88)... ok
net0: 192.168.224.208/255.255.255.0
Booting from filename "/gpxe.pxe"
tftp://192.168.224.2//gpxe.pxe. ok
Tests.module. ok
HAL9000.bin. File not found (0x2d12603b)
Could not fetch HAL9000.bin: File not found (0x2d12603b)
Could not boot from filename "/gpxe.pxe": File not found (0x2d12603b)
No more network devices

Press Ctrl-B for the gPXE command line..._
```

Figure C.11: File not found

- HAL9000 project compilation failed. Make sure you successfully compiled your project. Rebuild the HAL9000 project to be sure.
- You may have skipped some configuration steps and because of this the HAL9000 project does not copy the output file to the PXE folder. Take a look in the PXE folder and see if a file appears after you successfully compiled HAL9000, if it does not go back to [C.1 \[Setting Up the Environment for HAL9000\]](#) and try to figure out what configuration step you've skipped.

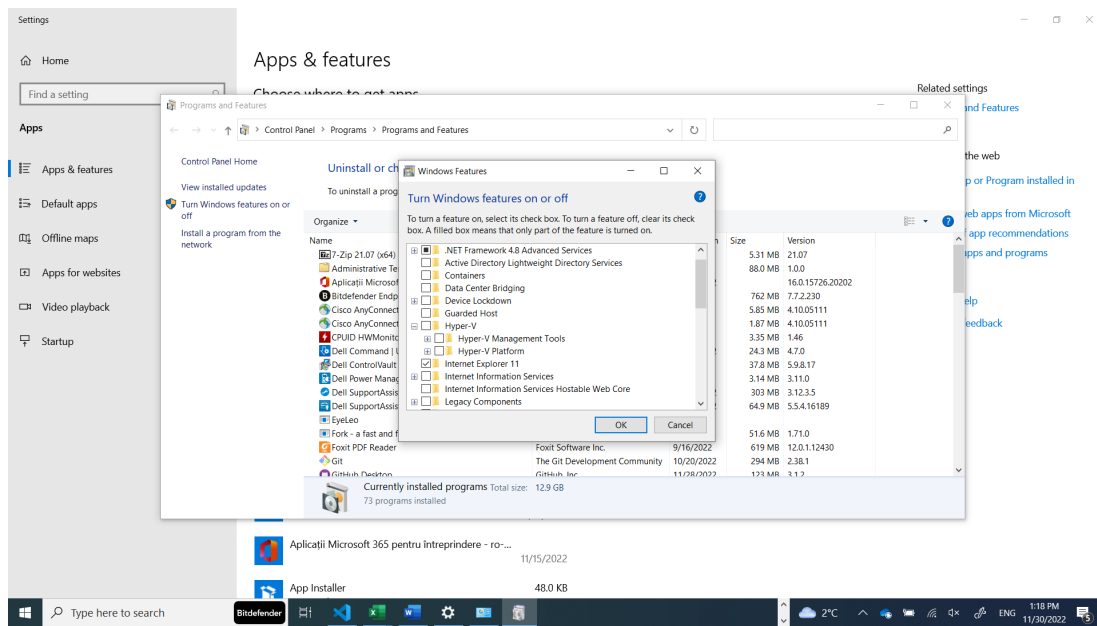


Figure C.12: Turning off Hyper-V for (possibly) making HAL9000 VM faster

HAL9000 Testing VM Boots Very Slow

It is possible in some situations to note that the HAL9000 testing virtual machine to boot very slow, up to the point to consider it not starting at all. As long as we experienced something like this, we found out to be a problem of the VMware Workstation running on a Windows with virtualization features enabled. Some newer version of VMware Workstation are design to work correctly over Hyper-V, but some (older) not.

One solution we found to work for such a problem was to disable Hyper-V. One way to do this is from the Windows user interface: (1) press the “Windows” button, (2) choose the “Settings” option, (3) search for the “Add or remove programs” page, (4) choose “Program and Features” option (right side of the page), (5) choose “Turn Windows features on or off” (left side of the page), (6) uncheck the “Hyper-V” feature.

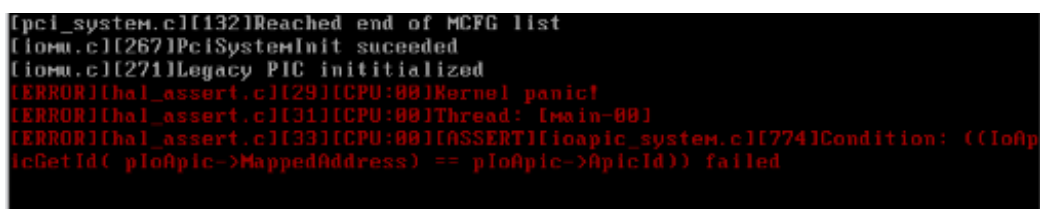
Figure C.12 illustrates some of the steps described above. After disabling Hyper-V Windows’ feature, you must reboot your computer, for the effects to take place.

An alternative for disabling Hyper-V from the graphical UI is from the command line. In the command line window, you can give the following command:

```
bcdedit hypervisorlaunchtype off
```

Linker error LNK1181 because not finding library CommonLib

This is mainly because of different configurations of different projects in the HAL9000 Visual Studio solution. Just take a look at the reported error message to identify the project where the library was not found during linkage phase. Then right click on that



```
[pci_system.c][132]Reached end of MCFF list
[iommu.c][267]PciSystemInit succeeded
[iommu.c][271]Legacy PIC initialized
[ERROR][hal_assert.c][129][CPU:00]Kernel panic!
[ERROR][hal_assert.c][131][CPU:00]Thread: [main-00]
[ERROR][hal_assert.c][133][CPU:00][ASSERT][ioapic_system.c][774]Condition: ((IoApicGetId( pIoApic->MappedAddress) == pIoApic->ApicId)) failed
```

Figure C.13: IOApic Error

project in the solution explorer panel and open the “Properties” of that project. Go to the “Linker” option and check in the “Input” panel that CommonLib is indeed needed and then in the “General” panel which are the “Additional Library Directories” (open the drop-down list of that option’s value and choose “Edit”). Look for the one where CommonLib.lib is searched in (normally it contains the commonlib name in its path) and identify the value of “ConfigurationName” parameter (e.g. Debug). It could be helpful for this to look comparatively in the “Evaluated value” text box of the “Additional Library Directories” window. After identifying the configuration of the needed CommonLib (and correspondingly the directory where it is searched for) right click on the HAL9000 solution (in the solution explorer) and choose “Configuration Manager ...” option. Change the configuration of CommonLib project to the needed one and save the changes. Then, right click the CommonLib project, and choose “Project only / Rebuild only CommonLib” option. Then Build the entire solution again. Now, it everything should work just fine,

IOApic Related Error

When running your testing VM, it is possible to be reported something like what Figure C.13 illustrates.

This could be because you configured your VM with more than 8 cores. Current implementation of HAL9000 does not support more than 8 logical processors, so just change your VM’s configuration to have at most 8 cores (e.g. 1 or 2 processors with max 4 cores).

Build Errors Related to vsyasm

Sometimes it is possible to experience a build error like the following one:

```
The command "D:\HAL9000\hal9000\src\..\tools\vsyasm\vsyasm.exe"
-Xvc -f x64
-o "D:\HAL9000\hal9000\src\..\temp\x64\Debug\HAL\\"
-rnasm -pnasm -f x64
-X vc src\_exports.yasm"
exited with code -1073741515.
```

In order to fix the problem, try to install the 64 bit (x64, not i64) version of several Visual Studio C++ redistributable packages, like:

1. Microsoft Visual C++ 2008 Redistributable: <https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/download/details.aspx?id=26368>
2. Microsoft Visual C++ 2010 Redistributable: <https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/download/details.aspx?id=26999>
3. Microsoft Visual C++ 2012 Redistributable: <https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/download/details.aspx?id=30679>

C.2 Visual Studio

Before starting work in visual studio (VS) we **RECOMMEND** that you install the Visual Assist [17] extension. It is a very handy tool which enhances your IDE experience and helps you write better and faster code.

Now, that you've setup your environment as described in [C.1 \[Setting Up the Environment for HAL9000\]](#) we can now get down to business. To open the project in VS you need to go to the HAL9000/*src* folder and open the *HAL9000.sln* file.

This will open the HAL9000 VS project and you will see something like [Figure C.14 \[HAL9000 Solution\]](#) in front of you. This is because the solution contains many more smaller projects, some of these projects are the HAL9000 project (the core itself), the hardware abstraction layer, drivers, user applications and other utilities. You can see a basic description of the projects in [1.2.2 \[Source Tree Overview\]](#).

Each project is in turn divided into filters, for example in the HAL9000 project we can see the following filters: *Header Files*, *Source Files* and we can go deeper in the hierarchy. For example, we can go through the *Source Files* -> *devices* -> *apic* filter to see the files responsible for managing the IOAPIC and the LAPIC. At first it may seem cumbersome to navigate the project this way, but the files are organized logically (by component) and once you learn where each functionality is it will be easy for you to navigate through the project.

Other tips for easy navigation can be found in [C.2.1 \[Keyboard Shortcuts\]](#).

C.2.1 Keyboard Shortcuts

- By pressing "CTRL + ," a search bar appears on your top right and you will be able to search symbols (functions and variables), data definitions and files dynamically while typing. This searches through external projects and dependencies as well.
- By pressing "ALT + SHIFT + S" a find symbol box opens and you can search only for symbols. **NOTE: This is only available with Visual Assist.**
- By pressing "ALT + SHIFT + O" you can type the file name to which you want to jump to. **NOTE: This is only available with Visual Assist.**

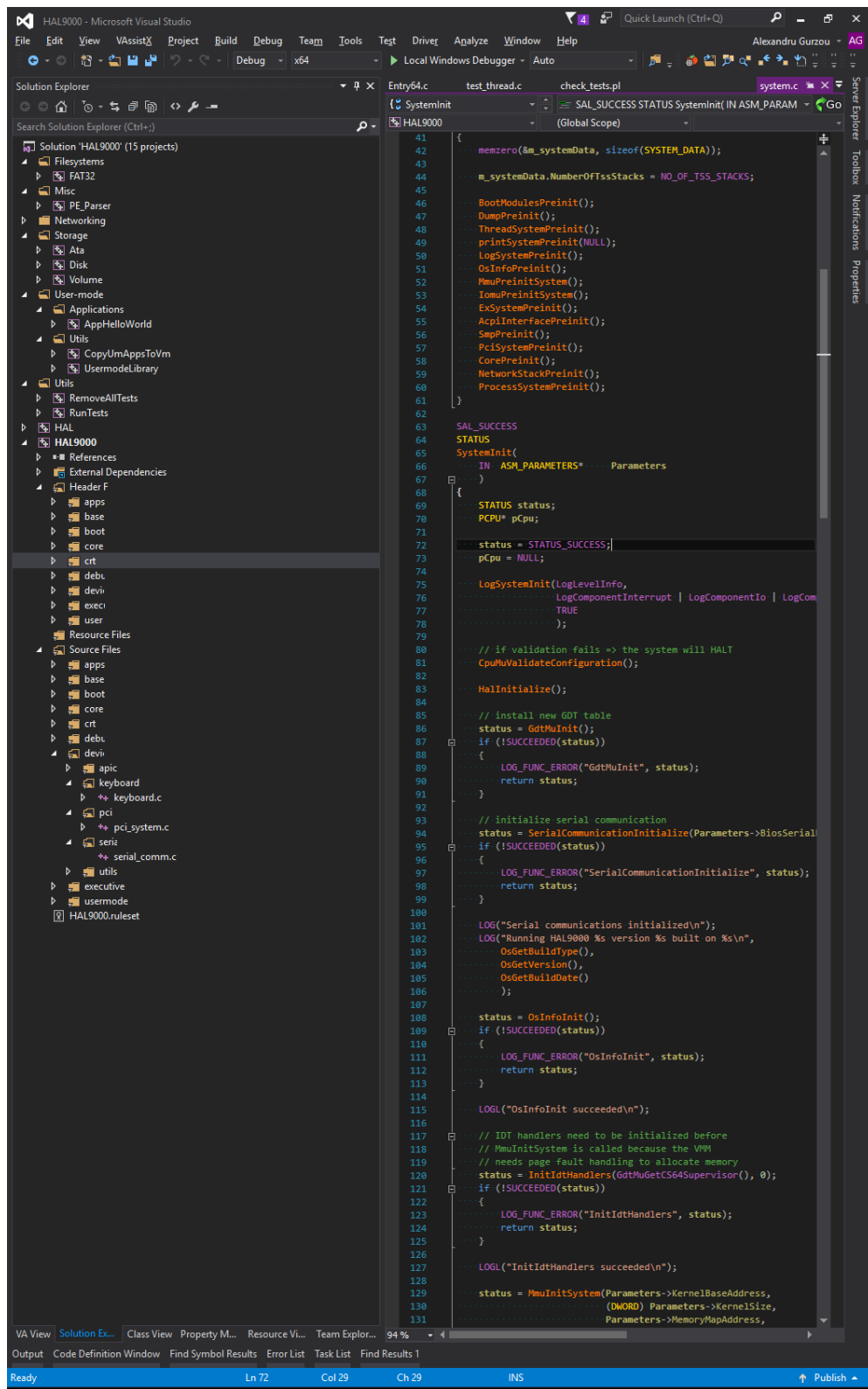


Figure C.14: HAL9000 Solution

- By pressing "ALT + SHIFT + F" while a symbol, data structure or definition is selected a smart search will occur and all its references will be displayed. **NOTE: This is only available with Visual Assist.**
- By pressing "ALT + SHIFT + R" while a symbol, data structure or definition is selected you can change its name and all the instances will reflect its new name - smart search and replace. **NOTE: This is only available with Visual Assist.**
- By pressing "ALT + M" while in a file a drop-down will appear listing all the symbols defined in this file. **NOTE: This is only available with Visual Assist.**
- By Pressing "ALT + G" (with Visual Assist) or "F12" on a function you can either go to its declaration or its implementation. **NOTE: The Visual Assist option usually works better.**
- By pressing "CTRL + G" while in a file you can jump to any line.
- By pressing "ALT + O" while in a file you can toggle between the .h and the .c file. For example if you're in the thread.c file and press ALT + O you will be in the thread.h file, press it again and you'll return to the c file.
- By pressing "CTRL + SHIFT + F" you can launch a text search in the whole solution, project or files whose names follow a certain pattern.
- By pressing "CTRL + F" you can perform a text search the current file.

C.2.2 Check the platform toolset

To check the platform toolset with which HAL9000 was built, do the following steps:

1. Open HAL9000 project properties, as shown in [Figure C.15 \[HAL9000 properties\]](#)
2. Navigate to **Configuration Properties** → **General** → **Platform Toolset** and read the platform toolset version, as shown in [Figure C.16 \[Platform Toolset\]](#)

C.2.3 Set the platform toolset

To set the platform toolset for all projects in the solution, do the following steps:

1. Select all the projects using **Ctrl + click** and go to **Properties** as shown in [Figure C.17 \[Properties\]](#)
2. Navigate to **Configuration Properties** → **General** → **Platform Toolset** and select the desired platform toolset, then click Apply and Ok, as shown in [Figure C.18 \[Set the Platform Toolset\]](#). If you cannot find the desired platform toolset in the dropdown list, you have to install it (see [C.2.4 \[Install the desired platform toolset\]](#)).

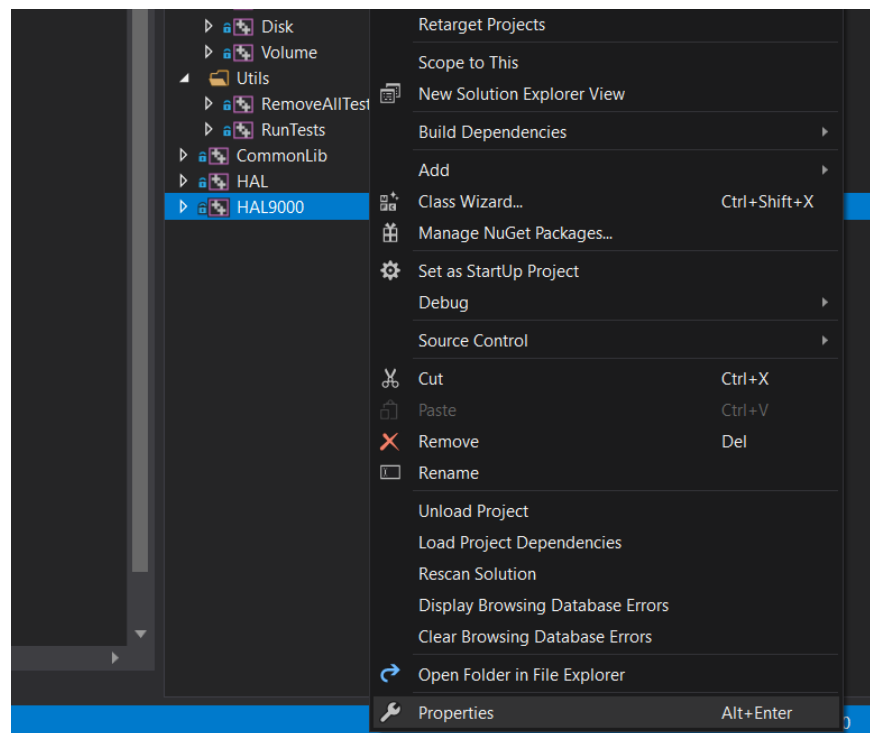


Figure C.15: HAL9000 properties

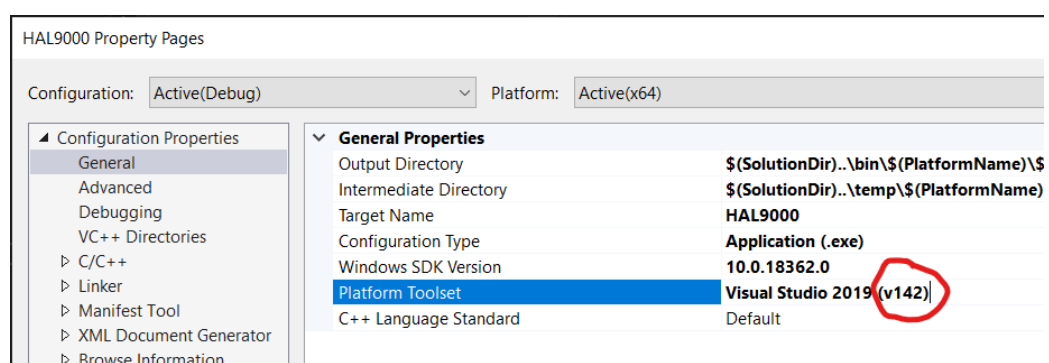


Figure C.16: Platform Toolset

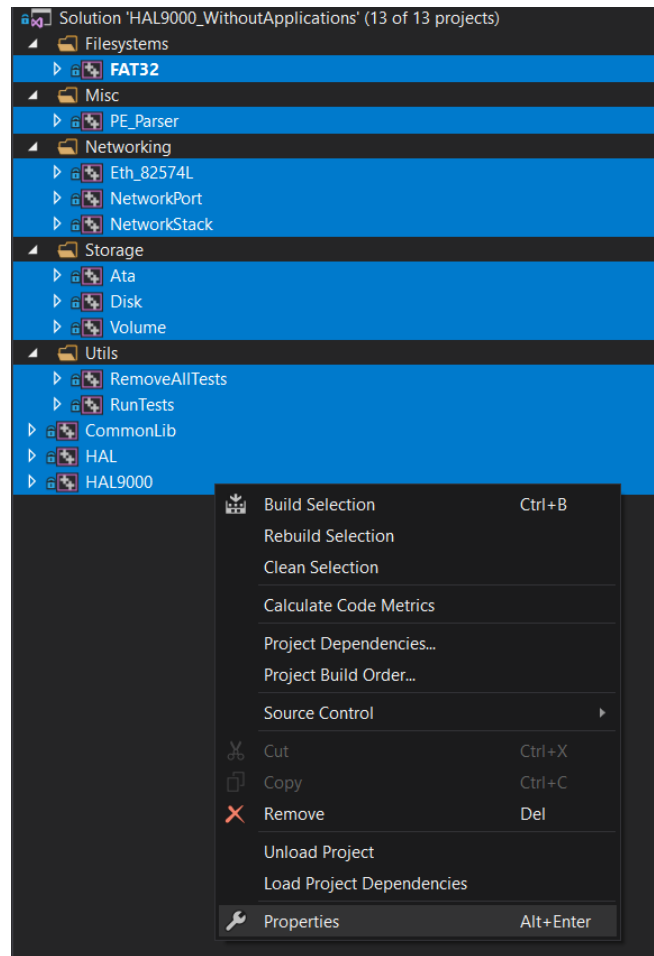


Figure C.17: Properties

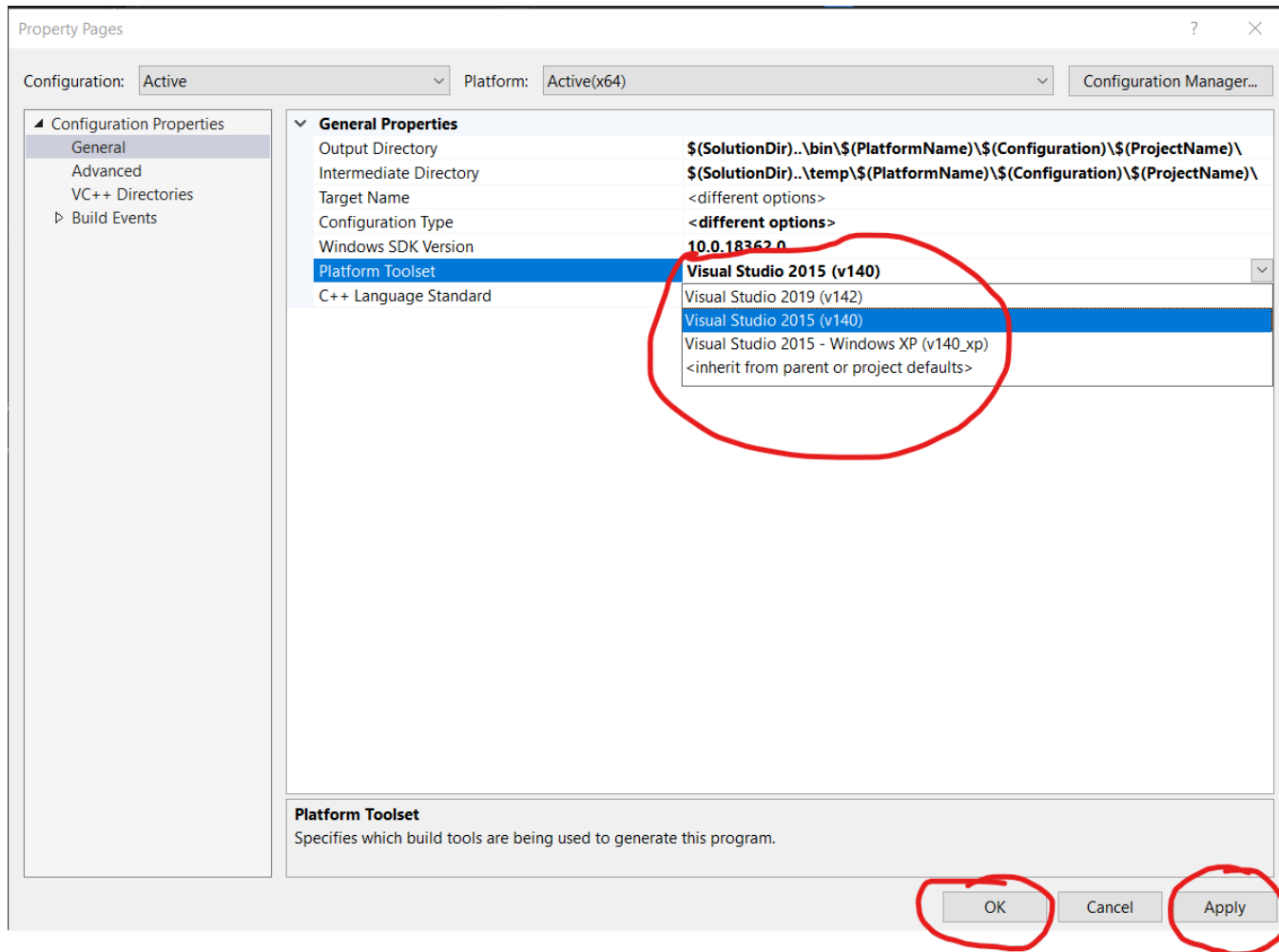


Figure C.18: Set the Platform Toolset

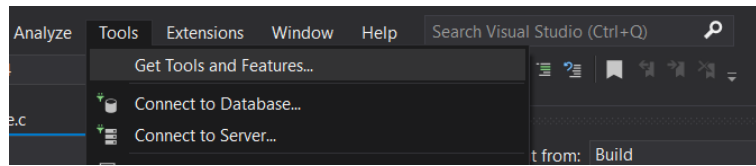


Figure C.19: Get Tools and Features...

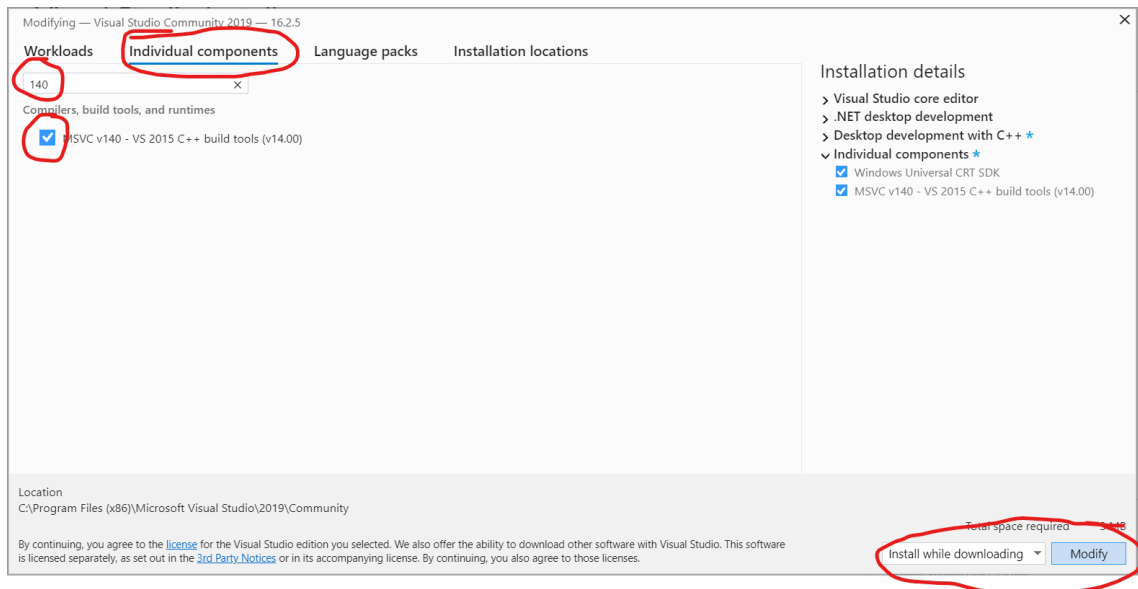


Figure C.20: Install Platform Toolset

C.2.4 Install the desired platform toolset

To install a platform toolset version, do the following steps:

1. In Visual Studio, go to **Tools** → **Get Tools and Features...**, as shown in [Figure C.19 \[Get Tools and Features..\]](#).
2. The Visual Studio Installer should have opened. Click on **Individual components**, enter the version of platform toolset that you want to install, check the checkbox and click **Modify**, as shown in [Figure C.20 \[Install Platform Toolset\]](#).

C.3 Hg

It's crucial that you use a source code control system to manage your HAL9000 code. This will allow you to keep track of your changes and coordinate changes made by different people in the project. For this class we recommend that you use hg [12]. If you don't already know how to use hg, we recommend that you read the guide at hginit.

For hosting your project we recommend that you use Bitbucket [18]. You can use any hosting site you like as long as the project repository is a private one, i.e. it is not visible to any users outside your team (and maybe your TA).

C.4 Git

C.4.1 Why do I need it?

We strongly recommend using Git for versioning your code. If you chose to do so, it is really important that your repo in the cloud is **private** because we don't want the HAL9000 source code leaked. Here are some reasons why you should use Git:

- The laboratories are designed in such a way that you can start each lab (with some exceptions) from a clean HAL9000 solution (one that does not include any of your modifications). If you don't use versioning, you will start each lab where you left off the lab before and your code might contain bugs that will not let you finish the current lab activity.
- There are some laboratories that require you to use code that was written in previous laboratories. With version control, it is easy to solve this problem. Supposing that you need the changes from a branch named **lab3** in order to implement **lab4**, you have the following options:
 - Create a new branch **lab4** starting from branch **lab3**. Then, **lab4** will have from the start all the changes that are in **lab3**
 - Create a new branch **lab4** starting from branch **master** and merge **lab3** into **lab4**.
 - Create a new branch **lab4** starting from branch **master** and cherry-pick specific commits (in case you don't need everything from the previous lab)
- When preparing for the lab exam, by using a separate branch for each lab you can clearly see what were the code changes needed to solve a given lab activity.
- If you create a **private** repository on github/bitbucket and push your changes there, you will have your code backed up.
- During each lab activity, you can commit code snippets that you think are correct. If you later add some changes and discover that they are not needed, you don't have to delete them manually, as you have the following ways to deal with them:
 - if the bad changes are not committed, you can reset the branch to the latest commit

- if the bad changes are in the last commit, you can reset the branch to an earlier commit
- if the bad changes are in an older commit that is followed by good commits, you can revert the bad commit or you can use interactive rebase to drop the bad commit
- At the end of each lab you can generate a **git diff** which will contain your source code changes for that laboratory.
- It might happen that we will update the HAL9000 source code during the semester. If you use version control, it is really easy to apply our latest changes. The methods are:
 - you can change the remote repo back to the one that was initially cloned, pull the master branch, then reset the remote repo to your private repo and rebase your branches on master so that they contain our changes
 - you can add another remote to your local repo. This way all your local branches other than master can track your remote branch, but your local master branch can track the remote repo that was initially cloned. This way you can easily rebase your branches on top of master
 - you can create a fork of the main repo (only possible on Bitbucket since our repository is set to allow only private forks), the mechanism of keeping up to date is nearly the same, you update the master from the fork, and rebase your branches or cherry-pick the changes to them

C.4.2 Installing Git

Download Git from here.



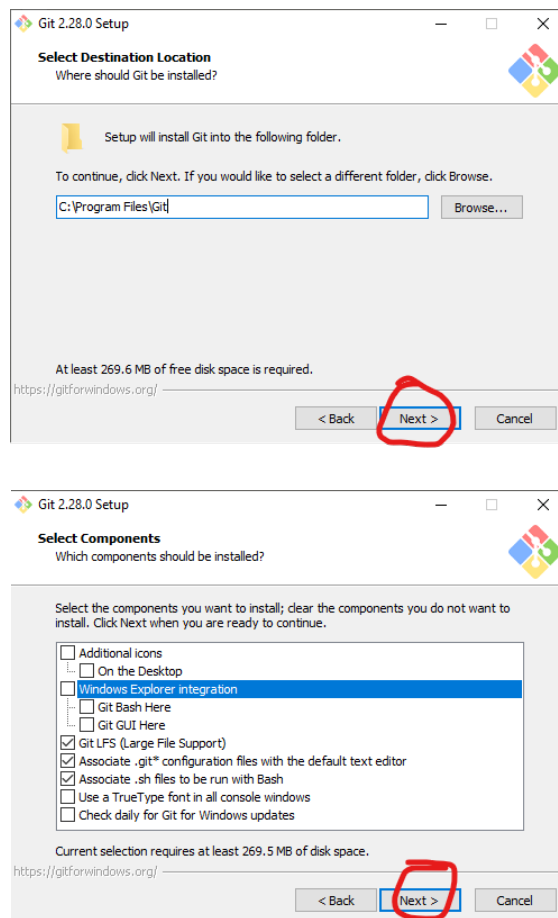


Figure C.21: You can check the *Git Bash Here* and *Git GUI Here* options if you want to, but git can be used from Command Prompt perfectly well.

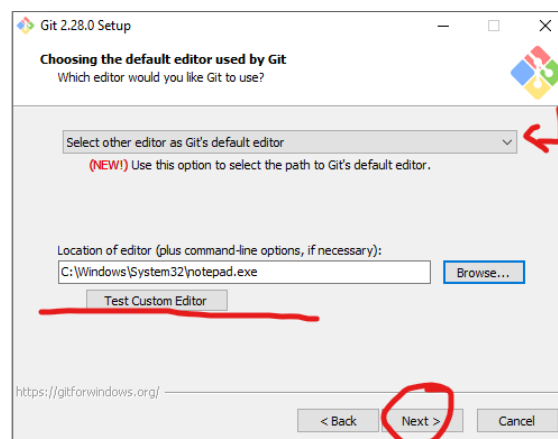
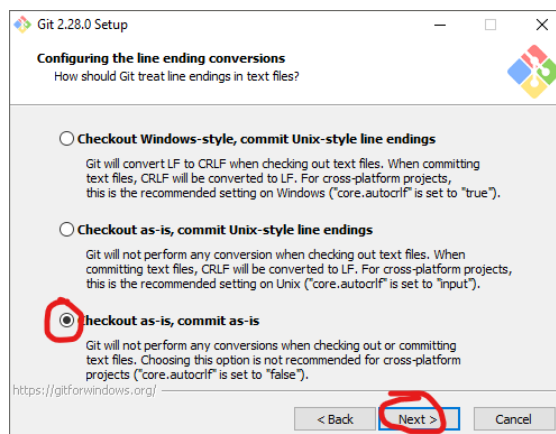
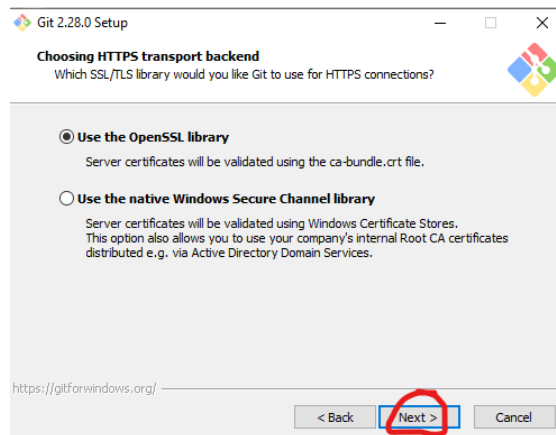
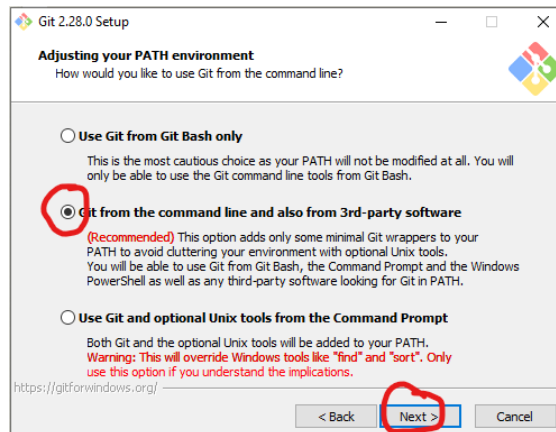
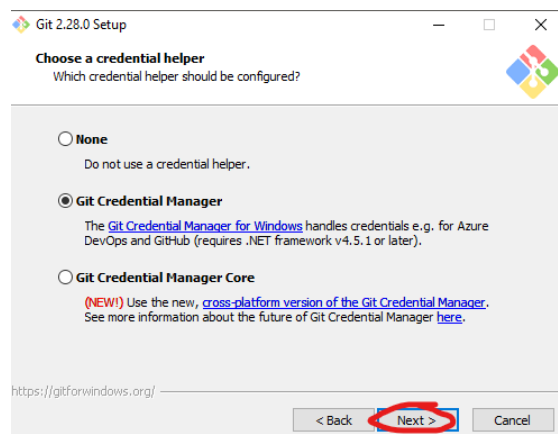
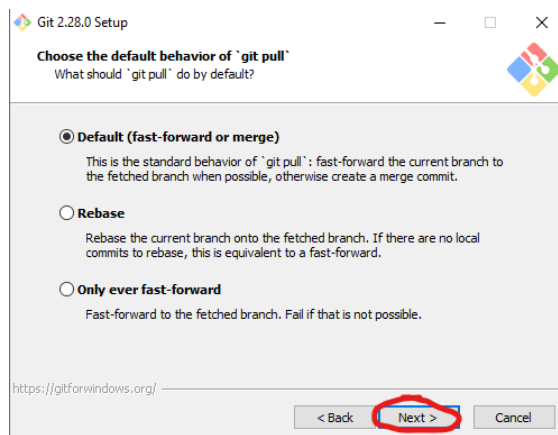
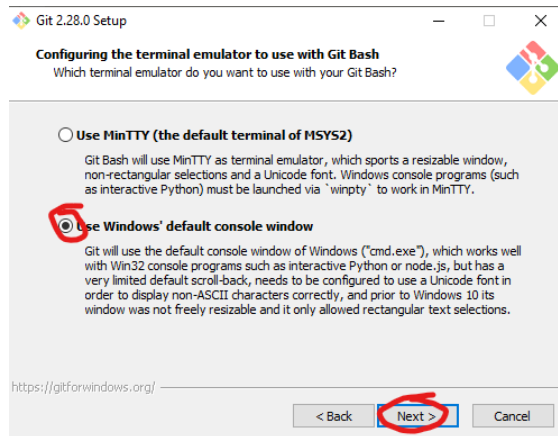
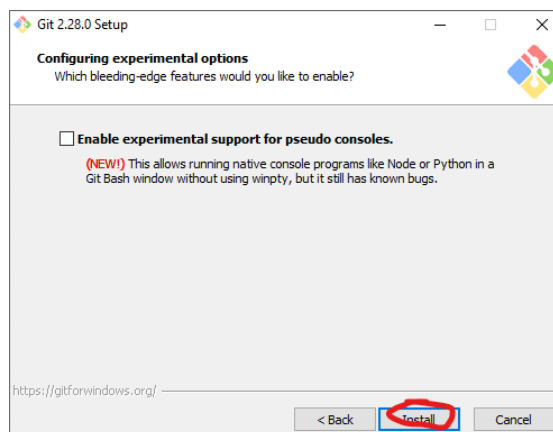
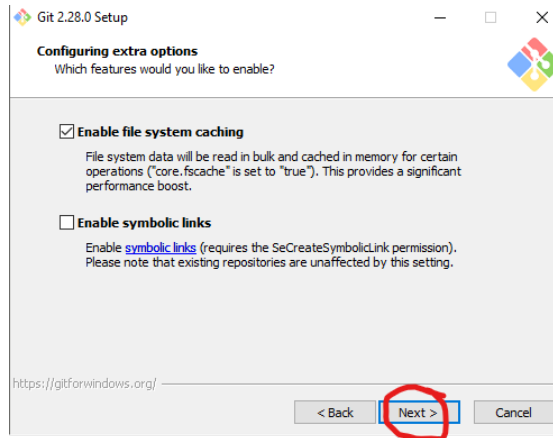


Figure C.22: You can choose your favorite text editor from the dropdown list or try add a custom one.







C.4.3 Examples

Create a new repository [Import repository](#)

Workspace* Select workspace ▼

Repository name* hal_test

Access level ☒ **Private repository**
Uncheck to make this repository public. Public repositories typically contain open-source code and can be viewed by anyone.

Include a README? No ▼

Include .gitignore? No ▼

[Advanced settings](#)

[Create repository](#) [Cancel](#)

Figure C.23: Creating a private repo on Bitbucket/GitHub


```
c:\test\HAL9000>git remote set-url origin https://balintasz@bitbucket.org/balintasz/hal_test.git
c:\test\HAL9000>git remote -v
origin https://balintasz@bitbucket.org/balintasz/hal_test.git (fetch)
origin https://balintasz@bitbucket.org/balintasz/hal_test.git (push)
c:\test\HAL9000>git push -u origin master
Enumerating objects: 1250, done.
Counting objects: 100% (1250/1250), done.
Delta compression using up to 2 threads
Compressing objects: 100% (781/781), done.
Writing objects: 100% (1250/1250), 5.09 MiB | 454.00 KiB/s, done.
Total 1250 (delta 447), reused 1240 (delta 442), pack-reused 0
remote: Resolving deltas: 100% (447/447), done.
To https://bitbucket.org/balintasz/hal_test.git
 * [new branch]      master -> master
Branch 'master' set up to track remote branch 'master' from 'origin'.
c:\test\HAL9000>
```

Figure C.24: Changing the remote url of the repository and push

```
c:\test\HAL9000>git branch lab1
c:\test\HAL9000>git checkout lab1
Switched to branch 'lab1'
c:\test\HAL9000>git branch
* lab1
  master
c:\test\HAL9000>
```

Figure C.25: Creating a new branch, checking out that branch and displaying the branches

```
c:\test\HAL9000>git status
On branch lab1
Changes not staged for commit:
  (use "git add <file>..." to update what will be committed)
  (use "git restore <file>..." to discard changes in working directory)
    modified:   src/HAL9000/src/thread.c

no changes added to commit (use "git add" and/or "git commit -a")

c:\test\HAL9000>git diff
diff --git a/src/HAL9000/src/thread.c b/src/HAL9000/src/thread.c
index 501640f..ec53bb2 100644
--- a/src/HAL9000/src/thread.c
+++ b/src/HAL9000/src/thread.c
@@ -36,6 +36,8 @@ typedef struct _THREAD_SYSTEM_DATA
     _Guarded_by_(ReadyThreadsLock)
     LIST_ENTRY      ReadyThreadsList;
+    QWORD            NewField;
 } THREAD_SYSTEM_DATA, *PTHREAD_SYSTEM_DATA;

 static THREAD_SYSTEM_DATA m_threadSystemData;
c:\test\HAL9000>
```

Figure C.26: **git status** shows the branch you're on and what are the changes not yet committed

```
c:\test\HAL9000>git add *  
  
c:\test\HAL9000>git status  
On branch lab1  
Changes to be committed:  
  (use "git restore --staged <file>..." to unstage)  
    modified:   src/HAL9000/src/thread.c
```

Figure C.27: **git add *** stages all your changes before committing them

```
c:\test\HAL9000>git commit -m "Added new field to the structure"  
  
*** Please tell me who you are.  
  
Run  
  
    git config --global user.email "you@example.com"  
    git config --global user.name "Your Name"  
  
to set your account's default identity.  
Omit --global to set the identity only in this repository.  
  
fatal: unable to auto-detect email address (got 'balin@DESKTOP-CQRG93R.(none)')  
  
c:\test\HAL9000>git config --global user.email "gica@contra.com"  
  
c:\test\HAL9000>git config --global user.name "Gica Contra"
```

Figure C.28: When issuing the very first commit, git asks you to configure an email and a user name

```
c:\test\HAL9000>git commit -m "Added new field to the structure"  
[lab1 92baa42] Added new field to the structure  
1 file changed, 2 insertions(+)  
  
c:\test\HAL9000>git push origin lab1  
Enumerating objects: 11, done.  
Counting objects: 100% (11/11), done.  
Delta compression using up to 2 threads  
Compressing objects: 100% (6/6), done.  
Writing objects: 100% (6/6), 514 bytes | 257.00 KiB/s, done.  
Total 6 (delta 5), reused 0 (delta 0), pack-reused 0  
remote:  
remote: Create pull request for lab1:  
remote:   https://bitbucket.org/balintesz/hal_test/pull-requests/new?source=lab1&t=1  
remote:  
To https://bitbucket.org/balintesz/hal_test.git  
 * [new branch]      lab1 -> lab1  
c:\test\HAL9000>
```

Figure C.29: **git commit** commits your changes and **git push origin** pushes the changes to the remote repository

```
c:\test\HAL9000>git status
On branch lab1
Changes not staged for commit:
  (use "git add <file>..." to update what will be committed)
  (use "git restore <file>..." to discard changes in working directory)
        modified:   src/HAL9000/src/cmd_basic.c

no changes added to commit (use "git add" and/or "git commit -a")

c:\test\HAL9000>git reset --hard HEAD
HEAD is now at 92baa42 Added new field to the structure

c:\test\HAL9000>git status
On branch lab1
nothing to commit, working tree clean

c:\test\HAL9000>
```

Figure C.30: **git reset --hard HEAD** will discard the uncommitted changes and reset your branch to the latest commit

```
c:\test\HAL9000>git checkout master
Switched to branch 'master'
Your branch is up to date with 'origin/master'.

c:\test\HAL9000>git branch lab2

c:\test\HAL9000>git checkout lab2
Switched to branch 'lab2'

c:\test\HAL9000>git merge lab1
Updating a888b21..92baa42
Fast-forward
 src/HAL9000/src/thread.c | 2 ++
 1 file changed, 2 insertions(+)

c:\test\HAL9000>git diff master
diff --git a/src/HAL9000/src/thread.c b/src/HAL9000/src/thread.c
index 501640f..ec53bb2 100644
--- a/src/HAL9000/src/thread.c
+++ b/src/HAL9000/src/thread.c
@@ -36,6 +36,8 @@ typedef struct _THREAD_SYSTEM_DATA
     _Guarded_by_(ReadyThreadsLock)
     LIST_ENTRY      ReadyThreadsList;
+    QWORD            NewField;
 } THREAD_SYSTEM_DATA, *PTHREAD_SYSTEM_DATA;

 static THREAD_SYSTEM_DATA m_threadSystemData;

c:\test\HAL9000>
```

Figure C.31: Creating new lab2 branch from master, merging in the modifications from lab1 and showing that the changes are present on lab2

```
c:\test\HAL9000>git status
On branch lab2
nothing to commit, working tree clean

c:\test\HAL9000>git diff master > lab2.diff

c:\test\HAL9000>_
```

Figure C.32: Generating a diff at the end of lab2 to see what are the modifications compared to the clean solution

C.4.4 Visual git clients

Using a visual git client can make visualizing changes and browsing commit history easier than using git from command line. The recommended visual git clients are:

- Fork
- Sourcetree
- GitKraken
- any other tool that you prefer

C.4.5 Diff tools

When more people work simultaneously on the same file and change the same line, a merge conflict will be generated at merge. Diff tools are capable of solving some conflicts automatically and help you better visualize conflicts that need to be solved manually. You can use the following diff tools:

- KDiff3: free and easy to use
- Beyond Compare: probably the best one but needs a paid license
- any other tool that you prefer

Appendix D

Coding Style

Unfortunately, due to the fact that the work done on HAL9000 spans a long period (almost a year) some minor coding style changes have been made and the code is not 100% consistent with the coding style.

D.1 Functional rules

- Global variable usage should be as limited as possible, instead use static file variables, this restricts access to the variable only to the functions in the current compilation unit (c file).

Keeping track of global variables can be very hard and it is very poor design to allow for a variable to be modified by any piece of code. If data must be modified by more components special functions should exist to do this, see *LogSetState()* and friends, *ThreadExecuteForEachThreadEntry()* and similar functions which can be called from any OS module, and modify static file variables.

- When a function should only be used by a single C file it should be a static function.
- Instead of using goto cleanup construct, use the `__try __finally` construction, see MSDN try-finally for details and *ProcessCreate()* for a usage example.
- Functions which can be called from outside the trust boundary (between different projects or privilege levels) should validate all the parameters.
- Internal functions which can be called only from inside the trust boundary (inside the same project) should NOT validate any arguments, however it is a good technique to use ASSERTs to validate the function's parameters.
- Validate the successful execution of any function you're calling that returns a status.
- Functions should be annotated using SAL.

D.2 Non-functional Rules

- Function names should be UpperCamelCase: *MmuPreinitSystem()*, *ThreadCreate()*.
- Local variables names should be lowerCamelCase: *status*, *firstArg*, *secondArg*.
- Structure field names should be UpperCamelCase: *SystemUptime*, *TickCountEarly*, *AllList*.
- Static functions names should be _UpperCamelCase: *_ThreadReference()*.
- Static local variables names should be __lowerCamelCase: *__currentEntry*;
- Static file variables names should be: m_lowerCamelCase: *m_coreData*;
- The names of variables which hold pointers should be preceded by a p: *pFirstArg*, *__pCurrentEntry*, *m_pData*;
- The names of variables which hold BOOLEAN values should be preceded by a b: *bFound*, *__bFinished*, *m_bInitialized*;
- Lines should not be longer than 120 columns.
- Use SPACES instead of TABS.

Tab size and indent size should be set to 4. You can set this in Visual Studio by accessing *Tools -> Options -> Text Editor -> C/C++ -> Tabs* and checking the *Insert spaces* radio button.

- Do not leave empty lines or whitespaces at the end of the line.

We recommend installing the *Trailing Whitespace Visualizer* plugin for Visual Studio. It can be installed by accessing *Tools -> Extensions and Updates -> Online*. It is a free plugin and everytime you save a file it automatically removes trailing whitespaces and empty lines.

Bibliography

- [1] “2001: A space Odyssey,” <http://www.imdb.com/title/tt0062622/>.
- [2] “VMWare,” <http://www.vmware.com/>.
- [3] B. Pfaff, A. Romano, and G. Back, “The pintos instructional operating system kernel,” in *Proceedings of the 40th ACM Technical Symposium on Computer Science Education*, ser. SIGCSE ’09. New York, NY, USA: ACM, 2009, pp. 453–457. [Online]. Available: <http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/1508865.1509023>
- [4] “Multiboot Specification,” <http://www.gnu.org/software/grub/manual/multiboot/multiboot.html>.
- [5] “Microsoft SAL,” <https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/ms235402.aspx>.
- [6] “OS Development,” http://wiki.osdev.org/Main_Page.
- [7] “Bona fide os developer,” <http://www.osdever.net/>.
- [8] *Intel 64 and IA-32 Architectures Software Developer’s Manual Volume 3 (3A, 3B, 3C & 3D): System Programming Guide*, 059th ed. Intel, 2016.
- [9] *Intel 64 and IA-32 Architectures Software Developer’s Manual Volume 2 (2A, 2B, 2C & 2D): Instruction Set Reference, A-Z*, 059th ed. Intel, 2016.
- [10] G. R. R. Martin, *A Song of Ice and Fire series*, 1996 - present.
- [11] “Git,” <https://git-scm.com/>.
- [12] “Tortoise Hg,” <http://tortoisehg.bitbucket.org/>.
- [13] “Peering Inside the PE: A Tour of the Win32 Portable Executable File Format,” <https://msdn.microsoft.com/en-us/library/ms809762.aspx>.
- [14] “x64 Calling Convention,” <https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/cpp/build/x64-calling-convention?view=msvc-160>.
- [15] *Intel 9 Series Chipset Family Platform Controller Hub (PCH)*, 330550th ed. Intel, June 2015.

- [16] “Hex-Rays IDA,” <https://www.hex-rays.com/products/ida/>.
- [17] “Visual Assist,” <http://www.wholetomato.com/>.
- [18] “Bitbucket,” <https://bitbucket.org/>.