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题 目: RongOS — 一个简单操作系统的
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摘 要: 操作系统管理着计算机的硬件和软件资源, 它是向上层应用软件提供服务(接口)的核心系统软件, 这些服务包括进程管理, 内存管理, 文件系统, 网络通信, 安全机制等。操作系统的设计与实现则是软件工业的基础。为此, 在国务院提出的《中国制造 2025》中专门强调了操作系统的开发^[1]。但长期以来, 操作系统核心开发技术都掌握在外国人手中, 技术受制, 对于我们的软件工业来说很不利。本项目从零开始设计开发一个简单的操作系统, 包括 boot loader, 中断, 内存管理, 图形接口, 多任务等功能模块, 以及能运行在这个系统之上的几个小应用程序。尽管这个系统很简单, 但它是自主开发操作系统的一次尝试。

关键词: 操作系统, 进程, 内存, 中断, boot loader

***RongOS* — A simple OS implementation**

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Abstract: Operating system manages the hardware and software resources in a running computer system. It is the core of any modern software system and provides services (interfaces) to upper layer applications. The services it provides include process management, memory management, file system, network communication, security mechanism and more. Operating system development is the foundation and core of software industry. Therefore, *Made in China 2025* emphasizes the development of operating system that put forward by The State Council of China. For long time, however, the OS kernel development technology is dominated by foreigners. This technical limitation is detrimental to the development of our software industry. In this project, we presents a simple operating system which includes a boot loader, interrupt services, memory management functions, a graphic interface, and multi-process management functions. Also, some trivial user-level applications are provided for system testing purpose. This simple toy OS is an experimental trial for developing an operating system from scratch.

Key words: operating system, boot loader, interrupt, process management, memory management

Contents

1	Introduction	1
1.1	Background	1
1.2	Preliminary Works	1
1.2.1	Development Environment	1
1.2.2	Tools	2
1.2.3	Platform Setup	2
2	Design	4
2.1	Top Level Design	4
2.2	Detailed Design	4
2.2.1	Boot Up	4
2.2.2	Kernel	6
2.2.3	API	18
2.2.4	APPs	21
3	Implementation	22
3.1	Boot Up	22
3.2	Kernel	25
3.2.1	Memory Management	25
3.2.2	Process Management	28
3.2.3	Graphic Management	32
3.3	API	33
3.4	APPs	33
4	Conclusions	39
	参考文献	40

Supervisor	40
Acknowledgments	42
A Main Program Code	43
A.1 Boot loader	43
A.1.1 Display boot information	43
A.1.2 Read the second sector	43
A.1.3 Read two sides of a track	43
A.1.4 The next cylinder	44
A.2 Kernel Modules	44
A.2.1 Memory check process	44
A.2.2 Memory allocation process	46
A.2.3 Memory release process	46
A.2.4 Task allocate	48
A.2.5 Task add	48
A.2.6 Task scheduling	49
A.2.7 Task running	49
A.2.8 Task sleep	50
A.2.9 Task remove	50
A.2.10 Graphic height setting	51

List of Figures

2-1	top-level design	5
2-2	context switch	9
2-3	a state of sheets	13
3-1	algorithm of read two sides of one track	23
3-2	the working flowchart of boot loader	24
3-3	insert an entry no merge	26
3-4	insert an item merged with the previous item	27
3-5	insert an item merged with the latter item	27
3-6	algorithm of release memory	34
3-7	flow chart of relase memory	35
3-8	process of task management	35
3-9	algorithm to add tasks to task pool and prepare to run	36
3-10	task scheduling	36
3-11	algorithm of sheet height setting	37
3-12	height setting one	38
3-13	height setting three	38
3-14	height setting two	38
3-15	height setting four	38
3-16	all four setting height conditions	38

List of Tables

2-1	memory management table	6
-----	-----------------------------------	---

List of Corrections

correct picture	4
do you have VFS?	4
say some more.	6
wikipedia	16
more about each function	16
wikipedia	17
more about each function	17
more about each function	18
Not clear. You have to explain what is al/ah for. For example, as shown in table...	
al is for..., ah is for... int 0x10 is for...	22

1 Introduction

This section will introduce the purpose and current status of the operating system research. The setup of the development environment will also be presented here.

1.1 Background

Contemporary software systems are beset by problems that create challenges and opportunities for broad new OS research. There are five areas could improve user experience including dependability, security, system configuration, system extension, and multiprocessor programming.

The products of forty years of OS research are sitting in everyone's desktop computer, cell phone, car, etc., and it is not a pretty picture. Modern software systems are broadly speaking complex, insecure, unpredictable, prone to failure, hard to use, and difficult to maintain. Part of the difficult is that good software is hard to write, but in the past decade, this problem and more specific shortcomings in systems have been greatly exacerbated by increased networking and embedded systems, which placed new demands that existing architectures struggled to meet. These problems will not have simple solutions, but the changes must be pervasive, starting at the bottom of the software stack, in the operating system.

The world needs broad operating system research. Dependability, security, system configuration, system extension, and multi-processor programming illustrate areas where contemporary operating systems have failed to meet the software challenges of the modern computing environment^[2].

1.2 Preliminary Works

1.2.1 Development Environment

OS platform: Debian 9, Linux kernel 4.12.0-1-amd64

Editor: GNU Emacs 25.2.2

Run time VM: QEMU emulator 2.8.1

Assembler: Nask

Compiler: CC1(Based on gcc)

Debugger: GNU gdb 7.12

Version Control: git 2.15

1.2.2 Tools

Some tools were used to develop *RongOS*, See *tools*¹. Note that these tools are Windows executable. Please install wine if you want to run these tools on Linux. In these tools, the most important ones are:

nask.exe: the assembler, a modified version of NASM^[3]

cc1: the C compiler

1.2.3 Platform Setup

The development platform (mainly the Debian system) was set up by following the *Debian Installation tutorial*². The main steps include:

1. Installing the base Debian system;
2. Installing necessary software tools, such as emacs, web browser, qemu, wine, etc.;
3. Cloning configuration files by following the tutorial mentioned above;
4. Some more fine tweaks to satisfy my personal needs.

Qemu

QEMU is a generic and open source machine emulator and virtualizer^[4]. In this project, QEMU was used as the test bed.

Installing QEMU for my x86_64 architecture can be easily done by executing the following command:

```
$ sudo apt-get install qemu-system-x86_64
```

¹https://github.com/Puqiyuan/RongOS/tree/master/z_tools

²http://cs2.swfc.edu.cn/~wx672/lecture_notes/linux/install.html

Wine

Wine (originally an acronym for “Wine Is Not an Emulator”) is a compatibility layer capable of running Windows applications on several POSIX-compliant operating systems, such as Linux, macOS, and BSD^[5].

Because the tools I used in this project are in Windows executable format, so on Debian system, Wine is needed to be installed:

```
$ sudo apt-get update
$ sudo apt-get install wine
```

Debian i386 support

On 64-bit systems you need to enable multi-arch support for running 32-bit Windows applications (many modern apps are still 32-bit, also for large parts of the Windows subsystem itself). Our development tools were 32-bit Windows applications, so we needed to have i386 support for our 64-bit Linux system.

```
$ sudo dpkg --add-architecture i386
$ sudo apt-get update
```

2 Design

This chapter describes the design issues in the entire software system, including system startup, the kernel, APIs, and some applications.

2.1 Top Level Design

As shown in Fig. 2-1 shown, **Fixme: correct picture**, all applications require services **Fixme!** from the operating system through a set of function calls. This set of functions provided by the OS kernel is usually called *system calls*. However, the user applications do not invoke these system calls directly. Instead, they call the API library functions. The process in which the API invokes a system call and hands over processing to the kernel is called *trapping*.

Within the kernel, there are some important software modules working to keep the system running well. The process control subsystem provides graphics processing, CPU scheduling, and memory management functions for processes. **Fixme: do you have VFS?** **Fixme!** The file subsystem provides a friendly way to the user processes for accessing disk data. For example, to launch an application program stored on the disk, the function in the file system must be invoked to find the specific application. All of these subsystems may interact with the driver or hardware control module so as to operate on the system hardwares.

2.2 Detailed Design

This section discusses the system design in details, including the function of each module, data structures used in boot loader, kernel, API, and APPs.

2.2.1 Boot Up

At this stage the boot loader loads the operating system kernel into memory. This is done in the following four steps:

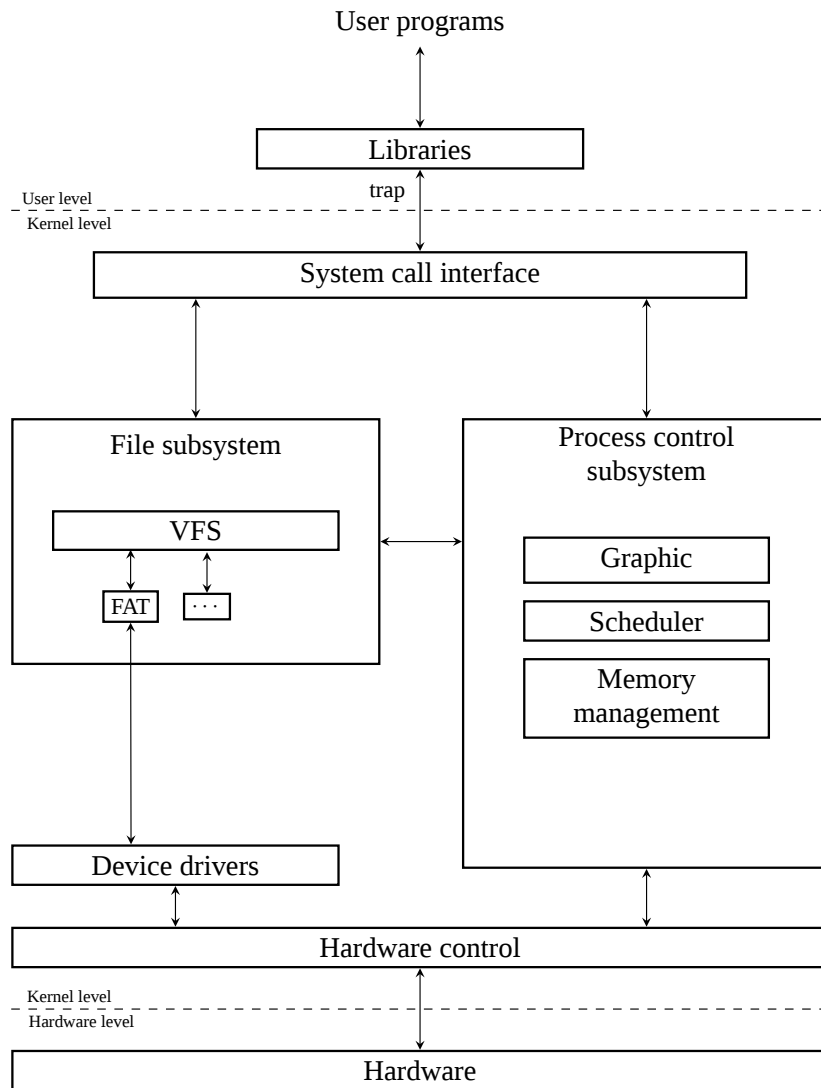


Fig. 2-1 top-level design

1. Display boot information;
2. Read the second sector;
3. Read two sides of a track;
4. Read the next cylinder until all twenty cylinders have been read.

At this stage, it is also necessary to complete the 32-bit protection mode switch and jump to the entry point of the operating system.

2.2.2 Kernel

The kernel receives the API calls from user processes, and operates the hardwares through the device drivers. **Fixme: say some more.**

Fixme!

Memory Management

Memory management refers to the technology that allocates and uses computer memory resources while the software is running. Its main purpose is how to allocate efficiently and quickly, and release for reusing memory resources when appropriate. This is critical to any advanced computer system where more than a single process might be underway at any time.

Several methods have been invented to improve the effectiveness of memory management. For modern operating systems, memory virtualization technology is used. This technique separates the memory space used by the process from the actual physical memory. Processes that are temporarily not running will be moved to secondary storage through paging or swapping. How virtual memory is designed and how it is implemented will have a wide impact on the overall system performance.

For *RongOS*, table 2-1 reflects the memory management system. An *entry* is a record

Start Address	Free Size
1	301
348	50
800	1000
3001	...

Table 2-1 memory management table

reflects how much memory space is free from where. Actually, this table is an member *struct*

FREEINFO in *struct MEMMAN*.

Data Structures used in MM

```
1 struct FREEINFO
2 {
3     unsigned int addr; /* start address of free space */
4     unsigned int size; /* size of free mem in bytes*/
5 };
```

- is used to record the size in bytes of free memory while the system is running.

```
1 struct MEMMAN
2 {
3     int frees;    /* free memory blocks */
4     int maxfrees;
5     int lostsize; /* the sum of the failed memory size to freed*/
6     int losts;    /* number of failures */
7     struct FREEINFO free[MEMMAN_FREES]; /* free memory block info */
8 };
```

- is used to record the entire memory usage, such as the total remaining free memory space and *entry*.

Memory Management Functions

```
unsigned int memtest(unsigned int start, unsigned int end);
```

- Check the memory capacity and confirm that the memory is intact. *start* is the start address of the memory check and *end* is the end address of the memory check. This function returns the maximum value of available addresses. Memory is available between this value and the *start* value.

```
unsigned int memman_total(struct MEMMAN* man);
```

- Report the sum of all empty space. It will look for each *entry* in the *man* to add up the free space in it.

```
unsigned int memman_alloc(struct MEMMAN *man, unsigned int size);
```

- Allocate memory to the application, where *size* is the space requested by the application. Success returns the available starting address, otherwise 0. *man* records information about all available entries in memory.

```
int memman_free(struct MEMMAN *man, unsigned int addr, unsigned int size);
```

- Releases memory, where *addr* is the starting address variable and *size* is the size of the release variable. Returns 0 if successful, otherwise -1.

```
unsigned int memman_alloc_4k(struct MEMMAN *man, unsigned int size);
```

- Basically it is similar to the *memman_alloc* function, but memory is allocated in 4k memory units and the starting address of the allocated memory is returned if successful. *size* is the size of requested space.

```
int memman_free_4k(struct MEMMAN *man, unsigned int addr, unsigned int  
↪ size);
```

- Basically it is similar to the *memman_free*, but memory space is freed in units of 4k, *addr* is the starting point variable, and *size* is the release size.

Task Management (Scheduler)

The general operating systems need to be able to support multitasking. Simply saying that multi-tasking is running multiple programs at the same time. But this only gives the user an illusion. For a single CPU, it cannot handle multiple programs at the same time. It merely divides the CPU time into many small pieces for different programs to run. The operating system should be able to do task switching, that is to pass the CPU from one process to another. And at a later time to switch it back, as shown in Fig. 2-2.

The operating system is responsible for allocating resources to processes when managing tasks. Manage the communication between them. To meet these goals, the operating system maintains a data structure called PCB(process control block) for each task. The PCB describes the resources and the state of the task, which also allows the operating system to exert control to each task.

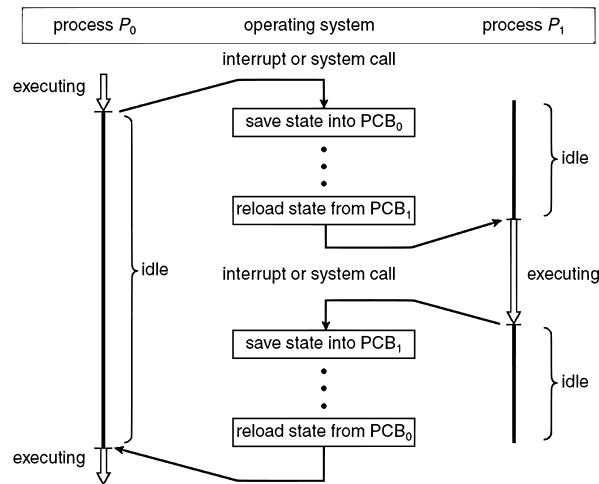


Fig. 2-2 context switch

Data Structures For Task Management

```

1 struct TASKLEVEL
2 {
3     int running; /* how many tasks are running */
4     int now;     /* which task is currently running */
5     struct TASK* tasks[MAX_TASKS_LV]; /* all tasks in one level */
6 };
    
```

- is used to record the status of each task in a level. The definition of level, see 3.2.2.

```

1 struct TSS32
2 {
3     int esp0, esp1, esp2; /* stack pointer register */
4     int ss0, ss1, ss2;    /* stack segment register */
5     int cr3;             /* control register */
6     int eip;             /* instruct pointer register */
7     int eflags;          /* registers flag */
8     int eax;             /* accumulator register */
9     int ecx;             /* counter register */
10    int edx;             /* data register */
11    int ebx;             /* base register */
12    int esp;             /* stack pointer register */
13    int ebp;             /* base pointer register*/
14    int esi;             /* source index register */
15    int edi;             /* destination index register */
16    int es;              /* extra segment register */
17    int cs;              /* code segment register */
18    int ss;              /* stack segment register */
19    int ds;              /* data segment register */
20    int fs;              /* segment part 2 */
21    int gs;              /* segment part 3 */
22    int ldtr;            /* LDT segment selector */
23    int iomap;           /* I/O map base address */
24 };

```

- holds information about task status segments, which are based on CPU specifications^[6]. The *eip* register records where in the memory the next instruction to be executed by the CPU is located.

```

1 struct TASKCTL
2 {
3     int now_lv;          /* current activity level */
4     int lv_change;       /* does the level need to be changed next time the task
5     ↪ is switched */
6     struct TASKLEVEL level[MAX_TASKLEVELS]; /* all levels*/
7     struct TASK tasks0[MAX_TASKS];          /* all running tasks */
8 };

```

- is used to control all tasks in the system. This structure uses the *now_lv* variable to record the current running *level* in the system. See Fig. 3-8.

```

1 struct TASK
2 {
3     int sel;           /* the number of GDT */
4     int flags;         /* the state of task */
5     int level;         /* the level of task */
6     int priority;      /* the priority of task */
7     struct FIFO32 fifo; /* a fifo buffer */
8     TSS32 tss;         /* TSS segment for a task */
9     struct CONSOLE* cons; /* the console window address of task */
10    int ds_base;        /* data segment address of APPs */
11    int cons_stack;     /* the stack address of APPs */
12    struct SEGMENT_DESCRIPTOR ldt[2]; /* tow LDT segments of task */
13    struct FILEHANDLE* fhandle; /* file handles for manipulating files */
14    int* fat;           /* file allocation table */
15    char* cmdline;      /* store the command line context */
16    unsigned char langmode; /* which font to use */
17    unsigned char langbyte1; /* store the first byte of the full-width
    ↪ character */
18 };

```

- is used to manage variables for a task. Record the task's sections, permissions, stacks, etc. Actually, this is a PCB.

Task Management Functions

```
struct TASK *task_now(void);
```

- Returns the address of which task level of which task is currently running.

```
struct TASK *task_init(struct MEMMAN *memman);
```

- Initialize all empty tasks. This function will register all 1000 empty tasks to the GDT table. Initialize all levels of task running variables *running* to 0. The pointer *now* of each level indicating that the task is currently running is also set to 0. In fact, this function registers all empty PCBs for future management tasks. At the same time, the task that calls this task needs to be managed so the address of a PCB is returned. An idle task needs to be set in the last *level*. Ensure that at least one task is running in the system.

```
struct TASK *task_alloc(void);
```

- Get an empty PCB from the *task pool* 3.2.2. Return its address if successful, otherwise 0.

```
void task_run(struct TASK *task, int level, int priority);
```

- Add a task to *task pool*. The *level* and *priority* of tasks through this function can also be set. If the task is asleep, wake it up. Note that this function will not immediately cause the running of task after the execution of this function. Instead wait to be scheduled.

```
void task_switch(void);
```

- Switch to the next task. This function will select one of the highest *level* tasks to run from the *task pool*.

```
void task_sleep(struct TASK *task);
```

- Put a task into sleep. The task that is being promoted to sleep may be the currently running task in the system. If this is the case, it must also schedule the task in the entire *task pool*. Then jump to this new task and start running.

Graphic Management

The patterns on the screen belong to one *sheet*. A *sheet* is a structure that records how a certain height of a certain area of a computer screen should be displayed. Graphics management is also responsible for refreshing the computer screen when the content displayed by a *sheet* changes. Graphic management is also responsible for setting the height of the *sheet*. The *sheet* height setting is a relatively complex part of the graphics management, which will be explained in detail in the implementation section. Usually the lowest *sheet* is the computer desktop, which is the background layer. The highest *sheet* is the mouse layer. In general, for modern operating systems, graphics management is not a matter of the operating system kernel. So this part only shows in detail the more complicated part of the *sheet* height setting. Fig. 2-3 shows the possible state of some of the *sheet* on the computer screen. The figure shows three *sheet* and is labeled 0, 1, 2. Of course there may be more than three *sheet*. *Sheet* 2 is in the highest position, and *sheet* 0 is the lowest.

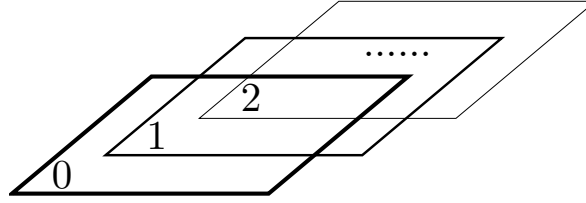


Fig. 2-3 a state of sheets

Graphic Management Data Structures

```

1 struct SHEET
2 {
3     char* buf;    /* address of the graphic content depicted */
4     int bxszie;   /* size of x coordinate of sheet */
5     int bysize;   /* size of y coordinate of sheet */
6     int vx0;      /* x coordinate of sheet */
7     int vy0;      /* y coordinate of sheet */
8     int col_inv;  /* number of invisible color */
9     int height;   /* height of sheet */
10    int flags;    /* states of sheet, using or not */
11 };

```

- is used to record layer-related information, including the layer's size and position.

```

1 struct SHTCTL
2 {
3     unsigned char* vram; /* the address of VRAM */
4     unsigned char* map;  /* which layer the pixel on the screen belongs to */
5     int xsize; /* the x size of screen */
6     int ysize; /* the y size of screen */
7     int top;   /* the height of the top layer */
8     struct SHEET* sheets[MAX_SHEETS]; /* order all layer addresses in order
    ↪ */
9     struct SHEET sheets0[MAX_SHEETS]; /* all layers */
10 };

```

- is used to manage the structure of multiple layer information, including how many layers there are in total, the size and height of each layer.

Graphic Management Functions

```

struct SHTCTL *shtctl_init(struct MEMMAN *memman, unsigned char *vram, int
    ↪ xsize, int ysize);

```

- Initialize a sheet control structure, *vram* is the address of video RAM. *xsize* and *ysize* is the size of sheet. Mark all sheet structures as 0 to indicate that they are not used.

```
struct SHEET *sheet_alloc(struct SHTCTL *ctl);
```

- Return a *SHEET* structure if success, otherwise 0. Find an unused *sheet* from the sheet structure control structure and making this *sheet* in using.

```
void sheet_setbuf(struct SHEET *sht, unsigned char *buf, int xsize, int  
↪ ysize, int col_inv);
```

- Set the properties of the *buf* of *sheet*.

```
void sheet_updown(struct SHEET *sht, int height);
```

- Set the height of layer *sht*. The height of the *sheet* is more complicated to set, which will be explained in detail in the implementation section.

```
void sheet_refresh(struct SHEET *sht, int bx0, int by0, int bx1, int by1);
```

- Refreshes the screen range specified by *bx0*, *by0*, *bx1* and *by1*. There are many *sheet* on the computer screen. Not all the ranges of all *sheet* will be refreshed when the screen is refreshed. Considering the efficiency of the refresh, this also requires a delicate design. But this is generally not something that the operating system kernel cares about, so it will be omitted.

```
void sheet_free(struct SHEET *sht);
```

- Release a *sheet*. In addition to marking the *sheet* as unused, the first thing to do is to hide the *sheet*.

```
void make_window8(unsigned char *buf, int xsize, int ysize, char *title,  
↪ char act);
```

- Make a window in *SHEET buf*. A window is almost indistinguishable from a *sheet*. When we create a window, we simply write different data to the *buf* of the *sheet* to make it appear as a window.

```
void putfonts8_asc_sht(struct SHEET *sht, int x, int y, int c, int b, char  
↪ *s, int l);
```

- Paint the background color *b* and write the characters and finish the refreshing. *l* specifies the length of the string *s* to be written.

System Calls

The application requests the operating system kernel to provide services through system calls. These services include both hardware services such as reading disks and software services such as creating child processes and communicating between processes. But in the *RongOS* operating system, the user process is not directly facing the system call, but the API. System calls provide an essential interface between a API and the operating system kernel.

System Calls Prototype

```
void cons_putchar(struct CONSOLE *cons, int chr, char move);
```

- Put a *chr* character on *cons* console. A *console* is a command line window where users can enter commands to run. Entering a character at the command line involves moving the mouse. This is controlled by *move* variable.

```
void cons_newline(struct CONSOLE *cons);
```

- Newline in *cons* console. The command line needs to wrap when the enter key is pressed.

```
void cons_putstr0(struct CONSOLE *cons, char *s);
```

- Put string *s* in *cons* console, no length was specified. This function will call *void cons_putchar(struct CONSOLE *cons, int chr, char move)* to complete its service.

```
void cons_putstr1(struct CONSOLE *cons, char *s, int l);
```

- Put string *s* in *cons*, *l* is the length of string *s*. In general, the service provided by this function is similar to that of `void cons_putstr0(struct CONSOLE *cons, char *s)`. Only in this function can specify the length of the string by *l*.

```
int cmd_app(struct CONSOLE *cons, int *fat, char *cmdline);
```

- Start an application based on the input from the command line *cmdline*. *emphfat* is a file allocation table. In this table it records which files are stored on which blocks and how these blocks relate to each other. This function finds the application to start by searching the *fat* table and runs it.

Driver

The device drivers are used to control and manipulate the hardware. [The driver blocked the hardware information](#) [Fixme: wikipedia](#). It is the dividing line between hardware and software. A driver provides a software interface to hardware devices, enabling operating systems and other computer programs to access hardware functions without needing to know precise details of the hardware being used.

Driver Functions [Fixme: more about each function](#)

[Fixme!](#)

```
void set_palette(int start, int end, unsigned char *rgb);
```

- initialize the palette.

```
void init_pic(void);
```

- initialize the PIC.

```
void init_keyboard(struct FIFO32 *fifo, int data0);
```

- initialize the keyboard.

```
void enable_mouse(struct FIFO32 *fifo, int data0, struct MOUSE_DEC *mdec);
```

- activate mouse.

FAT File System

The file system defines how data is stored and accessed. The file system divides the entire storage space according to a certain form. This facilitates the storage of files while increasing the utilization of storage media. The small blocks thus divided are called sectors. The FAT records which sectors all files are stored on. [Fixme: wikipedia](#)

Fixme!

FAT Data Structure

```
1 struct FILEINFO
2 {
3     unsigned char name[8];    /* file name */
4     unsigned char ext[3];    /* extend name of file */
5     unsigned char type;      /* file attributes */
6     char reserve[10];        /* reserve byte */
7     unsigned short time;     /* the time for storing file */
8     unsigned short date;     /* the date for storing file */
9     unsigned short clustno; /* the file from which sector on the disk is
    ↪ stored */
10 };
```

- is used to record file-related information, such as file name, size, etc.

Fixme!

FAT Functions [Fixme: more about each function](#)

```
void file_readfat(int *fat, unsigned char *img);
```

- read file allocation table

```
void file_loadfile(int clustno, int size, char *buf, int *fat, char *img);
```

- read file contents into memory

```
struct FILEINFO *file_search(char *name, struct FILEINFO *finfo, int max);
```

- search for files based on provided *name*.

2.2.3 API

In computer programming, APIs are subroutines that are used to develop applications. Usually, it communicates all parts of the software. A good API makes application development easier. By abstracting the underlying implementation and only exposing objects or actions the developer needs, an API simplifies programming.

All APIs

Fixme: more about each function

Fixme!

```
void api_putchar(int c);
```

- output a character *c* on the console window.

```
void api_putstr0(char *s);
```

- output a string *s* on the console window.

```
void api_putstr1(char *s, int l);
```

- output a string *s* on console window, *l* is the length of this string.

```
void api_end(void);
```

- end the application's running.

```
int api_openwin(char *buf, int xsiz, int ysiz, int col_inv, char *title);
```

- open a window, return the handler of window.

```
void api_putstrwin(int win, int x, int y, int col, int len, char *str);
```

- display string *str* on window.

```
void api_boxfilwin(int win, int x0, int y0, int x1, int y1, int col);
```

- draw a box on the window

```
void api_initmalloc(void);
```

- initialize the structure of the management memory

```
char *api_malloc(int size);
```

- allocating memory for the application.

```
void api_free(char *addr, int size);
```

- free up memory used by the application.

```
void api_point(int win, int x, int y, int col);
```

- draw a pint on *win* window.

```
void api_refreshwin(int win, int x0, int y0, int x1, int y1);
```

- refresh the window.

```
void api_linewin(int win, int x0, int y0, int x1, int y1, int col);
```

- draw a straight line.

```
void api_closewin(int win);
```

- close window.

```
int api_getkey(int mode);
```

- accept keyboard input.

```
int api_alloctimer(void);
```

- get timer.

```
void api_inittimer(int timer, int data);
```

- set the data of timer sending.

```
void api_settimer(int timer, int time);
```

- set the time of timer.

```
void api_freetimer(int timer);
```

- release timer.

```
void api_beep(int tone);
```

- make a buzzer sound

```
int api_fopen(char *fname);
```

- open file, return file handler

```
void api_fclose(int fhandle);
```

- close file

```
void api_fseek(int fhandle, int offset, int mode);
```

- locate a file

```
int api_fsize(int fhandle, int mode);
```

- return the size of *fhandle* file.

```
int api_fread(char *buf, int maxsize, int fhandle);
```

- read file, return read bytes.

```
int api_cmdline(char *buf, int maxsize);
```

- return the context of command line.

```
int api_getlang(void);
```

- return the language mode.

2.2.4 APPs

Since this design is only about the operating system itself, only three representative applications are introduced. The first is the application of the display color: *color*. The second is the application for timing: *sundial*. The third application is to imitate the application of stars in the sky: *stars2*.

3 Implementation

3.1 Boot Up

The boot loader is implemented in Intel assembly. It works as follows:

1. **Display boot information:** Firstly, the code in boot sector (See Appendix A.1.1) outputs some boot information. When $al=0$, the null character of boot information hit. Fixme! Interrupt $0x10$ is used for showing a character on the screen. Fixme: Not clear. You have to explain what is al/ah for. For example, as shown in table... al is for..., ah is for... int $0x10$ is for...
2. **Read the second sector:** Then jump to load C0-H0-S2, ax register saved the address where beginning puts the sectors from floppy. And preparing parameters for interrupt $0x13$ in registers. The $0x13$ interrupt used for read sector from floppy to memory. (See Appendix A.1.2).
3. **Read two sides of a track:**

If there is a carry indicating some thing went wrong while reading the floppy disk, reset the registers and try reading it again. The read process aborts after five unsuccessful read.

Register si is a counter. If no carry (success), jump to next segment, as one sector has been read into memory already. The address should increase 512 byte. Then sector number (cl register) is added by 1 and compare it to 18, if it's smaller than 18, jump to *readloop*, read the next sector.

If the value of cl register is bigger or equal to 18, meaning that one track 18 sector in this side of floppy read already, then reversed the head, add 1 to dh register.

If the value of dh register after adding larger than or equal to 2, it's saying the original head is 1, one track of two sides read already. Otherwise the value of dh register smaller than 2, read this side indicating by dh register, jump to *readloop* segmentation.

Appendix A.1.3 is the code performing this function.

There is a pseudo code about this process:

```

Result: Read two sides of one track
1 ENTRANCE: call readloop();
2 Procedure readloop()
3   | clear the times of failed to 0,  $si \leftarrow 0$ ;
4   | call retry();
5 Procedure retry()
6   | register parameter preparing;
7   | read a sector;
8   | if no carry then
9   |   | call next();
10  | else
11  |   | add 1 to si,  $si \leftarrow si + 1$ ;
12  |   | compare si with 5;
13  |   | if  $si \geq 5$  then
14  |   |   | goto error, FINISHED;
15  |   | else
16  |   |   | reset registers and call retry() to read again;
17  |   | end
18  | end
19 Procedure next()
20 | memory address moved back 0x200;
21 | add 1 to cl, preparing for reading the next sector,  $cl \leftarrow cl + 1$ ;
22 | if  $cl \leq 18$  then
23 |   | call readloop() to read this sector;
24 | else
25 |   |  $cl > 18$ , it means that one side of this track is read already;
26 |   | add 1 to dh,  $dh \leftarrow dh + 1$ , reverse the head pointer;
27 |   | if  $dh < 2$  then
28 |   |   | it means the 1 side has not read yet, call readloop();
29 |   | else
30 |   |   | both sides have finished reading, FINISHED;
31 |   | end
32 | end

```

Fig. 3-1 algorithm of read two sides of one track

4. **The next cylinder:** So the next step is moving a cylinder, add 1 to register *ch*. Otherwise the value of *dh* register smaller than 2, read this side indicating by *dh* register, jump to *readloop* segmentation. After *ch* register add 1, if it's smaller than 10, jump to *readloop*, otherwise end loading floppy to memory process, for we only load ten cylinders of floppy. Appendix A.1.4 is the code to perform this function.

The above four steps can be intuitively reflected in the Fig. 3-2.

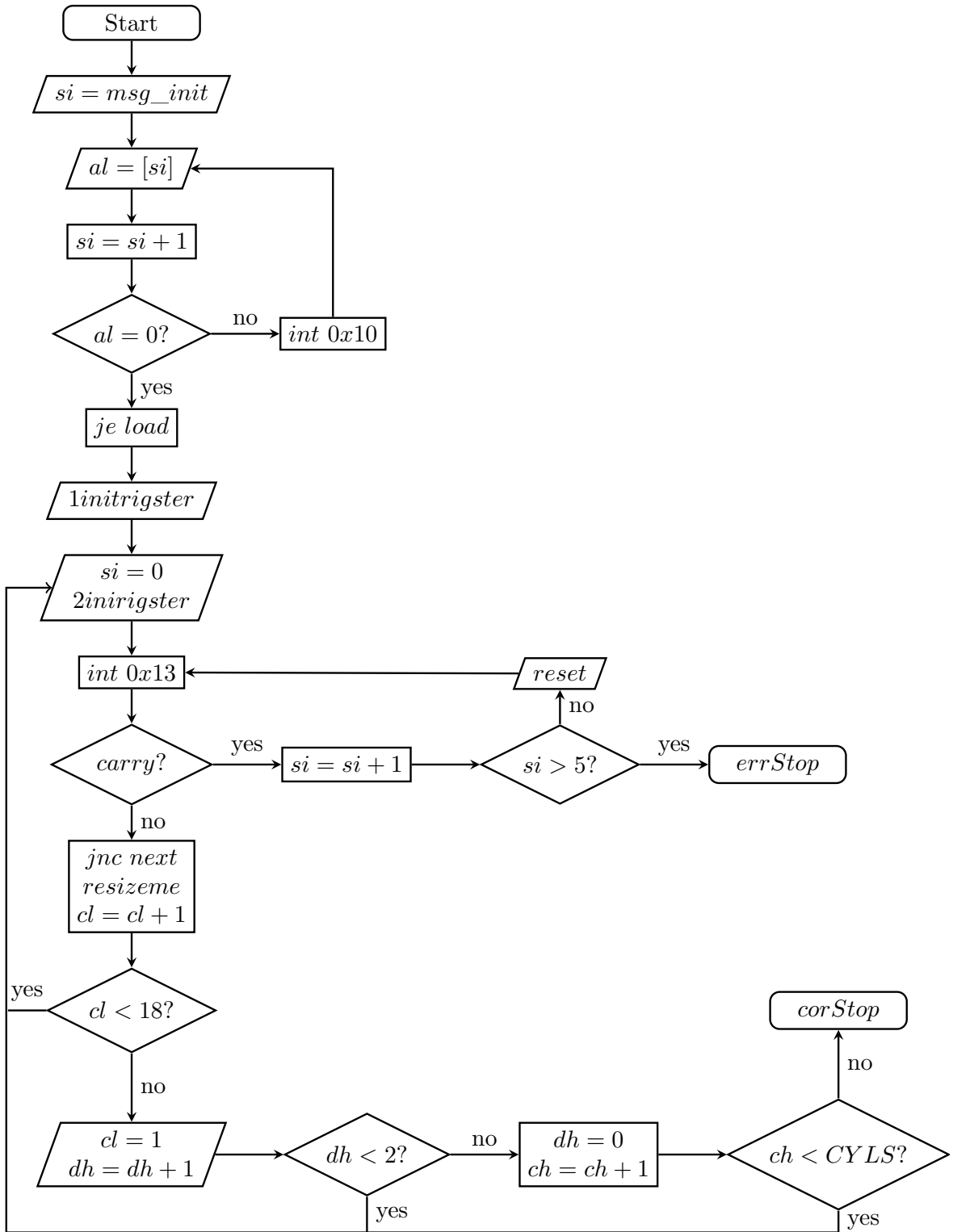


Fig. 3-2 the working flowchart of boot loader

3.2 Kernel

3.2.1 Memory Management

Memory Check

For memory management, memory must be checked to see how large the memory is. After i486, the CPU turned on the cache function. In order to avoid checking the cache, the CPU's cache function must be turned off. So first check the version of the CPU. Then check the memory capacity. When checking the memory capacity, first write a value to the same address and immediately read out whether the observation is equal to the previously written value. The entire inspection process can be summarized as follows.

1. Check the version of the CPU.
2. If the version of the CPU is greater than 386 then caching is disabled, otherwise nothing will be done.
3. Check memory
4. If the CPU version is greater than the 386 restore cache feature. Otherwise do nothing.

Step 2 can be divided into the following steps

1. Save the original value of a location in memory.
2. Write a constant to the above memory address.
3. Read the above memory address and invert it.
4. The inverted value of the constant prepared in advance is compared with the value obtained in the third step.
5. Equal to continue to check, otherwise stop.

In general, the C compiler has optimized optimization, so it seems that the above comparison is definitely equivalent. So the above check subfunction should be done in assembly language. Specific implementation, please see appendix A.2.1.

Memory Allocation

First explain some of the variables used to implement the memory allocation function. *size* refers to the space requested by the application but *SIZE* is the free space of one *entry*. *free* is the number of memory available memory.

1. Traversing all the free entries in memory to find an *entry* gives it more free space than the application requested. If found then 2, otherwise 6.
2. Add *size* to start address of *entry* found in 1. Subtract *size* from free space *SIZE* in *entry* found in 1. Jump to 3.
3. Determine if the remaining free space *SIZE* in the entry is 0. If so, go to 4. Otherwise 5.
4. Subtract the number of memory available entries *free* by 1.
5. Returns the starting address of available memory.
6. Returns 0 for memory allocation failure.

Specific implementation see code A.2.2.

Memory Release

Memory release is a more complex part of memory management. In order to keep the memory free entries in an orderly manner and merge adjacent entries, the memory release code becomes somewhat complicated. It is mainly divided into the following categories.

1. Neither merge with the previous *entry* nor with the latter *entry*. For this case, this entry needs to be inserted into the free memory entry. As the figure 3-3 shows. As shown in

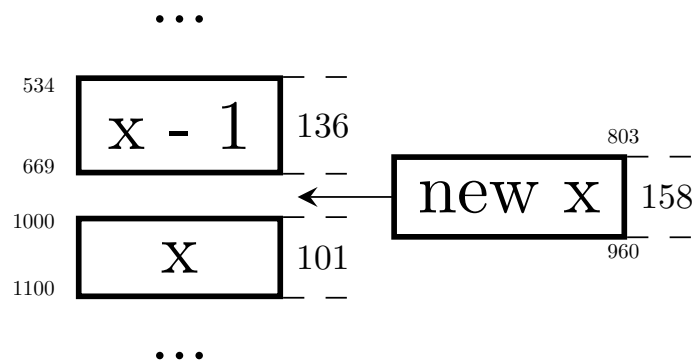


Fig. 3-3 insert an entry no merge

the figure, the starting address of *new x* 803 is not adjacent to the previous termination address 669, and its termination address 960 is also not adjacent to the starting address 1000 of the next entry. The so-called neighboring means that the difference between the two addresses is 1. Same as below.

2. Can be merged with the previous entry. As the figure 3-4 shows. As shown in the

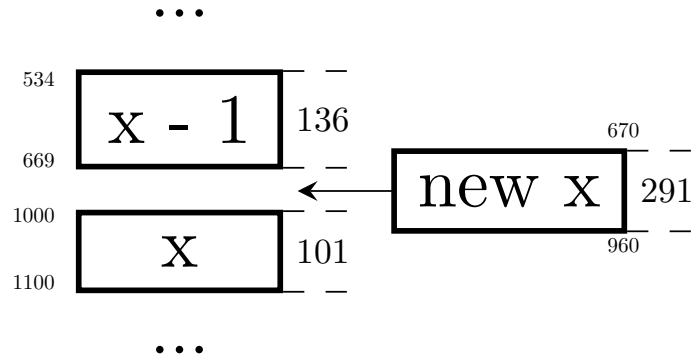


Fig. 3-4 insert an item merged with the previous item

figure, the starting address of *new x* 670 is adjacent to the previous termination address 669, but its termination address 960 is not adjacent to the starting address 1000 of the next entry.

3. Can be merged with the latter entry. As the figure 3-5 shows. The termination address

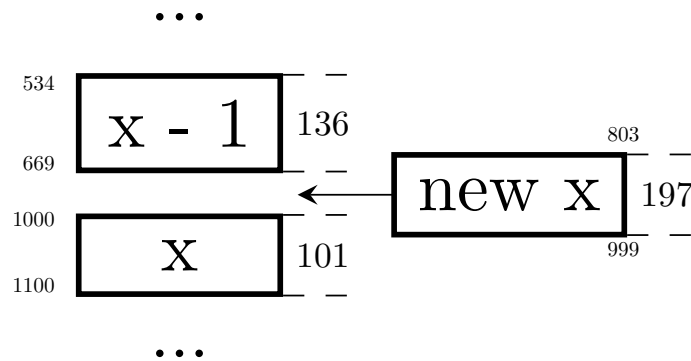


Fig. 3-5 insert an item merged with the latter item

999 of *new x* is adjacent to the starting address 1000 of the next entry, but its starting address of *new x* 803 is not adjacent to the previous termination address 669.

The memory release process can be described as follows.

1. Find the insertion position *i*. The so-called insertion position is an *entry* number that

satisfies certain conditions. This condition is that the *size* of this *entry* is larger than the size requested by the application.

2. If $i > 0$, merge if the newly inserted *entry* can be merged with the previous *entry*, the same as for the latter *entry*. As long as it merges with the former, the function returns 0 and the release is successful. Otherwise jump to 3.
3. The program proceeds here so that the newly inserted *entry* must not be merged with the previous *entry*. Now check if the newly inserted *entry* can be merged with the latter *entries*. If so, merges it and return 0. Otherwise jump to 4.
4. The program proceeds here to represent that the newly inserted *entry* cannot be merged with any of the entries. Now check the number of used entries with 4090. If the former is less than the latter, move all items after the i 'th item back one position to make room for new items. Then insert this new *entry*. Otherwise jmp to 5.
5. Failed to release, return -1.

The above release process can be explained by the algorithm 3-6. Of course, the flow chart 3-7 will be more clear. For specific code implementation, see A.2.3

3.2.2 Process Management

Process management is a very complex but very important part of operating system development. This part of the development has a very big impact on the performance of the entire system. For the *RongOS* operating system, all tasks are managed hierarchically. Fig. 3-8 clearly shows how all the tasks in the system are managed.

From *level 0* to *level 10*, there are a total of ten levels in the system. All these ten levels and the space they prepare for the task are called *task pool*. For each task, it also has a *priority* attribute. It actually specifies how long each process can run, also known as a *time slice*.

As Fig. 3-8 shows, each level can hold 100 tasks. The lower the level number, the higher the level's privilege. For example, x -level permissions are higher than $x+1$. The scheduler will select the task to run from a high-privilege level. Only lower-level tasks are scheduled when the task at the higher privilege level is completed. While tasks within the same layer are run in turn, their running time may be different, that is, the *time slice* is also called *priority*.

This can be illustrated by the peripheral loop arrows in *level 0* in Fig. 3-8. The other *levels* are also similar except that the peripheral loop arrows are ignored.

In Fig. 3-8, a task is added to its corresponding level. There are many tasks in each level waiting for scheduling or a running task. Tasks that are waiting for scheduling are represented in italics but the task being run is underlined in each level. A place after the last task waiting to be scheduled is the *insertion point* of a new task at a certain level.

The PIC chip will generate 100 clock interrupts per second. Each time a clock interrupt occurs, it is serviced by the interrupt service routine 0x20. This subroutine will call the scheduler to schedule a task to run based on the above method of selecting the task to run. When a run is completed in one round, there are three destinations for a process.

1. The task did not complete, but the *time slice* was used up. It will be added to the task pool again and wait for it to be selected again to begin another run.
2. The task completes the run and then enters the end processing subroutine.
3. The *time slice* of the process runs out, but it goes to *sleep*. The so-called *sleep* state means that the process is paused, waiting for something to happen and waking it up again, adding it to the *task pool* and starting a round of running. Something such as a keyboard input program waits for user input.

As shown in Fig. 3-8, it can be seen as a snapshot of all the tasks in the system. In this transient state, a task is being added to the $(3 + 1 = 4)$ point of *x-level* of *task pool*. What is running in the system is task ④ of *level 0*.

Task Allocate and Add

After the new process arrives, it must apply for a task structure to record its information. This process is simpler simply by iterating through the *tasks0* structure array variable to find an unused task structure and assign it to the new task. *tasks0* is used to record information for all tasks. At the same time put the address of this structure into the *tasks* structure array. This structure *tasks* is used to record the addresses of all tasks. Note that *tasks* and *tasks0* are functionally different arrays of structures. *tasks0* records information for all 1000 tasks in the system, while *tasks* record their addresses.

The next step is to add to the *task pool* and wait to be scheduled. When adding, specify

the *level* and *priority*. The specified *level* and *priority* may not be the same as the original task, or they may be the same. Different situations need to be handled differently. This can be done by the following steps.

1. If the *level* passed in is less than 0, it means that the task is added without changing the *level* of the task, and the *level* of the original task is used to cover the incoming level. The check here is mainly for processing when the task is awakened. When the task is awakened it should not change its *level*. Continue to step 2.
2. If the passed in *priority* is greater than 0, the *priority* of the original task is overwritten with the passed in priority. Continue to step 3.
3. If this task is waiting to be scheduled and the incoming *level* is different from its original *level*. This means that this task must be removed from the original *level*. Continue to step 4.
4. If the task is not in the task pool, it is added to the *task pool* according to its *level*. These steps may change the level of the task, set the level change flag *lv_change* to 1 so that the next time the scheduler schedules the task, it must find the task in the entire *task pool* to run again.

Specific code implementation, see A.2.4 and A.2.5. Fig. 3-9 is an algorithm that adds tasks to the task pool to run.

Task Scheduling and Running

The next step is for the scheduler to start scheduling task to running. The work of the scheduler requires the support of clock interrupts. Every time a clock interrupt occurs, the scheduler is run once. The *now_lv* variable is used to record which level is currently running. The *now* variable is a pointer to a running task of a certain level. The specific workflow of the scheduler is described in the following steps.

1. Find the currently running level *tl* by *now_lv*. Move the *now* pointer of this layer by one position. Continue to step 2.
2. If the number of *running* tasks is equal to the *now* pointer. Move back *now* pointer to 0. Continue to step 3
3. Check if the *lv_change* flag is 1. If it is 1, check the entire *task pool* to find the new

now_lv and set the *lv_change* flag to 0. Continue to step 4.

4. Get the currently running task from *now_lv* with the *now* pointer, set the time slice, and jump to the task to start running.

Specific code implementation, see A.2.6 and A.2.7. Fig. 3-10 is the algorithm of task scheduling and switching.

Task Sleep

The task may go to *sleep* after it finishes running. A task going to sleep is actually removing it from the *task pool*. Sleeping the task requires considering whether this task is a running task. If this is the case, after the task is removed, the task switch will be performed. Then jump to the newly switched task. These steps can be summarized as follows

1. Call *task_now* to return to the currently running task. Go to the next step.
2. Call *task_remove* to remove this task from *task pool*. Go to the next step.
3. The task that is going to sleep are compared with the tasks that is running. If they are equal, switch to the new task to start running.

Specific code implementation, see A.2.8.

Task_now and Task_remove Functions

There are also two small functions that facilitate task management and are introduced here. One is the *task_now* function and the other is the *task_remove* function. *task_now*. The *task_now* function is used to return the address of the task that is currently running on the system. This function is relatively simple. The first is to find the current running level based on the *now_lv*, then the level of the *now* pointer to find the task that the layer is running, and finally returns its address.

The *task_remove* function is somewhat complicated. It may involve moving all tasks for a layer. It may also cause various pointers to appear strange. All of these must be considered carefully, otherwise the system may experience unpredictable and strange behavior. Its running process can be summarized as follows.

1. First find the corresponding level of the task *tl*. Go to the next step.
2. Find out where this task is. Go to the next step.

3. Reduce the number of processes running by 1. Go to the next step.
4. If the position of this task is before the *now* pointer, the *now* pointer is decremented by one. Go to the next step.
5. If the *now* pointer is greater than the number of *running* processes, it is necessary to correct the *now* pointer to 0. Go to the next step.
6. Change the *flags* of the task to 1 to indicate that the task is dormant. Go to the next step.
7. Move the tasks between *i* and *running* one step forward.

Specific code implementation, see A.2.9.

3.2.3 Graphic Management

In modern operating systems, graphics management is often not a concern of the operating system kernel. However, as a simple multitasking 32-bit operating system with windows it is necessary to demonstrate the implementation of a graphical management subproblem. The issue that was selected for detailed discussion was the more complex *sheet* height settings in the graphics management section.

Sheet Height Setting

There are many *sheet* on the computer screen. Which *sheet* is located at which height requires careful design and detailed consideration. When the *sheet* height is set, the height of other layers must be taken into account. When the setting is complete, the relative height of other *sheet* cannot be changed. First, the algorithm for setting the height of the *sheet* is given in Fig. 3-11.

The height of passing in may not be compliant, for example, pass a negative number and so on. Therefore, it is necessary to check the height value first. If it does not meet the regulations, it needs to be corrected. *Sheet* height settings can be divided into four sections.

1. The original height of the *sheet* is higher than the newly transmitted height. The *sheet* between the newly transmitted height and the original height needs to be moved upward by a height. After the move is complete, place the original height *sheet* on the new

height. Fig. 3-12 shows this situation. The following explanations are necessary to understand this diagram. These explanations are also used for the next three cases.

1, each horizontal line represents a *sheet*, the label on the right represents the height of the layer. 2, the old and new heights are mark done the left. 3, the label next to the arrow represents the order of movement. 4, the bottom dashed line represents the hidden *sheet*, while the topmost dashed line represents the highest *sheet*.

2. The original height of the *sheet* is higher than the newly transmitted height. However, the height of the new pass is less than 0. This means that the *sheet* at old height needs to be hidden, the so-called hiding is to set its height to -1. *Sheet* above this height need to be moved down one height. Fig. 3-14 shows this situation.
3. The original height of the *sheet* is less than the newly transmitted height. The *sheet* between the newly transmitted height and the original height needs to be moved down by a height. After the move is complete, place the original height *sheet* on the new height. Fig. 3-13 shows this situation.
4. The original height of the *sheet* is less than the newly transmitted height. However, the height of the new pass is greater than top. This means that the *sheet* at old height needs to be displayed, the so-called displayed is to set its height larger than 0. *Sheet* above this new height need to be moved upward one height. Fig. 3-15 shows this situation.

Specific code implementation, see A.2.10.

3.3 API

3.4 APPs

Result: free memory

```

1 ENTRANCE: call memFree(struct MEMMAN *man, unsigned int
  addr, unsigned int size);
2 Procedure memFree(struct MEMMAN *man, unsigned int addr,
  unsigned int size)
3   Finding the starting address of the first entry i is greater than the
  released address addr;
4   if i > 0 then
5     if i'th entry can be merged with the previous one then
6       man->free[i - 1].size ← man->free[i - 1].size + size;
7       if i entry is less than the number of free entries then
8         if i'th can be merged with the latter then
9           man->free[i - 1].size ← man->free[i-1].size +
            man->free[i].size;
10          man->frees ← man->frees - 1;
11          move all free entries after i by one;
12        else
13          | nothing to do here;
14        end
15      else
16        | nothing to do here;
17      end
18    else
19      | Successfully released, return 0, FINISHED;
20    end
21  else
22    | nothing to do here;
23  end
24  if i < the number of free entries then
25    if i'th entry can be merged with the latter then
26      man->free[i].addr ← addr;
27      man->free[i].size ← man->free[i].size + size;
28      Successfully released, return 0, FINISHED;
29    else
30      | nothing to do here;
31    end
32  else
33    | nothing to do here;
34  end
35  if the number of free items used < the maximum number of free
    items(4090) then
36    move back all free entries after i'th entry by one;
37    man->frees ← man->frees + 1;
38    man -> free[i].addr ← addr;
39    man -> free[i].size ← size;
40    Successfully released, return 0, FINISHED;
41  else
42    | nothing to do here;
43  end
44  the number of release failures plus one;
45  increase the size to release the failed space;
46  Release failed, return -1, FINISHED;

```

Fig. 3-6 algorithm of release memory

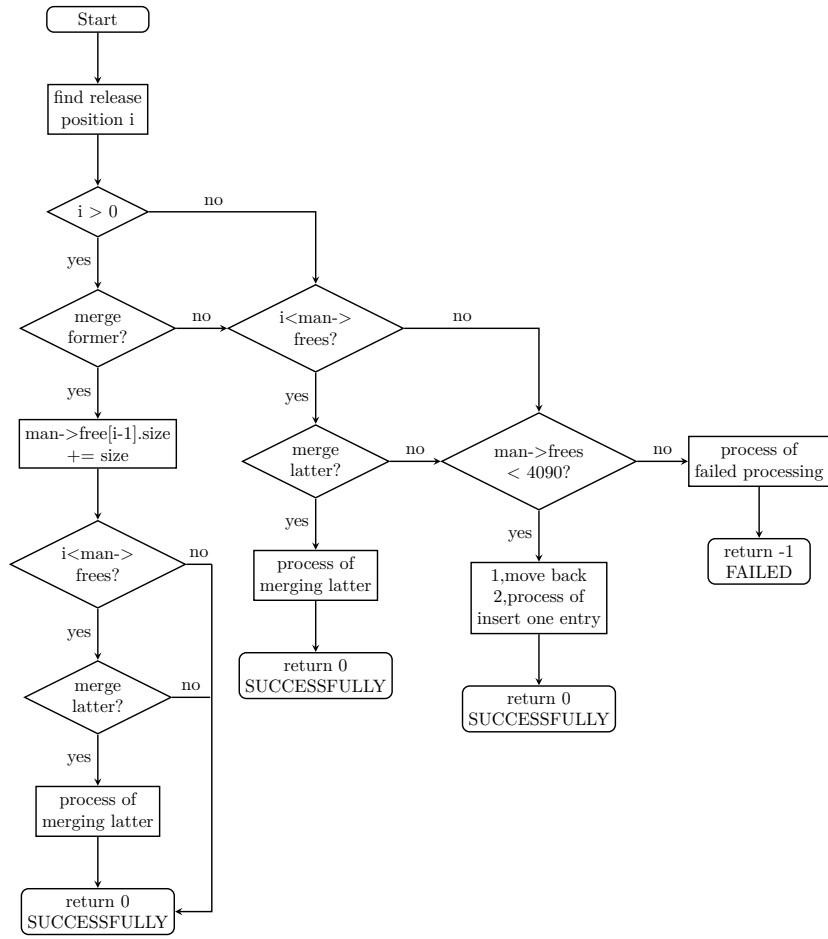


Fig. 3-7 flow chart of relase memory

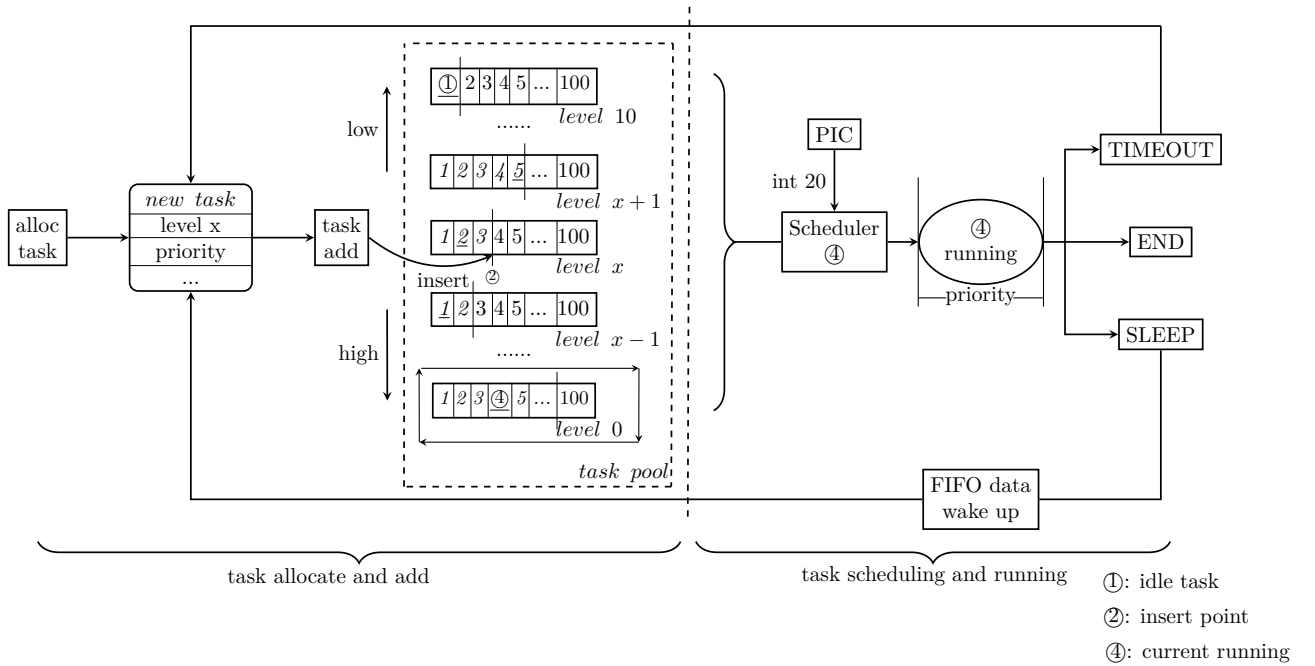


Fig. 3-8 process of task management

Result: schedule a task to run

```

1 ENTRANCE: call taskRun(struct TASK *task, int level, int priority);
2 Procedure taskRun(struct TASK *task, int level, int priority)
3   if level < 0 then
4     | don't change level, level ← task->level;
5   else
6     | nothing to do here;
7   end
8   if priority > 0 then
9     | Change the priority, task->priority ← priority;
10  else
11    | nothing to do here;
12  end
13  if the task is running and not at the level you want to set then
14    | Remove the task from the original level;
15  else
16    | nothing to do here;
17  end
18  if task is not running, but sleeping then
19    | set the new level, task->level ← level;
20    | waking up from sleep, call taskAdd(task);
21  else
22    | nothing to do here;
23  end
24  change the lv_change flag to 1, therefore, tasks must be switched
    when the task is scheduled next time;
25 Procedure taskAdd(struct TASK *task)
26  look for the corresponding level of the task;
27  place the task in the location indicated by running;
28  running++; Mark the task as running;

```

Fig. 3-9 algorithm to add tasks to task pool and prepare to run

Result: Schedule a task to run

```

1 ENTRANCE: call taskSwitch();
2 Procedure taskSwitch()
3   find out what task is running now_task in the current system based
    on now_lv and now;
4   add the now pointer to 1 for the next task scheduling;
5   if if the now pointer equals the number of running tasks then
6     | zero the now pointer;
7   else
8     | nothing to do here;
9   end
10  if lv_change is not 0 then
11    | call taskSwitchSub();
12    | get the currently running layer;
13  else
14    | nothing to do here;
15  end
16  get the new_task from the currently running level at now pointer;
17  set the timer of the task according to the priority of the task;
18  if new_task != now_task then
19    | jump to new_task run;
20  else
21    | nothing to do here;
22  end
23 Procedure taskSwitchSub()
24  for i ← 0 to 9 by 1 do
25    | if running task of i level > 0 then
26      | break;
27    | else
28      | nothing to do here;
29    | end
30  end
31  modify the current running level now_lv to i;
32  modify the lv_change to 0, so the next time don't need to call
    taskSwitchSub();

```

Fig. 3-10 task scheduling

Result: Set the height of a sheet

```

1 ENTRANCE: call sheetMove((struct SHTCTL *ctl, struct SHEET
   *sht, int height));
2 Procedure sheetMove(struct SHTCTL *ctl, struct SHEET *sht, int
   height)
3   old  $\leftarrow$  the original height of sht;
4   if height > top sheet plus 1 then
5     | height  $\leftarrow$  top + 1;
6   else
7     | nothing to do here;
8   end
9   if height < -1 then
10    | this means to hide sht sheet, height  $\leftarrow$  -1;
11  else
12    | nothing to do here;
13  end
14  if old > height then
15    if height >= 0 then
16      for h  $\leftarrow$  old to height by 1 do
17        | increases the height of all sheets between height and old
18        | by one;
19        | modify the height of all sheets to h;
20      end
21      place the sht sheet at height;
22    else
23      if highest sheet top > old then
24        for h  $\leftarrow$  old to top by 1 do
25          | drop all sheets between old and top by one height;
26          | modify the height of all sheets to h;
27        end
28      else
29        | nothing to do here;
30      end
31      the displayed sheet is reduced by one, top  $\leftarrow$  top - 1;
32    end
33    refresh screen;
34  else
35    if old < height then
36      if old >= 0 then
37        for h  $\leftarrow$  old to height by 1 do
38          | drop all sheets between old and height by one height;
39          | modify the height of all sheets to h;
40        end
41        place the sht sheet at height;
42      else
43        for h  $\leftarrow$  top to height by 1 do
44          | increases the height of all sheets between top and
45          | height by one;
46          | modify the height of all sheets to h+1;
47        end
48        place the sht sheet at height;
49        the displayed sheet is increased by one, top  $\leftarrow$  top + 1;
50      end
51      refresh screen;
52    else
53      | nothing to do here;
54    end
55  end

```

Fig. 3-11 algorithm of sheet height setting

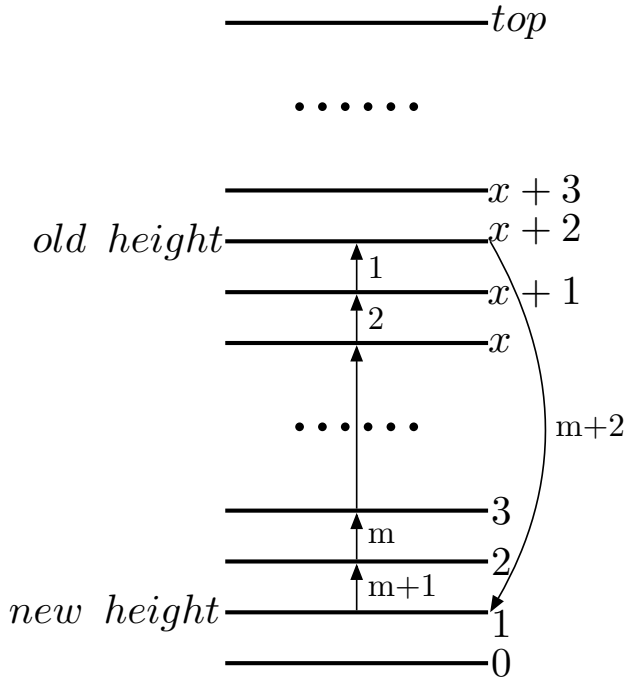


Fig. 3-12 height setting one

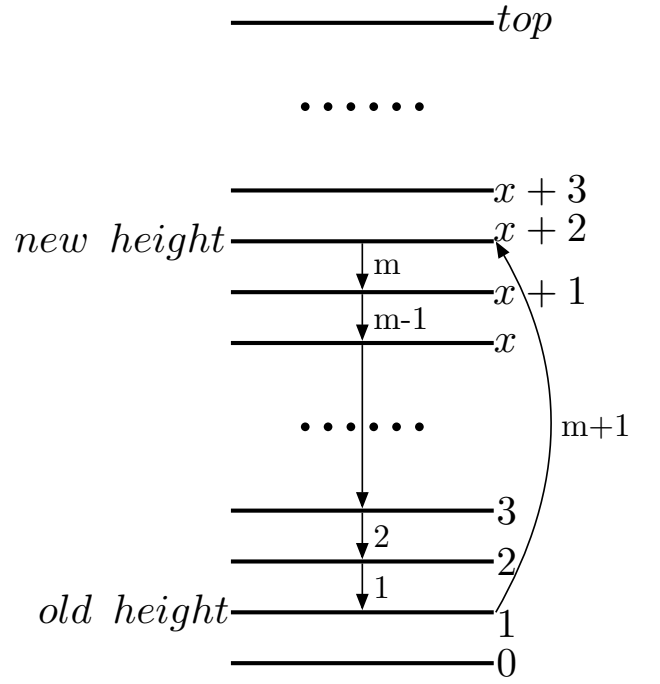


Fig. 3-13 height setting three

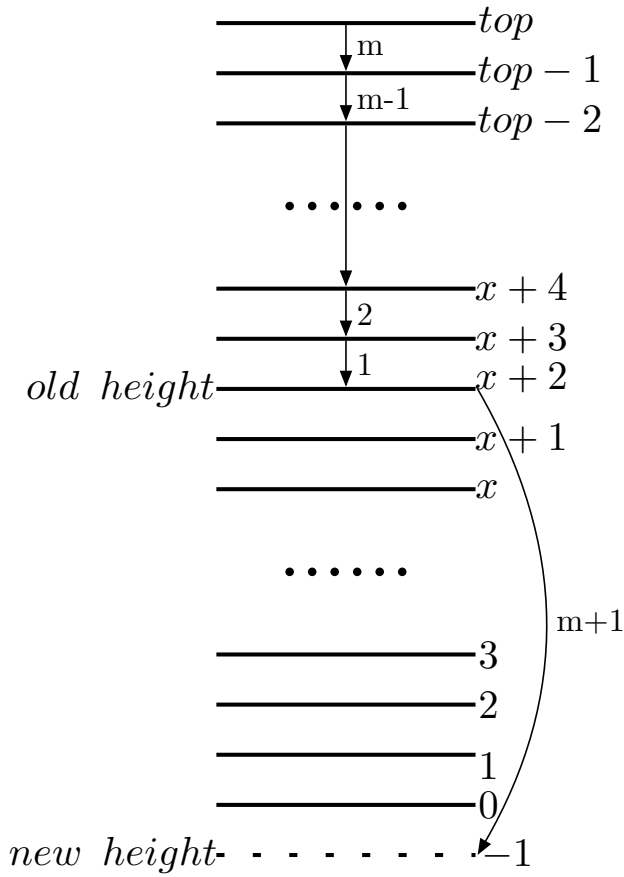


Fig. 3-14 height setting two

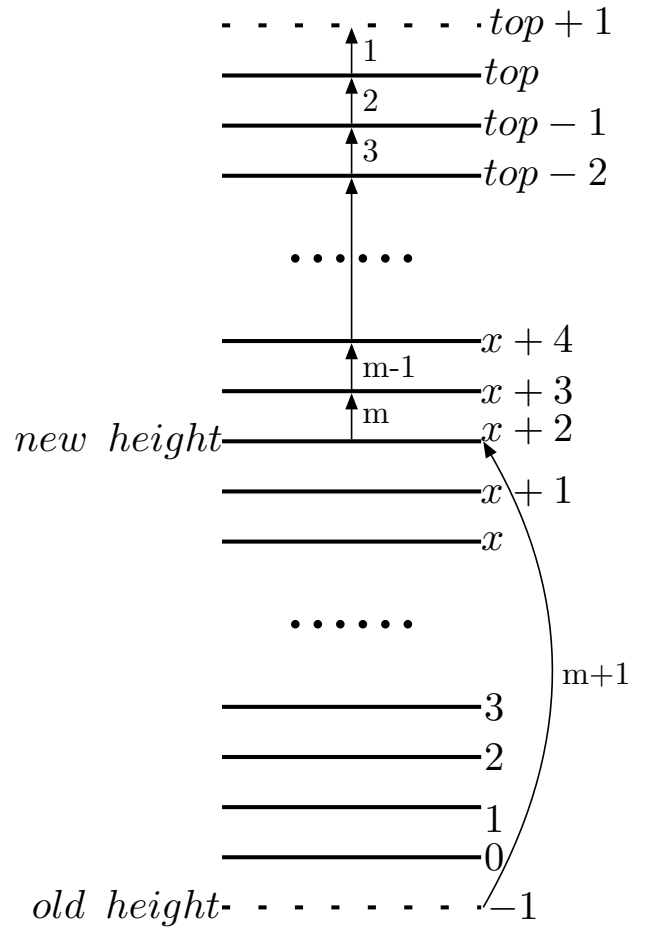


Fig. 3-15 height setting four

Fig. 3-16 all four setting height conditions

4 Conclusions

What goes in your “Conclusions” chapter? The purpose of this chapter is to provide a summary of the whole thesis or report. In this context, it is similar to the Abstract, except that the Abstract puts roughly equal weight on all thesis/report chapters, whereas the Conclusions chapter focuses primarily on the findings, conclusions and/or recommendations of the project.

There are a couple of rules –one rigid, one common sense, for this chapter:

- All material presented in this chapter must have appeared already in the report; no new material can be introduced in this chapter. (rigid rule of technical writing)
- Usually, you would not present any new figures or tables in this chapter. (rule of thumb)

Generally, for most technical reports and Masters theses, the Conclusions chapter would be 3 to 5 pages long (double spaced). It would generally be longer in a large PhD thesis. Typically you would have a paragraph or two for each chapter or major subsection. Aim to include the following (typical) content.

1. Re-introduce the project and the need for the work –though more briefly than in the intro;
2. Re-iterate the purpose and specific objectives of your project.
3. Re-cap the approach taken –similar to the road map in the intro; however, in this case, you are re-capping the data, methodology and results as you go.
4. Summarize the major findings and recommendations of your work.
5. Make recommendations for future research.

⁰<https://thesistips.wordpress.com/2012/03/25/how-to-write-your-introduction-abstract-and-summary/>

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Supervisor

Xiaolin WANG (Mr.), 49 years old, got his MSc degree at University of Greenwich in UK. Currently he's been working as a lecturer at the School of Big Data and Intelligence Engineering, Southwest Forestry University in China, teaching Linux, Operating Systems, and Computer Networking.

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I would like to thank my supervisor Mr. WANG Xiaolin for his continuous support of my four years undergraduate study. I am extremely thankful to him for sharing expertise, and sincere and valuable guidance and encouragement extended to me.

What I most want to thank is my girlfriend. She tolerated me when I finished this graduation project many nights did not accompany her, gave me support, encouraged me, and did not complain. So I would like to name this simple operating system as *RongOS*. Rong is the last word of her name. Thank you, my dearest.

My special thanks to a great company - Google, I think I need to thank you in this very formal place in my graduation thesis. Every time you gave me a lot of help, the knowledge and other abilities I learned from you will have a profound impact on my future life. I am grateful for every search, because I know you will give me the results I want. Without you, this paper cannot be completed. Thank you.

A Main Program Code

A.1 Boot loader

A.1.1 Display boot information

```
55  init:
56      mov al, [si]
57      add si, 1 ; increment by 1.
58      cmp al, 0
59      je load ; if al == 0, jmp to load, the msg_init info displayed.
60  ; the latest character is null character, coding in 0.
61
62      mov ah, 0x0e ; write a character in TTY mode.
63      mov bx, 15 ; specify the color of the character.
64      int 0x10 ; call BIOS function, video card is number 10.
65      jmp init
```

A.1.2 Read the second sector

```
87  load:
88      mov ax, 0
89      mov ax, 0x0820 ; load C0-H0-S2 to memory begin with 0x0820.
90      mov es, ax
91      mov ch, 0 ; cylinder 0.
92      mov dh, 0 ; head 0.
93      mov cl, 2 ; sector 2.
94
95
96  readloop:
97      mov si, 0 ; si register is a counter, try read a sector
98  ; five times.
99
100
101  retry:
102      mov ah, 0x02 ; parameter 0x02 to ah, read disk.
103      mov al, 1 ; parameter 1 to al, read disk.
104      mov bx, 0
105      mov dl, 0x00 ; the number of driver number.
106      int 0x13 ; after prepared parameters, call 0x13 interrupted.
```

A.1.3 Read two sides of a track

```
108      jnc next ; if no carry read next sector.
109      add si, 1 ; tring again read sector, counter add 1.
110      cmp si, 5 ; until five times
111      jae error ; if tring times large than five, failed.
```

```

112
113     ; reset the status of floppy and read again.
114     mov ah, 0x00
115     mov dl, 0x00
116     int 0x13
117     jmp retry
118
119
120 next:
121     mov ax, es
122     ; we can not directly add to es register.
123     add ax, 0x0020 ; add 0x0020 to ax
124     mov es, ax ; the memory increase 0x0020 * 16 = 512 byte.
125     ; size of a sector.
126     add cl, 1 ; sector number add 1.
127     cmp cl, 18 ; one track have 18 sector.
128     jbe readloop ; jump if below or equal 18, read the next sector.
129     mov cl, 1 ; cl number reset to 1, ready to read the other side.
130     add dh, 1 ; the other side of floppy.
131     cmp dh, 2 ; only two sides of floppy.
132     jb readloop ; if dh < 2, read 18 sectors of the other sides

```

A.1.4 The next cylinder

```

134     mov dh, 0 ; after finished read the other side, reset head to 0.
135     add ch, 1 ; two sides of a cylinder readed, add 1 to ch.
136     cmp ch, CYLS ; read 10 cylinders.
137     jb readloop

```

A.2 Kernel Modules

A.2.1 Memory check process

```

7     unsigned int memtest(unsigned int start, unsigned int end)
8     {
9         char flg486 = 0;
10        unsigned int eflg, cr0, i;
11
12        //check whether it is 386 or 486 or later.
13        eflg = io_load_eflags();
14        eflg |= EFLAGS_AC_BIT;
15        io_store_eflags(eflg);
16        eflg = io_load_eflags();
17
18        if ((eflg & EFLAGS_AC_BIT) != 0)
19            flg486 = 1;
20
21        eflg &= ~EFLAGS_AC_BIT;
22        io_store_eflags(eflg);

```

```

23
24     if (flg486 != 0)
25     {
26         cr0 = load_cr0();
27         cr0 |= CRO_CACHE_DISABLE; // caching prohibited
28         store_cr0(cr0);
29     }
30
31     i = memtest_sub(start, end);
32
33     if (flg486 != 0)
34     {
35         cr0 = load_cr0();
36         cr0 &= ~CRO_CACHE_DISABLE; // cache permission
37
38         store_cr0(cr0);
39     }
40
41     return i;
42 }

220 _memtest_sub: ; unsigned int memtest_sub(unsigned int start, unsigned int
    ↪ end)
221     push edi
222     push esi
223     push ebx ; store the value of three registers
224     mov esi, 0xaa55aa55 ; pat0 = 0xaa55aa55
225     mov edi, 0x55aa55aa ; pat1 = 0x55aa55aa
226     mov eax, [esp + 12 + 4] ; i = start
227
228 mts_loop:
229     mov ebx, eax
230     add ebx, 0xffc ; p = i + 0xffc
231     mov edx, [ebx] ; old = *p;
232     mov [ebx], esi ; *p = pat0
233     xor dword [ebx], 0xffffffff ; *p ^= 0xffffffff
234     cmp edi, [ebx] ; if (*p != pat1) goto fin
235     jne mts_fin
236     xor dword [ebx], 0xffffffff ; *p ^= 0xffffffff
237     cmp esi, [ebx] ; if (*p != pat0) goto fin;
238
239     jne mts_fin
240     mov [ebx], edx ; *p = old;
241     add eax, 0x1000 ; i += 0x1000;
242     cmp eax, [esp + 12 + 8] ; if (i <= end) goto mts_loop;
243     jbe mts_loop
244     pop ebx
245     pop esi
246     pop edi
247     ret
248

```

```
249 mts_fin:
250         mov [ebx], edx ; *p = old;
251         pop ebx
252         pop esi
253         pop edi
254         ret
```

A.2.2 Memory allocation process

```
64 unsigned int memman_alloc(struct MEMMAN *man, unsigned int size)
65 {
66     unsigned int i, a;
67     for (i = 0; i < man -> frees; i++)
68     {
69         if (man -> free[i].size >= size) // discovering an free space of
        ↪ sufficient size
70         {
71             a = man -> free[i].addr;
72             man -> free[i].addr += size;
73             man -> free[i].size -= size;
74             if (man -> free[i].size == 0) // if the free size of the i'th
            ↪ item is zero
75             {
76                 man -> frees--;
77                 for (; i < man -> frees; i++)
78                     man -> free[i] = man -> free[i + 1]; // move
79             }
80             return a;
81         }
82     }
83
84     return 0;
85 }
```

A.2.3 Memory release process

```
88 int memman_free(struct MEMMAN *man, unsigned int addr, unsigned int size)
    ↪ // release
89 {
90     int i, j;
91     /*
92         considering easiness of summarization, it is better for free[] to be
    ↪ arranged in order of addr
93         So first, decide where to put
94     */
95     for (i = 0; i < man -> frees; i++)
96     {
97         if (man -> free[i].addr > addr)
98             break;
99     }
```

```

100 // free[i - 1].addr < addr < free[i].addr
101 if (i > 0) // if there is an free entry near the released entry
102 {
103     if (man -> free[i - 1].addr + man -> free[i - 1].size == addr)
104     {
105         man -> free[i - 1].size += size;
106         if (i < man -> frees)
107         {
108             if (addr + size == man -> free[i].addr)
109             {
110                 man -> free[i - 1].size += man -> free[i].size;
111                 //delete man->free[i]
112                 man -> frees--;
113                 for (; i < man -> frees; i++)
114                 {
115                     man -> free[i] = man -> free[i + 1]; // moving all
116                     ↪ after i'th item.
117                 }
118             }
119             return 0; // successful completion
120         }
121     }
122 }
123
124 if (i < man -> frees)
125 {
126     if (addr + size == man -> free[i].addr)
127     {
128         man -> free[i].addr = addr;
129         man -> free[i].size += size;
130         return 0; // successful completion
131     }
132 }
133
134 if (man -> frees < MEMMAN_FREES)
135 {
136     for (j = man -> frees; j > i; j--)
137     {
138         man -> free[j] = man -> free[j - 1];
139     }
140
141     man -> frees++;
142
143     if (man -> maxfrees < man -> frees)
144     {
145         man -> maxfrees = man -> frees; // update maximum value
146     }
147
148     man -> free[i].addr = addr;

```

```

149     man -> free[i].size = size;
150     return 0; // successful completion
151 }
152
153 // can not move backwards.
154 man -> losts++;
155 man -> lostsize += size;
156
157 return -1; // failed end.
158 }

```

A.2.4 Task allocate

```

115 struct TASK* task_alloc(void)
116 {
117     int i;
118     struct TASK *task;
119     for (i = 0; i < MAX_TASKS; i++)
120     {
121         if (taskctl -> tasks0[i].flags == 0)
122         {
123             task = &taskctl -> tasks0[i];
124             task -> flags = 1; // mark in use
125             task -> tss.eflags = 0x00000202;
126             task -> tss.eax = 0; // leave it 0 for now
127             task -> tss.ecx = 0;
128             task -> tss.edx = 0;
129             task -> tss.ebx = 0;
130             task -> tss.ebp = 0;
131             task -> tss.esi = 0;
132             task -> tss.edi = 0;
133             task -> tss.es = 0;
134             task -> tss.ds = 0;
135             task -> tss.fs = 0;
136             task -> tss.gs = 0;
137             task -> tss.iomap = 0x40000000;
138             task -> tss.ss0 = 0;
139             return task;
140         }
141     }
142     return 0; // all are in use
143 }

```

A.2.5 Task add

```

14 void task_add(struct TASK *task)
15 {
16     struct TASKLEVEL *tl = &taskctl -> level[task -> level];
17     tl -> tasks[tl -> running] = task;
18     tl -> running++;

```



```
19 | task -> flags = 2; // in running
20 | return;
21 | }
```

A.2.6 Task scheduling

```
186 | void task_switch(void)
187 | {
188 |     struct TASKLEVEL *tl = &taskctl -> level[taskctl -> now_lv];
189 |     struct TASK *new_task, *now_task = tl -> tasks[tl -> now];
190 |     tl -> now++; // addition for the next task switch in the same level
191 |     if (tl -> now == tl -> running)
192 |         tl -> now = 0;
193 |
194 |     if (taskctl -> lv_change != 0) // need to change level
195 |     {
196 |         task_switchsub(); // find the highest level tasks
197 |         tl = &taskctl -> level[taskctl -> now_lv];
198 |     }
199 |     new_task = tl -> tasks[tl -> now];
200 |     timer_settime(task_timer, new_task -> priority);
201 |     if (new_task != now_task)
202 |         farjmp(0, new_task -> sel);
203 |
204 |     return;
205 | }

49 | void task_switchsub(void)
50 | {
51 |     int i;
52 |
53 |     // find the highest level
54 |     for (i = 0; i < MAX_TASKLEVELS; i++)
55 |     {
56 |         if (taskctl -> level[i].running > 0)
57 |             break; // found
58 |     }
59 |
60 |     taskctl -> now_lv = i;
61 |     taskctl -> lv_change = 0;
62 |     return;
63 | }
```

A.2.7 Task running

```
146 | void task_run(struct TASK *task, int level, int priority)
147 | {
148 |     if (level < 0)
149 |         level = task -> level; // don't change level
150 | }
```

```

151     if (priority > 0)
152         task -> priority = priority;
153
154     if (task -> flags == 2 && task -> level != level) // change in active
        ↪ level
155         task_remove(task); // flag will be 1
156
157     if (task -> flags != 2) // waking up from sleep
158     {
159         task -> level = level;
160         task_add(task);
161     }
162
163     taskctl -> lv_change = 1; // change the lv_change, so next time must
        ↪ check level
164     return;
165 }
```

A.2.8 Task sleep

```

167 void task_sleep(struct TASK *task)
168 {
169     struct TASK *now_task;
170     if (task -> flags == 2)
171     {
172         // if it is running
173         now_task = task_now();
174         task_remove(task); // when this function done, flags will be 1
175         if (task == now_task)
176         {
177             // sleeping myself, task switch needing
178             task_switchsub();
179             now_task = task_now();
180             farjmp(0, now_task -> sel);
181         }
182     }
183     return;
184 }
```

A.2.9 Task remove

```

23 void task_remove(struct TASK *task)
24 {
25     int i;
26     struct TASKLEVEL *tl = &taskctl -> level[task -> level];
27
28     for (i = 0; i < tl -> running; i++) // find where the task is
29     {
30         if (tl -> tasks[i] == task)
31             break; // here
```

```

32     }
33
34     tl -> running--;
35     if (i < tl -> now)
36         tl -> now--;
37
38     if (tl -> now >= tl -> running)
39         tl -> now = 0; // if now is a strange value, fix it
40
41     task -> flags = 1; // sleeping
42
43     for (; i < tl -> running; i++)
44         tl -> tasks[i] = tl -> tasks[i + 1];
45
46     return;
47 }
```

A.2.10 Graphic height setting

```

250 void sheet_updown(struct SHEET *sht, int height) // insert the sheet at the
    ↪ location of height
251 {
252     struct SHTCTL *ctl = sht -> ctl;
253     int h, old = sht -> height; // remember the height before setting
254
255     // if the height is too low or too high, fix it.
256     if (height > ctl -> top + 1)
257     {
258         height = ctl -> top + 1;
259     }
260     if (height < -1)
261     {
262         height = -1; // -1, hidden the sheet
263     }
264     sht -> height = height; // set height
265
266     //the following are mainly sort of sheets[]
267     if (old > height) // it gets lower than before
268     {
269         if (height >= 0) //still showing, pull up
270         {
271             for (h = old; h > height; h--)
272             {
273                 ctl -> sheets[h] = ctl -> sheets[h - 1];
274                 ctl -> sheets[h] -> height = h;
275             }
276             ctl -> sheets[height] = sht;
277             sheet_refreshmap(ctl, sht -> vx0, sht -> vy0, sht -> vx0 + sht
    ↪ -> bsize, sht -> vy0 + sht -> bysize, height + 1);
```

```

278     sheet_refreshsub(ctl, sht -> vx0, sht -> vy0, sht -> vx0 + sht
    ↪ -> bsize, sht -> vy0 + sht -> bysize, height + 1, old);
279 }
280 else // hide
281 {
282     if (ctl -> top > old) // pull down
283     {
284         for (h = old; h < ctl -> top; h++)
285         {
286             ctl -> sheets[h] = ctl -> sheets[h + 1];
287             ctl -> sheets[h] -> height = h;
288         }
289     }
290     ctl -> top--; //since the number of sheets decrease by one, the
    ↪ height at the top decreases
291     sheet_refreshmap(ctl, sht->vx0, sht->vy0, sht->vx0 +
    ↪ sht->bsize, sht->vy0 + sht->bysize, 0);
292     sheet_refreshsub(ctl, sht -> vx0, sht -> vy0, sht -> vx0 + sht
    ↪ -> bsize, sht -> vy0 + sht -> bysize, 0, old - 1);
293
294 }
295 }
296 else if (old < height) // it gets higher than before
297 {
298     if (old >= 0) // pull down
299     {
300         for (h = old; h < height; h++)
301         {
302             ctl -> sheets[h] = ctl -> sheets[h + 1];
303             ctl -> sheets[h] -> height = h;
304         }
305         ctl -> sheets[height] = sht;
306     }
307     else // from non-display state to display state
308     {
309         for (h = ctl -> top; h >= height; h--) // lift up
310         {
311             ctl -> sheets[h + 1] = ctl -> sheets[h];
312             ctl -> sheets[h + 1] -> height = h + 1;
313         }
314         ctl -> sheets[height] = sht;
315         ctl -> top++; // since the number of being displayed increases
    ↪ by one, the height at the top increases
316     }
317     sheet_refreshmap(ctl, sht->vx0, sht->vy0, sht->vx0 + sht->bsize,
    ↪ sht->vy0 + sht->bysize, height);
318     sheet_refreshsub(ctl, sht -> vx0, sht -> vy0, sht -> vx0 + sht ->
    ↪ bsize, sht -> vy0 + sht -> bysize, height, height);
319 }
320

```

```
321 | return;  
322 | }
```