# Project 2: User Programs

Operating Systems — National University of San Marcos

# Group

- Damaris Del Carpio damaris.delcarpio@unmsm.edu.pe
- Paolo Flores paolo.flores2@unmsm.edu.pe

### **Preliminaries**

Please cite any offline or online sources you consulted while preparing your submission, other than the Pintos documentation, course text, lecture notes, and course staff.

- 1. PintOS Project 2 Introduction. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Rb sE0EQ9  $\,$  dY
- 2. System Calls Introduction by University of Toronto. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jfPdiaAG0AQ https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3D cNBOUkXuw
- 3. https://pkuflyingpig.gitbook.io/
- 4. Operating Systems: Principles and Practice (Anderson and Dahlin)
- 5. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Memory\_paging#Physical\_and\_virtual address space sizes

## **Argument Passing**

## **Data Structures**

A1: 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.

None.

### Algorithm

**A2:** Briefly describe how you implemented argument parsing. How do you arrange for the elements of argv[] to be in the right order? How do you avoid overflowing the stack page?

# 1. Command Parsing:

First we tokenize the command-line string into command (argv[0]) and arguments (argv[1..n]) into two variables: cmd and argv respectively using  $strtok_r()$ .

```
// File: userprog/process.c
int
process_parse_args (char *cmd, char **argv)
{
```

```
int argc = 0;
char *token, *save_ptr;

for (
   token = strtok_r (cmd, " ", &save_ptr);
   token != NULL;
   token = strtok_r (NULL, " ", &save_ptr), argc++
)
   argv[argc] = token;

return argc;
}
```

## 2. Stack Initialization:

Once we have the command and arguments, we push them onto the stack of the calling process.

This process follows the standard x86 calling convention:

- Pushes arguments data.
- Aligns memory to 4 bytes.
- Pushes the address of the arguments in right-to-left order.
- Pushes the address of argv[0].
- Pushes argc.
- Pushes a fake return address (0).

For example, the command arguments for /bin/ls -l foo bar would be pushed to the stack as:

```
// File: userprog/process.c
void
process_init_stack_args (char **argv, int argc, void **esp)
{
    //....

    // And we push the pointers one by one, in reverse order
    for(int i = argc - 1; i >= 0; i--)
        {
          *esp -= 4;
          **(uint32_t **)esp = argv[i];
     }

    //....
```

The stack is managed by setting up the stack page at the top of the user virtual memory (PHYS\_BASE) and adjusting the stack pointer (esp) accordingly.

Address	Name	Data	Туре
0xbffffffc	argv[3][]	bar\0	char[4]
0xbffffff8	argv[2][]	foo\0	char[4]
0xbffffff5	argv[1][]	-I\O	char[3]
Oxbfffffed	argv[θ][]	/bin/Is\0	char[8]
0xbfffffec	word-align	0	uint8_t
0xbfffffe8	argv[4]	0	char *
0xbfffffe4	argv[3]	Oxbffffffc	char *
0xbfffffe0	argv[2]	0xbffffff8	char *
Oxbfffffdc	argv[1]	0xbffffff5	char *
0xbfffffd8	argv[0]	0xbfffffed	char *
0xbfffffd4	argv	0xbfffffd8	char **
0xbfffffd0	argc	4	int
Oxbfffffcc	return address	0	void (*) ()

Figure 1: Argument passing result

We ensured that the stack grows downwards, however, we didn't provide overflow checks for the allocated page and assume 4KB is enough for most use cases.

#### Rationale

A3: Why does Pintos implement strtok\_r() but not strtok()?

Pintos uses strtok\_r() because it is a safer and more flexible version of strtok().

The key difference is that strtok\_r() requires the caller to provide a separate pointer (save\_ptr) to keep track of the current position in the string, while strtok() stores this information internally (i.e., globally).

For example, if two threads were to call **strtok()** simultaneously, they would share the same internal pointer and could interfere with each other, leading to very hard to debug errors like memory corruption or undefined behavior.

**A4:** In Pintos, the kernel separates commands into a executable name and arguments. In Unix-like systems, the shell does this separation. Identify at least two advantages of the Unix approach.

- 1. Reduces the kernel's workload: In the Unix approach, the shell, which runs in user space, handles command parsing. This separation of concerns offloads this responsability to the kernel, making it simpler.
- 2. Improves flexibility: Individual shell implementations can have different parsing rules, or mechanisms, allowing for more customization without affecting the kernel. Thanks to this we users benefit from features like wildcards, pipes, and redirection.
- 3. Platform independence: Because Unix is a standard, this separation of concerns provide a consistent interface across different Unix systems.

# System Calls

### **Data Structures**

**B1:** 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.

# Parent-child Relatioinship

```
struct list list_child_process;
    struct list_elem elem_child_process;
#endif
// ...
}
```

Fields in struct thread track parent-child process relationships, storing the parent in parent\_process and child processes in list\_child\_process, initialized during thread create.

**Process control block** Now that we support user processes, we needed to store process information like open files, state semaphores, exit status, etc. somewhere. For this purpose Operating systems use a structure called the Process Control Block (PCB).

In the future, this structure could be expanded to include more process information like pid, privilegies, limits, etc.

**B2:** Describe how file descriptors are associated with open files. Are file descriptors unique within the entire OS or just within a single process?

File descriptors are only unique within each process and are assigned as non-negative integers to open files. File descriptors 0 and 1 are for standard input and output. Each process has its own file descriptor table fd\_table for this purpose.

File descriptors are not unique across the entire OS.

## **Algorithms**

**B3:** Describe your code for reading and writing user data from the kernel.

## sys\_read (fd, buffer, size):

- Argument validation: It checks if the provided buffer address is valid using is\_valid\_uaddr (). If not, exits the process.
- It retrieves the associated file descriptor (fd) from the thread's file descriptor table. If it's not there or it's invalid, exists.
- Read: It acquires the file\_lock lock to ensure synchronization while reading. The file\_read () function provided by Pintos is used to read the specified number of bytes (size) from the file into the provided buffer.
- The lock is released.
- The number of bytes actually read from the file is returned.

### sys write (fd, buffer, size):

- It checks if the file descriptor (fd) is valid and within range, otherwise, exits.
- If fd == 1 (standard output), it directly writes to the console using putbuf(). Otherwise, it retrieves the file from the file descriptor table.
- The function locks access to the file and performs the write using file\_write () provided by Pintos.
- The lock file\_lock is released.
- The number of written bytes is returned.

**B4:** Suppose a system call causes a full page (4,096 bytes) of data to be copied from user space into the kernel. What is the least and the greatest possible number of inspections of the page table (e.g. calls to pagedir\_get\_page()) that might result? What about for a system call that only copies 2 bytes of data? Is there room for improvement in these numbers, and how much?

For a system call copying 4096 bytes (a full page), the least possible number of page table inspections is 1, assuming the entire page is already mapped in memory and continuous. The greatest theoretically number is 4096, with each byte requiring a call to pagedir\_get\_page.

The same logic applies to a system call copying 2 bytes, with the least number being 1 and the greatest being 2.

Room for improvement exists by, instead of translating addresses and parsing pages on the fly, we first determine the page address range so we can do inspection in batches. For example, one inspection for aligned pages.

**B5:** Briefly describe your implementation of the "wait" system call and how it interacts with process termination.

The function waits for the specified child process (identified by pid) to terminate. It calls process\_wait (pid), which is responsible for handling the termination process.

The process\_wait () function:

- first checks if the child exists and whether it is a valid child process. If the process is invalid or has already been waited on, it returns -1.
- it uses a semaphore (sema\_wait in PCB) to wait until the child process has terminated.
- Once the child process exits, its exit status is retrieved, and the child process's resources are cleaned up.

**B6:** Any access to user program memory at a user-specified address can fail due to a bad pointer value. Such accesses must cause the process to be terminated. System calls are fraught with such accesses, e.g. a "write" system call requires reading the system call number from the user stack, then each of the call's three arguments, then an arbitrary amount of user memory, and any of these can fail at any point. This poses a design and error-handling problem: how do you best avoid obscuring the primary function of code in a morass of error-handling? Furthermore, when an error is detected, how do you ensure that all temporarily allocated resources (locks, buffers, etc.) are freed? In a few paragraphs, describe the strategy or strategies you adopted for managing these issues. Give an example.

The strategy to handle errors due to bad pointer values in system calls involves two key elements: validation and cleanup.

Every user-specified memory address is checked for validity using the is\_valid\_uaddr function, ensuring it lies within the allowed user space range. Invalid addresses immediately trigger a process termination using sys\_exit. To manage error handling cleanly and avoid cluttering the main logic, validation is modularized into helper functions like get\_syscall\_args. These helpers centralize checks and reduce repetition, maintaining code clarity.

For resource management, temporarily allocated resources such as locks or buffers are managed using structured approaches. For instance, file operations use the file\_lock to ensure consistent state, and the lock is always released after an operation—whether successful or not. Similarly, open file descriptors are tracked in a process's fd\_table, and resources are released systematically when errors occur or during process termination.

As an example, in the sys\_open function, memory validation ensures the provided filename is valid. If validation fails, the function exits immediately, avoiding partial resource allocation. When file operations succeed, the lock ensures thread safety, and proper bookkeeping is done to update the fd\_table.

## Synchronization

B7: The "exec" system call returns -1 if loading the new executable fails, so it cannot return before the new executable has completed loading. How does your code ensure this? How is the load success/failure status passed back to the thread that calls "exec"?

The sys\_exec () function ensures that the new executable has been successfully loaded before returning by leveraging the has\_loaded flag in the Process Control Block (PCB). After calling process\_execute(cmd\_line), I check the has\_loaded field of the child process's PCB. If the executable fails to load (i.e., has\_loaded is false or pid is -1), sys\_exec () returns -1. This ensures that the function only returns a valid process ID when the executable has been properly loaded. The parent waits for the child process to load, synchronizing the execution flow.

**B8:** Consider parent process P with child process C. How do you ensure proper synchronization and avoid race conditions when P calls wait(C) before C exits? After C exits? How do you ensure that all resources are freed in each case? How about when P terminates without waiting, before C exits? After C exits? Are there any special cases?

A useful approach would be to use of a child\_status struct to represent each child's status in a list within the parent's struct. This prevents race conditions and ensures proper resource cleanup.

- 1. P calls wait(C) before C exits: The parent waits for the child to exit. Once C exits, P retrieves the exit status and frees C's resources.
- 2. P calls wait(C) after C exits: P doesn't wait since C has already exited. It directly gets the exit status from the child\_status struct.
- 3. P terminates without waiting before C exits: The parent exits without waiting for C. C continues running and doesn't notify P. The parent frees its children list.
- 4. P terminates after C exits: P exits and releases resources for C after C has already exited.

Also, using a semaphore (say, child\_sem) to synchronize the processes seems convenient. When P terminates, all child resources are cleaned up, and if P terminates before C, C continues without any updates.

# Rationale

**B9:** Why did you choose to implement access to user memory from the kernel in the way that you did?

We chose to implement user memory access in the kernel by validating the address with is\_valid\_uaddr before each access. This ensures that any invalid user

memory access results in immediate process termination, preventing segmentation faults and maintaining stability.

**B10:** What advantages or disadvantages can you see to your design for file descriptors?

The design of file descriptors using a table in the PCB has the advantage of efficient access and management of files within a process. However, it may have scalability limitations if the process needs to handle a large number of open files since the table is limited in size.

**B11:** The default tid\_t to pid\_t mapping is the identity mapping. If you changed it, what advantages are there to your approach?

We didn't change this mapping.