General Information:
This is a closed book exam. You are allowed 1 page of notes (both sides). You may use a calculator. You have 110 minutes to complete as much of the exam as possible. Make sure to read all of the questions first, as some of the questions are substantially more time consuming.

PLEASE WRITE YOUR ANSWERS ON THE ANSWER SHEET, NOT IN-LINE HERE. Make your answers as concise as possible. On programming questions, we will be looking for performance as well as correctness, so think through your answers carefully. If there is something about the questions that you believe is open to interpretation, please ask us about it!

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Problem 1: True/False [18 pts]

Please EXPLAIN your answer in TWO SENTENCES OR LESS (Answers longer than this may not get credit!). Also, answers without an explanation GET NO CREDIT.

**Problem 1a [2pts]:** If Thread A and B are in the same process, then Thread A can access local variables stored in Thread B’s stack.

✔ True  ☐ False

Explain: Since both threads are in the same process, they share the same address space. Thus, assuming that Thread A can get an address of a local variable on Thread B’s stack, then it can read it or write it. Note, that this fact doesn’t mean that it is a good idea to program this way!

**Problem 1b [2pts]:** Let \( n \) be the size of the virtual address space. On a `fork()` call, the OS does \( O(n) \) work to duplicate the parent’s address space for the child process.

✔ True  ☐ False

Explain: The OS copies all of the parent’s page table entries (to perform copy-of-write), which mostly scales with the size of the parent’s virtual address space. Note, however, that the question does say “virtual address space.” So, if the virtual address space is very sparsely populated (most of the virtual space is not mapped to actual physical addresses), then multi-level page tables would not have a number of page table entries that scale directly with the size of the virtual address space. If you point this out, we will take “False” as an answer.

**Problem 1c [2pts]:** Trying to use `lseek()` on file descriptor #1 will always result in an error.

☐ True  ✔ False

Explain: Descriptor #1 is for `stdout`. While it is true the `lseek()` on the default (terminal) output will cause an error, the user can use `dup2()` to change `stdout` to refer to a file, which can accept `lseek()` operations.

**Problem 1d [2pts]:** A child process can communicate with its parent by utilizing a data structure on its heap that was allocated before the parent performed a `fork()` system call.

☐ True  ✔ False

Explain: Since child and parent have different address spaces, their heaps are distinct. Any object allocated on the heap before executing `fork()`, will be copied into the child, but will not be shared between parent and child; or, in other words, a write to the object by the parent will only alter the parents copy of the object and will not affect the child’s copy in any way.

**Problem 1e [2pts]:** If we have a queue of multiple waiters on a condition variable with Mesa scheduling, and we execute a `cond_broadcast()`, the waiters would be processed in FIFO order.

☐ True  ✔ False

Explain: The typically implementation of `cond_broadcast()` makes no guarantees on the order in which threads are woken up. And, even if they were, there is no guarantee that they will reacquire the lock in the any order related to their original sleeping order.
Problem 1f[2pts]: There are situations where disabling interrupts must be used as opposed to other synchronization primitives.

☑ True  □ False

Explain: Whenever code is modifying structures that could be altered by an interrupt handler, then it must disable interrupts to avoid corrupting the data structures. A good example is the basic scheduling queues which can get altered by the timer interrupt.

Problem 1g[2pts]: Inside the Pintos kernel, we can find the struct thread of the current running thread by rounding down %esp to the nearest page boundary.

☑ True  □ False

Explain: The Pintos kernel allocates a page-sized structure in the kernel for each new thread. This 4K page has the TCB at the beginning of the page and uses the rest of the page for a kernel stack. Consequently, taking the stack point (%esp) and rounding it down to the nearest page boundary will find a pointer to the beginning of the page, which holds the TCB.

Problem 1h[2pts]: The FPU registers must be saved and restored on every entry into the kernel.

□ True  ☑ False

Explain: Since the kernel doesn’t really use the FPU for anything, we don’t need to save the FPU registers unless we are context switching. We would do that by pushing them on the kernel stack before we begin the context switch. What this means, is that typical system calls, interrupts, or exceptions that will return to the current user can just leave the FPU registers alone.

Problem 1i[2pts]: Context switching is implemented in Pintos by swapping user stacks.

□ True  ☑ False

Explain: Context switching is accomplished by swapping kernel stacks, not user stacks. The reason this works is that the user stack is in (user) memory and the user stack pointer is pushed on the kernel stack automatically on entry to the kernel. Consequently, swapping the kernel stack will implicitly swap out the user stack.
Problem 2: Multiple Choice [16pts]

Problem 2a[2pts]: Which of the following are true about syscalls in Pintos? (choose all that apply):
A: ☐ User programs directly call the syscall functions in the file src/userprog/syscall.c.
B: ☑ Arguments passed into system calls must be validated before they are used.
C: ☐ Syscalls in Pintos are run in user mode.
D: ☑ The wait syscall returns the exit code of the child process specified in the argument to the function.
E: ☐ None of the above.

Problem 2b[2pts]: What are some reasons that overuse of threads is bad (i.e. using too many threads at the same time in a single process)? (choose all that apply):
A: ☐ The thread name-space becomes too large and fragmented, making it very difficult to efficiently track the current executing thread.
B: ☑ The overhead of switching between too many threads can waste processor cycles such that the overhead outweighs actual computation (i.e. thrashing)
C: ☑ Excessive threading can waste memory for stacks and TCBs
D: ☐ The number of page tables becomes too large, thus overloading the virtual memory mechanisms.
E: ☐ All of the above.

Problem 2c[2pts]: What are the disadvantages of disabling interrupts to serialize access to a critical section? (choose all that apply):
A: ☑ User code cannot utilize this technique for serializing access to critical sections.
B: ☐ Interrupt controllers have a limited number of physical interrupt lines, thereby making it problematic to allocate them exclusively to critical sections.
C: ☑ This technique would lock out other hardware interrupts, potentially causing critical events to be missed.
D: ☑ This technique is a very coarse-grained method of serializing, yielding only one such lock for each core.
E: ☑ This technique could not be used to enforce a critical section on a multiprocessor.
**Problem 2d[2pts]:** In Pintos, every user thread is matched with a corresponding kernel thread (complete with a kernel stack). What is true about this arrangement *(choose all that apply)*:

A: ✓ When the user-thread makes a system call that must block *(e.g. a read to a file that must go to disk)*, the thread can be blocked at any time by putting the kernel thread *(with its stack)* to sleep and waking another kernel thread *(with its stack)* from the ready queue.

B: □ The presence of the matched kernel thread makes the user thread run twice as fast as it would otherwise.

C: ✓ The kernel thread helps to make sure that the page table is constructed properly so that the user thread’s address space is protected from threads in other processes.

D: □ While user code is running, the kernel thread manages cached data from the file system to make sure the most recent items are stored in the cache and ready when the user needs them.

E: ✓ The kernel gains safety because it does not have to rely on the correctness of the user’s stack pointer register for correct behavior.

**Problem 2e[2pts]:** What are some disadvantages of Base&Bound style address translation? *(choose all that apply)*:

A: □ Base&Bound cannot protect kernel memory from being read by user programs.

B: ✓ Sharing memory between processes is difficult.

C: □ Context switches incur a much higher overhead compared to use of a page table.

D: ✓ Base&Bound will lead to external fragmentation.

E: □ With Base&Bound, each process can have its own version of address “0”.

**Problem 2f[2pts]:** Which of the following are true about condition variables? *(choose all that apply)*:

A: ✓ *cond_wait()* and *cond_signal()* can only be used when holding the lock associated with the condition variable.

B: □ In practice, Hoare semantics are used more often than Mesa semantics.

C: □ Mesa semantics will lead to busy waiting in *cond_wait()*.

D: □ *cond_signal()* can only be called after setting the boolean condition associated with the condition variable to true.

E: □ All of the above.
**Problem 2g[2pts]:** Consider the following pseudocode implementation of a `lock_acquire()`.

```plaintext
lock_acquire() {
    interrupt_disable();
    if (value == BUSY) {
        put thread on wait queue;
        Go to sleep();
    } else {
        value = BUSY;
    }
    interrupt_enable();
}
```

Which of the following are TRUE? Assume we are running on a uniprocessor/single-core machine.  
(choose all that apply):

A: [ ] For this implementation to be correct, we should call `interrupt_enable()` before sleeping.

B: [ ] For this implementation to be correct, we should call `interrupt_enable()` before putting the thread on the wait queue.

C: [X] For this implementation to be correct, `sleep()` should trigger the scheduler and the next scheduled thread should enable interrupts.

D: [ ] It is possible for this code to be run in user mode.

E: [ ] None of the above.

---

**Problem 2h[2pts]:** Which of the following statements about files are true? (choose all that apply):

A: [X] The same file descriptor number can correspond to different files for different processes.

B: [ ] The same file descriptor number can correspond to different files for different threads in the same process.

C: [ ] Reserved 0, 1, and 2 (`stdin`, `stdout`, `stderr`) file descriptors cannot be overwritten by a user program.

D: [X] File descriptions keep track of the file offset.

E: [X] An `lseek()` within one process may be able to affect the writing position for another process.
Problem 3: Readers-Writers Access to Database [12 pts]

Problem 3a[2pts]: Above, we show the Readers-Writers example given in class. What are the correctness constraints described by the Reader/Writer model above? (Hint: When can writers/readers access the database)?

Readers can only access the database when there are no writers. Furthermore, writers can only access the database when there are no active readers or writers. In addition, we will accept that this code prioritizes writes over reads.

Problem 3b[2pts]: The above code uses two condition variables, one for waiting readers and one for waiting writers. Suppose that all of the following requests arrive in very short order (while R1 and R2 are still executing):

Incoming stream: R1 R2 W1 R3 W2 W3 R4 R5 W4 R6 W5 W6 R7 W7 R8 R9 R10

In what order would the above code process the above requests? If you have a group of requests that are equivalent (unordered), indicate this clearly by surrounding them with braces ‘{}’. You can assume that the wait queues for condition variables are FIFO in nature (i.e. signal() wakes up the oldest thread on the queue). Explain how you got your answer.

Since writes have priority over reads and writes must execute one at a time, we get:

\{ R1, R2 \} W1 W2 W3 W4 W5 W6 W7 \{ R3 R4 R5 R6 R7 R8 R9 R10 \}
NOTE: Each of the following subparts are independent. Describe in 2-3 sentences the conceptual changes needed to support the new feature, including the positions where the described logic should be added or changed.

**Problem 3c[4pts]**: Suppose we have now upgraded our storage system to Google Sheets, which can now handle multiple writers accessing the database at the same time. How do we modify the existing logic to have multiple writers access the database concurrently? Assume all other correctness constraints are the same.

*Change the condition for writers to only check for active readers: (while AR > 0) in line 3 line of the Writer() code.*

*Also change all okToWrite.signal() to okToWrite.broadcast() in closing/checkout code at end of both Reader() and Writer() code.*

**Problem 3d[4pts]**: Suppose funds have run low, and our database can only handle a certain number of readers at a time. How do we modify the logic so that at most 10 readers may access the database at any time?

*Check the number of active readers in the condition check in line 3 of the Reader():*

```plaintext
while ((AW + WW) > 0 || (AR >= 10))
```

*Furthermore, in the Reader() closing/checkout, we need to see if there is a reader waiting for access if there aren’t any writers:*

```plaintext
// Existing code here
AR--; 
if (AR == 0 && WW > 0)
    okToWrite.signal();
// New code here
if (AR > 0)
    okToRead.broadcast();
```

*This modification may not be before the writer signal, as we still want to prioritize writers if there are any waiting writers.*
Problem 4: Atomic Synchronization Primitives [23pts]

In class, we discussed a number of atomic hardware primitives that are available on modern architectures. In particular, we discussed “test and set” (TSET), SWAP, and “compare and swap” (CAS). They can be defined as follows (let “expr” be an expression, “&addr” be an address of a memory location, and “M[addr]” be the actual memory location at address addr):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test and Set (TSET)</th>
<th>Atomic Swap (SWAP)</th>
<th>Compare and Swap (CAS)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TSET(&amp;addr) {</td>
<td>SWAP(&amp;addr, expr) {</td>
<td>CAS(&amp;addr, expr1, expr2) {</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int result = M[addr];</td>
<td>int result = M[addr];</td>
<td>if (M[addr] == expr1) {</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M[addr] = 1;</td>
<td>M[addr] = expr;</td>
<td>M[addr] = expr2;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>return (result);</td>
<td>return (result);</td>
<td>return true;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>}</td>
<td>}</td>
<td>}</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Both TSET and SWAP return values (from memory), whereas CAS returns either true or false. Note that our &addr notation is similar to a reference in C, and means that the &addr argument must be something that can be stored into. For instance, TSET could be used to implement a spin-lock acquire as follows:

```c
int lock = 0; // lock is free

// Later: acquire lock
while (TSET(&lock));
```

CAS is general enough as an atomic operation that it can be used to implement both TSET and SWAP. For instance, consider the following implementation of TSET with CAS:

```c
TSET(&addr) {
    int temp;
    do {
        temp = M[addr];
    } while (!CAS(addr, temp, 1));
    return temp;
}
```

**Problem 4a[2pts]:**

Show how to implement a spinlock acquire with a single while loop using CAS instead of TSET. You must only fill in the arguments to CAS below:

```c
// Initialization
int lock = 0; // Lock is free

// acquire lock
while ( !CAS( ________________________________ ) );
```
Problem 4b[2pts]:
Show how SWAP can be implemented using CAS. Don’t forget the return value.

    SWAP(&addr, reg1) {

        Object result;

        Do {
            Line 1:  result = M[addr];
            Line 2:  while ( !CAS(addr, result, reg1) );
        }

        return result;
    }

Problem 4c[2pts]:
With spinlocks, threads spin in a loop (busy waiting) until the lock is freed. In class we argued that spinlocks were a bad idea because they can waste a lot of processor cycles. The alternative is to put a waiting process to sleep while it is waiting for the lock (using a blocking lock). Contrary to what we implied in class, there are cases in which spinlocks would be more efficient than blocking locks. Give a circumstance in which this is true and explain why a spinlock is more efficient.

If the expected wait time of the lock is very short (such as because the lock is rarely contended or the critical sections are very short), and it is possible for the holder of the lock to make progress while the waiter is spinning (really for a multi-core or multiprocessor system), then it is possible that a spin lock will waste many fewer cycles than putting threads to sleep/waking them up.

The important issue is that (1) the expected wait time must be less than the time to put a thread to sleep and wake it up and (2) the spinning thread is not impeding the progress of the releasing thread. A single-core machine does not meet this requirement.
Using Atomic Primitives to Implement a LOCK-Free Queue:
A queue is considered “lock-free” if multiple threads can operate on this object simultaneously without the use of locks, busy-waiting, or sleeping. In this problem, we construct a lock-free FIFO queue using atomic CAS operation. We need both an Enqueue() and Dequeue() method.

We are going to do this in a slightly different way than normally. Rather than Head and Tail pointers, we are going to have “PrevHead” and Tail pointers. PrevHead will point at the last object returned from the queue. Thus, we can find the head of the queue (for dequeuing). If we don’t worry about simultaneous Enqueue() or Dequeue() operations, the code is straightforward:

```c
/***
* Queue Entries and Structure ***/
typedef struct QueueEntry {
    struct QueueEntry *next;
    void *stored;
} QueueEntry;
typedef struct Queue {
    QueueEntry *prevHead;
    QueueEntry *tail;
} Queue;
/***
* Queue initialization ****
*/
void initQueue(Queue *newqueue) {
    newqueue->prevHead = allocQueueEntry(NULL);
    newqueue->tail = newqueue->prevHead;
}
/***
* Allocate a QueueEntry to hold pointer to item ***/
QueueEntry *allocQueueEntry(void *myItem) {
    QueueEntry *newqueue = (QueueEntry *)(malloc(sizeof(QueueEntry)));
    newqueue->stored = myItem;
    newqueue->next = NULL;
    return newqueue;
}
/***
* Enqueue operation ****
*/
void Enqueue(Queue *myqueue, void *newobject) {
    QueueEntry *newEntry = allocQueueEntry(newobject);
    QueueEntry *oldtail = myqueue->tail;
    myqueue->tail = newEntry;
    oldtail->next = newEntry;
}
/***
* Dequeue operation ***
*/
void *Dequeue(Queue *myqueue) {
    QueueEntry *oldprevHead = myqueue->prevHead;
    QueueEntry *nextEntry = oldprevHead->next;
    if (nextEntry == NULL)
        return NULL;
    myqueue->prevHead = nextEntry;
    free(oldprevHead);
    return nextEntry->stored;
}
```
**Problem 4d**

For this non-multithreaded code, draw the state of a queue with 2 queued items on it:

![Queue Diagram]

**Problem 4e**

For each of the following potential context switch points, state whether or not a context switch at that point could cause incorrect behavior of Enqueue(); Explain!

```c
void Enqueue(Queue *myqueue, void *newobject) {
    QueueEntry *newEntry = allocQueueEntry(newobject);
    QueueEntry *oldtail = myqueue->tail;
    myqueue->tail = newEntry;
    oldtail->next = newEntry;
}
```

**Point 1:** No. Construction of a QueueEntry is a purely local operation (and does not touch shared state).

**Point 2:** Yes. An intervening Enqueue() operation will move the shared variable “tail” (and enqueue another object). As a result, the subsequent “tail=newEntry” will overwrite the other entry.

**Point 3:** No. At this point in the execution, only the local thread will ever touch “oldtail->next” (since we have moved the tail). Thus, we can reconnect at will. People who worried that the linked list is “broken” until this operation can relax. The worse that will happen is that the list appears to be shorter than it actually is until execution of “oldtail->next=newEntry,” at which point the new entry becomes available for subsequent dequeue.

**Problem 4f**

Rewrite code for Enqueue(), using the CAS() operation, such that it will work for any number of simultaneous Enqueue and Dequeue operations. You should never need to busy wait. **Do not use locking (i.e. don’t use a test-and-set lock).** Fill in each of the empty lines below. We will be grading on conciseness. Do not use more than one CAS(). **Hint: wrap a do-while around vulnerable parts of the code identified above.**

```c
void Enqueue(Queue *myqueue, void *newobject) {
    QueueEntry *newEntry = allocQueueEntry(newobject);
    QueueEntry *oldtail;

    // Insert missing code (shown by lines)

    do { // One of following 3 lines will have a ‘while’!
        oldtail = myqueue->tail
    } while (!CAS(myqueue->tail, oldtail, newEntry));

    oldtail->next = newEntry
}
```
Problem 4g[3pts]: For each of the following potential context switch points, state whether or not a context switch at that point could cause incorrect behavior of Dequeue(); Explain! (Note: Assume that the queue is not empty when answering this question, since we have removed the null-queue check from the original code):

```c
void *Dequeue(Queue *myqueue) {
    QueueEntry *oldprevHead = myqueue->prevHead;
    QueueEntry *nextEntry = oldprevHead->next;
    myqueue->prevHead = nextEntry;
    free(oldprevHead);
    return nextEntry->stored;
}
```

Point 1: Yes. The problem is that an intervening Dequeue() could end up getting the same entry ‘nextEntry’ that we are returning; consequently we end up dequeing the same entry multiple times.

Point 2: Yes. The problem is that an intervening Dequeue() could end up getting the same entry ‘nextEntry’ that we are returning; consequently we end up dequeing the same entry multiple times.

Point 3: No. The nextEntry has already been detached from the queue and is purely local. Thus, all that we are doing is removing the stored value from nextEntry for returning it.

Problem 4h[5pts]: Rewrite code for Dequeue(), using the CAS() operation, such that it will work for any number of simultaneous Enqueue and Dequeue operations. You should never need to busy wait. Do not use locking (i.e. don’t use a test-and-set lock). Fill in each of the empty lines below. We will be grading on conciseness. Do not use more than one CAS(). You should correctly handle an empty queue by returning “null”. Hint: wrap a do-while around vulnerable parts of the code identified above and add back the null-check from the original code. Also, assign “result” inside loop.

```c
void *Dequeue(Queue *myqueue) {
    QueueEntry *oldprevHead, *nextEntry;
    void *result;

    // Insert missing code here (shown by lines)
    do {
        // One of following 5 lines will have a ‘while’!

        oldprevHead = myqueue->prevHead

        __________________________________________________________________;
        nextEntry = oldprevHead->next
        __________________________________________________________________;
        if (nextEntry==null) return null
        __________________________________________________________________;
        result = nextEntry->stored
        __________________________________________________________________;

        } while (!CAS(myqueue->prevHead, oldprevHead, nextEntry));
    free(oldprevHead);
    return result;
}
```
Problem 5: Short Answer Potpourri [15 pts]

For the following questions, provide a concise answer of NO MORE THAN 2 SENTENCES per sub-question (or per question mark).

Problem 5a[3pts]: What is the difference between Mesa and Hoare scheduling for monitors? How does this affect the programming pattern used by programmers (be explicit)?

*With Hoare scheduling, a `signal()` operation from one thread immediately wakes up a sleeping thread, hands the lock to the sleeping thread, and starts the sleeping thread executing; control returns to the signaling thread after the signaled thread attempts to release the lock (which is then handed back to the signaling thread). With Mesa scheduling, the signaling thread simply placed the signaled thread on the run queue and continues executing with the lock.*

*The practical consequence is that Mesa-scheduled monitors require programmers to recheck conditions after waking (typically with a “while” loop):*

```
while (condition not satisfied)
    condition.wait();
```

*With Hoare-scheduled monitors, the “while” statement can often be replaced with an “if” statement.*

Problem 5b[3pts]: Explain the key difference between the low-level and high-level file APIs in C as discussed in lecture. Why might the high-level file API be higher performance than the low-level API?

*The high-level file API buffers data in user memory. As the high-level API reads data in large blocks, it will often result in fewer syscalls.*

Problem 5c[2pts]: Recent Linux kernel versions introduce the new `sendfile(2)` system call that transfers data from one file descriptor to another. It’s signature is:

```
ssize_t sendfile(int out_fd, int in_fd, off_t *offset, size_t count);
```

Why might it be faster to use `sendfile()` instead of `read`-ing from `in_fd` and then `write`-ing to `out_fd`? Your answer must focus on the location of data in memory.

*Because `sendfile()` copies data from `in_fd` to `out_fd` without transferring data to and from user space. With fewer overall copies, the transfer will be faster.*

*Must mention that read + write incurs an additional copy to/from user space. No credit for other justifications.*
Problem 5d[3pts]: Name three ways in which the processor can transition from user mode to kernel mode. Can the user execute arbitrary code after the transition?

The processor transitions from user mode to kernel mode when (1) the user executes a system call, (2) the processor encounters an synchronous exception such as divide by zero or page fault, (3) the processor responds to an interrupt. The user cannot execute arbitrary code because entry into the kernel is through controlled entry points (not under control of the user).

Need all three of these to get full credit.

Problem 5e[2pts]: When handling Pintos syscalls in userprog/syscall.c, how can we tell what syscall the user called, since there is only one syscall_handler function?

The first argument to the syscall_handler is an enum that specifies which syscall is needed. This is passed in from the lib/user/syscall.c file for each syscall.

Problem 5f[2pts]: How does a modern OS regain control of the CPU/core from a program stuck in an infinite loop?

Modern OSes use a timer interrupt to regain control from an executing user thread. The timer interrupt handler will initiate a context switch to another thread. Thus, even though one user thread is wasting time and never returning to the OS, the OS can still context switch and all things like a shell to keep running (permitting a user to kill the buggy program).
Problem 6: Adding dup() to Pintos [16 pts]

As an operating systems fanatic, Nathan has recently been using Pintos as his daily driver. However, when writing some C programs, he’s finding the lack of some file operation syscalls quite frustrating to work with. Specifically, Nathan would really like to use dup. As a superb CS 162 student, you have been tasked with implementing it. The descriptions for each are given below. Note that there are subtle differences from the Unix versions, mainly for sake of simplicity.

`/* Creates a copy of the file descriptor FD such that the copy and original point to the same file description. The new file descriptor must be one above the max of the current file descriptors. For instance, if the existing file descriptors were [1, 5, 7], 8 would be used as the new file descriptor. Return new file descriptor on success or -1 for an invalid FD. */
int dup(int fd);`

Complete the blanks in the skeleton for `syscall_handler()` to implement this syscall. (Blanks are labeled with capital letters). For simplicity, you may assume that Nathan will not write any malicious user programs, so you may simply access syscall arguments passed in through the user stack (i.e. no need to copy them to the kernel stack).

Below are the structure definitions within the kernel that might be helpful for this problem:

`/* Process control block */
struct process {
    ...
    struct list fdt;       /* File descriptor table of struct fd. */
    ...}
/* File description */
struct file {
    ...
    off_t pos;             /* Current position. */
    ...}
/* File descriptor */
struct fd {
    int num;
    struct file* file;
    struct list_elem elem;
};
/* Interrupt stack frame */
struct intr_frame {
    ...
    void* esp;
    uint32_t eax;
    ...
};`
Below are function signatures that might be helpful when solving this problem.

/****** List Operations ******/
struct list_elem* list_begin(struct list*);
struct list_elem* list_next(struct list_elem*);
struct list_elem* list_end(struct list*);
void list_push_back(struct list*, struct list_elem*);
#define list_entry(LIST_ELEM, STRUCT, MEMBER)

/****** Lock Operations ******/
void lock_acquire(struct lock*);
void lock_release(struct lock*);

/****** Memory Operations ******/
void *malloc(size_t size);
void free(void *ptr);

/****** Global file system lock ******/
struct lock fs_lock;

/******
 * The following function retrieves the struct file* corresponding to file
 * descriptor NUM in the current process's file descriptor table.
 * Returns NULL if file descriptor NUM is invalid.
 */
struct file* get_file(int num);
Here is the skeleton of `syscall_handler()` to complete. You will fill in the missing lines on your answer sheet. Your code must be written in proper C code with the given APIs. Pseudocode or comments will not be given any credit. You may only use methods and data structures given in this question as well as any built-in ones. You may assume calls to any given method will succeed. Only one piece of code must be written per blank (i.e. no multiple statements with semicolons). Each blank must contain code and cannot be a blank line. Assume `fs_lock` is initialized.

```c
void syscall_handler(struct intr_frame *f) {
    uint32_t* args = (uint32_t*) f->esp;

    switch (args[0]) {
        ...
    case SYS_DUP:
        lock_acquire(&fs_lock)
        A: _____________________;
        B: struct file* file = get_file(args[1]);
        C: if (file == NULL) {
            D: f->eax = -1 ________;
        } else {
            int max_fdnum = -1;
            struct list* fdt = &thread_current()->pcb->fdt;
            struct list_elem *e;
            E: for (_e = list_begin(fdt); e != list_end(fdt); e = list_next(e)) {
                F: struct fd* fd = list_entry(e, struct fd, elem);
                G: if (fd->num > max_fdnum) {
                    H: max_fdnum = fd->num;
                }
            }
            I: struct fd* newfd = (struct fd*) malloc(sizeof(struct fd));
            J: newfd->num = f->eax = max_fdnum + 1;
            K: newfd->file = _____________________;
            L: list_push_back(fdt, &newfd->elem)
            }
            M: lock_release(&fs_lock)
            break;
        } ...
    }
```

Answers for question 6 can be filled in here (or put on answer sheet if there is one):

**Problem 6A [1pt]:**  
`lock_acquire(&fs_lock)`

**Problem 6B [1pt]:**  
`get_file(args[1])`

**Problem 6C [1pt]:**  
`(file == NULL)`

**Problem 6D [1pt]:**  
`f->eax = -1`

**Problem 6E [2pt]:**  
`for (e = list_begin(fdt); e != list_end(fdt); e = list_next(e))`

**Problem 6F [2pt]:**  
`list_entry(e, struct fd, elem)`

**Problem 6G [1pt]:**  
`(fd->num > max_fdnum)`

**Problem 6H [1pt]:**  
`max_fdnum = fd->num`

**Problem 6I [1pt]:**  
`(struct fd*)malloc(sizeof(struct fd))`

**Problem 6J [1pt]:**  
`f->eax = max_fdnum + 1`

**Problem 6K [1pt]:**  
`file`

**Problem 6L [2pt]:**  
`list_push_back(fdt, &newfd->elem)`

**Problem 6M [1pt]:**  
`lock_release(&fs_lock)`