Embedded Systems Summary

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1. Introduction

Embedded Systems (ES): information processing systems embedded into a larger project

Cyber-physical system (CPS): must operate dependably, safely, securely, efficiently and in real-time

Characteristics of Embedded Systems (1-19)

- dependable: reliable, maintainable, available, safe
 - efficient: energy, code, run-time, weight, cost
 - specialized: dedicated towards certain application
 - real-time: must meet constrains of environment

- not programmable by end-user
- fixed run-time requirements (additional power useless)
- criteria: cost, power consumption, predictability
- energy & temperature constrains (often independent)
- energy harvesting important (e.g. zero power systems)

Hard real-time constrain: not meeting that constrain could result in a catastrophe; answer arriving too late is wrong

Hybrid system: analog and digital system components

Reactive system: in continual interaction with environment executes at pace determined by environment

MPSoCs: Multiprocessor systems-on-a-chip (e.g. phone)

2. Software Introduction

Real-Time Systems (2-15)

ES are expected to finish tasks reliably within time bounds

Hard constrain: missing a deadline results in catastrophe often in safety-critical applications (aeronautics, brakes)

Soft constrain: missing deadline is undesirable but not fatal

Worst-Case Execution Time (WCET): upper bound on execution time of all tasks statically known

- difficult to calculate because of parallelism (branch prediction, speculation, pipelines) & caches

Best-Case Execution Time (BCET): lower bound for it

Programming Paradigms (2-25)

Time triggered approaches (2-26)

- periodic
- cyclic executive
- generic time-triggered scheduler
- no interrupts except by timer
- deterministic behaviour at run-time
- interaction with environment through polling

Summary

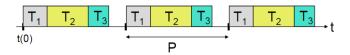
- + deterministic schedule (computed before run-time)
- + shared resources pose no problem
- external communication only via polling
- inflexible (no adaptation to environment)
- long processes have to be split into subtasks

Extension

- allow arbitrary interrupts (not deterministic anymore!)
- allow preemtable background processes

Simple Periodic Time-Triggered Scheduler

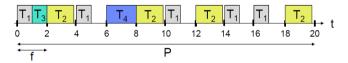
Timer interrupts regularly with period P (same for all processes)



- unpredictable starting times for later processes
- mutually exclusive, no sync required for communication

$$\sum_{i} WCET(T_i) < P$$

<u>Time-Triggered Cyclic Executive Scheduler</u> processes may have different periods



- period P portioned into frames of length f
- terrible for long processes (need to be split)

Conditions

- Process executes at most once within a frame

$$f \le p(k) \ \forall \ k$$

- Period P is least common multiple of all periods p(k)
- Periods start and complete within a single frame:

$$f \ge WCET(k) \ \forall \ k$$

- at least one frame boundary between release & deadline

$$2f - \gcd(p(k), f) \le D(k) \ \forall \ k$$

Generic Time-Triggered Scheduler

- precompute schedule a priori offline (if purely TT)

Task-Descriptor List (TDL): contains cyclic schedule for all activities, considering required precedence and mutual exclusion -> no explicit coordination at run-time necessary

Event triggered approaches (2-36)

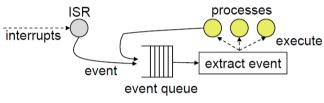
- non-preemptive
- preemptive (stack policy, cooperative, multitasking)

Summary

- + dynamic & adaptive
- + can react to environment by receiving interrupts
- + guarantees can be given during run-time or even off-line
- problems with respect to timing
- shared resources have to be coordinated

Non-Preemptive Event-Triggered Scheduling

events are collected in a queue and cannot be preempted (cannot give guarantees regarding deadlines)



ISR: Interrupt service routine

- event associated with corresponding process
- events emitted by
- a) external interrupts
- b) processes themselves
- simple communication between processes
- buffer overflow if too many events are generated
- long processes prevent others from running (-> split)

Extension

- preemtable background process if event queue is empty
- timed events enter queue only after time interval elapsed

<u>Preemptive Event-Triggered Scheduling</u> possible to preempt process, solves problem of long tasks

Stack-based: stack-based context mechanism of function calls (process = C-style function with own memory space)

- LIFO: restricts flexibility, bad if waiting for external event
- no mutual exclusion; shared resources must be protected (e.g. disable interrupt, semaphores)

Processes and CPU (2-43)

Process: unique execution of a program ("instance")

- has its own state (e.g. register values, memory stack)
- several copies of a program can run simultaneously

Activation record: copy of process state (includes registers)

Context switch: current CPU context goes, next comes

- context of current process is stored (registers, program counter, stack pointer)
- execution continues where other process left off

Co-operative Multitasking (2-45)

process allows context switch at cswitch() call

- + predictable where context switch can occur
- + less errors with use of shared resources
- bad programming can stall the system (doesn't yield)
- real-time behaviour at risk (if switch not possible)

Preemptive Multitasking (2-60)

Scheduler (OS) i) controls when context switches ii) determines which process runs next

Scheduler is called / switch enforced by:

- use of timers / timer interrupts
- hardware or software interrupts
- direct call to OS routines to switch context

3. Real-Time Models

Hard: missing its deadline has catastrophic consequences Soft: meeting its deadline is desirable, but not critical

Schedule: assignment of tasks to the processor

- $\sigma(t) = 0$: processor is idle at time t
- $\sigma(t) = i$: processor is executing task i at time t

Feasible: tasks can be completed according to constrains **Schedulable:** there exists at least one algorithm which can produce a feasible schedule

Schedule & Timing (3-5)

 J_i / τ_i task / periodic task i

 a_i / r_i arrival / release time (ready for execution)

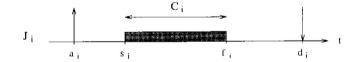
 C_i computation time (required CPU time)

 d_i / D_i absolute / relative deadline $d_i \geq r_i + \mathcal{C}_i$

 s_i / f_i start /finishing time

 T_i **period** (for periodic tasks)

 Φ_i phase (start of periodic task)



<u>Derived figures</u>

Lateness $L_i = f_i - d_i$ delay of a task completion

Tardiness / exceeding time E_i time exceeded after deadline

 $E_i = \max(0, L_i)$

Laxity / slack time $X_i = d_i - a_i - C_i$

maximal time a task can be delayed on its activation to complete within deadline

Precedence Constrains: describes the interdependencies between tasks ("Which one has to be executed first?")

Classification of Scheduling Algorithms (3-11)

Preemptive algorithm: running task can be interrupted at any time to assign the processor to another active task

Non-preemptive algorithm: once started, the task is executed until completion (no interruptions)

Static algorithm: scheduling decisions are based on fixed parameters, assigned to tasks before activation (offline)

Dynamic algorithm: scheduling decisions based on dynamic parameters that may change during system execution (e.g. CPU bursts, I/O waits)

Schedule metrics (3-13)

Optimal algorithm: minimizes given cost function **Heuristic algorithm:** tends to find optimal schedule

Average response time

$$\overline{t_r} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f_i - r_i)$$

Total completion time

$$t_c = \max(f_i) - \min(r_i)$$

Weighted sum of response time

$$t_w = \frac{\sum w_i (f_i - r_i)}{\sum w_i}$$

Maximum lateness

$$L_{max} = \max_{i} (f_i - d_i)$$

Number of late tasks

$$N_{late} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} miss(f_i)$$
, $miss(f_i) = \begin{cases} 0 & f_i \leq d_i \\ 1 & else \end{cases}$

4. Periodic/Aperiodic Tasks

Aperiodic Tasks (4-3)

Equal arrival times & non-preemptive

- EDD (Jackson) for independent tasks- LDF (Lawler) for dependent tasks

Arbitrary arrival times & preemptive

- EDF (Horn) for independent tasks- EDF*(Chetto) for dependent tasks

Earliest Deadline Due (EDD) (4-4)

equal arrival times & non-preemptive : $O(n \log(n))$

Algorithm: Task with earliest deadline is processed first

Jackson's rule: processing in order of non-decreasing deadlines is optimal with respect to minimizing the *maximum lateness*

Earliest Deadline First (EDF) (4-7)

arbitrary arrival times & preemptive : $O(n^2)$

Algorithm: Task with earliest deadline is processed first; if new task arrives with earlier deadline, current task is interrupted (just like EDD, but with recalculation)

Horn's rule: executing the task with the earliest absolute deadline among the ready tasks at any time is optimal with respect to minimizing the *maximum lateness*

 $\sigma(t)$ task executing in the slice [t, t+1)

E(t) ready task which has the earliest deadline

 $t_E(t)$ time at which the next slice of E(t) is executed

Guarantee:

Worst case finishing time: $f_i = t + \sum_{k=1}^{i} c_k(t)$

EDF guarantee condition: $f_i \leq d_i \quad \forall i = 1, ..., n$

A new tasks is accepted if the schedule remains feasible

Earliest Deadline First* (EDF*) (4-12)

determines a feasible schedule for tasks with precedence constrains if there exists one

Algorithm: Modify release times & deadlines, then EDF

Modification of release times:

- 1. Start at the top (roots to leaves)
- 2. Search the predecessor which takes the longest:

$$r_i^* = \max(r_i, \max(r_i^* + C_i : J_i \rightarrow J_j))$$

Modification of deadlines:

- 1. Start at the bottom (leaves to roots)
- 2. Search the successor which starts the earliest:

$$d_i^* = \min(d_i, \min(d_i^* - C_i : J_i \rightarrow J_i))$$

Latest Deadline First (LDF) (U2.2)

Non-preemptive scheduling for precedence constrains

Algorithm:

- 1. A precedence graph is constructed
- Leaves to roots: Select task with latest deadline among all available tasks to be scheduled last
- 3. At runtime: tasks are extracted from head of the queue: first task inserted into queue will be executed last (FILO)

Shortest Job First (SJF)

Minimizes average waiting time

Periodic Tasks (4-17)

Deadline equals period:

- Rate-monotonic (RM) for static priority
- EDF for dynamic priority

Deadline smaller than period:

- Deadline-monotonic (DM) for static priority
- EDF* for dynamic priority

Terminology

 $\tau_{i,j}$ denotes the j-th **instance** of task i

 $r_{i,j}$ / $s_{i,j}$ / $f_{i,j}$ release / start / finishing time

 Φ_i phase of task *i* (release time of its first instance)

 D_i relative deadline of task i (same for all instances)

 T_i **period** with which the task is regularly activated

 C_i worst case execution time (same for all instances)

Rate Monotonic Scheduling (RM) (4-22)

RM is *optimal* among all fixed-priority assignments, i.e. *no other fixed-priority algorithm can schedule* a task set which cannot be scheduled with RM

- static priority assignment (offline, as not changed)
- preemptive (by a task with higher priority)
- deadlines equals to the period ($C_i \leq D_i = T_i$)

Algorithm: tasks with higher request rate / shorter period will have higher priorities and interrupt lower ones

Critical instant: task is release simultaneously with all higher priority tasks / release creates largest response time

Schedulability analysis

Sufficient but not necessary (U : processor utilization factor):

$$U = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{C_i}{T_i} \le n \left(2^{1/n} - 1 \right)$$

Sufficient and necessary: same as for DM

Deadline Monotonic Scheduling (DM) (4-34)

Deadlines may be smaller than the period:

$$C_i \leq D_i \leq T_i$$

Algorithm: tasks with smaller relative deadlines will have higher priorities and interrupt tasks with lower priority

Schedulability analysis

Sufficient but not necessary:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{C_i}{D_i} \leq n \left(2^{1/n} - 1 \right)$$

Sufficient and necessary:

- worst-case demand when all tasks are released simultaneously (critical instances)
- worst case interference I_i for task i:

$$I_i = \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \left\lceil \frac{t}{T_j} \right\rceil C_j$$

where tasks with j < i have higher priority

- Longest response time $R_i = C_i + I_i$ (at critical instance)
- For **schedulability test:** find smallest R_i which satisfies

$$R_i = C_i + \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \left\lceil \frac{R_i}{T_j} \right\rceil C_j \quad \to \quad R_i \le D_i \quad \forall i$$

Earliest Deadline First (EDF) Scheduling (4-41)

Active task with earliest deadline has highest priority

- dynamic priority assignment
- preemptive
- $-D_i \leq T_i$

Schedulability test ONLY for $D_i = T_i$

Necessary & sufficient: schedulable with EDF if and only if

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{C_i}{T_i} = U \le 1$$

U: average processor utilisation

Problem of Mixed Tasks Sets (4-47)

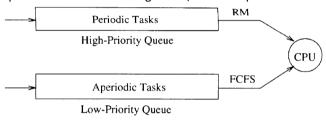
Periodic tasks: time-driven, execute regular critical control activities with hard timing constrains

Aperiodic tasks: event-driven; hard, soft or no real-time

Sporadic tasks: aperiodic task characterized by a minimum interarrival time (enables offline guarantee on constrains)

Background scheduling (4-48)

RM & EDF scheduling of periodic tasks: processing of aperiodic tasks in the background / when no periodic one



RM Polling Server (PS) (4-50)

Idea: Introduce artificial periodic task which services aperiodic requests as soon as possible

Function of polling server (PS): instantiated at regular intervals T_S and serves any pending aperiodic requests If none, the process is suspended (time not preserved!)

Disadvantage: if an aperiodic request arrives just after the server is suspended, it must wait for next polling period

Schedulability analysis: just like RM, suff. but not necessary

$$\frac{C_S}{T_S} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{C_i}{T_i} \le (n+1) \left(2^{1/(n+1)} - 1 \right)$$

Sufficient if aperiodic task finishes before a new arrives

$$\left(1 + \left\lceil \frac{C_a}{C_s} \right\rceil\right) T_S \le D_a$$

EDF – Total Bandwidth Server (4-55)

When k-th aperiodic request arrives at time $t = r_k$, it receives a deadline

$$d_k = \max(r_k, d_{k-1}) + \frac{C_k}{U_S}$$

 $U_S = 1 - U_p$: server utilization factor / bandwidth

Once a deadline is assigned, the request is inserted into the ready queue as any other periodic instance

Schedulability test: necessary & sufficient

$$U_p + U_S \le 1$$

5. Resource Sharing

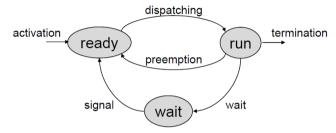
Common resources: data structures, variables, main memory area, file, set of registers, I/O unit

Critical section: piece of code, in which access to shared resources requires **mutual exclusion**

blocked: task waits for an exclusive resource to be freed

holds: task is in possession of said resource

free: exclusive resource after leaving critical section



Semaphores (5-5)

 S_i protects each exclusive resource R_i

 $wait(S_i)$: start of critical section, requests entrance $signal(S_i)$: end of critical section, frees resource

Priority Inversion (5-7)

- low-priority task holds resource which prevents highpriority task from running
- meanwhile, a medium-priority task can preempt the lowpriority task and execute with the high-priority blocked

"Solution": disallow preemption in critical sections

- unnecessary blocking of unrelated tasks with higher prio

Priority Inheritance Protocol (PIP) (5-10)

assume priority of highest blocked task in critical section

 P_i : nominal priority $p_i \ge P_i$: active priority

Direct Blocking: lower-priority task blocks higher task **Push-through Blocking:** medium-priority task is blocked by low-priority task which has inherited a higher priority

6. Real-Time OS

Deficits of Desktop OS

- monolithic kernel too feature rich, takes too much space
- not: modular, fault-tolerant, configurable, modifiable
- not power optimized
- timing uncertainty too large

Advantages of Embedded OS

- OS can be fitted to each individual need: remove unused functions, conditions compilation depending on hardware, replace dynamic data by static data, advanced compiling
- improved predictability (everything through scheduler)
- interrupts can be employed by all processes
- software tested and considered reliable (no protection)

Real-Time OS (6-10)

Requirements

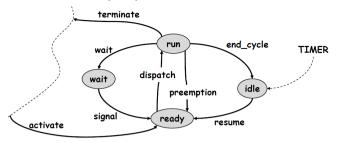
- predictability of time-behaviour
 - upper bound on the execution time of tasks
 - almost all activities controlled by scheduler
- management of timing and scheduling
 - inclusion of deadlines
 - OS must provide precise time services
- speed

Main functionality of RTOS-Kernels (6-13)

Process management (6-13)

- execution of quasi-parallel tasks
 - maintain process states & process queues
 - preemptive scheduling (fast context switch)
 - quick interrupt handling
- CPU scheduling: guarantee deadlines & fairness
- Process synchronization (semaphores, mutual exclusion)
- Inter-process communication (buffering)
- real-time clock for internal time reference

Process States (6-15)



run: starts executing on the processor
ready: ready to execute but not assigned yet
wait: task is waiting for a semaphore for access
idle: completed execution & waiting for next period

Threads (6-17)

A basic unit of CPU utilization, similar to a process

typically shared: memory

- typically owned: registers, stack

Process: difficult to communicate, think they are alone **Thread:** communicate via memory, knows there are others

multiple threads for each distinct activity of process

- faster to switch between threads (no major OS operation)
- Thread Control Block (TCB) stores information

Communication Mechanisms (6-20)

Problem: the use of shared memory for message passing may cause priority inversion and blocking

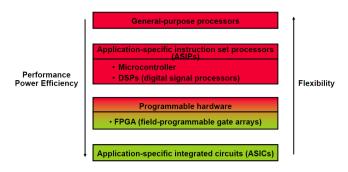
Synchronous communication ("rendez-vous")

- when communicating, they have to wait for each other
- causes problems for maximum blocking time
- in static RT environments solved offline by transforming synchronous interactions into precedence constrains

Asynchronous communication ("mailbox)

- sender deposits message into channel, receiver reads
- done by shared memory buffer, FIFO queue (fixed size)

7. System Components



General-purpose Processors (7-7)

- high performance
 - highly optimized circuits and technology
 - use of parallelism (pipelining, predictions)
 - complex memory hierarchy
- not suited for real-time applications as highly unpredictable execution times due to intensive resource sharing and dynamic decisions
- good average performance for large application mix
- high power consumption
- Multicore Processors
 - higher execution performance through parallelism
 - useful in high-performance embedded systems
 - interference on shared resources (buses, cache etc.)

System Specialization (7-13)

Specialization is main difference between embedded systems and general purpose high-volume microprocessors

- Specialization should respect flexibility
 - systems should cover a class of applications
 - required for later changes & debugging
- **System analysis required** for identification of application properties which benefit from specialization

Application-Specific Instruction Sets (7-22)

Microcontrollers / Control Dominated Systems

- Reactive systems with event driven behavior
- system description: Finite State Machines or Petri Nets

Microcontrollers connect interfaces (no computation)

- support process scheduling and synchronization
- preemption (interrupt), context switch
- short latency times
- low power consumption
- peripheral units often integrated (timer, buses, AD/DA-C)
- suited for real-time applications

Digital Signal Processors (DSPs) / Data Dominated Systems (7-26)

- Streaming-oriented systems with periodic behaviour
- input description: flow graphs

DSPs are for **computation** (signal processing, controlling)

- optimized for data-flow, only simple control-flow
- parallel hardware units (VLIW), specialized instruction set
- high data throughput, zero-overhead loops
- suited for real-time applications

Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW): detection of possible parallelism by compiler, combine multiple functional units

Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA) (7-34)

- "program hardware by software"
- granularity of logic units: gate, tables, memory, blocks
- communication network: crossbar, hierarchical mesh
- reconfiguration: dynamically adjustable at runtime

Application-Specific Circuits (ASICs) (7-41)

- custom-designed circuits for mass production
- long design times, lack of flexibility, high design costs

System-on-Chip (SoC) (7-43)

8. Communication

Requirements

- performance (bandwidth & latency, real-time)
- efficiency (cost, low power)
- robustness (fault tolerance, maintainability, safety)

Time Multiplex Communication (8-5)

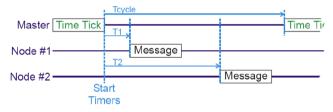
Random Access (8-6)

No access control, requires low medium utilization
Improved variant: *slotted* random access

TDMA (Time Division Multiple Access) (8-7)

Communication in statically allocated time slots

- synchronization among all nodes necessary
- master node sends out a synchronization frame



CSMA/CD (Carrier Sense MA / Collision Detection) (8-8)

Try to avoid and detect collisions

- before transmitting, check whether channel is idle
- if collision detected, back off / wait
- repeated collisions result in increasing backoff times

Token Protocol (Token Ring) (8-9)

Token value determines which node is transmitting

- only the token holder may transmit

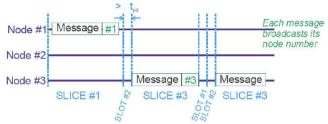


Token passes to next node according to # field.

CSMA/ Collision Avoidance – Flexible TDMA (FTDMA) (8-11)

Reserve s slots for n nodes ; if slot is used, it becomes ${\bf slice}$

- node start transmitting message only during assigned slot
- -s = n: no collision ; $s \le n$: statistical collision avoidance



CSMA/ Collision Resolution (CSMA/CR) (8-12)

Each node is assigned a unique identification number
- all nodes wishing to transmit send a binary signal based
on their identification number; if node detects a dominant
state while transmitting a passive one, it drops out
- node with the lowest identification value wins

Flex Ray (8-14)

Operation principle: Cycle is subdivided into static and dynamic segment. Static segment bases on fixed allocation of time slots, dynamic segment for ad-hoc communication

Static Segment: TDMA All static slots are the same length and are repeated every communication cycle

Dynamic Segment: Flexible TDMA minislot is opportunity to send a message; if not sent, minislot elapses unused

Bluetooth (Frequency Multiplex Communication) (8-20)

Design goals

- small size, low cost, low energy
- secure & robust transmission (interference with WLAN)

Technical Data

- 2.4 GHz (spectral bandwidth 79 MHz)
- 10-100m transmission range, 1 Mbit/s bandwidth
- simultaneous transmission of multimedia & data
- ad hoc network (de-centralized, dynamic connections)

Frequency Hopping

- transmitter jumps between frequencies: 1600 hops/s
- 79 channels, ordering by pseudo-random sequence
- Frequency range: (2402 + k) MHz, k = 0 ... 78
- Data transmission in time window of $625~\mu s$
- Each packet transmitted on a different frequency

Network Topologies (8-24)

Ad-hoc networks

- all nodes are potentially mobile
- dynamic emergence of connections
- hierarchical structure (scatternet) of small nets (piconet)

Piconet

- contains 1 master and maximally 7 slaves
- all nodes inside use the same frequency hopping scheme
 (determined by device address of master BD_ADDR)
- connections exist : one-to-one
 - master and all slaves (broadcast)

<u>Scatternet</u>

- formed by several piconets with overlapping nodes
- node can be master in at most one and slave in other nets

Addressing (8-30)

Packet format

- Access Code / BD_ADDR: 82bits, identifies packets
- Header / AM_ADDR: 54bits, identifies connection
- Payload : 0 2745 bits

Bluetooth Device Address BD_ADDR: 48 Bits, unique

Active Member Address AM_ADDR:

- 3 bits for maximally 7 active slaves in piconet
- Address "Null" is broadcast to all slaves

Parked Member Address PM_ADDR: 8 bits

- in low power state: waiting for communication

Connection Types (8-31)

Synchronous Connection-Oriented (SCO)

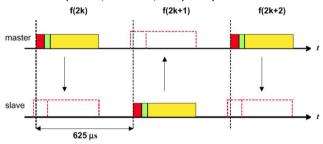
- point-to-point full duplex between master & slaves
- master reserves slots for transmission regularly

Asynchronous Connection-Less (ACL)

- asynchronous service, no slot reservation
- master transmits spontaneous, slaves answer next

Frequency Hopping / Time Multiplexing (8-32)

- packet of the master is followed by a slave packet
- after each packet, channel / frequency is switched



- master can only start sending in even slot numbers
- packets have length of 1, 3 or 5 slots (same frequency)

Modes and States (8-35)

Modes of operation

Inquiry: master identifies addresses of neighbors

Page: master attempts connection with slave

Connected: connection is established

States in connection mode

active active in connection to master
 hold does not process data packets
 sniff awakens at regular intervals checks whether there are packets
 park passive, only synchronized

Synchronization in Connection Mode: channel sequence & phase of a piconet is determined (by BD_ADDR) of master

Synchronization in Page Mode: 3-way-handshake to synchronize between master and slave; prerequisite for establishing a connection

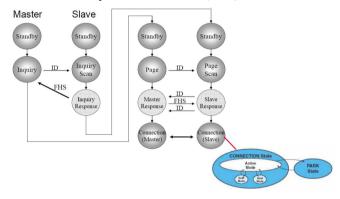
1. *Page:* master transmits own & slave address

2. Page scan: slave listens

3. Master page response: slave answers with own address

4. Slave page response: master sends FHS-packet, which includes channel sequence & phase of piconet

From Standby to Connection (8-40)



Protocol Hierarchy (8-44)

Baseband specification: defines packet formats, physical & logical channels, error correction, synchronization and modes of operations

Audio specification: defines coding & decoding

Link manager (LM): authentication & encryption, management, connection initiation, transitions

Host controller interface (HCI): interface host - node

Link layer control & adaption layer (L2CAP):

interface for data communication

RFCOMM: simple transport protool for serial connection

9. Low Power Design

Power is most important constrain in Embedded Systems

Power and Energy (9-9)

$$E = \int P(t) dt$$

Minimizing power consumption is important for

- design of the power supply & voltage regulators
- the dimensioning of interconnect
- cooling (decrease temporary heating)

Minimizing energy consumption is important due to

- restricted availability of energy (mobile systems)
- limited battery capacities & long lifetimes needed
- very high costs of energy (solar panels, in space)

Power Consumption of CMOS Processor (9-12)

Dynamic power consumption: charging & discharging C_L **Short circuit power consumption:** switching causes shorts **Leakage:** leaking diodes & translators, causes static current

Power $P \sim \alpha C_L V_{dd}^2 f$

Energy $E \sim \alpha C_L V_{dd}^2 f t = \alpha C_L V_{dd}^2 (\#cycles)$

Delay $\tau \sim C_L \, \frac{v_{dd}}{(v_{dd} - v_T)^2}$

 V_{dd} : supply voltage

 $V_T \ll V_{dd}$: threshold voltage

 α : switching activity (= 1 : switch every cycle)

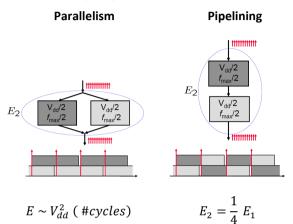
 C_L : load capacity

 $f \sim \frac{1}{\tau} \sim \frac{V_{dd}}{C_L}$: clock frequency

Basic Techniques (9-17)

Power Supply Gating: minimize static power consumption (leakage) by cutting off power supply while unit inactive

Parallelism (9-18)



VLIW Architectures (9-22)

Large degree of parallelism & many computational units:

- explicit parallelism (parallel instruction set) by compiler
- parallelization through hardware (difficult & expensive)

Translation of instruction set

- done with optimized compiler (no compatibility)
- on processor with decoder (translation in HW)
- on processor with dynamic compiler in SW (Transmeta)

Dynamic Voltage Scaling (DVS) (9-26)

Adapt voltage & frequency to situation to save energy

Optimal Strategy: running at a constant frequency/voltage minimizes energy consumption for dynamic voltage scaling

- if a task finishes on deadline, the chosen frequency (voltage) is optimal in terms of energy efficiency
- if only discrete voltage levels, choose directly above and below the ideal voltage to minimize energy consumption

YDS Algorithm for Offline Scheduling (9-36)

Schedule without missing deadlines & minimal energy $O(N^3)$, $N:number\ of\ tasks\ in\ V$

Intensity G in time interval [z, z']: average accumulated execution time of all tasks inside the interval

$$V'([z,z']) = \{\, v_i \in V : z \le a_i < d_i \le z'\}$$

$$G([z,z']) = \sum_{v_i \in V'} c_i / (z'-z)$$

1. Find **critical interval** (i.e. interval with highest intensity) and schedule tasks inside with EDF

$$C_{eff} = \frac{C_{tot}}{G}$$
, $f = G * f_{nominal}$

- 2. Adjust arrival times and deadlines by excluding interval
- 3. Run algorithm for revised input and put pieces together

Online algorithm: run algorithm with known tasks, if new ones arrive, update schedule; maximally uses 27 times the minimal energy consumption of optimal offline solution

Dynamic Power Management (DPM) (9-46)

DPM tries to assign optimal power saving states

RUN: operational

IDLE: SW routine may stop the CPU when not in use, while monitoring interrupts

SLEEP: shutdown of on-chip activity

DVS Critical frequency (voltage): running at any frequency (voltage) below is not worthwhile for execution

Procrastination Schedule: execute only voltages higher or equal to the critical voltage (round up lower ones)

- procrastinate task execution & sleep as long as possible

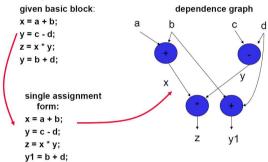
10. Architecture Models

Dependence graph (DG) (10-4)

directed graph G = (V, E), $E \subseteq V \times V$

 $(v_1, v_2) \in E$: - v_1 (immediate) predecessor of v_2 - v_2 (immediate) successor of v_1

- nodes represent tasks, edges represent relations
- describes order relations for execution of single tasks
- represents parallelism, not branches in control flow



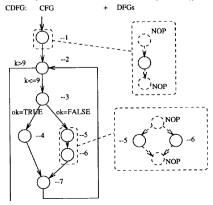
Control-Data Flow Graph (CDFG) (10-8)

Description of control structures & data dependencies - combines control flow & dependence representation

Control Flow Graph: finite state machine which represents the sequential control flow of the program (i.e. branches) - operations within state are written as dependence graph

Dependence Graph/ Data Flow Graph (DFG):

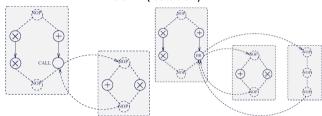
- NOP operations represent start and end point (polar)



Sequence Graph (SG) (10-11)

Hierarchy of acyclic & polar directed graphs

- graph element is a dependence graph of type:
 - a) operations or tasks
 - b) hierarchy nodes
 - CALL (module call)
 - BR (branch)
 - LOOP (iteration)



Marked Graphs (MG) (10-18)

- mainly used for modeling regular computation (signal flow)

Marked graph G = (V, A, del) consists of

- nodes (actors)

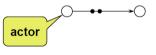
$$v \in V$$

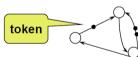
- edges

$$a = (v_i, v_i) \in A$$
, $A \subseteq V \times V$

- initial tokens

$$del: A \rightarrow N$$





- token correspond to data stored in FIFO queues

- node is activated if on every input edge there is a token
- constant # tokens: # inputs = # outputs on each node

Implementation in hardware

- synchronous digital circuit
 - nodes / actors are combinatorial circuits
 - edges correspond to synchronous shift registers
- self-timed asynchronous circuit
 - actors & FIFO registers are independent units
 - coordination & synchronization of firing implemented with handshake protocol
- software implementation with static / dynamic scheduling

11. Architecture Synthesis

Determine a hardware architecture that efficiently executes a given algorithm

- allocation (determine necessary hardware)
 - scheduling (determine timing of operations)
 - binding (determine relations between parts)

Models (11-5)

Sequence Graph $G_S = (V_S, E_S) : V_S$ denotes operations of the algorithm, E_S the dependence relations

Resource Graph $G_R = (V_R, E_R)$, $V_R = V_S \cup V_T$

 V_T : resource types of architecture, G_R bipartite graph

Cost function $c: V_T \to Z$

Execution times $w: E_R \to Z$

Allocation $\alpha: V_T \to Z$

denotes number of available instances for each resource

Binding $\beta(v_s) = v_t$, $\gamma(v_s) = r$

operation v_s is implemented on r-th instance of resource v_t

Scheduling $\tau: V_S \to Z$ determines starting times

feasible if $\tau(v_i) - \tau(v_i) \ge w(v_i) \ \forall \ (v_i, v_i) \in E_S$

Latency $\tau(v_n) - \tau(v_0)$

Multiobjective Optimization (11-13)

Mostly optimize for more than one objective:

- latency of implemented algorithm
- hardware cost (memory, communication, ALUs)
- power & energy consumption

Pareto Optimum

- Improving a given configuration without downgrading any other aspect is called a **pareto improvement**
- if no further improvements can be made, the configuration is called **pareto optimal** (nothing better in all aspects → dominates weaker configurations)

Classification of Scheduling Algorithms (11-19)

- iterative algorithm: initial solution improved step-by-step
- constructive algorithm: problem solved in one step
- **transformative algorithm:** initial problem formulation is transformed into a (classical) optimization problem

Scheduling without resource constrains (11-20)

Every operation gets its own resource; often used as a first step to determined upper bounds on feasible schedules

As Soon As Possible (ASAP) (11-22) top to bottom Start at top, schedule task after all predecessors finished

$$\tau(v_i) = \max\{\tau(v_i) + w(v_i)\}, (v_i, v_i) \in E_S$$

As Late As Possible (ALAP) (11-25) bottom to top

Start at bottom, schedule task before earliest successor

$$\tau(v_i) = \min \{ \tau(v_j) \, \forall \, (v_i, v_j) \in E_S \} - w(v_i)$$

Scheduling with Timing Constrains (11-28)

Constrains: - deadline : latest finishing time

- release time : earliest starting time

- relative constrains : differences

Weighted Constrain Graph: $G_C = (V_C, E_C, d)$

Contains a weighted edge for each timing constrain

An edge $(v_i, v_j) \in E_C$ with weight $d(v_i, v_j)$ denotes:

$$\tau(v_j) - \tau(v_i) \geq d(v_i, v_j)$$

Bellman-Ford-Algorithm: complexity $O(|V_C| |E_C|)$

Iteratively set for all $v_i \in V_C$:

$$\tau(v_j) := \max\{\tau(v_j), \tau(v_i) + d(v_i, v_j) : (v_i, v_j) \in E_C\}$$

Starting from
$$\tau(v_i) = -\infty$$
 , $v_i \in V_C \setminus \{v_0\}$, $\tau(v_0) = 1$

Scheduling with resource constrains (11-34)

Minimal latency is defined as

```
L = \min\{\tau(v_n) : \\ (\tau(v_j) - \tau(v_i) \ge w(v_i, \beta(v_i)) \ \forall (v_i, v_j) \in E_S) \land \\ (|\{v_s : \beta(v_s) = v_t \land \tau(v_s) \le t < \tau(v_s) + w(v_s, v_t)\}| \le \alpha(v_t) \\ \forall v_t \in V_T, \forall 1 \le t \le L_{max}\}
```

List Scheduling (11-36)

- static priority, which denotes urgency of being scheduled (e.g. higher priority, the further still away from end)
- algorithm schedules one time after the other and chooses from the tasks with top-priority
- heuristic algorithm, doesn't guarantee optimal scheduling

```
\begin{split} & \mathsf{LIST}(G_S(V_S, E_S), G_R(V_R, E_R), \alpha, \beta, priorities) \{\\ & t = 1;\\ & \mathsf{REPEAT} \ \{\\ & \mathsf{FORALL} \ v_k \in V_T \ \ \{\\ & \mathsf{determine} \ \mathsf{candidates} \ \mathsf{to} \ \mathsf{be} \ \mathsf{scheduled} \ U_k;\\ & \mathsf{determine} \ \mathsf{running} \ \mathsf{operations} \ T_k;\\ & \mathsf{choose} \ S_k \subseteq U_k \ \mathsf{with} \ \mathsf{maximal} \ \mathsf{priority}\\ & \mathsf{and} \ |S_k| + |T_k| \leq \alpha(v_k);\\ & \tau(v_i) = t \ \ \forall v_i \in S_k; \ \ \}\\ & t = t + 1;\\ & \mathsf{JUNTIL} \ (v_n \ \mathsf{planned})\\ & \mathsf{RETURN} \ (\tau); \ \ \} \end{split}
```

Integer Linear Programming (11-42)

- yields optimal solution, as based on exact description
- binding already determined (know duration)
- know earliest & latest starting times from ASAP / ALAP
- 1. Minimize:

$$\tau(v_n) - \tau(v_0) = L$$

2. Decision variables x binary:

$$x_{i,t} \in \{0,1\}, \ \forall v_i \in V_S, \ \forall t : l_i \le t \le h_i$$

3. Exactly one variable $x_{i,t}$ for all t has the value 1:

$$\sum_{t=l_i}^{h_i} x_{i,t} = 1, \ \forall v_i \in V_S$$

Each task can only have one starting point.

4. If $x_{i,t} = 1$ then the operation v_i starts at time t, i.e. $\tau(v_i) = t$.

$$\sum_{t=l_i}^{h_i} t * x_{i,t} = \tau(v_i), \ \forall v_i \in V_S$$

5. Precedence constraints are satisfied:

$$\tau(v_i) - \tau(v_i) \ge w(v_i), \ \forall (v_i, v_i) \in E_S$$

6. Resource constraints are not violated:

$$\sum_{\forall i: (v_i, v_k) \in E_R} \min_{p' = \max\{0, t - h_i\}} x_{i, t - p'} \leq \alpha(v_k)$$

$$\forall v_k \in V_T, \ \forall t : 1 \le t \le \max\{h_i : v_i \in V_S\}$$

Iterative Algorithms (11-49)

Consist of a set of indexed equations that are evaluated for all values of an index variable (e.g. signal flow graphs, marked graphs)

Representation of iterative algorithms

- one indexed equation with constant index dependencies
- equivalent set of indexed equations
- extended sequence graph denoting the displacements
- marked graph denoting displacement as data in queue
- signal flow graph (with displacement z^{-1})
- loop program

Definitions

Iteration: set of all operations necessary for computation

Iteration interval P: time distance between two iterations

Throughput 1/P: iterations per time unit

Latency L: maximal time distance between starting and finishing times of operations belonging to one iteration

Implementation Principles

- Simple possibility: edges with $d_{ij}>0$ are removed and the resulting simple sequence graph solved traditionally
- functional pipelining: Simultaneous execution of data sets belonging to different iterations. Successive iterations overlap and a higher throughput is obtained

Solving the synthesis problem using Integer Linear Programming: (11-56)

- use extended sequence graph
- calculate upper and lower bounds as well as P
- replace equations (5) and (6) for ILPs

Dynamic Voltage Scaling (DVS) (11-60)

We can optimize the energy in case of DVS

- there are |K| different voltage levels
- task $v_i \in V_S$ can use one of the execution times $w_k(v_i)$ and corresponding energy $e_k(v_i)$
- 1. Minimize:

$$\sum_{k \in K} \sum_{v_i \in V_S} y_{ik} * e_k(v_i)$$

Sums up all individual energies of operations. $\,$

Decision variables u_{ik} binary:

$$y_{ik} \in \{0, 1\}, \forall v_i \in V_S, k \in K$$

3. Exactly one implementation (voltage) $k \in K$ is chosen for each operation v_i :

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{ik} = 1, \forall v_i \in V_S$$

4. Precedence constraints, where the actual execution time is selected from the set of all available ones:

$$\tau(v_j) - \tau(v_i) \ge \sum_{k \in K} y_{ik} * w_k(v_i), \forall (v_i, v_j) \in E_S$$

5. Guarantees deadlines

$$\tau(v_i) + \sum_{k \in K} y_{ik} * w_k(v_i) \le d(v_i), \forall v_i \in V_S$$

12. Various

Petri Nets (2-47)

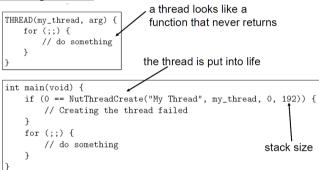


- bipartite graph consisting of places and transitions
- data and control represented by moving tokens

Firing: enabled if at least one token in every input place Remove one from each input and put one to each output

NutOS & Programming Practice (2-50)

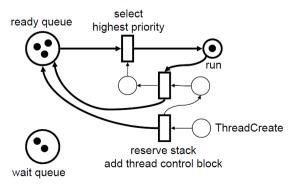
Creating a thread



sleep queue



thick lines: threads thin lines: control



Terminating a thread

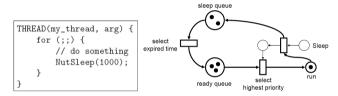
```
THREAD(my_thread, arg) {
   for (;;) {
      // do something
      if (some condition)
            NutThreadExit()
   }
}
```

Yield acces to another thread / set priority

```
THREAD(my_thread, arg) {
   for (;;) {
     NutThreadSetPriority(20);
     // do something
   }
}
```

Laboratory

Sleep



Posting & waiting for events (2-57)

```
#include <sys/event.h>
HANDLE my_event;

Wait for event, but only limited time

THREAD(thread_A, arg) {
    for (;;) {
        // some code
        NutEventWait(&my_event, NUT_WAIT_INFINITE);
        // some code
    }
}

THREAD(thread_B, arg) {
    for (;;) {
        // some code
        NutEventPost(&my_event);
        // some code
    }
}
```