CONCURRENCY

Q

Q

Ó

LECTURE V TDDI11 Embedded Software

DEPT. COMPUTER AND INFORMATION SCIENCE (IDA) LINKÖPINGS UNIVERSITET

OUTLINE

- <u>Why concurrency?</u>
- Foreground / background vs. multi-tasking systems

2

- Concurrent processes and communication
- Scheduling

0

• Bus scheduling

WHY CONCURRENCY?

Separate tasks running independently but sharing data

Difficult to write system using sequential program model

Concurrent process model easier

- Separate sequential programs (processes) for each task
- Programs communicate with each other





CHALLENGES WITH CONCURRENCY

- Sharing global resources
- Management and allocation of resources
- Programming errors difficult to locate

//thread 1	
 if(p){	
d = p->data;	
}	

//thread 2
...
p = NULL;
...



OUTLINE

- Why concurrency?
- Foreground / background vs. multi-tasking systems

- Concurrent processes and communication
- Scheduling
- Bus scheduling

FOREGROUND/BACKGROUND SYSTEMS

- Efficient for small systems of low complexity
- Infinite loop that call modules or tasks to perform the desired operations (also called task level or super-loop)
 - Interrupt Service Routines (ISRs) handle asynchronous events (foreground also called ISR level)

```
/* Background */
void main (void) {
     Initialization;
     while(1){
          read analog inputs();
          read discrete inputs();
          perform monitoring functions();
          perform_control_functions();
          update analog outputs();
          update discrete outputs();
          scan keyboard();
          handle user interface();
          update display();
          handle communication_requests();
```

```
/* Foreground */
ISR (void){
    //Handle asynchronous event;
```

}

FOREGROUND/BACKGROUND SYSTEMS



FOREGROUND/BACKGROUND SYSTEMS

• Critical tasks are handled by ISRs to ensure timeliness

- Information from ISR is not processed until the background routine gets its turn to execute. This is called task-level response.
- The worst-case task-level response depends on how long the background loop is
- High volume and low-cost microcontroller-based applications (e.g., microwaves, simple telephones,...) are designed as foreground/background systems

FOREGROUND/BACKGROUND: ADVANTAGES

- Used in low cost embedded applications
- Memory requirements only depends on your application
- Single stack area for:
 - Function nesting
 - Local variables
 - ISR nesting
- Minimal interrupt latency for bare minimum embedded systems



FOREGROUND/BACKGROUND: DISADVANTAGES

- Background response time is the background execution time
- Non-deterministic, affected by if, for, while ...
- May not be responsive enough
- Changes as you change your code

FOREGROUND/BACKGROUND: DISADVANTAGES

All "tasks" have the "same priority"!

- Code executes in sequence

 If an important event occurs it's handled at the same priority as everything else!

 You may need to execute the same code often to avoid missing an event.



FOREGROUND/BACKGROUND: DISADVANTAGES

- Code is harder to maintain and can become messy
 - Imagine the C program as the number of tasks increase!

MIGRATE TO MULTI-TASKING SYSTEMS

 Each operation in the superloop/background is broken apart into a task, that by itself runs in infinite loop

16



MULTI-TASKING SYSTEM

- Each task is a simple program that thinks it has the entire CPU to itself, and typically executed in an infinite loop.
- In the CPU only one task runs at any given time. This management --- scheduling and switching the CPU between several tasks --- is performed by the kernel of the real-time system

OUTLINE

Ó

- Why concurrency?
- Foreground / background vs. multi-tasking systems
- <u>Concurrent processes and communication</u>
- Scheduling
- Bus scheduling

EACH PROCESS MAINTAINS ITS OWN STACK AND REGISTER CONTENTS

................

Context of Process 1

റ്

Ó

Stack **Registers CS:EIP** SS:ESP EAX EBX **EFlags**

Context of Process N



CONTEXT SWITCHING

- A context switch from process "A" to process "B" first saves all CPU registers in context A, and then reloads all CPU registers from context B.
- Since CPU registers includes SS:ESP and CS:EIP, reloading context B reactivates process B's stack and returns to where it left off when it was last suspended.

COMMUNICATION AMONG PROCESSES

- Processes need to communicate data and signals to solve their computation problem
 - Processes that do not communicate are just independent programs solving separate problems
- Basic example: producer/consumer
 - Process A produces data items, Process B consumes them
 - E.g., A decodes video packets, B display decoded packets on a screen
- How do we achieve this communication? Two basic methods:
 - Shared memory
 - Message passing

<pre>processA() { //Decode packet //Communicate //packet to B } Decoded video packets</pre>
Decoded video packets
<pre>void processB() { // Get packet // from A // Display it }</pre>
To display

SHARED MEMORY

- Processes read and write shared variables
 - No time overhead, easy to implement
 - But, hard to use mistakes are common
- Example: buggy producer(A)/consumer(B)
 - Share *buffer*[*N*], *count* (# of valid data items in *buffer*)
 - processA produces data items and stores in buffer
 - processB consumes data items from buffer
 - Error when both update *count* concurrently.
 - Say count is 3:
 - A loads count into register R1 (R1 = 3)
 - A increments R1 (R1 = 4)
 - *B* loads *count* into register R2 (R2 = 3)
 - B decrements R2 (R2 = 2)
 - A stores R1 back to *count* in memory (*count* = 4)
 - *B* stores R2 back to *count* in memory (*count* = 2)
 - count now has incorrect value of 2

```
01: data type buffer[N];
02: int count = 0;
03: void processA() {
04: int i;
05: while(1) {
06:
      produce(&data);
     while( count == N );/*loop*/
07:
08:
      buffer[i] = data;
     i = (i + 1) \% N;
09:
10:
     count = count + 1;
11: }
12: }
13: void processB() {
14: int i;
15: while(1) {
     while( count == 0 );/*loop*/
16:
17:
     data = buffer[i];
     i = (i + 1) % N;
18:
     count = count - 1;
19:
20:
     consume(&data);
21: }
22: }
23: void main() {
24: create process(processA);
25: create process(processB);
26: }
```

MESSAGE PASSING

Data explicitly sent from one process to another

- Sending process performs special operation, send
- Receiving process must perform special operation, receive, to receive the data
- Both operations must explicitly specify which process it is sending to or receiving from
- Safer model, but less flexible

 \bigcirc

void processA() {
 while(1) {
 produce(&data)
 send(B, &data);
 /* region 1 */
 receive(B, &data);
 consume(&data);

void processB() {
 while(1) {
 receive(A, &data);
 transform(&data)
 send(A, &data);
 /* region 2 */

Back to Shared Memory: Mutual Exclusion

Certain sections of code should not be performed concurrently

 Critical section: section of code where simultaneous updates, by multiple processes to a shared memory location, can occur

When a process enters the critical section, all other processes must be locked out until it leaves the critical section. Mutex:

- A shared object used for locking and unlocking segment of shared data
- Disallows read/write access to memory it guards
- Multiple processes can perform lock operation simultaneously, but only one process will acquire lock
- All other processes trying to obtain lock will be put in blocked state until unlock operation performed by acquiring process when it exits critical section
- These processes will then be placed in runnable state and will compete for lock again

SHARED MEMORY (REV.)

01: data type buffer[N]; 02: int count = 0; 03: mutex count mutex;

- 04: void processA() {
- 05: int i;
- while(1) { 06:
- produce(&data); 07:
- while(true){ 08:
- 11: count mutex.lock();
- if(count < N){</pre> 09:
- 13: count mutex.unlock();
- 14: break; }
- 15:
- 16: count mutex.unlock();
- 17: **};**
- 18: buffer[i] = data;
- i = (i + 1) % N;19:
- 20: count mutex.lock();
- 21: count = count + 1;
- 22: count mutex.unlock();

```
23: }
```

```
24: }
```

- 25: void processB() { 26: int i; 27: while(1) { 28: while(true){ count mutex.lock(); 29: **if(**count > 0){ 30: 31: count mutex.unlock(); 32: break; 33: 34: count mutex.unlock(); 35: }; 36: data = buffer[i]; 37: i = (i + 1) % N; 38: count mutex.lock(); count = count - 1;39: 40: count mutex.unlock(); 41: consume(&data); 42: }
- 43: }

DEADLOCKS IN CONCURRENT PROGRAMMING

Deadlock: A condition where 2 or more processes are blocked waiting for the other to unlock critical sections of code

Example with 2 different critical sections:

- 2 locks needed (mutex1, mutex2)
- Following execution sequence produces deadlock
 - A executes lock operation on *mutex1* (and acquires it)
 - *B* executes lock operation on *mutex2*(and acquires it)
 - *A*/*B* both execute in critical sections 1 and 2, respectively
 - A executes lock operation on *mutex2*
 - A blocked until B unlocks mutex2
 - *B* executes lock operation on *mutex1*
 - B blocked until A unlocks mutex1
 - DEADLOCK!

A possible solution: locking of numbered mutexes in increasing order, unlocking in decreasing order.

(this is typically combined with two-phase locking to ensure serializability: acquire locks in 1st phase only, release locks in 2nd phase)

01: mutex mutex1, mutex2;

02:	void processA() {
03:	while(1) {
04:	
05:	mutex1.lock();
<mark>06:</mark>	/* critical section 1 */
07:	mutex2.lock();
<mark>08:</mark>	<pre>/* critical section 2 */</pre>
09:	mutex2.unlock();
10:	<pre>/* critical section 1 */</pre>
11:	mutex1.unlock();
12:	}
13:	}
14:	<pre>void processB() {</pre>
15:	while(1) {
16:	
17:	mutex2.lock();
18:	/* critical section 2 */
19:	mutex1.lock();
20:	/* critical section 1 */
21:	mutex1.unlock();
22:	/* critical section 2 */
23:	Nula al V
	mutex2.unlock();

25: }

SUMMARY: MULTIPLE PROCESSES SHARING SINGLE PROCESSOR

Manually rewrite processes as a single sequential program

- Less overhead (no operating system)
- More complex/harder to maintain
- Ok for simple examples, but extremely difficult for complex examples

Can use multitasking operating system

- Much more common
- Operating system schedules processes, allocates storage, interfaces to peripherals, etc.
- Real-time operating system (RTOS) can guarantee execution rate constraints are met

OUTLINE

- Why concurrency?
- Foreground / background vs. multi-tasking systems
- Concurrent processes and communication
- Scheduling
- Bus scheduling

IMPLEMENTATION: PROCESS SCHEDULING

- Must meet timing requirements when multiple concurrent processes implemented on single general-purpose processor
- Scheduler
 - Special process that decides when and for how long each process is executed
 - Implemented as <u>preemptive</u> or <u>non-preemptive</u> scheduler

PREEMPTIVE VS NON-PREEMPTIVE

- Time-Preemptive
 - Determines how long a process executes before preempting to allow another process to execute
 - Time quantum: predetermined amount of execution time preemptive scheduler allows each process (may be 10s to 100s of milliseconds long)
 - Determines which process will be next to run
- Non-preemptive
 - Only determines which process is next after current process finishes execution

STATIC VS DYNAMIC SCHEDULING

Static (off-line)

- Makes scheduling decision at compile time and off-line.
- Complete a priori (i.e., before hand) knowledge of the task set and its constraints is available
- Suitable for hard/safety-critical system

Dynamic (on-line)

- Partial task set knowledge
- Suitable for soft/best-effort systems, mixed criticality systems

SCHEDULING APPROACHES

Cyclic executives

0

- Fixed priority scheduling
 - RM Rate Monotonic
 - DM Deadline Monotonic Scheduling
- Dynamic priority scheduling
 - EDF Earliest Deadline First
 - LSF Least Slack First

CYCLIC EXECUTIVE

Process Period A 25 B 25	d Comp. Time 10 8	loop Wait_For_Interrupt; Procedure_For_ A ; Procedure_For_ B ; Procedure_For_ C ;	1	Wait_For_Interrupt; Procedure_For_ A ; Procedure_For_ B ; Procedure_For_ C ;
C 50 D 50 E 100	5 4 2	Wait_For_Interrupt; Procedure_For_ A ; Procedure_For_ B ; Procedure_For_ D ; Procedure_For_ E ;		Wait_For_Interrupt; Procedure_For_ A ; Procedure_For_ B ; Procedure_For_ D ;

Interropt			Interropt			Interrupt			Intermpt		
A	В	С	А	В	DE	A	В	С	A	В	D

 \cap

PRIORITY-BASED SCHEDULING

- Every task has an associated priority
- Run task with the highest priority
 - At every scheduling decision moment
- Examples:
 - Rate Monotonic (RM)
 - Static priority assignment
 - Earliest Deadline First (EDF)
 - Dynamic priority assignment
 - And many others ...

SCHEDULABILITY TEST

- Test to determine whether a feasible schedule exists
- Sufficient
 - + if test is passed, then tasks are definitely schedulable
 - - if test is not passed, we don't know
- Necessary
 - + if test is passed, we don't know
 - - if test is not passed, tasks are definitely not schedulable
- Exact
 - sufficient & necessary at the same time

RATE MONOTONIC

- Each process is assigned a (unique) priority based on its period; the shorter the period, the higher the priority
- Assumes the "Simple task model"
- Fixed priority scheduling
- Pre-emptive
 - Unless stated otherwise

Process	Period	Priority
А	25	5
В	60	3
С	42	4
D	105	1
E	75	2





EXAMPLE 1 (CONT'D)

Scheduled with RM



SCHEDULABILITY TEST FOR RM

Sufficient, but not necessary:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{C_i}{T_i} \le N \ (2^{1/N} - 1)$$

Ν	Utilization Bound
1	100.0%
2	82.8%
3	78.0%
4	75.7%
5	74.3%
10	71.8%

In the limit: 69.3%

Necessary, but not sufficient:

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

EXAMPLE 2

Taskset	P1	P2	P3
Period (Ti)	20	50	30
WCET (Ci)	7	10	5

Is this schedulable?

Q

Ó

EXAMPLE 3

Taskset

	Period Co	omp. Time	Priority	Utilization
Task_1	80	40	1	0.50
Task_2	40	10	2	0.25
Task_3	20	5	3	0.25

Gantt chart:



Time



OPTIMALITY OF RM

Rate Monotonic is optimal among fixed priority schedulers if we assume the "Simple Process Model" for the tasks (e.g., no resource sharing, deadlines equal to periods, free context switch)

45

WHAT TO DO IF NOT SCHEDULABLE

- Change the task set utilisation
 - by reducing C_i
 - code optimisation
 - faster processor
- Increase T_i for some process
 - If your program and environment allows it



RM CHARACTERISTICS

- Easy to implement.
- Drawback:
 - May not give a feasible schedule even if processor is idle at some points.

EARLIEST DEADLINE FIRST (EDF)

- Always runs the process that is closest to its deadline.
- Dynamic priority scheduling
 - Priority evaluated at run-time
- Assumes the "Simple task model" (e.g., no resource sharing, deadlines equal to periods, free context switch)

• Pre-emptive

Unless stated otherwise

° SCHEDULABILITY TEST FOR EDF

Utilisation test: Necessary and sufficient (exact!)



OPTIMALITY OF EDF

EDF is optimal among dynamic priority schedulers if we assume the "Simple Process Model" for the tasks



Domino effect!!!

EDF VS. RM

- EDF can handle tasksets with higher processor utilisation.
- EDF has simpler exact analysis
- RMS can be implemented to run faster at run-time

OUTLINE

0

- Why concurrency?
- Foreground / background vs. multi-tasking systems

- Concurrent processes and communication
- Scheduling
- Bus scheduling

BUS SCHEDULING

- So far we have studied the scheduling analysis on one processor
- However, as systems become more complex, multiple processors exist on a system
- Multiprocessor systems on chips (MPSoCs) in mobile devices, automotive electronics
- The different processors exchange messages over a communication bus!

SYSTEM-LEVEL TIMING ANALYSIS PROBLEM



- Tasks have different activation rates and execution demands
- Each computation/communication element has a different scheduling/arbitration policy

BUS ARBITRATION POLICIES



- When multiple processors want to transmit data at the same time, how is the contention resolved?
 - Using a bus arbitration policy, i.e. determine who gets priority
 - Examples of arbitration policies
 - Time Division Multiple Access, Round Robin, Fixed Priority ...

TIME/EVENT-TRIGGERED ARBITRATION

Time-triggered arbitration policy



(Non preemptive) Event-triggered arbitration policy



BUS ARBITRATION POLICIES



Time-Triggered Policy:

- Only interrupts from the timer are allowed
- Events CANNOT interrupt
- Interaction with environment through polling
- Schedule is computed offline, deterministic behavior at runtime
- Example: Time Division Multiple Access (TDMA) policy

BUS ARBITRATION POLICIES



Event-Triggered Policy:

- Interrupts can be from the timer or from external events
- Interaction with environment through interrupts
- Schedule is dynamic and adaptive
- Response times 'can' be unpredictable
- Example: Fixed Priority scheduling policy

COMPUTING RESPONSE TIMES IN TIME-TRIGGERED SYSTEMS

 \bigcirc

Q





 \mathbf{O}

TWO WELL-KNOWN BUS PROTOCOLS

• Time-Triggered Bus Protocols:

- <u>Time-Triggered Protocol (TTP)</u> used in avionics
- Based on Time Division Multiple Access (TDMA) policy
- Event-Triggered Bus Protocols:
 - <u>Controller Area Network (CAN)</u> widely used for chassis control systems and power train communication

63

Based on fixed priority scheduling policy

TIME-TRIGGERED VS EVENT-TRIGGERED: d

Both have their advantages and disadvantages

0

	Time-Triggered	Event-Triggered
Response Times	×	
Bus Utilization	×	
Flexibility	×	
Composability	\odot	×