Processes and Operating Systems (Text: Chapter 6)

Multiple tasks and multiple processes.

- Scheduling
- Resource management
- Inter-process communication
- Performance
- Preemptive real-time operating systems (RTOS)
 - Book examples: freeRTOS.org, POSIX/Linux, Windows CE
 - Keil/ARM: CMSIS Real-Time Operating System
 - Based on freeRTOS
- Processes and UML.

Reactive systems

Respond to external events.

- Engine controller.
- Seat belt monitor.
- Process control.
- Smart phone.

Requires real-time response.

- System architecture.
- Program implementation.
- May require a chain reaction among multiple processors.

Tasks and processes

- A task is a functional description of a connected set of operations.
- (Task can also mean a collection of processes.)

- A process is a unique execution of a program.
 - Several copies of a program may run simultaneously or at different times.
- A process has its own state:
 - registers;
 - memory.
- The operating system manages processes.

Why multiple processes?

- Processes help us manage timing complexity:
 - time periods/rates differ between processes
 - depending on computational needs and deadlines
 - synchronous vs asynchronous execution
 - multiple & variable data/execution rates
 - multimedia (compressed vs uncompressed data)
 - automotive systems
 - asynchronous input
 - user interfaces activated at random times (buttons, etc.)
 - communication systems

Example: engine control

Tasks:

- spark control
- crankshaft sensing
- fuel/air mixture
- oxygen sensor
- Kalman filter
- state machine
- gas pedal



Typical rates in engine controllers

Variable	Full range time (ms)	Update period (ms)
Engine spark timing	300	2
Throttle	40	2
Air flow	30	4
Battery voltage	80	4
Fuel flow	250	10
Recycled exhaust gas	500	25
Status switches	100	20
Air temperature	Seconds	400
Barometric pressure	Seconds	1000
Spark (dwell)	10	1
Fuel adjustment	80	8
Carburetor	500	25
Mode actuators	100	100

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Life without processes

Code turns into a mess:

- interruptions of one task for another
- "spaghetti" code



time

A_code(); B_code(); if (C) C_code(); A_code(); switch (x) { case C: C(); case D: D();

Real-time systems

- Perform a computation to conform to external timing constraints.
- Deadline frequency:
 - Periodic.
 - Aperiodic.

Deadline type:

- Hard: failure to meet deadline causes system failure.
- Soft: failure to meet deadline causes degraded response.
- Firm: late response is useless but some late responses can be tolerated.
- Process timing specifications:
 - Release time: time at which process becomes ready.
 - **Deadline**: time at which process must finish.

Release times and deadlines



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Rate requirements on processes

- Period: interval between process activations.
- Rate: reciprocal of period.
- Initiation rate may be higher than period--several copies of process run at once.



Timing violations

- What happens if a process doesn't finish by its deadline?
 - Hard deadline: system fails if missed.
 - Soft deadline: user may notice, but system doesn't necessarily fail.

Example: Space Shuttle software error

- Space Shuttle's first launch was delayed by a software timing error:
 - Primary control system PASS and backup flight system BFS.
 - PASS used priority schedule (low priority could be skipped)
 - BFS used fixed time-slot schedule
 - BFS failed to synchronize with PASS.
 - A change to one routine added delay that threw off start time calculation.
 - I in 67 chance of timing problem.

Task graphs

- Tasks may have data dependencies---must execute in certain order.
- Task graph shows data/control dependencies between processes.
- Task: connected set of processes.
- Task set: One or more tasks.



Communication between tasks

- Task graph assumes that all processes in each task run at the same rate, tasks do not communicate.
- In reality, some amount of inter-task communication is necessary.
 - It's hard to require immediate response for multi-rate communication.



Process execution characteristics

- Process execution time T_i.
 - Execution time in absence of preemption.
 - Possible time units: seconds, clock cycles.
 - Worst-case, best-case execution time may be useful in some cases.
- Sources of variation:
 - Data dependencies.
 - Memory system.
 - CPU pipeline.

Utilization

CPU utilization:

- Fraction of the CPU that is doing useful work.
- Often calculated assuming no scheduling overhead.
- Utilization:
 - U = (CPU time for useful work)/ (total available CPU time)
 = [∑_{t1 ≤ t ≤ t2} T(t)] / [t2 t1]
 = T/t

Scheduling feasibility

- Resource constraints make schedulability analysis NP-hard.
 - Must show that the deadlines are met for <u>all timings</u> of resource requests.
- Can we meet all deadlines?
 - Must be able to meet deadlines in all cases.
- How much CPU horsepower do we need to meet our deadlines?



Simple processor feasibility

Assume:

- No resource conflicts.
- Constant process execution times.

Require:

- $\vdash \mathsf{T} \geq \Sigma_i \mathsf{T}_i$
- Can't use more than 100% of the CPU.



Hyperperiod

- Hyperperiod: least common multiple (LCM) of the task periods.
- Must look at the hyperperiod schedule to find all task interactions.
- Hyperperiod can be very long if task periods are not chosen carefully.

Hyperperiod example

- Long hyperperiod:
 - PI 7 ms.
 - ▶ P2 I I ms.
 - P3 I5 ms.
 - LCM = 1155 ms.
- Shorter hyperperiod:
 - PI 8 ms.
 - P2 I2 ms.
 - P3 16 ms.
 - ▶ LCM = 96 ms.

Simple processor feasibility example

- PI period I ms, CPU time 0.1 ms.
- P2 period I ms, CPU time 0.2 ms.
- P3 period 5 ms, CPU time 0.3 ms.

LCN	l = 5 ms			
	period	CPU time	CPU time/LCM	
P1	1 ms	0.1 ms	0.5 ms	
P2	1 ms	0.2 ms	1 ms	
P3	5 ms	0.3 ms	0.3 ms	
	total CPU/LCM		1.8 ms	
	utilization		35%	

Cyclostatic/TDMA

- TDMA: Time Division Multiple Access (access to CPU)
- Schedule in time slots.
 - Same process activation irrespective of workload.
- Time slots may be equal size or unequal. (usually equal)



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TDMA assumptions

- Schedule based on least common multiple (LCM) of the process periods.
- Trivial scheduler
 - very small "scheduling overhead".



 $\mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{LCM}}$

- Always gives same CPU utilization (assuming constant process execution times).
- Can't handle unexpected loads.
 - Must schedule a time slot for aperiodic events. (Perhaps leave last time slot empty.)

TDMA schedulability example

- TDMA period = 10 ms.
- PI CPU time I ms.
- P2 CPU time 3 ms.
- P3 CPU time 2 ms.
- P4 CPU time 2 ms.

TDMA period = 10ms		
	CPU time	
P1	1ms	
P2	3ms	
P3	2ms	
P4	2ms	
spare	2ms	
utilization	80.0%	



* => Use half of time slot

Round-robin scheduling

- Schedule process only if ready.
 - Always test processes in the same order.
- Variations:
 - Constant system period.
 - Start round-robin again after finishing a round.



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Round-robin assumptions

- Schedule based on least common multiple (LCM) of the process periods.
- Best done with equal time slots for processes.
- Simple scheduler
 - Low scheduling overhead.
 - Can be implemented in hardware.
- Can bound maximum CPU load.
 - May leave unused CPU cycles.
- Can be adapted to handle unexpected load.
 - Use time slots at end of period

Schedulability and overhead

- The scheduling process consumes CPU time.
 - Not all CPU time is available for processes.
 - Need code to control execution of processes.
 - Simplest implementation: process = subroutine.
- Scheduling overhead must be taken into account for exact schedule.
 - May be ignored if it is a small fraction of total execution time.

while loop implementation

- "Round Robin" schedule
- Simplest implementation has one loop.
 - No control over execution timing.

```
while (TRUE) {
    pl();
    p2();
}
```

Timed loop implementation

- Encapsulate set of all processes in a single function that implements the task set.
- Use timer to control execution of task "p_all".
 - Each process executed in each time interval
 - No control over timing of individual processes.

```
void p_all(){
    pl();
    p2();
}
```

Multiple timers implementation

- Each task has its own function.
- Each task has its own timer.
 - May not have enough timers to implement all the rates.
- One timer interrupt may delay another

```
void pA() /* rate A */
  pl();
  p3();
void pB(){ /* rate B */
  p2();
  p4();
  p5();
```

Timer + counter implementation

- Use a software count to divide the timer.
- Only works for clean multiples of the timer period.

```
int p2count = 0;
void pall(){
  pl();
  if (p2count >= 2) {
        p2();
       p2count = 0;
  else p2count++;
  p3();
```

Implementing processes

- > All of these implementations are inadequate.
- Need better control over timing.
- Need a better mechanism than subroutines.
- Solve via Real-Time Operating System