

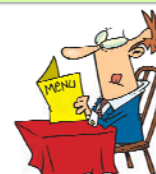
## Modeling real-time activities

## What is a model?

A model is a representation of something. It captures not all attributes of the represented thing, but rather only those that are relevant for a specific purpose.

*"Confusing a model with reality would be like going to a restaurant and eat the menu"*

*Golomb's Law on mathematical models*

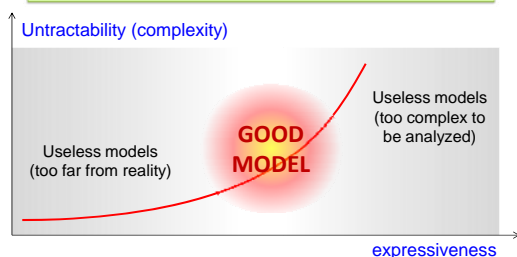


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## What is a good model?

- It should be expressive (an accurate representation of reality)
- It should be tractable (provide results in a bounded time)

Unfortunately, expressiveness and tractability do not get along very well



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## Important aspects

Building a model implies:

- simplifying reality (but not too much), capturing the features of interest;
- defining the variables that characterize the model.
- defining the system interface (variables exposed to the user);
- clearly identifying the assumptions (affecting values);
- defining the metrics for evaluating the outputs of your system and its performance.

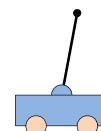
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## Types of variables

- Parameters (variables you don't want to change);
- Input variables (commands given by the user/controller)
- Design variables (variables you want to identify to apply your control actions);
- State variables (variables describing the system state and behavior);
- Output variables (variables you want to measure to evaluate the performance of your method).

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## Example



- Parameters: Pole length/mass, cart mass
- Input variables: Force applied to the cart
- Design variables: Control parameters ( $K_p$ ,  $K_i$ ,  $K_D$ )
- State variables: Position/speed of the cart and pole
- Output variables: Pole angle

### Elements of computation

**Instruction:**  
It is the elementary entity of a programming language.

Examples in ASM X86:

```
MOV AX, 5;
MOV BX, 7;
ADD AX, BX;
```

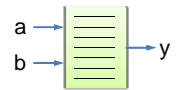
Examples in C:

```
int x;
x = a + b;
if (x > threshold) y = 1;
else y = 0;
```


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### Elements of computation

**Function:**  
It is a container for a set of instructions. It may take multiple input arguments and produces a single output.



A function can call other functions:



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### Elements of computation

**Task:**

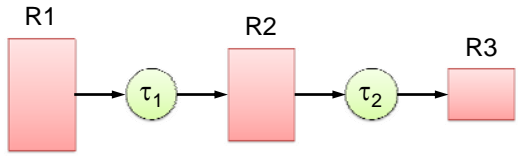
- It is a function performing a given computational activity in a system (e.g., sensory processing, motor control, filtering).
- It is the elementary entity managed by an operating system.
- It may have specific constraints (e.g., activation time, period, deadline, precedence relations with other tasks).
- It can communicate with other tasks by shared resources.

**Resource:**  
It is a set of variables that can be used by tasks to store data or temporary results:

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### Elements of computation

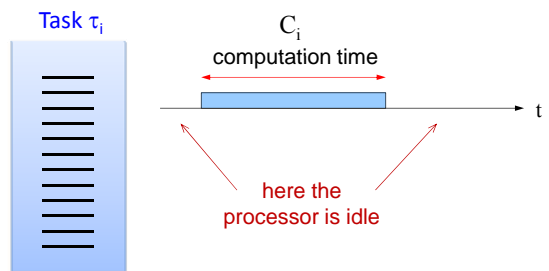
**Application:**  
It consists of a set of tasks interacting through a set of shared resources:



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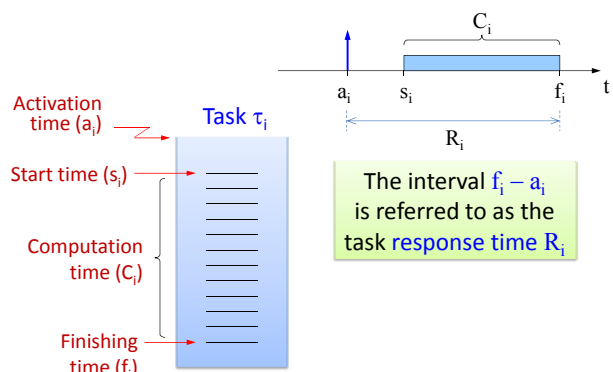
### Task execution

► The execution of a task on a processor is represented by a bar on a timeline.



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### Task important variables



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### RTOS responsibilities

A real-time operating system is responsible for:

- Managing **concurrency**;
- Activating periodic tasks at the beginning of each period (**time management**);
- Deciding the execution order of tasks (**scheduling**);
- Solving possible timing conflicts during the access of shared resources (**mutual exclusion**);
- Manage the timely execution of asynchronous events (**interrupt handling**).

### Ready queue

In a concurrent system, more tasks can be simultaneously active, but only one can be in execution (**running**).

- An active task that is not in execution is said to be **ready**.
- Ready tasks are kept in a **ready queue**, managed by a **scheduling** policy.
- The processor is assigned to the first task in the queue through a **dispatching** operation.

### Preemption

It is a kernel mechanism that allows to suspend the execution of the running task in favor of a more important task. The suspended task goes back in the ready queue.

- Preemption enhances concurrency and allows reducing the response times of high priority tasks.
- It can be disabled (completely or temporarily) to ensure the consistency of certain critical operations.

### Schedule

Is a particular assignement of tasks to the processor that determines the task execution sequence:

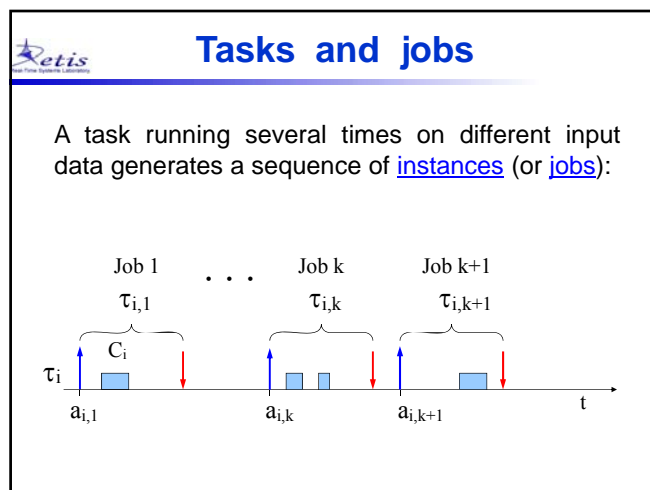
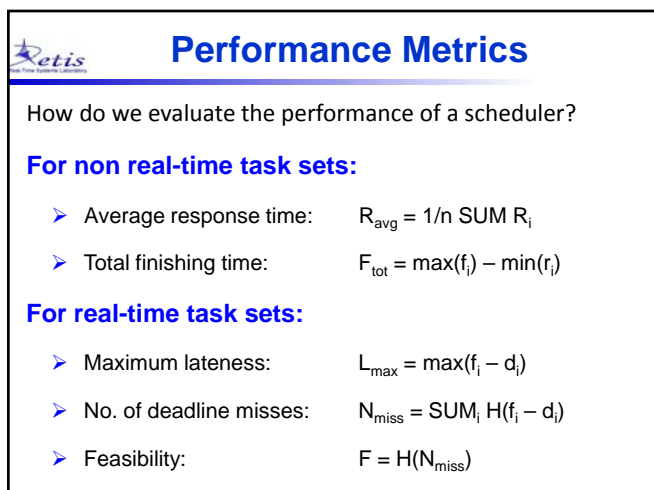
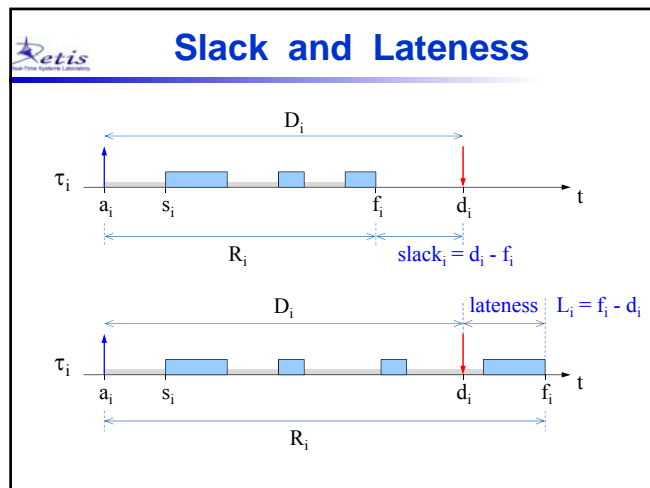
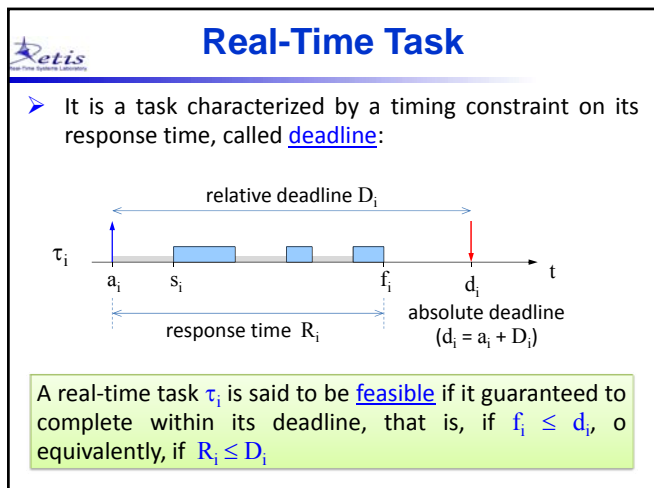
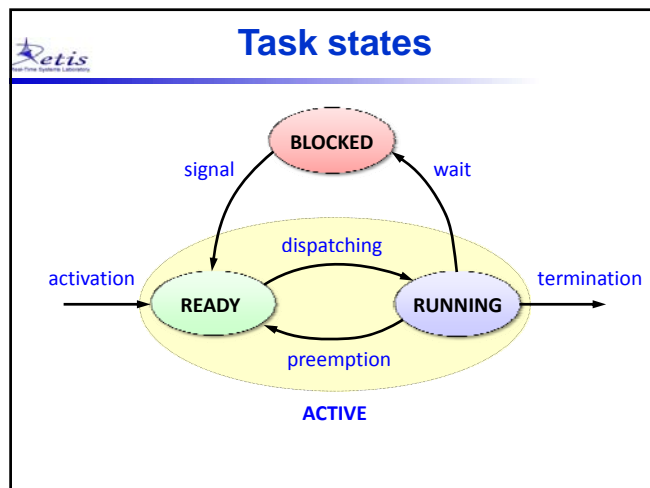
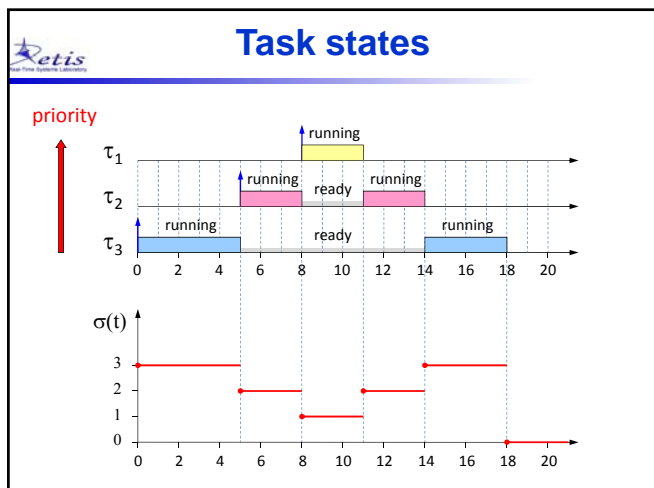
Formally, given a task set  $\Gamma = \{\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n\}$ , a schedule is a function  $\sigma: \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  that associates an integer  $k$  to each interval of time  $[t, t+1)$  with the following meaning:

- $k = 0$   $\rightarrow$  in  $[t, t+1)$  the processor is IDLE
- $k > 0$   $\rightarrow$  in  $[t, t+1)$  the processor executes  $\tau_k$

### Schedule

- Each interval  $[t_i, t_{i+1})$  is called a **time slice**.
- In time instants  $t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4$  the processor is said to perform a **context switch**.

### Preemptive schedule



### Activation mode

- Time driven:** (periodic tasks)  
A task is automatically activated by the operating system at predefined time instants.
- Event driven:** (aperiodic tasks)  
A task is activated at the arrival of an event (by interrupt or by another task through an explicit system call).

### Periodic task

$U_i = \frac{C_i}{T_i}$  utilization factor

timer (period  $T_i$ )

A periodic task  $\tau_i$  generates an infinite sequence of jobs:  $\tau_{i1}, \tau_{i2}, \dots, \tau_{ik}$  (same code on different data):

### Periodic task

$\tau_i(C_i, T_i, D_i)$

$a_{i,1} = \Phi_i$  task phase

$a_{i,k} = \Phi_i + (k-1) T_i$  (often  $D_i = T_i$ )

$d_{i,k} = a_{i,k} + D_i$

### Aperiodic task

- Aperiodic:**  $a_{i,k+1} > a_{i,k}$  (minimum interarrival time)
- Sporadic:**  $a_{i,k+1} \geq a_{i,k} + T_i$

### Using models

Application model (Task model, Assumptions) → Timing Analysis → solution

Definition of task/app parameters (Sys. Req.) → Timing Analysis

System model → Timing Analysis

RTOS model → Timing Analysis

Platform model (I/O devices) → Timing Analysis

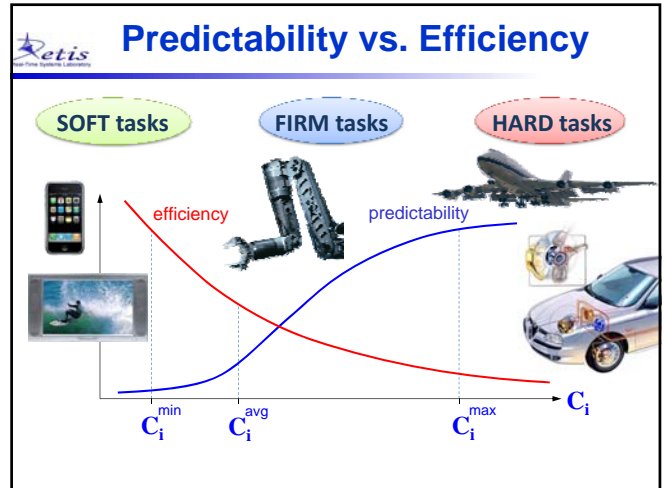
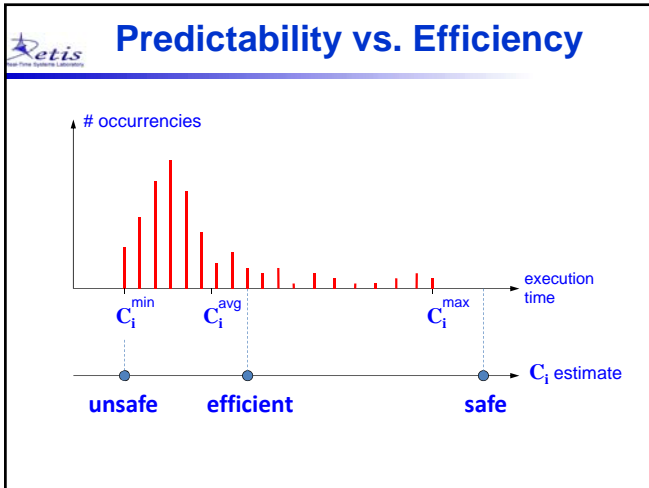
Evaluation metrics (feasible?) → YES → implementation

Evaluation metrics (feasible?) → NO → back to Timing Analysis

### Estimating $C_i$ is not easy

Each job operates on different data and can take different paths.

Even for the same data, computation time depends on the processor state (cache, prefetch queue, number of preemptions).



### Criticality

**HARD task**  
All jobs must meet their deadlines. Missing a single deadline may cause **catastrophic effects** on the whole system.

**FIRM task**  
Missing a job deadline has not catastrophic effects on the system, but **invalidates the execution** of that particular job.

**SOFT task**  
Missing a deadline is not critical. A job finishing after its deadline has still some value but causes a **performance degradation**.

An operating system able to handle hard real-time tasks is called a **hard real-time** system.

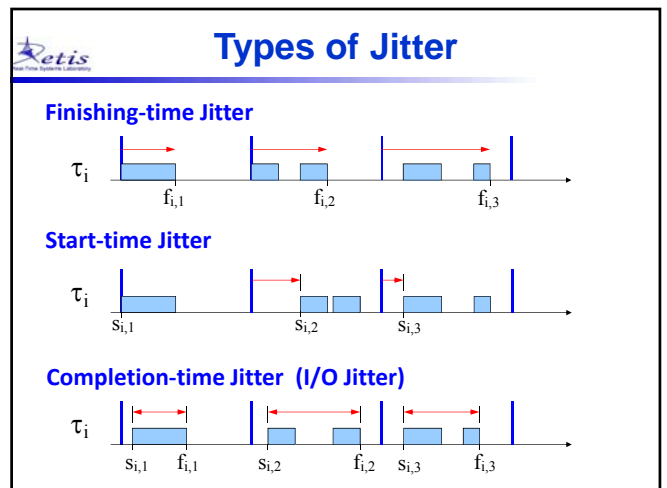
- ### Criticality
- Typical HARD tasks**
- sensory acquisition
  - low-level control
  - sensory-motor planning
- Typical FIRM tasks**
- RT audio processing
  - RT video decoding
- Typical SOFT tasks**
- reading data from the keyboard
  - user command interpretation
  - message displaying
  - graphical activities

### Jitter

It is a measure of the time variation of a periodic event:

**Absolute:**  $\max_k (t_k - a_k) - \min_k (t_k - a_k)$

**Relative:**  $\max_k |(t_k - a_k) - (t_{k-1} - a_{k-1})|$



### Parameters summary

- Computation time ( $C_i$ )
- Period ( $T_i$ )
- Relative deadline ( $D_i$ )
- Arrival time ( $a_i$ )
- Start time ( $s_i$ )
- Finishing time ( $f_i$ )
- Response time ( $R_i$ )
- Slack and Lateness
- Jitter

These parameters are specified by the programmer and are **known off-line**.

These parameters depend on the scheduler and on the actual execution, and are **known at run time**.

### A control example

A positive angle  $\theta$  requires a positive control action  $u$

### A control example

A negative angle  $\theta$  requires a negative control action  $u$

### A control task

```

task control(float theta0, float k)
{
float error;
float u;
float theta;

while (1) {
theta = read_sensor();
error = theta - theta0;
u = k * error;
output(u);
wait_for_next_period();
}
}
    
```

Annotations:  $k$  is control gain,  $\theta_0$  is reference angle,  $read\_sensor()$  is sensing,  $error = \theta - \theta_0$  and  $u = k * error$  is computation,  $output(u)$  is actuation,  $wait\_for\_next\_period()$  is synchronization.

### A control task

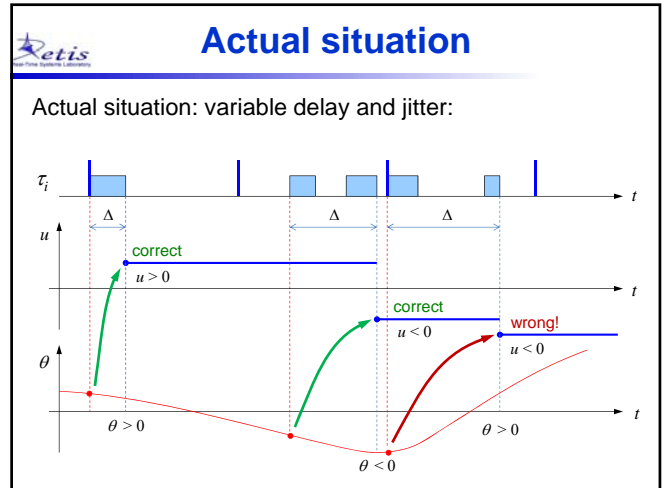
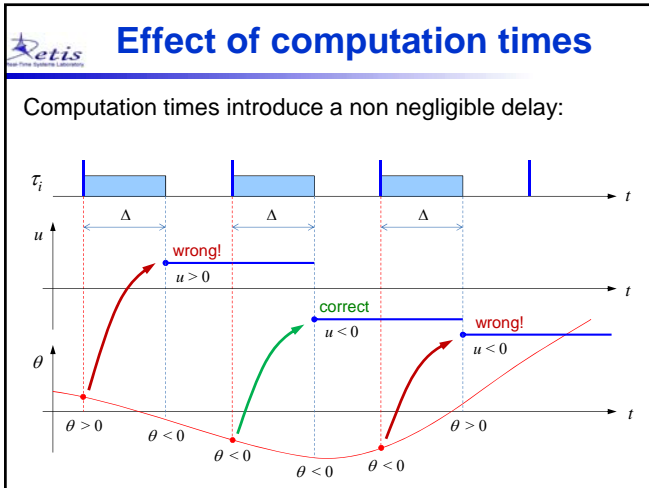
```

task control(float theta0, float k)
{
float error, u, theta;

while (1) {
theta = read_sensor();
error = theta - theta0;
u = k * error;
output(u);
wait_for_next_period();
}
}
    
```

### Traditional control view

Negligible delay and jitter:



### A robot control example

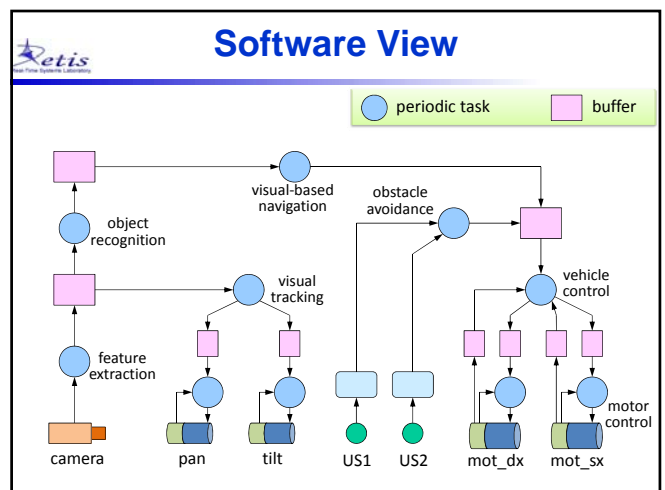
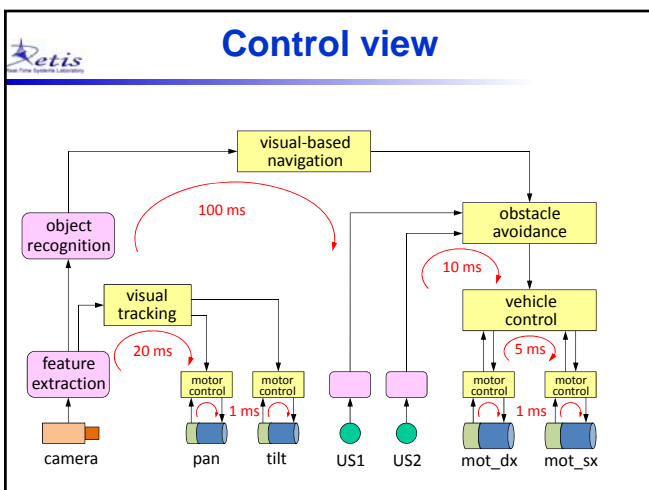
Consider a mobile robot equipped with:

- two actuated wheels;
- two proximity (US) sensors;
- a mobile (pan/tilt) camera;
- a wireless transceiver.

**Goal**

- Follow a path based on visual feedback;
- Avoid obstacles;
- Send complete robot status every 20 ms.

- ### Design requirements
- **Modularity:** a subsystem must be developed without knowing the details of other subsystems (team work).
  - **Configurability:** software must be adapted to different situations (through the use of suitable parameters) without changing the source code.
  - **Portability:** minimize code changes when porting the system to different hardware platforms.
  - **Predictability:** allow the estimation of maximum delays.
  - **Efficiency:** optimize the use of available resources (computation time, memory, energy).





### Software structure

The diagram shows a central yellow box containing several tasks (blue circles) and resources (pink squares). Arrows indicate the flow of data between these components. On the right, a vertical blue bar represents the system interface, with 'OUTPUT' on the right and 'INPUT' on the left. A legend below the diagram identifies a blue circle as 'task' and a pink square as 'resource'.

The operating system is responsible for providing the proper mechanisms for a predictable interaction between tasks and resources.

### Support for periodic tasks

Task  $\tau_i$

```

wait_for_activation();
while (condition) {
    // ...
    wait_for_next_period();
}
    
```

The timing diagram shows a sequence of states for a task: 'ready' (grey bar), 'running' (blue bar), 'idle' (pink bar), 'active' (blue bar), 'idle' (pink bar), and 'active' (blue bar). Vertical blue lines mark the boundaries between these states.

### The IDLE state

The state transition diagram shows four states: READY (blue oval), RUNNING (blue oval), IDLE (pink oval), and BLOCKED (red oval). Transitions are labeled as follows: 'activate' (to READY), 'signal' (to BLOCKED), 'wait' (to IDLE), 'dispatching' (to RUNNING), 'preemption' (to READY), 'terminate' (to IDLE), 'wake\_up' (to READY), and 'wait\_for\_next\_period' (to IDLE). A 'Timer' is shown with a lightning bolt symbol pointing to the IDLE state.

### Design approaches

**Event driven**

RT system

Environment

$x(t)$  (input),  $y(t+\Delta)$  (output)

**Time driven**

RT system

Environment

polling

## Task constraints

### Types of constraints

- **Timing constraints**
  - activation, completion, jitter.
- **Precedence constraints**
  - they impose an ordering in the execution.
- **Resource constraints**
  - they enforce a synchronization in the access of mutually exclusive resources.

### Timing constraints

They can be explicit or implicit.

- **Explicit timing constraints**  
They are directly included in the system specifications.

**Examples**

- open the valve **in** 10 seconds
- send the position **within** 40 ms
- read the altimeter **every** 200 ms
- acquire the camera **every** 20 ms

### Implicit timing constraints

They do not appear in the system specification, but they need to be met to satisfy the performance requirements.

**Example**

What is the time validity of a sensory data?

### Computing the yellow duration

$$D > T_d + T_r + T_b$$

- $T_d$  = detection time
- $T_r$  = reaction time
- $T_b$  = braking time

### Computing the yellow duration

Detection time:  $T_d = 0.6 \text{ s}$   
 Reaction time:  $T_r = 0.6 \text{ s}$   
 Braking time:  $T_b = v/(\mu g)$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} v = 50 \text{ Km/h} = 14 \text{ m/s} \\ \mu = 0.5 \end{array} \right. \Rightarrow T_b = 2.8 \text{ s}$

Time to stop the car from the time the yellow is turned on:  **$D > 4 \text{ s}$**

### Example 2: automatic braking

**GOAL:** If an obstacle is detected, stop the train without hitting the obstacle.

**PROBLEM:** Find the sampling periods of the sensors that guarantee the feasibility of the goal

### Assumptions

- Let  $\tau_s(C_s, T_s)$  be the task devoted to sampling ( $D_s = T_s$ )
- Assume  $\tau_s$  is the task with the **highest priority**.
- Let  $U_{other}$  be the load of the other tasks

### Minimum period

The **minimum period** can be computed by imposing that the system is not in overload:

The system is in overload if  $\frac{C_s}{T_s} + U_{other} > 1$

Hence a necessary condition for the system feasibility is  $T_s \geq \frac{C_s}{1 - U_{other}}$

Thus:  $T_s^{min} = \frac{C_s}{1 - U_{other}}$

The **maximum period** can be found by a worst-case reasoning.

### Worst-case reasoning

D = sensor visibility

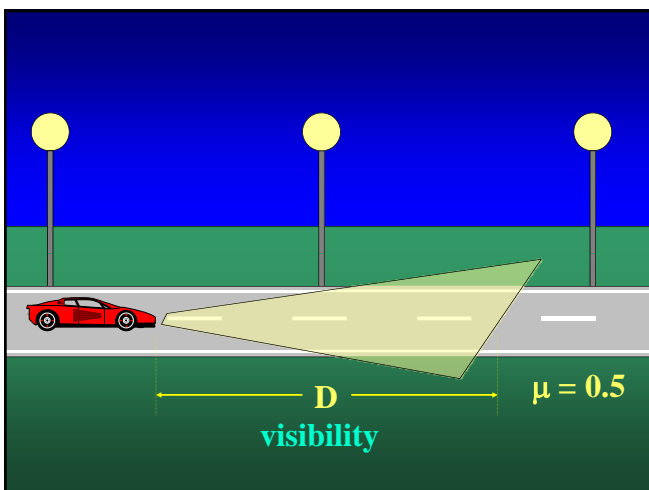
$$v(T_s + \Delta) + X_b < D$$

$$\begin{cases} X_b = vt - \frac{1}{2}at^2 \\ v = at \end{cases} \quad \begin{cases} a = \mu g \\ X_b = \frac{v^2}{2\mu g} \end{cases}$$

$$v(T_s + \Delta) + \frac{v^2}{2\mu g} < D$$

$$T_s < \frac{D}{v} - \frac{v}{2\mu g} - \Delta$$

$$v_{max} = \sqrt{(\Delta\mu g)^2 + 2D\mu g} - \Delta\mu g$$

$$v_{max} \cong \sqrt{2D\mu g}$$


### Car driving

### Lessons learned

The farther we look, the faster we can run  
To go fast safely, look ahead!!!

If  $v \geq v_{\max}$  no feasible solution exists, no matter how fast you react!!!

Don't look away from the road for too long!!!

### Example 3: contour following

**Goal**  
Move at velocity  $v$  along the surface tangent, exerting a force  $F < F_{\max}$  along its normal direction.

### Worst-case reasoning

Length covered by the robot after the contact:

$$L = vT_s + x_f$$

$$x_f = \int_0^{\infty} v(t)dt = \int_0^{\infty} v_0 e^{-t/\tau_d} dt = -v_0 \tau_d (e^{-\infty} - e^0) = v_0 \tau_d$$

$$L = v(T_s + \tau_d)$$

Force on the robot tool: (K = elastic coefficient)

$$F = KL = Kv(T_s + \tau_d) < F_{\max}$$

Condition on the sampling period:

$$T_s < \frac{F_{\max}}{Kv_0} - \tau_d$$

$$T_{\max} = \left( \frac{F_{\max}}{Kv_0} - \tau_d \right)$$

$$v_{\max} = \frac{F_{\max}}{K\tau_d}$$

### Types of constraints

- **Timing constraints**  
– activation, completion, jitter.
- **Precedence constraints**  
– they impose an ordering in the execution.
- **Resource constraints**  
– they enforce a synchronization in the access of mutually exclusive resources.

### Precedence constraints

Sometimes tasks must be executed with specific precedence relations, specified through a **Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG)**:

predecessor  
 $\tau_1 \prec \tau_4$

immediate predecessor  
 $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$

### Sample application

### Precedence graph

### Other task models

To refine the analysis and reduce the pessimism, a task can be modeled at a finer grain expressing:

- precedence constraints between blocks
- execution flow of internal blocks
- potential parallel execution of code
- activation constraints of internal blocks
- timing constraints between internal blocks

More expressive models increase the complexity of the analysis.

### Code parallelism

#### Fork-Join Graphs

- After a **fork node**, all immediate successors must be executed (the order does not matter).
- A **join node** is executed only after all immediate predecessors are completed.

### Code flow

- Some task model also allows specifying activation constraints between immediate successors as minimum interarrival times

### Conditional nodes

- A branch represents a conditional statement
- Only one node among all immediate successors must be executed

### Conditional DAGs

They include both type of semantics, allowing representing both conditional statements and parallel execution:

Nodes in conditional branches cannot have precedence relations with nodes in other branches to avoid infinite waiting times.

### Types of constraints

- **Timing constraints**
  - activation, completion, jitter.
- **Precedence constraints**
  - they impose an ordering in the execution.
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### Concurrency

Resource conflicts are caused by concurrency, that is the ability of the processor to execute more tasks at a time, by alternating their executions:

### Multiprogramming

Concurrency is the basic mechanism used to implement multiprogramming in multi-user operating systems (it exploits input waiting times to manage other users):

### Concurrency

Comparing sequential with concurrent executions, it seems that concurrency has no advantages:

### Concurrency and I/O

If a task must wait for I/O data, concurrency allows another task to run during that interval:

**Response times**

sequential execution:  $R_1 = 9$ ,  $R_2 = 15$

concurrent execution:  $R_1 = 9$ ,  $R_2 = 10$

### Periodic tasks

Concurrency becomes superior when managing periodic tasks at different rates (waiting times are used to execute other tasks):

sequential execution (FIFO)

concurrent execution (Rate Monotonic)

### Concurrency: pro and cons

Hence, concurrency allows exploiting tasks inactive intervals (e.g., waiting times for input data or periodic task activation).

However, concurrency can generate **conflicts** when using **shared resources** (for example, when more tasks operate on global data).

### Example of conflict

Each thread increments a counter every time an event is detected:

global variable: counter c: 10

$\tau_1$ :  $x = \text{counter}; x = x + 1; \text{counter} = x;$

$\tau_2$ :  $x = \text{counter}; x = x + 1; \text{counter} = x;$

An event is lost!

### Example 2

It estimates the next position  $(x,y)$  of a moving target

It controls a missile to catch the target in  $(x,y)$

global buffer:  $(x, y)$

$\tau_1$ :  $x = (a + b)/c;$   
 $y = (a - b)/c;$

$\tau_2$ :  $m1 = k1*(a*x - x);$   
 $m2 = k2*(a*y - y);$

### Example 2

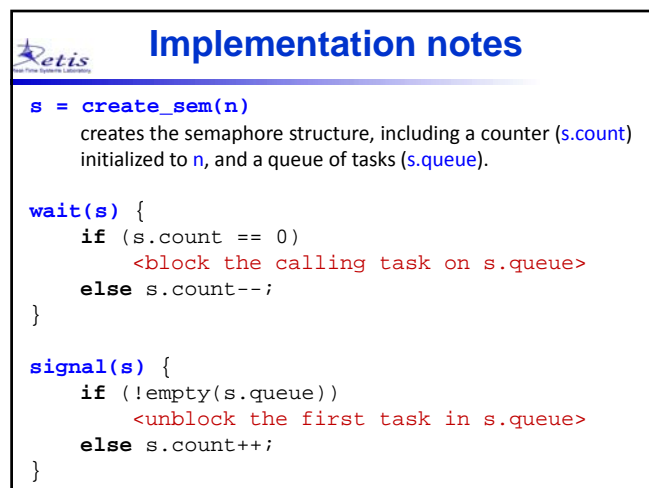
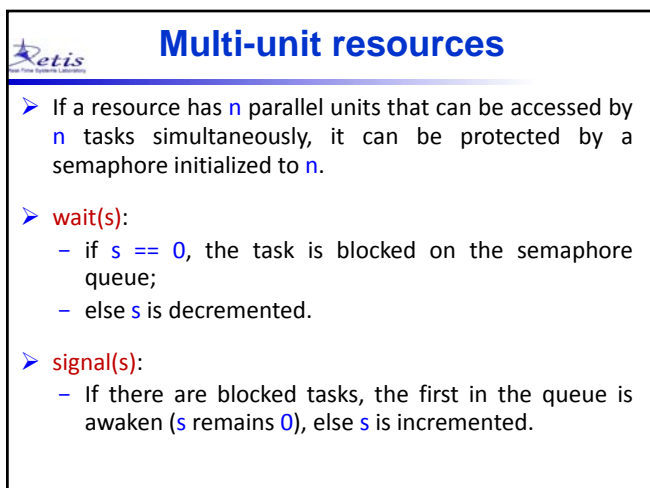
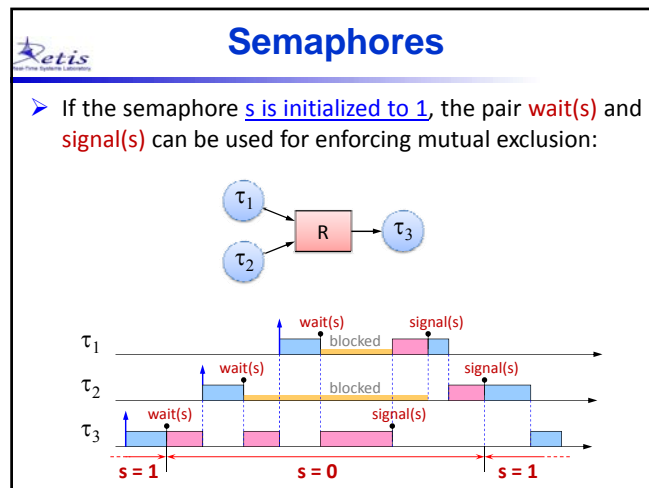
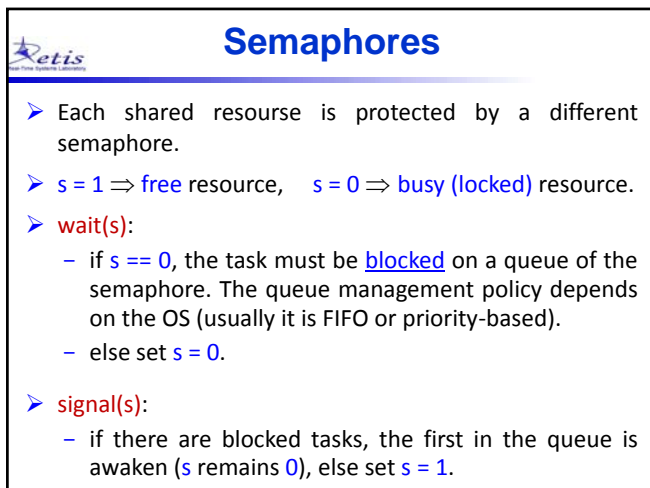
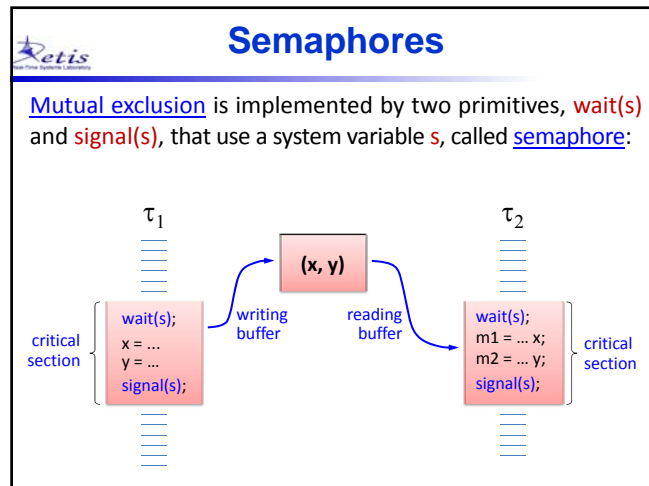
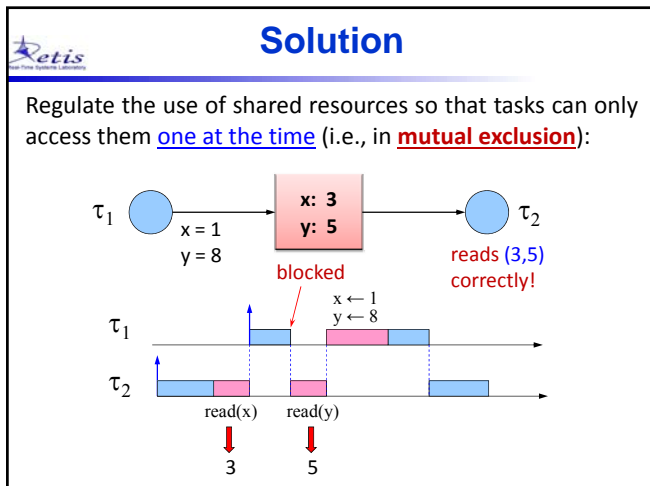
$\tau_1$ :  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 8$

$\tau_2$ :  $x = 3$ ,  $y = 8$

It reads  $(3,8)$  which does not belong to the trajectory!

$\tau_1$ :  $x \leftarrow 1$ ,  $y \leftarrow 8$

$\tau_2$ :  $\text{read}(x)$  → 3,  $\text{read}(y)$  → 8





### Synchronization semaphores

➤ A semaphore initialized to 0 can be used to wait for an event generated by another task:

calls `signal(s)` at the event occurrence

wait(s);

signal(s);

priority

$\tau_1$

$\tau_2$

wait(s)

blocked

signal(s)

### Problem with semaphores

➤ Semaphores (when properly used) guarantee the consistency of shared global data, but introduce extra blocking delays in high priority tasks.

priority

$\tau_1$

$\tau_2$

w

s

s

w

blocked

$\Delta$

## Timing anomalies

### Scheduling anomalies

$T_1: 3$

$T_2: 2$

$T_3: 2$

$T_4: 2$

$T_5: 4$

$T_6: 4$

$T_7: 4$

$T_8: 4$

$T_9: 9$

priority

$P_i > P_j \quad \forall i < j$

$t_r = 12$

P1	$T_1$	$T_9$	
P2	$T_2$	$T_4$	$T_7$
P3	$T_3$	$T_6$	$T_8$

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 t

### Increased processors

$T_1: 3$

$T_2: 2$

$T_3: 2$

$T_4: 2$

$T_5: 4$

$T_6: 4$

$T_7: 4$

$T_8: 4$

$T_9: 9$

P1	$T_1$	$T_8$	
P2	$T_2$	$T_5$	$T_9$
P3	$T_3$	$T_6$	
P4	$T_4$	$T_7$	

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 t

$t_r = 15$

### Shorter tasks

$T_1: 2$

$T_2: 1$

$T_3: 1$

$T_4: 1$

$T_5: 3$

$T_6: 3$

$T_7: 3$

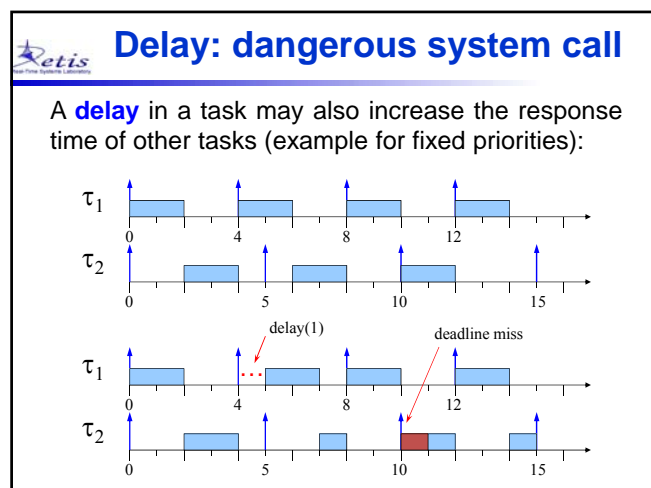
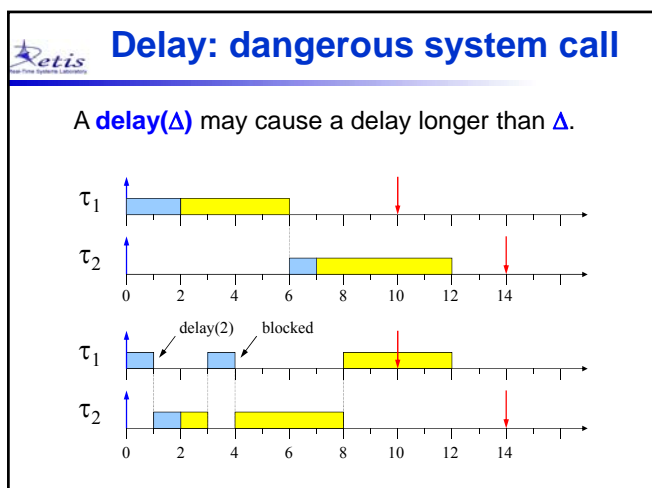
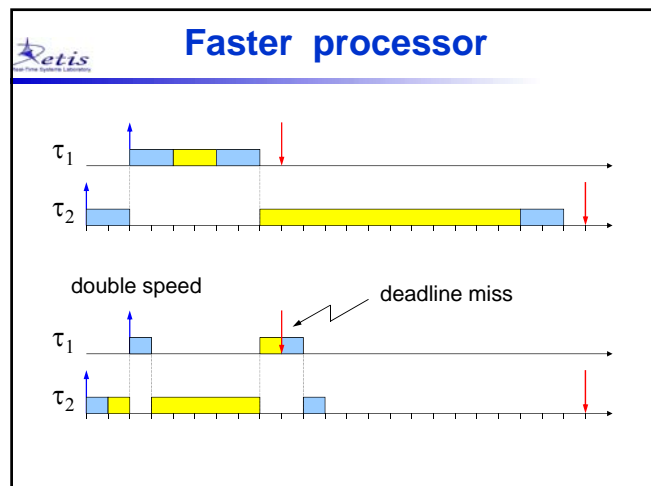
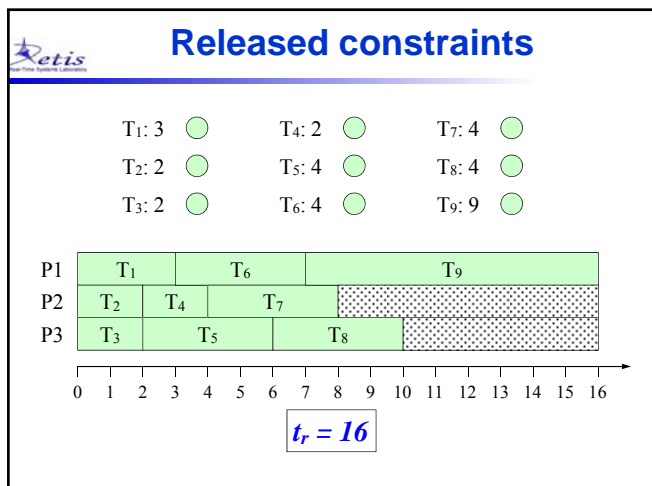
$T_8: 3$

$T_9: 8$

P1	$T_1$	$T_5$	$T_8$
P2	$T_2$	$T_6$	$T_9$
P3	$T_3$	$T_7$	

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 t

$t_r = 13$



### Lessons learned

- Tests are not enough for real-time systems
- Intuitive solutions do not always work
- Delay should not be used in real-time tasks

**The safest approach:**

- ◆ use predictable kernel mechanisms
- ◆ analyze the system to predict its behavior

### Achieving predictability

- The operating system is the most important component responsible for achieving a predictable execution.
- Concurrency control must be enforced by:
  - ◆ appropriate scheduling algorithms
  - ◆ appropriate synchronization protocols
  - ◆ efficient communication mechanisms
  - ◆ predictable interrupt handling