4.3: The shared data problem

- Inconsistency in data used by a task and updated by an ISR; arises because ISR runs at just the wrong time.
- Data is often shared because it is undesirable to have ISRs do all the work – they would take too long to run.
  - ISRs typically “hand off” some of the processing to task code.
  - This implies shared variables or communication between the ISR and the related task.
- Lab 3 simpler (in part) because we don’t have to worry about this
  - The primes task and interrupt code are unrelated.

Figure 4.4: code example

```c
static int iTemperatures[2];
void interrupt vReadTemperatures (void)
{
    iTemperatures[0] = !! read in value from HW
    iTemperatures[1] = !! read in value from HW
}
void main (void)
{
    int iTemp0, iTemp1;
    while (TRUE)
    {
        iTemp0 = iTemperatures[0];
        iTemp1 = iTemperatures[1];
        if (iTemp0 != iTemp1)
            !! Set off howling alarm;
    }
}
```

What does this code do?

Fig 4.4: observations

- Note keyword “interrupt” in first function. (It is an ISR written in C; our tools don’t support this.)
  - It is never called from task code; when will it run?
  - How do we connect this ISR with its interrupt?
- The main routine is an infinite loop.
  - Rare in conventional code, common in embedded systems.
  - Compares two temperatures and raises alarm if they ever differ.
- The ISR updates the temperature variables.
  - Assume interrupt asserted at
    - regular intervals, based on timer, or
    - when either temperature changes

Figure 4.4: analysis

```c
static int iTemperatures[2];
void interrupt vReadTemperatures (void)
{
    iTemperatures[0] = !! read in value from HW
    iTemperatures[1] = !! read in value from HW
}
void main (void)
{
    int iTemp0, iTemp1;
    while (TRUE)
    {
        iTemp0 = iTemperatures[0];
        iTemp1 = iTemperatures[1];
        if (iTemp0 != iTemp1)
            !! Set off howling alarm;
    }
}
```

What can go wrong?

Suppose interrupt occurs right here

The shared-data problem

- Imagine this scenario:
  - Temperature rising, both values identical at each reading.
  - Say, 80 at one reading, 81 at the next.
  - Interrupt occurs between reads in task code.
  - Test in main() compares old value with new value.
  - Result: (false) alarm set off, evacuations begin.
- To prevent, programmer must carefully analyze all code
  - Is there a point in code where an interrupt can mess things up?

Figure 4.5: Does this fix problem?

```c
static int iTemperatures[2];
void interrupt vReadTemperatures (void)
{
    iTemperatures[0] = !! read in value from HW
    iTemperatures[1] = !! read in value from HW
}
void main (void)
{
    while (TRUE)
    {
        if (iTemperatures[0] != iTemperatures[1])
            // Set off howling alarm;
    }
}
```

Only change to code:
- global array values tested directly
Consider 8086 instruction sequence

```c
static int iTemperatures[2];
void interrupt vReadTemperatures (void)
{
    iTemperatures[0] = !! read in value from HW
    iTemperatures[1] = !! read in value from HW
}
void main (void)
{
    while (TRUE)  
    {
        if (iTemperatures[0] != iTemperatures[1])  
            !! Set off howling alarm;
    }
}
```

Ensuring correctness

- Key issue: will single machine instruction read the two values?
- If **not** (the case for almost all CPUs),
  - An interrupt can occur between the two memory reads. (Will it?)
  - The code can trigger a false alarm.
- If **yes**, the code may work for this CPU, but not others.
  - Best if the code we write is portable to other target platforms.

The big picture

- When does shared data problem arise?
  - When data is shared between an ISR and task code it interrupts, and
  - When the data can reach an inconsistent state through the actions of the ISR.
- The hard part:
  - Does the bug appear consistently?
  - Would it turn up during testing?
- Only real solution: **write bug-free code.**
  - Think long and hard about correctness of code at all levels.
  - Stick with basic principles that work.
  - But still do lots of testing!

Figure 4.5

One solution: disable interrupts

```c
static int iTemperatures[2];
void interrupt vReadTemperatures (void)
{
    iTemperatures[0] = !! read in value from HW
    iTemperatures[1] = !! read in value from HW
}
void main (void)
{
    while (TRUE)  
    {
        if (iTemperatures[0] != iTemperatures[1])  
            !! Set off howling alarm;
    }
}
```

Why does this work?

Implementation options

- **Inline assembly**
  ```
  asm ("cli");
  iTemp0 = ...;
  iTemp1 = ...;
  asm ("sti");
  ```

- **Function call**
  ```
  disable();
  iTemp0 = ...;
  iTemp1 = ...;
  enable();
  ```

What are tradeoffs?

Comparison

- Overhead for function call method
  - **call + cli + ret**
- Overhead for inline assembly method
  - **cli**
- Which method gives best performance?
  - Is the difference significant?
- Which method results in more portable code?
**Discussion**

- **Why lock out all interrupts, and not just mask the one with the ISR that accesses the shared data?**
  - Selective masking would reduce disruption to rest of system.

- **Considerations:**
  - Interrupts are disabled only briefly.
  - Increasing response time by 1-2 instructions is not a big deal.
  - The overhead of disabling single interrupt is generally higher; details are platform dependent.

- **Disabling all interrupts is a simple, one-size-fits-all solution.**
  - BUT you must ensure that interrupts are not disabled for too long!

**Compiler limitations**

- **Why can’t compilers handle this automatically?**
  - In general, compilers cannot identify (truly) shared data, let alone analyze dynamic access patterns to that data.
  - It’s hard for humans to do – even for developers who understand the code.

- **No existing tools are clever enough to determine automatically when interrupts need to be disabled.**

**Terminology**

- **Atomic**: a section of code is atomic if it cannot be interrupted, i.e., if it can be guaranteed to execute as an unbreakable unit.

- **Critical Section**: a section of code that must be atomic for correct operation.

**Atomicity**

- **The shared data problem arises when task code accesses shared data non-atomically.**

- **What are the natural atomic units of execution?**
  - Single machine instructions only.
  - A line of C-code rarely maps to a single instruction. (If a line of your C-code must be atomic, then you have a critical section.)

- **How can we make a portion of code atomic?**
  - Primary solution: disabling interrupts at start, enable interrupts at end.
  - We’ll consider alternative approaches later.

**Figure 4.9: What can go wrong here?**

```c
static int iSeconds, iMinutes, iHours;
void interrupt vUpdateTime (void)
{
  ++iSeconds;
  if (iSeconds >= 60)
  {
    iSeconds = 0;
    ++iMinutes;
    if (iMinutes >= 60)
    {
      iMinutes = 0;
      ++iHours;
      if (iHours >= 24)
        iHours = 0;
    }
  }
  !! Do whatever needs to be done to the HW

long lSecondsSinceMidnight(void)
{
  return (((iHours * 60) + iMinutes) * 60) + iSeconds;
}
```

**Figure 4.9: Making it atomic**

```c
static int iSeconds, iMinutes, iHours;
void interrupt vUpdateTime (void)
{
  ++(Seconds);
  if (iSeconds >= 60)
  {
    iSeconds = 0;
    ++iMinutes;
    if (iMinutes >= 60)
    {
      iMinutes = 0;
      ++iHours;
      if (iHours >= 24)
        iHours = 0;
    }
  }
  !! Do whatever needs to be done to the HW

long lSecondsSinceMidnight(void)
{
  disable();
  return (((iHours * 60) + iMinutes) * 60) + (Seconds);
  enable();
}
```

#1: A very bad “solution”!
A subtle point

- What can go wrong with solution #2?
  - If function were called from within some critical section, interrupts would be enabled on return.
  - Some of you will experience this problem this semester.
- How is solution #3 an improvement?
  - Re-enables interrupts only if they were on in first place.
  - Allows function to be called from normal code and from within critical sections.

Fig 4.11: Discussion

- Just counts seconds, only one shared variable.
- ISR, task functions now share a single variable.
- Does the problem go away?
  - No, just more subtle: accessing a single variable is not necessarily atomic.
  - Example: accessing a 32-bit long on 8086 takes multiple instructions; can be interrupted between 16-bit accesses.
- Bottom line: even with code accessing a single shared variable, you’re usually better off disabling interrupts.
  - Resulting code is more easily ported to other target platforms.
Fig 4.12: Discussion

- Basic idea: read value repeatedly until you get two identical readings
  - Note that it does not require interrupts to be disabled.

- Problem: what will a good optimizing compiler do with this code?
  - Read from memory just once, thereafter use value in register.
  - Compiler sees nothing in code to modify value between the reads.

- Solution?
  - Use `volatile` keyword: forces compiler to read memory every time variable is accessed and to avoid “obvious” optimizations.
  - Informs compiler that variable can be changed by something unseen.

```c
static volatile long int lSecondsToday;
void interrupt vUpdateTime (void)
{
  ...
  ++lSecondsToday;
  if (lSecondsToday == 60 * 60 * 24)
    lSecondsToday = 0L;
  ...
}
long lSecondsSinceMidnight(void)
{
  long lReturn;
  lReturn = lSecondsToday;
  while (lReturn != lSecondsToday)
    lReturn = lSecondsToday;
  return lReturn;
}
```

Response time revisited

- How long does it take for the system to respond to an interrupt?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>IRQ2 asserted</th>
<th>IRQ1 asserted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task</td>
<td>IRQ2 asserted</td>
<td>IRQ1 asserted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task</td>
<td>IRQ2 asserted</td>
<td>IRQ1 asserted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Worst-case interrupt latency: components

1. The longest period of time that interrupts are disabled
2. The time for ISR and handler to save the context and then do the work that is considered the “response”
3. The total time required to execute all ISRs + handlers of higher priority
4. The time for hardware to stop what it is doing, save critical state, and start executing the ISR for that interrupt

What can designer control?

1. Max length of critical sections?
   - Keep them short!
2. Time to save context, run handler?
   - Size of context depends on number of registers – fixed for CPU
     - Handler efficiency: good coding
3. Execution time of higher-priority ISRs?
   - Make sure assigned priorities reflect true importance
   - Keep all ISRs lean and mean
4. Overhead of hardware response?
   - Fixed when you select the processor

Timing details

- In simulator, time unit is time to execute one instruction
  - Simple model: all instructions take same time to execute
  - Unlikely to be true in actual hardware, but added realism would buy little
- 8086 responds to asserted, enabled interrupt before starting next instruction
- Overhead of hardware response on 8086:
  - Finish current instruction
  - Push 3 words on stack, read 2 words from interrupt vector table
Meeting design specs

• What do we need to know to ensure that response time will be less than, say, 625 µs?
  – Identify all critical sections, max length of each
  – Only longest critical section need concern us: no way to transition to another without hardware responding to pending interrupt
  – Run length of this ISR + handler to point of “response”
  – Run length of higher-priority ISRs + handlers
  – Discussion: Just one time through each, or multiple runs?

• How important is such a guarantee?
  – Critical in real world, not so critical in our class labs

Fig. 4.15: Another alternative to disabling interrupts

```c
static int iTemperaturesA[2], iTemperaturesB[2];
static BOOL fTaskCodeUsingTempsB = FALSE;

void interrupt vReadTemperatures (void)
{
    if (fTaskCodeUsingTempsB)
        iTemperaturesA[0] = !! read in value from HW
        iTemperaturesA[1] = !! read in value from HW
    else
        iTemperaturesB[0] = !! read in value from HW
        iTemperaturesB[1] = !! read in value from HW
}

void main (void)
{
    while (TRUE)
    {
        if (fTaskCodeUsingTempsB)
            if (iTemperaturesB[0] != iTemperaturesB[1])
                !! Set off howling alarm;
        else
            if (iTemperaturesA[0] != iTemperaturesA[1])
                !! Set off howling alarm;
        fTaskCodeUsingTempsB = !fTaskCodeUsingTempsB;
    }
}
```

Fig. 4.15: Discussion

• Key idea: use double buffering with a global flag to ensure that the reader and writer access separate arrays.

• Does this work?
  – Global flag does not change while temperatures are being read in task code, especially at critical point between the two reads.
  – Values tested in task code are always corresponding pair – no way for ISR to change them at wrong time while reading.

• What are disadvantages?

Fig. 4.16: Yet another alternative

```c
#define Q_SIZE 100
int iTemperatureQ[Q_SIZE];
int iHead = 0;
int iTail = 0;

void interrupt vReadTemperatures (void)
{
    if ( !(( iHead+2==iTail) ||
              (iHead==Q_SIZE-2 && iTail==0)))
    {
        iTemperatureQ[iHead] = !! read one temperature
        iTemperatureQ[iHead+1] = !! read other temperature
        iHead += 2;
        if (iHead==Q_SIZE)
            iHead = 0;
    }
    else
        !! throw away next value
}

void main (void)
{
    int iTemp1, iTemp2;
    while (TRUE)
    {
        if (iTail != iHead)
        {
            iTemp1 = iTemperatureQ[iTail];
            iTemp2 = iTemperatureQ[iTail+1];
            iTail += 2;
            if (iTail == Q_SIZE)
                iTail = 0;
            !! Compare values
        }
    }
}
```

Fig. 4.16: Discussion

• Key idea: use queues.
  – ISR puts temperature pairs into buffer, and task removes them.
  – Buffering with queues is a commonly used technique.

• Queue management (in this case):
  – Queue full: head+2 == tail (2 slots used/sample)
  – Queue empty: head == tail

• Advantage: queue decouples the data arrival rate (possibly bursty) from the data processing rate.
  – Processing rate must be at least as great as the average arrival rate.

Fig. 4.16: Discussion

• How easy is it to get the queue code wrong?
  – Task must read the data, then revise tail variable
  – Reversing order would allow ISR to overwrite data before it is read
  – When tail is incremented, the write must be atomic (but not necessarily the increment)
  – Otherwise reader and writer could see different pictures of shared array
  – The operation is generally atomic, but not on all platforms

• Overall assessment:
  – Queue approach is tricky to get right
  – Makes sense only if disabling interrupts is really not an option
Problem 4.1: Does this approach avoid a shared data problem?

static int iSeconds, iMinutes, iHours;
void vSetTimeZone (int iZoneOld, int iZoneNew)
{
    ++iSeconds;
    if (iSeconds >= 60)
    {
        iSeconds = 0;
        ++iMinutes;
        if (iMinutes >= 60)
        {
            iMinutes = 0;
            ++iHours;
            if (iHours >= 24)
            { iHours = 0; }
        }
    }
    !! Deal with HW
}

Problem 4.2: The code below has a shared data bug.

static long int lSecondsToday;
void interrupt vUpdateTime (void)
{
    ...
    ++lSecondsToday;
    if (lSecondsToday == 60 * 60 * 24)
    { lSecondsToday = 0L; }
    ...
}

long lSecondsSinceMidnight(void)
{
    return (lSecondsToday);
}

(a) How far off can return value of function be if sizeof(long) is 32 and word size is 16 bits?
(b) How far off can return value of function be if sizeof(long) is 32 and word size is 8 bits?

Problem 4.3: What additional bug lurks in this code, even if registers are 32 bits in length?

static long int lSecondsToday;
void interrupt vUpdateTime (void)
{
    ...
    ++lSecondsToday;
    if (lSecondsToday == 60 * 60 * 24)
    { lSecondsToday = 0L; }
    ...
}

long lSecondsSinceMidnight(void)
{
    return (lSecondsToday);
}

(a) How far off can return value of function be if sizeof(long) is 32 and word size is 16 bits?
(b) How far off can return value of function be if sizeof(long) is 32 and word size is 8 bits?

Scenario 1.
Queue is full, say, iHead=20, iTail=21
Task almost to read Queue[19], index value (21) already in register
Interrupt occurs code sets iHead to 21, iTail to 22
Task reads Queue[21] which is newest (rather than oldest) entry
Software architectures

- Event handlers are procedures (typically written in C) that do the “work” to respond to events.

  Events → Architecture → Handlers

- The architecture determines
  1. how the event is detected, and
  2. how the event handler is called.

Characteristics of round-robin

- Priorities available:
  - None: all events have equal priority; each handler must wait its turn.
- Worst case response time:
  - One full iteration of loop: possibly handling all other events first
- Advantages:
  - Simplicity: really just a single task, no shared data, no ISRs, no concurrency
- Disadvantages:
  - Worst-case response time is bad for every event if any single event requires lengthy processing.
  - System is fragile: adding new event handler to working system may break it, causing deadlines to be missed.

Chapter 5: Software architectures

• Recap: important ideas in real-time code
  - ISRs: scheduled by hardware
  - Task code: scheduled by software (similar to Linux “process”)
  - Response time requirements must be met
• Key question here: how should we organize our code?
  - What alternatives exist, and what are the tradeoffs?
• Important factors:
  - Number of different events system will need to respond to
  - Response time requirements for those events

Architecture 1: Round-robin

No interrupts involved

One Event

```
while(1)
{
  if (event) handle_event();
}
```

Multiple Events

```
while(1)
{
  if (event1) handle_event1();
  if (event2) handle_event2();
  ...
  if (event n) handle_event n();
}
```

How to decrease response time?

```
while(1)
{
  if (eventA) handle_eventA();
  if (eventB) handle_eventB();
  ...
  if (eventC) handle_eventC();
  if (eventD) handle_eventD();
}
```

How can I reduce the response time for event A?
Applicability of round-robin

- Example from text: digital multimeter
  - Few input devices, few events to respond to
  - Response time constraints not demanding
  - No lengthy processing required
- Author’s conclusion (page 119):
  "Because of these shortcomings, a round-robin architecture is probably suitable only for very simple devices such as digital watches and microwave ovens and possibly not even for these."

Architecture 2: Round-robin with interrupts

- To basic polling loop, add interrupts.
  - ISRs complete initial response.
  - Remainder done by functions called in loop.
  - ISR sets flag to indicate that processing is required.
- Offers greater flexibility:
  - Time-critical processing can be in ISR.
  - Longer-running code can be in handlers.

Round-robin with interrupts

```c
while(1)
{
    if (flagA) {
        flagA = 0;
        handle_eventA();
    }
    if (flagB) {
        flagB = 0;
        handle_eventB();
    }
    if (flagC) {
        flagC = 0;
        handle_eventC();
    }
}
ISR_A {
    // do some A stuff
    flagA = 1;
}
ISR_B {
    // do some B stuff
    flagB = 1;
}
ISR_C {
    // do some C stuff
    flagC = 1;
}
```

Example: communications bridge

- What is time critical?
  - Must not lose data
  - Must maintain good throughput
- Assume interrupts occur:
  - When data arrives
  - When link clear to send

Constraints

- ISR actions:
  - Put incoming data into buffer
  - Set flag when clear to send

Operations within main loop (event handlers):

- Encrypt buffered data (from Link A)
- Decrypt buffered data (from Link B)
- Send data on Link A
- Send data on Link B

Design

Characteristics of round-robin with interrupts

- Priorities available:
  - Interrupts are serviced in priority order.
  - All handlers have equal priority: none more important than the others.
- Worst-case response time
  - For ISR: execution time of higher priority ISRs (if any)
  - For handler: sum of execution of all other handlers + interrupts
- Advantages:
  - Work performed in ISRs has higher priority than code in main loop.
  - ISR response time generally unaffected by changes to handlers.
- Disadvantages:
  - ISRs and handlers will share data, shared data problems will appear!
  - Handler response time not stable when code changes.

Architecture 3: Function-queue scheduling

- Work split between ISR and task code.
- Order of tasks is dynamic.
- Queue can be FIFO or sorted by priority.

```c
ISR_A {
    // do some work relating to A
    queue_put(handle_eventA);
}
ISR_B {
    // do some work relating to B
    queue_put(handle_eventB);
}
main() {
    while(1) {
        task = get_queue();
        task();
    }
}
Characteristics of Function-queue scheduling

- Priorities available:
  - Interrupts are serviced in priority order
  - Tasks can be placed in queue and run in priority order
- Worst-case response time for highest-priority task
  - Scenario: just started executing another task, must wait for it to finish
  - Delay = longest task time + execution time for ISRs
- Advantages:
  - Improved response-time stability when code changes
- Disadvantages:
  - Some added complexity from queue of function pointers

Architecture 4: Real-time operating system (RTOS)

- Work is split between ISRs and tasks.
- Tasks are prioritized and run by a scheduler.
  - Scheduler always picks highest-priority ready task to run.
  - If higher-priority task becomes ready, lower-priority task is preempted.
- Tasks block when waiting for events, resources:
  - ISRs can cause tasks to become unblocked.
  - Tasks can delay themselves for fixed time intervals.
- RTOS contains code to:
  - Create tasks, block and unblock tasks, schedule tasks, allow tasks and ISRs to communicate, etc.

RTOS architecture

RTOS

TaskA

ISR for Event 1

TaskB

ISR for Event 2

TaskC

ISR for Event 3

RTOS characteristics

- Priorities available:
  - Interrupts are serviced in priority order
  - Tasks are scheduled in priority order; lower priority tasks preempted
- Worst-case response time for highest-priority task
  - Sum of ISR execution times (since other tasks preempted)
- Advantages:
  - Stability when code changes (e.g. adding a lower-priority task)
  - Many choices of commercial RTOS available
- Disadvantages:
  - Runtime overhead of RTOS
  - Software complexity (some in RTOS, some in using RTOS correctly)

Non-trivial multi-threaded programs are incomprehensible to humans. Edward A. Lee

Non-trivial multi-threaded programs are incomprehensible to humans. Edward A. Lee

Selecting an architecture

1. Choose the simplest architecture that will meet current and future response time requirements.
2. If application has difficult response-time requirements, lean toward using an RTOS:
   - Many to choose from, debugging support, libraries, etc.
3. Consider constructing hybrid architecture. Examples:
   - RTOS where one task does polling
   - Round robin with interrupts: main loop polls slower HW directly