7.1: Communication between tasks

- What other forms of communication does an RTOS usually offer besides global data protected by semaphores?
- Three message-based options are described in the text:
  - Queues
  - Mailboxes
  - Pipes
- Advantages, disadvantages of sending messages:
  + Often easier than using semaphores and global data
  - Creates new ways of inserting bugs into your system

Queue functions in example

- Two reentrant functions:
  - AddToQueue(): Posts a message to a queue
  - ReadFromQueue(): Gets message from a queue
- Review: what is significance of them being reentrant?
  - What is guaranteed?
  - What does it allow you to do?

Queue functions: discussion

- Example is simplistic because it glosses over many important details.
- Consider these questions:
  - Which queue will be used?
  - Where is queue located in memory?
  - How big is the queue?
  - When and how was the queue allocated?
  - What is C type of each message in queue?
  - What if queue is empty when code requests next entry?
  - What if queue is full when code tries to insert new message?
- Why make queue functions part of RTOS, and not just application code?

Queue usage example: Simprios (Lab 8)

- You write code to place pieces in simplified version of Tetris
  - Appearance of each new piece is signaled by an interrupt
  - Your code must calculate how to move piece given current board
  - Single output port for movement commands; fixed communication delay
- Logical design approach:
  - Tasks decide how to move each piece
  - Separate task sends commands; blocks until communication channel clear
- Design questions:
  - How does information about new piece get from ISR to placement task?
  - How do commands get from placement task to communication task?

The pesky details

- Like semaphores, queues must be created and initialized before using
- The application code must specify which queue to use
  - As with semaphores, application may have several queues
- Tricky: can RTOS queue functions work for queues with different sizes and types?
  - RTOS records size of each queue, uses generic type for every entry
  - Application code determines size, allocates memory to be used
  - Each queue represented by a multilevel data structure
  - Part managed by RTOS, part managed by application code
The pesky details

- Let’s revisit details not addressed in previous example:
  - Which queue will be used?
  - Where is queue located in memory?
  - How big is the queue?
  - When and how was the queue allocated?
  - What is C type of each message in queue?
  - What if queue is empty when code requests next entry?
  - What if queue is full when code tries to insert new message?

Queue message type

- Across many applications using same RTOS, you may want to send integers, strings, floats, structs, etc.
- Solution: RTOS views all entries as the same generic type (void *)
- Queue is an array of pointers that RTOS manages
  - Entries can be cast to anything (or point to anything) programmer wants
  - Provides consistency for RTOS, flexibility for application code
- Responsibilities of application code:
  - Correctly cast void pointers to actual types used in application
  - Manage any objects that void pointers actually point to

Two code examples

- The first is simple: the message content is a single integer. The message is passed “by value” – integer content is in pointer field
- The second example is more complex: the message content is a short array. The message is passed “by reference” – pointer field contains address of array
General queue framework (YAK + µC/OS)

- **queue struct**
  - void **length**
- **actual queue in application code**
  - void *
- User code allocates this and calls YKQPend to get a message.
- RTOS manages this array; each entry a message ptr.
- Remember, void * is a wildcard type. Any pointer can be cast to void * and back again without loss of information.

Why do it this way? What does RTOS deal with? What does application code deal with?

YAK: Division of responsibilities

- **The application code**
  - Defines the YKQ* "handle"
  - Allocates the actual queue (array of void *)
  - Initializes the handle with call to YKQCreate (queue queue address, size)
- **RTOS**
  - Has available pool of YKQ structs
  - Puts entry in the named queue for each call to YKQPend
  - Returns entry from named queue for each call to YKQPend. Blocks caller if empty
- **It does not**
  - Define handle for queue
  - Allocate the queue (array of void *)
  - Know how to interpret entries in the queue

General semaphore framework (YAK + µC/OS)

- **semaphore struct**
  - YKSEM struct (YAK)
- User code allocates this and manages these via YKQPost.
- RTOS manages this, never accessed directly by user code.

YAK queue code (from Lab 6)

```c
#include "yakdefs.h"
#include "labdefs.h"
#include "clib.h"
#include "yakk.h"
#include "lab6defs.h"

#define MSGQSIZE                  10
#define TASK_STACK_SIZE   512
#define MSGARRAYSIZE  20
#define HISTOGRAMSIZE  100
#define MSGUPLIM  100

struct TTaskStk{TASK_STACK_SIZE};
struct GlobalFlag;

struct MSGU TPend (MSGQ * pMsgQueue, void **pMsg, BYTE *pByErr, WORD wTimeout);
void vMainTask (void)  {
    void **pTemperatures;
    pTemperatures = (int *) malloc(2*sizeof *pTemperatures);
    pTemperatures[1] = pTemperatures[0] =
    OSQPend(pOseQueueTemp, WAIT_FOREVER, &byErr);
    OSQPost (pOseQueueTemp, (void *) pTemperatures);
    pTemperatures[1] = pTemperatures[0] =
    free (pTemperatures);
}

int *pTemperatures;

void vReadTemperaturesTask (void)  {
    while (TRUE)  {
        BYTE byErr;
        int *pTemperatures;
        pTemperatures = (int *) OSQPend(pOseQueueTemp, WAIT_FOREVER, &byErr);
        OSQPost (pOseQueueTemp, (void *) pTemperatures);
        // Read in value from hardware
        pTemperatures[1] = pTemperatures[0] =
    }
```

The RTOS manages these; never directly references array.

• Allocate the queue (array of void *)
• Know how to interpret entries in the queue
Mailboxes and pipes

- Similar to queues.
  - Tasks can use them to communicate with each other
  - Functions provided to create, write to, and read from
  - Both must be created before they are used
- Details of both are RTOS dependent

Typical mailboxes

- How do mailboxes differ from queues?
  - RTOS may restrict the number of entries
    - In some cases, a single entry per mailbox is allowed (µC/OS)
    - In some cases, a fixed number of total messages in system (across all mailboxes) cannot be exceeded at any point in time
  - RTOS may prioritize message order
    - Messages will come out in priority order, regardless of order in which they were inserted

Pipes

- How do pipes differ from queues?
  - Typically allow messages of varying length
    - In contrast, messages in queues and mailboxes have fixed length
  - Usually byte oriented
    - Writing task places some number of bytes into one end of the pipe
    - Reading task reads some number of bytes from other end of pipe
  - Writer and reader must agree how to parse variable-length messages

Which is best choice?

- For queues, mailboxes, and pipes the details vary, so developer must study RTOS documentation carefully
  - In YAK, we will implement queues
  - Mailboxes and pipes would not be hard to add
- Both functionality and performance are important
  - Vendor documentation usually gives information about memory requirements and runtime overhead
  - Observation: hard to get comparable information for Windows, Linux, etc.

Potential pitfalls

- Possible to use wrong queue, mailbox, or pipe
- Possible for reader and writer to interpret message content differently
  - Void pointers can be cast incorrectly or inconsistently; compiler won’t catch it
- Possible to write code with multiple readers (tasks that empty the queue), but tricky to manage
7.2: Timer Functions

- Delaying a task is a typicalRTOS service.
  - As in YAK, parameter is usually number of system clock ticks.
  - Usually gets in seconds or other standard units of time.
- Timer that triggers tick interrupts is often called the heartbeat timer.
- Frequency of heartbeat timer platform dependent.
  - In many systems the frequency is programmable.
  - Implementation details are usually encapsulated in system functions, simplifying task of application developer.
- Use of timer like this is not unique to embedded systems.

Queues: "What's wrong with this code?"

- Queue function prototypes:
  static OS_EVENT *OSQCreate (void **ppStart, BYTE bySIZE);
  unsigned char OSQPost (OS_EVENT *pOse, void *pvMsg);
  void *OSQPend (OS_EVENT *pOse, WORD wTimeout, BYTE *pByErr);
- #define WAIT_FOREVER 0
- static OS_EVENT *pOseQueueTemp;
- void vReadTemperaturesTask (void)
  { int iTemperatures[2];
    while (TRUE)
      { !! Wait until time to read next temp;
        iTemperatures[0] = read value from HW;
        iTemperatures[1] = read value from HW;
        /* add to queue ptr to new temps */
        OSQPost (pOseQueueTemp, (void *) iTemperatures);
      } }
- void vMainTask (void)
  { int *pTemperatures;
    BYTE byErr;
    while (TRUE)
      { pTemperatures = (int *) OSQPend(pOseQueueTemp, WAIT_FOREVER, &byErr);
        if (pTemperatures[0] != pTemperatures[1])
          !! set off howling alarm;
      } }

What's wrong with this code?

- Queue function prototypes:
  static OS_EVENT *OSQCreate (void **ppStart, BYTE bySIZE);
  unsigned char OSQPost (OS_EVENT *pOse, void *pvMsg);
  void *OSQPend (OS_EVENT *pOse, WORD wTimeout, BYTE *pByErr);
- #define WAIT_FOREVER 0
- static OS_EVENT *pOseQueueTemp;
- void vReadTemperaturesTask (void)
  { int iTemperatures[2];
    while (TRUE)
      { !! Wait until time to read next temp;
        iTemperatures[0] = read value from HW;
        iTemperatures[1] = read value from HW;
        /* add to queue ptr to new temps */
        OSQPost (pOseQueueTemp, (void *) iTemperatures);
      } }
- void vMainTask (void)
  { int *pTemperatures;
    BYTE byErr;
    while (TRUE)
      { pTemperatures = (int *) OSQPend(pOseQueueTemp, WAIT_FOREVER, &byErr);
        if (pTemperatures[0] != pTemperatures[1])
          !! set off howling alarm;
      } }

Example: Linux interval timer

- Consider program that spins in loop, reading system clock
  - Execution pattern can be detected: can you explain what we see below?

Other pitfalls

- Running out of space in the queue.
  - No good option if queue too small: lose data or block posting task.
  - Designer should ensure that queue is big enough to handle the highest burst-rate of data.
- Passing pointers can result in shared data problems that are more subtle than previous examples we've considered.
  - Consider example on next slide
Timing accuracy

- How accurate can a delay mechanism be that is based on the heartbeat or interval timer?
- **Jitter**: variation and uncertainty in the actual interval from the time a task calls delay to when it actually runs again.
- What bounds can we establish?
  - How long can it be?
  - How short can it be?
- Is jitter unavoidable?

Timing example

- Scenario:
  - Task calls `YKDelayTask(3)` each time through loop.
  - Assume: length of delay = time until unblocked.
  - As shown below, the actual delay length varies.

Timing uncertainty

- Observation from previous slide:
  - We don’t know when in tick interval that `YKDelayTask` is called.
  - On 3rd clock tick, RTOS will change state of task to Ready.
- If task calls `YKDelayTask(n)`, what can we guarantee that RTOS will do?
  - Unblock task between n and n-1 tick intervals later.
- When will task run?

Jitter

- How much delay from unblocking to running?
  - Best case: It runs immediately after it is unblocked.
  - Worst case: It experiences arbitrary delay because higher priority tasks and ISRs are executing.
  - Depends on interrupt behavior, relative task priorities, state of other tasks, etc.
- What can designer do if this timing is not accurate enough?
  - Start by reassigning task priorities, etc.
  - No surprise: the problem belongs to user code, not the RTOS.

Increasing timing accuracy

- Options to consider:
  - Increase frequency of heartbeat timer.
    - Downside: this increases total overhead of tick ISR and handler.
    - You’ve seen this while testing code with short tick intervals.
  - Use special hardware timers.
    - Common in embedded systems.
    - Most microcontrollers come with one or more built-in timers.
    - How do they work?

Using a timeout timer

- First, set the timer to desired delay value.
- Second, start timer.
- When timer expires (counts down to zero), an interrupt is generated.
  - Just one interrupt at the end; no other CPU overhead until then.
  - You write ISR/handler for that interrupt that takes actions you want.
- This approach results in very precise timing.
  - Intervals are essentially any desired number of processor clock cycles.
  - Active hardware timer unaffected by software loading, interrupts, etc.
Timers

- What if desired interval (in processor cycles) exceeds range of counter?
  - Hardware often provides a programmable prescaler
  - If value set to $n$, counter decremented once for each $n$ cycles.
- What if you want more timers than hardware provides?
  - Can create multiple software timers, all based on a single hardware timer.
  - ISR/handler triggers actions for expired SW timer, updates all SW timers, and sets HW timer to expire when next SW timer expires.

Other timing services

- **Timeouts** when blocking on semaphore, queue, or mailbox.
  - My assessment: not easy to use
    - If pread call times out, what should code do? How to recover?
  - Alternative approach:
    - Use timeout as indicator of problem during design and testing; if it occurs, treat as design error and revise code.
    - Example: if task can’t wait any longer for a semaphore, then rewrite using messages in queue instead of semaphore.

Configuring timers

- An RTOS typically runs on multiple platforms.
  - Part of job of porting RTOS is programming heartbeat timer since this is microprocessor dependent.
  - Commercial RTOS will come set up for your processor.
- If you use non-standard hardware timers, you may need to write:
  - Timer setup procedure
  - ISR
- Often RTOS includes a board support package with
  - Drivers for common hardware components, and
  - Instructions and model code to help you create drivers for special HW.

Other timing services

- **Timeouts** when blocking on semaphore, queue, or mailbox.
  - My assessment: not easy to use
    - If pread call times out, what should code do? How to recover?
  - Alternative approach:
    - Use timeout as indicator of problem during design and testing; if it occurs, treat as design error and revise code.
    - Example: if task can’t wait any longer for a semaphore, then rewrite using messages in queue instead of semaphore.

Timer callback functions

- A powerful and useful timing-related RTOS service.
- Let’s illustrate by first considering the timing needs of one application: code controlling a radio.
  - To turn radio off, just cut power.
  - To turn radio on, multiple steps required:
    - Turn on power to basic radio hardware, then wait 12 ms.
    - Set frequency of radio, then wait 3 ms.
    - Turn on transmitter or receiver, and start using radio.
- How could we do this with timing mechanisms already discussed?
  - Examples: tasks, task delay functions, hardware timers, etc.

Timer callback functions, cont.

- Basic idea: specified function will be called after specified delay
- Call to timer callback function identifies:
  - Timer to use
  - Delay value to initialize timer with
  - Function to call, arguments to pass
- Very powerful and flexible; can simplify application code
  - Let’s look at an example: source code for radio control

```c
/* Message queue for radio task */
extern MSG_Q_ID queueRadio;

/* Timer for turning the radio on */
static WDOG_ID wdRadio;
static int iFrequency; /* frequency to use */
void vSetFrequency (int i);
void vTurnOnTxorRx (int i);

void vRadioControlTask (void)
{
#define MAX_MSG 20
char a_chMsg[MAX_MSG + 1];
enum {
  RADIO_OFF, RADIO_STARTING,
  RADIO_TX_ON, RADIO_RX_ON
} eRadioState; /* state of the radio */
eRadioState = RADIO_OFF;
/* create the radio timer */
wdRadio = wdCreate ();
/* vRadioControlTask( ) continued */
while (TRUE)
{
  /* find out what to do next */
  msgQReceive (queueRadio, a_chMsg, MAX_MSG,
  WAIT_FOREVER);
  /* first char tells message type */
  switch (a_chMsg[0])
  {
    case 'T':
    case 'R':
    /* turn on transmitter or receiver */
    if (eRadioState == RADIO_OFF)
    {
      /* turn on power to radio hardware */
      eRadioState = RADIO_STARTING;
      /* get frequency from msg */
      iFrequency = * (int *) &a_chMsg[1];
      /* take next step in 12 ms */
      wdStart (wdRadio, 12, vSetFrequency,
      (int) a_chMsg[0]);
    }
    else
      /* error */
      break;
  }
}
```

Figure 7.7a  Using timer callback function
Figure 7.7b: Using timer callback function, cont.

```c
void vRadioControlTask( ) continued
{
    switch(chMsg)
    {
        case 'K':
            /* the radio is ready */
            eRadioState = RADIO_TX_ON;
            !!! do whatever is desired with radio
            break;
        case 'L':
            /* the radio is ready */
            eRadioState = RADIO_RX_ON;
            !!! do whatever is desired with radio
            break;
        case 'X':
            /* radio is to be turned off */
            if (eRadioState == RADIO_TX_ON ||
                eRadioState == RADIO_RX_ON)
            {
                !!! Turn off power to radio
                eRadioState = RADIO_OFF;
            }
            else
                !!! Handle error -- radio not on
            break;
        default:
            !!! Deal with the error of a bad message
            break;
    }
}

void vSetFrequency (int i)
{
    !!! Set radio frequency to iFrequency
    /* turn on the transmitter in 3 ms */
    wdStart (wdRadio, 3, vTurnOnTxorRx, i);
}

void vTurnOnTxorRx (int i)
{
    if  (i == (int) 'T')
    {
        !!! Turn on the transmitter
        /* tell the task that the radio is ready to go */
        msgQSend (queueRadio, "K", 1,
            WAIT_FOREVER, MSG_PRI_NORMAL);
    }
    else   /* i == (int) 'R' */
    {
        !!! Turn on the receiver
        /* tell the task that the radio is ready to go */
        msgQSend (queueRadio, "L", 1,
            WAIT_FOREVER, MSG_PRI_NORMAL);
    }
}
```

**Calls**
```
calls wdStart(wdRadio, 12, vSetFrequency, (int) a_chMsg[0])
```

**Causes**
```
- vSetFrequency() to execute
  - makes vRadioControlTask( ) execute
```

**Receives**
```
msg to vRadioControlTask( )
```

**Time**
```
1 ms interval
```

**Action and call sequence**

**Figure 7.7b**: Using timer callback function, cont.

**Execution**

- **Task starts execution**
  - Task blocks on MsgQReceive()
  - timer expires

- **Task calls**
  - **vRadioControlTask( )**
  - **vSetFrequency( )**

- **RTOS**
  - causes **vSetFrequency( )** to execute

**Discussion**

- **What are advantages of using timer callback functions rather than sequence of calls to delay task?**
  - Precise control of timing
    - System tick may not be precise enough; hardware timer gives greater control
    - Clock jitter arising in delay of tasks may be a problem
  - Simpler task structure
    - At how many points in code can vRadioControlTask block?
    - What advantages does this offer?
    - What are tradeoffs in complexity of application code?

- **Are there disadvantages of using timer callback functions?**
  - Compared with sequence of calls to delay task, which version of source code is easier to understand and modify?

**Discussion**

- **7.3: Events**
  - A nifty RTOS service you’ll implement in lab 7.
  - An event is a **Boolean flag** that tasks can
    - create,
    - set,
    - reset, and
    - wait for (block on).
  - Events generally handled in **groups** by RTOS.
    - Task operations are on **sets of events**: dramatically increases power and flexibility of event construct.
    - Pay particular attention to how events differ from semaphores.
Events: standard features

- More than one task can be unblocked by same event.
  - When event occurs,RTOS unblocks all waiting tasks.
  - Tasks then run in priority order—normal scheduling.
- Tasks can wait for any subset of events in event group.
  - Wait until any occurs or until all occur.
- After event occurs and waiting tasks unblocked, event must be reset.
  - Some kernels handle this, others leave it to task code.
- Let’s see an example...

```c
void vScanTask (void)
{
    while (TRUE)
    {
        ajevsig (amxidTrigger, KEY_MASK, KEY_RESET);
        ajevwat (amxidTrigger, TRIGGER_MASK | KEY_MASK,
            /* wait for trigger pull or key press */
            TRIGGER_SET | KEY_SET, WAIT_FOR_ANY, WAIT_FOREVER);
    }
    ajevsig (amxidTrigger, TRIGGER_MASK, TRIGGER_RESET);
    ajevwat (amxidTrigger, KEY_MASK, KEY_RESET);
}
```

Events: discussion

- What kind of bugs come up using events?
  - Not resetting all events at appropriate point in code
  - Tricky since multiple tasks may be unblocked by event: which one resets?
  - Easier for application code if RTOS resets
  - Waiting on wrong mask or wrong value
  - Resetting using wrong mask or wrong value
  - Misunderstanding functionality: when waiting for all of three events, do they all have to be set at same time? (Are events “buffered”?)
- How difficult to add support for events in YAK?
  - What new kernel data structures are required?
  - How complex are create(), pend(), and post() functions?

YAK event support

Comparing alternatives

- Semaphores
  - Usually faster and simpler than events and queues
  - Really just a one-bit message
  - A task can wait for any (or all) of several events at same time
  - A task can block on just one semaphore at a time
- Events
  - A little more complicated than semaphores, a little slower
  - A task can wait for any (or all) of several events at same time
  - Multiple tasks can be unblocked by a single event
- Queues (and mailboxes and pipes)
  - Message can consist of much more than one bit of information
  - A task can block on only one queue at a time
  - More system overhead, potential for bugs in application code
7.4: Memory management

- Designers usually avoid using malloc and free because they are typically slow, with unpredictable execution times
  - Why do these functions have high overhead?
- Alternative: simpler functions supported by RTOS
  - Typical functions allocate and free fixed size buffers
- Key questions:
  - Why would these functions be faster, more predictable than malloc and free?
  - Why are these functions part of the RTOS?

Memory pools

- Typical usage: application code sets up pools, each consisting of memory blocks or buffers of the same fixed size.
- The RTOS manages pools, providing three key functions:
  - Initialize pool. Parameters include unique ID, base address, number of blocks, size of each block, etc.
  - Obtain block. Returns pointer to memory block that can be used. If none available, caller is blocked or NULL pointer is returned immediately.
  - Release block. Caller passes pointer to memory block, RTOS returns that block to the (available) pool.

Example: memory management functions in MultiTask!

```c
int init_mem_pool(unsigned int uPoolId, void *p_vMemory, unsigned int uBufSize, unsigned int uBufCount, unsigned int uPoolType);

void *getbuf(unsigned int uPoolId, unsigned int uTimeout);

void *reqbuf(unsigned int uPoolId);

void relbuf(unsigned int uPoolId, void *p_vBuffer);
```

This code has some problems. Can you spot them?

Discussion

- Why must application code set up pool?
  - RTOS does not know what memory to use, how big pool should be, or the size of blocks
- Common to use 3 or 4 pools, each with a different block size
  - What can go wrong as a result?
  - Compared with malloc and free:
    - In what ways is this approach more efficient?
    - In what ways is this approach less efficient?

7.5: Rules for ISRs in an RTOS

1. Interrupt routine must not call any RTOS function that might block caller
   - Examples: pend on semaphore, queue, event, memory buffer, etc.
2. Interrupt code must not call any RTOS function that might cause a task switch unless RTOS knows that interrupt code, not a task, is running
   - This is called fair warning
   - Examples: post to semaphore, queue, mailbox, etc.

Critical to understand these in creating your RTOS. They aren’t exactly new to us, but they deserve discussion.
What’s wrong with this code?

- What happens if interrupt happens while task is here?
  - "... the system would grind to a halt in a sort of one-armed deadly embrace."
- If we break rule 1, the attempt to block the interrupt routine will actually block the current (interrupted) task.

Alternative behavior

- In this scenario, some kernels would
  - assume (incorrectly) that current task is actually making call,
  - notice that the current task already has the semaphore, and then
  - let the ISR continue past the GetSemaphore() call
- Result:
  - Because RTOS functions are not used properly, the semaphore fails to protect the shared resource
  - Author: compared with the one-armed deadly embrace, this is "equally useless behavior"

Discussion

- Serious problems also arise if ISR interrupts a different task – not the one with semaphore – and “blocks”
  - RTOS will block the current task (the task that happened to be interrupted) until semaphore becomes available
  - ISR is also effectively “blocked” along with task
    - ISR context is saved on task stack
    - ISR handler suspended at point of call to GetSemaphore()
    - Interrupts disabled at current and lower priority levels, hence ignored until release of semaphore
    - Dispatcher switches to different stack, causes another task to execute
    - When interrupted task is unblocked, execution will resume in ISR on stack

Is this code okay?

- What assumptions did programmer make?
- Is rule 1 violated?
- What happens when the queue fills up?
- Is rule 2 violated?
- What must be true about sc_qpost to avoid problems?

Methods of obeying rule 2

- RTOS intercepts all interrupts, then calls appropriate ISR
- RTOS always knows that it is executing an ISR
- ISR returns to RTOS before returning to task

Violating rule 2

How YAK ISRs should work

ISR/handler
  RTOS
  TaskHigh
  TaskLow

What would happen if RTOS didn’t know post was called by ISR

ISR/handler
  RTOS
  TaskHigh
  TaskLow

Methods of obeying rule 2

Method 1

- RTOS intercepts all interrupts, then calls appropriate ISR
- RTOS always knows that it is executing an ISR
- ISR returns to RTOS before returning to task

Method 2

- RTOS provides a routine that ISRs must call to inform the RTOS that an interrupt is running
- Near end, ISR calls RTOS routine that calls scheduler
- This is approach used in YAK
Methods of obeying rule 2

- **Method 3**
  - RTOS provides separate set of functions to be called exclusively by interrupt routines:
    - ISRPostSem(), ISRQPostSem(), etc.
  - Regular post functions can be called only from task code
    - SemPost(), QPost(), etc.
  - Scheduler called at end of task post routines, but not ISR post routines

Problem 7.2: Can you rewrite this code using semaphores in place of events?

Problem 7.2b: Rewrite with semaphores

YAK implementation

- **YAK uses method 2 to provide “fair warning”**
  - What is purpose of YKEnterISR()?
  - What is purpose of YKExitISR()?
  - What is required in every post function?
  - What happens if
    - You forget to call YKEnterISR() or YKExitISR() in an ISR?
    - Intermittents are enabled before call to YKEnterISR(), or after call to YKExitISR()?
    - Post function doesn’t correctly test for call from interrupt code?

Rule 2 and nested interrupts

- If a higher-priority interrupt can interrupt a lower-priority ISR, then another consideration comes into play.

Problem 7.1: What’s wrong with this code?

Assumptions:
- Messages are void
- *sndmsg() plus void * in queue
- *rcvmsg() returns void

Solution:
- ExitISR routine in RTOS needs to know if it is returning to a lower-priority ISR or to task code.
- How is this addressed in YAK and what is runtime overhead?

Problem 7.3: Could you rewrite this code using semaphores?
Problem 7.2c: Rewrite with semaphores?

```c
/* a handle for the trigger group of events */
AVXID amxidTrigger;

/* constants for use in the group */
#define TRIGGER_MASK
#define TRIGGER_SET
#define TRIGGER_RESET
#define KEY_MASK
#define KEY_SET
#define KEY_RESET

void main (void)
{
    /* create event group with trigger and keyboard events reset */
    ajevcre (&amxidTrigger, 0, "EVTR");

    void interrupt vTriggerISR (void)
    {
        /* trigger pulled.  Set event */
        ajevsig (amxidTrigger, TRIGGER_MASK, TRIGGER_SET);
    }

    void interrupt vKeyISR (void)
    {
        /* key pressed.  Set event */
        ajevsig (amxidTrigger, KEY_MASK, KEY_SET);
    }

    void vScanTask (void)
    {
        while (TRUE)
        {
            /* wait for user to pull the trigger */
            ajevwat (amxidTrigger, TRIGGER_MASK, TRIGGER_SET,
                    WAIT_FOR_ANY, WAIT_FOREVER);
            /* reset the trigger event */
            ajevsig (amxidTrigger, TRIGGER_MASK, TRIGGER_RESET);
            !! Turn on the scanner hardware, look for scan
            !! When scan found, turn off scanner
        }
    }

    void vRadioTask (void)
    {
        while (TRUE)
        {
            /* wait for trigger pull or key press */
            ajevwat (amxidTrigger, TRIGGER_MASK | KEY_MASK,
                    TRIGGER_SET | KEY_SET,
                    WAIT_FOR_ALL,
                    WAIT_FOREVER);
            /* reset key event.  (trigger will be reset by scantask) */
            ajevsig (amxidTrigger, KEY_MASK, KEY_RESET);
            !! turn on the radio
            !! when data has been sent, turn off the radio
        }
    }
}
```

Problem 7.3: What's wrong with this code?

```c
void vScanTask (void)
{
    while (FOREVER)
    {
        if (!! have urgent command char)
            OSQPost (URGENT_QUEUE, !!next urgent cmd char);
        if (!! have regular command char)
            OSQPost (REGULAR_QUEUE, !!next regular cmd char);
        ...
    }
}
```

Problem 7.4: Does this change fix problem in previous slide?

```c
void vScanTask (void)
{
    while (FOREVER)
    {
        if (!! have urgent command char)
            OSQPost (URGENT_QUEUE, !!next urgent cmd char);
        if (!! have regular command char)
            OSQPost (REGULAR_QUEUE, !!next regular cmd char);
    }
}
```

Problem 7.5

In Section 7.4 we suggested that one reasonable design for memory management is to allocate three or four memory buffer pools, each with a different size of buffer.

What drawbacks can you see to this design compared to using malloc and free?

Problem 7.6: What is wrong with this code?

```c
void task1 (void)
{
    BUFFER *p_bufferA, *p_bufferA1;

    GetSemaphore(SEM_OUR_MEMORY);
    p_bufferA = GetBuffer ();
    p_bufferA1 = GetBuffer ( );
    GiveSemaphore(SEM_OUR_MEMORY);
    SendMsg(task2, p_bufferA);
    Copy data from p_bufferA into p_bufferA1
    FreeBuffer (p_bufferA1);
}
```

Problem 7.7: Does this change fix problem in previous slide?

```c
void task1 (void)
{
    BUFFER *p_bufferA, *p_bufferA1;

    GetSemaphore(SEM_OUR_MEMORY);
    p_bufferA = GetBuffer ();
    p_bufferA1 = GetBuffer ( );
    Copy data from p_bufferA into p_bufferA1
    FreeBuffer (p_bufferA1);
    GiveSemaphore(SEM_OUR_MEMORY);
    SendMsg(task2, p_bufferA);
    Copy data from p_bufferA into p_bufferA1
    FreeBuffer (p_bufferA1);
    GiveSemaphore(SEM_OUR_MEMORY);
    ...
}
```
Problem 7.8

The text outlines three different plans by which an RTOS finds out that an interrupt routine is executing. Compare these three plans. Which is likely to have the best interrupt response time, and which will be the easiest to create user code for? Are there differences in memory requirements?

Plan 1: RTOS intercepts all interrupts, then calls appropriate ISR for each. Control returns to RTOS at end of ISR.
Plan 2: RTOS provides function that must be called by each ISR at beginning, and another to be called at the end.
Plan 3: RTOS provides separate functions for ISRs and tasks.

Problem 7.9

On some RTOSs, you can write two kinds of interrupt routines: conforming routines, which tell the RTOS when they enter and exit, and nonconforming routines, which do not.

What advantage does a nonconforming routine have?

What disadvantages?