

# Periodic Thermal Management for Hard Real-time Systems

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**Abstract**—Due to growing power density, on-chip temperature increases rapidly, which has hampered the reliability and performance of modern real-time systems. This paper studies how to minimize the peak temperature for hard real-time systems under hard real-time constraints with periodic thermal management. A closed-form representation of the peak temperature for such a periodic scheme is derived to tackle this problem. Based on this closed-form and the arrival curve model which is used to model the system workload, two approaches that can derive periodic thermal management are proposed to minimize the peak temperature for a given event stream with a trade-off between complexity and accuracy. Case studies show that our approaches can achieve similar or better level of peak temperature but with two or three orders of magnitude lower computation expense compared to previous work.

## I. INTRODUCTION

For a hard real-time system, its operation integrity strongly depends upon two essential principles [1]: the logical results of the computation must be correct and the time at which these results are produced must satisfy certain constraints. The timing constraints are usually specified as deadlines within which all the tasks should finish. Meeting deadlines is crucial for hard real-time systems, otherwise critical failures may be caused. It is often the case that hard real-time systems are employed in safety critical applications, such as an automated flight control system, an artificial heart, etc. In these cases, a small fault in the correctness of the system timing manner may cause extremely serious disasters. To ensure deadlines, real-time system designers need to consider an important factor, the temperature of the processor, which plays a key role in determining the allowable execution speed [2]. However, as the power density in current electronic devices is exponentially increasing, the temperature on current processors can be considerably high, which severely harms the reliability and performance of hard real-time systems.

To control the on-chip temperature, apart from using hardware cooling devices, alternative technologies which dynamically detect and alleviate thermal violations have also been adopted. Such technologies can be generally termed as Dynamic Thermal Management (DTM) techniques [3]. Since heat generation directly originates from power consumption, DTM techniques manage the temperature via controlling the power consumption of the processor. As power consumption of processors mainly comes from dynamic and leakage power consumption, DTM techniques follow two main mechanisms, i.e., Dynamic Voltage Frequency Scaling (DVFS) [4]–[8], in which the dynamic power consumption is reduced by adjusting the supply voltage or frequency of the processor such that the temperature is lowered, and Dynamic Power Management

(DPM) [2], [9]–[11], which transits the processor to sleep state to diminish the leakage power such that the on-chip temperature gets controlled.

As transistor technology is shifting toward sub-micron domain, the leakage power increases exponentially and becomes comparable or even greater than dynamic power [12]. According to ITRS2011 [13], leakage power dominates the total power consumption of 32 nm or more advanced processors. Therefore, using DPM technologies to optimize the temperature on modern processors is more effective. In addition, DPM techniques can also be applied on peripheral devices such as memories, interconnects, etc. In this paper, we propose a DPM approach, which switches the processor between active and sleep modes according to certain patterns, to minimize the peak temperature.

The main issue of DPM technologies is when and how long one should turn the processor to the sleep state [14]. Meisner et al. [10] proposed a power management approach, called PowerNap, to eliminate idle power in servers by quickly transiting in and out of an ultra-low power state. The processors are activated from the ultra-low power state if an activity is detected in the network interface controller. However, erratically transiting the processor to a low power state causes predicting the thermal behavior almost impossible. Furthermore, since the performance of the processor is reduced when a DPM technology is applied, one should carefully evaluate the execution time penalty to ensure that all events finish within their deadlines. This evaluation is also difficult to complete due to the unpredictability in power state transition. To make it easy to predict the temperature evolution and execution time penalty of the processor, one can periodically put the processor in a lower power mode. Masud Ahmed et al. [2] presented an offline algorithm for sporadic tasks to minimize the peak temperature in embedded real-time systems by utilizing thermal-aware periodic resources. The sporadic model of the workload causes pessimism for the analysis and results in higher peak temperature of the system, as this model cannot model non-determinism like jitter or burst arrivals of the system workload. In view of this, our DPM technique designed for hard real-time systems should: (1) guarantee all events complete within deadlines, (2) work with general event arrival patterns, (3) explicitly demonstrate the pattern of power mode transition and how the temperature evolves, (4) minimize the peak temperature of the processor.

In this paper, we propose the periodic thermal management (PTM), which holds the properties mentioned above, to optimize the peak temperature for general events arrivals while the deadlines are guaranteed. A single core processor that has two power dissipation modes, ‘active’ and ‘sleep’ mode, is considered. The peak temperature is controlled by

periodically switching the processor into the sleep mode. The PTM scheme is derived offline in order to achieve minimum runtime overhead. Real-time Calculus [15] is employed to model the non-deterministic event arrivals and service provided by the processor in the time interval domain. The detailed contributions of this paper are as follows:

- A closed-form solution of the peak temperature with respect to the periodic thermal management is developed.
- Two PTM algorithms that can derive periodic on/off schemes with a trade-off between accuracy and efficiency are developed. One offers precise solution by making thorough searches and the other is a fast approximation based on bounded-delay function.
- The effectiveness and efficiency of our algorithms are studied by comparison to two related work [2], [11] in the literature.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. The related work is introduced in the next section. Section III presents system models, including hardware model, event model and thermal model, and the problem definition. Section IV derives the closed-form solutions of the peak temperature. Section V presents our PTM algorithms. Several cases are studied in Section VI and Section VII concludes this paper.

## II. RELATED WORK

As stated in previous section, the thermal behaviour of a processor is directly influenced by the power consumption. Thus researchers in previous work on thermal-aware scheduling have followed two main approaches: DVFS and DPM, which have already been widely exploited in power-aware scheduling. In this section, we overview previous work for thermal-aware scheduling that based on DVFS and DPM.

Sushu Zhang et al. [4] proposed two DVFS approaches: a pseudo-polynomial optimal algorithm and a fully polynomial time approximation one. These two approaches can optimally and approximately improve the system performance for a set of periodic tasks under thermal constraints, respectively. Jian-Jia Chen et al. [8] presented two approaches to schedule periodic real-time tasks under DVFS while the response time and temperature constraints are satisfied respectively. Chantem et al. [5] made an observation about maximizing the workload under thermal constraints. The authors demonstrated that while working with proactive scheduling, the scheduler which maximizes the workload under given peak temperature must be a periodic one [2]. According to this observation, a speed schedule was proposed to maximize the workload based on DVFS with discrete speeds and transition overhead under given temperature constraints. S. Wang et al. [6] presented a reactive speed control algorithm for tasks that have the same period to minimize temperature and performed several schedulability tests. The aforementioned work, however, based on either a simplified workload model, such as periodic tasks, or the processor feature of keeping the ‘ideal’ speed, which may not be found in recent top-of-the-line microprocessors [2]. The periodic thermal management (PTM) proposed in this paper can handle general event arrival patterns by adopting real-time calculus [15]. Moreover, lower power state, which is a basic power management feature, can be conveniently utilized to implement PTM.

There are also several researches that utilize DPM to minimize the peak temperature under deadline constraints. Kumar et al. [9] developed a thermally optimal stop-go scheduling called J<sub>U</sub>ST Sufficient Throttling (JUST) to minimize peak temperature within given makespan constraints. This scheduling is designed only for static order tasks and is not applicable for non-deterministic tasks. To address the challenge of determining the real-time guarantees in the presence of unpredictable dynamic environmental conditions, Hettiarachchi and et al. [16] proposed a framework and mechanisms for thermal stress analysis in real-time systems. Adopting thermal-aware periodic resources, Masud Ahmed et al. [2] proposed an offline algorithm which minimizes the peak temperature for sporadic tasks scheduled by earliest-deadline first (EDF) while guaranteeing all their deadlines can be met. The workload models of the aforementioned work are also simplified and lead to pessimistic results, that is, higher peak temperature since they cannot exhibit non-determinism like jitter or burst arrivals of the workload. These shortcomings can also be overcome in PTM since it work with general event arrival patterns, as mentioned above. In [11], a Cool Shaper is studied to minimize the peak temperature by delaying the execution of workload for general events arrivals. It is an online/offline-combined approach, where the parameters of the shaper are offline computed and the workload is runtime orchestrated with the pre-computed shaper. Besides the online monitoring overhead which can result in a higher temperature, determining the parameters of the shaper according to the system specification also requires considerable calculation effort. In this paper, a closed form of the peak temperature is derived such that our PTM can easily obtain the peak temperature offline instead of simulating the online evolution of the temperature, which saves great quantity of calculation.

## III. SYSTEM MODEL

### A. Hardware Model

A single core processor that has two power dissipation modes, i.e., ‘active’ and ‘sleep’ mode, is adopted in this paper. The processor must be in ‘active’ mode with a fixed speed to process coming event streams with power consumption  $P_a$  and can be turned to ‘sleep’ mode with a lower power consumption  $P_s$  when there is no event to handle. We consider the time and power overheads during model-switching.  $t_{sw\text{off}}$  and  $t_{sw\text{on}}$  time units are required to switch the processor from ‘active’ mode to ‘sleep’ mode and back, respectively. During mode switching, the power dissipation equals  $P_a$  but the processor does not tackle any coming event. The time and power overheads during mode switching have nontrivial impacts on the resource providing capability and thermal evolution of the processor. For example, suppose the processor is switched to ‘active’ mode first and then  $t_{on}$  time units later it is turned to ‘sleep’ mode and stays at this mode for  $t_{off}$  time units. As shown in Fig. 1, in this  $(t_{on} + t_{off})$  units time interval, the length of the overall time slots in which the processor can handle coming events is shorter than  $t_{on}$  and the time interval during which the processor consumes power  $P_s$  is shorter than  $t_{off}$ . Therefore, the mode-switching overhead leads to a higher temperature and a weaker resource providing capability. The quantitative impacts will be investigated later. Moreover, as shown in Fig. 1, the time lengths for which the processor is

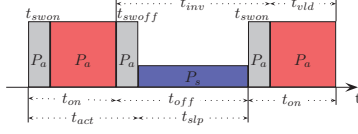


Fig. 1. Hardware model.

switched to ‘active’ and ‘sleep’ mode must be larger than  $t_{swon}$  and  $t_{swoff}$ , respectively:

$$t_{off} > t_{swoff}, \quad t_{on} > t_{swon}. \quad (1)$$

### B. Event Model

Without loss of generality, we assume that the input events arrive at the system irregularly. In order to model workload of such coming events, the concept of arrival curve in network calculus [17] and real-time calculus [15] is adopted. Before introducing arrival curve, we briefly present the concept of cumulative workload  $R(t)$ . For a single event stream, the cumulative workload  $R(t)$  represents the number of events arrive at the processor in time interval  $[0, t)$  with  $R(0) = 0$  by convention. According to its definition,  $R(t)$  always specifies one concrete trace of event stream. Therefore, arrival curve  $\bar{\alpha}(\Delta) = [\bar{\alpha}^u(\Delta), \bar{\alpha}^l(\Delta)]$ , which can bound admissible traces of event streams, is introduced to provide an abstract model for event streams. The upper arrival curve  $\bar{\alpha}^u(\Delta)$  and the lower arrival curve  $\bar{\alpha}^l(\Delta)$  are the upper and lower bound of  $R(t)$ :

$$\bar{\alpha}^l(\Delta) \leq R(t-s) \leq \bar{\alpha}^u(\Delta), \forall t-s = \Delta \text{ and } s \geq 0 \quad (2)$$

where  $\bar{\alpha}^l(0) = \bar{\alpha}^u(0) = 0$ . With the concept of arrival curve, we can unify many other common timing models of event stream. For example, a periodic event stream can be abstracted by a set of step function where  $\bar{\alpha}^u(\Delta) = \left\lfloor \frac{\Delta}{p} \right\rfloor + 1$  and  $\bar{\alpha}^l(\Delta) = \left\lfloor \frac{\Delta}{p} \right\rfloor$ . A sporadic event stream can also be modeled by  $\bar{\alpha}^u(\Delta) = \left\lfloor \frac{\Delta}{p} \right\rfloor + 1$ ,  $\bar{\alpha}^l(\Delta) = \left\lfloor \frac{\Delta}{p'} \right\rfloor$ , where  $p$  and  $p'$  are the minimal and maximal inter arrival distance of the event stream, respectively. Moreover, for an event stream which can be specified by a period  $p$ , jitter  $j$  and minimal inter arrival distance  $d$ , the upper arrival curve is  $\bar{\alpha}^u(\Delta) = \min\left\{\left\lceil \frac{\Delta+j}{p} \right\rceil, \left\lceil \frac{\Delta}{d} \right\rceil\right\}$ .

To model the resource providing capability, we adopt service curve  $\beta(\Delta) = [\beta^u(\Delta), \beta^l(\Delta)]$  analogously [17]. In the same way, service curve provides the upper bound and lower bound of cumulative function  $C(t)$ , which is the number of total time slots that the processor provides to handle coming events in time interval  $[0, t)$ . The upper service curve  $\beta^u(\Delta)$  and lower service curve  $\beta^l(\Delta)$  satisfy:

$$\beta^l(\Delta) \leq C(t-s) \leq \beta^u(\Delta), \forall t-s = \Delta \text{ and } s \geq 0 \quad (3)$$

where  $\beta^l(0) = \beta^u(0) = 0$ .

It is worth noting that the arrival curve  $\bar{\alpha}(\Delta)$  is event-based and specifies the upper and lower bounds of the number of input events in any time interval  $\Delta$ , while the service curve  $\beta(\Delta)$  is time-based and specifies the upper and lower bounds of the amount of available execution time in any time interval  $\Delta$ . Thus, we transform the event-based arrival curve  $\bar{\alpha}(\Delta)$  to time-based arrival curve  $\alpha(\Delta)$ , which describes the amount of execution time demanded by arrival events. Suppose that the worst-case execution time of one event in arrival stream is

$c$ , then the arrival curve transformation can be performed as  $\alpha^u(\Delta) = c \cdot \bar{\alpha}^u(\Delta)$  and  $\alpha^l(\Delta) = c \cdot \bar{\alpha}^l(\Delta)$  [18].

Our PTM approaches are designed to handle not only single event streams but also multi-event streams. For multi-event scenarios,  $N$  event streams are supposed in the input source, where  $N \geq 2$ . We order the event streams  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_N$  according to their relative deadlines, where  $D_i$ , the relative deadline of event stream  $S_i$ , is smaller than that of  $S_j$  when  $i < j$ . Thus, the input event model of our processor can be depicted by the tuple  $\mathbf{EM}(N) = (\bar{\alpha}(\Delta)_1, c_1, D_1, \dots, \bar{\alpha}(\Delta)_N, c_N, D_N)$ . Now, a processor with service curve  $\beta(\Delta)$  satisfies the worst-case deadline constraints for its workload, which is modeled by  $\mathbf{EM}(N)$ , when the following condition holds:

$$\beta^l(\Delta) \geq \beta_B(\Delta), \forall \Delta \geq 0. \quad (4)$$

where  $\beta_B(\Delta) = \alpha^u(\Delta - D)$  for single event scenarios. For multi-event scenarios,  $\beta_B(\Delta)$  has different formulations with different scheduling policies, which is detailed later.

### C. Thermal Model

In this paper, the temperature model of the processor is based on the Fourier law of heating [19], which can be described by the following equation:

$$C \frac{dT}{dt} = P - G(T - T_{amb}) \quad (5)$$

where  $T$ ,  $C$ ,  $G$  and  $P$  denote the temperature, thermal capacitance, thermal conductance and power dissipation of the system, respectively.  $T_{amb}$  indicates the ambient temperature. In addition, the absolute temperature (Kelvin,  $K$ ) is set as the unit of all temperature variables. We assume the power dissipation has a linear relationship with respect to temperature in this paper [19]. Thus the power dissipation is formulated as:

$$P = \varphi T + \theta \quad (6)$$

where  $\varphi$  and  $\theta$  are constants. Rewriting (5), we have

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = -mT + n \quad (7)$$

where  $m = \frac{G-\varphi}{C}$ ,  $n = \frac{\theta+GT_{amb}}{C}$ . Then the steady-state temperature of currently working state can be derived as  $T^\infty = n/m$  with  $\frac{dT}{dt} = 0$ . As  $m$  and  $n$  are constants, a closed-form solution of the temperature yields:

$$T(t) = T^\infty + (T_{init} - T^\infty) \cdot e^{-m \cdot t} \quad (8)$$

where  $T_{init}$  indicates the initiate temperature. As mentioned in hardware model, the processor has two power dissipation modes and consumes power  $P_a$  during mode-switching. Therefore when the processor is in mode-switching or ‘active’ mode, the power consumption is  $P_a = \varphi_a T(t) + \theta_a$ , otherwise the power consumption is  $P_s = \varphi_s T(t) + \theta_s$  ( $< \varphi_a, \theta_a >$  and  $< \varphi_s, \theta_s >$  are the corresponding parameters in Eqn. 6). Thence, the coefficient for Eqn. 8 are given as [11], [19]:

$$m_a = \frac{G - \varphi_a}{C}, \quad m_s = \frac{G - \varphi_s}{C} \quad (9)$$

$$T_a^\infty = \frac{\theta_a + GT_{amb}}{G - \varphi_a}, \quad T_s^\infty = \frac{\theta_s + GT_{amb}}{G - \varphi_s}$$

In addition, we also regulate the thermal model by these following circumstances.



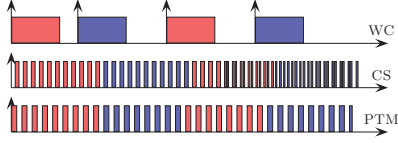


Fig. 2. Execution of jobs in policy WC, DT and PTM.

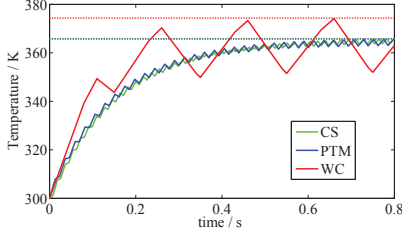


Fig. 3. Temperature evolution in policy WC, DT and PTM.

- $m_a > 0$  and  $m_s > 0$ .
- The steady-state temperature in ‘active’ mode is non-smaller than the one in ‘sleep’ mode, that is,  $T_a^\infty \geq T_s^\infty$ .
- The initial temperature  $T_{init} = T_{amb} \leq T_s^\infty$ .

Thus, the thermal mode of the processor in this paper is characterized by the tuple  $\mathbf{TM} = (T_a^\infty, m_a, T_s^\infty, m_s)$ .

#### D. Problem Statement

Dynamically switching the processor into ‘sleep’ mode according to the event arrivals is an effective way to minimize the peak temperature. However, this needs vast calculating efforts, which hampers the efficiency. Periodic thermal management (PTM), a trade-off between effect and efficiency, is adopted in this paper to minimize the peak temperature by periodically putting the system into ‘active’ and ‘sleep’ modes. In each period, the processor stays at ‘active’ mode and ‘sleep’ mode for  $t_{on}$  and  $t_{off}$  time units, respectively. In addition,  $t = t_{on} + t_{off}$  denotes the length of the period. We illustrate our approach with an example in which three thermal management policies are adopted: (a) a work conserving (WC) execution that with no DTM policy, which means that the processor stays at ‘active’ mode to process events if there is (at least) one event in the ready queue, (b) an online DPM policy called Cool Shaper (CS) which dynamically transits the processor into ‘sleep’ mode according to the event arrivals, and (c) periodic thermal management (PTM). The thermal and hardware parameters are described in Tab. I. The event stream is set as: period  $p = 0.2s$ , jitter  $j = 0.05s$ , minimal inter-arrival distance  $d = 0.001s$ , execution time  $c = 0.11s$  and relative deadline  $D = 1.2p$ . A concrete trace of events that arrive at time  $(0, 0.15, 0.35, 0.55)s$  is adopted in this example. Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 show the execution of events and the temperature evolution for the three policies, respectively. As shown in Fig. 3, the peak temperature in policy PTM is slimly higher than the one in policy CS and they are both about 9 K less than the one in policy WC. This indicates that PTM policy can achieve close results to CS policy in terms of peak temperature and they are both effective compared to WC policy. From Fig. 2, we find that PTM can be seen as an approximate policy of CS, this interprets why the peak temperature of PTM is slimly higher. Despite of this, PTM requires less resources for computation with acceptable results and is very convenient to implement.

This paper considers the temperature varying in a time interval  $L$ , where  $L \gg t$  and  $L/t$  is an integer. Due to the model-switching overhead,  $t_{on}$  and  $t_{off}$  cannot be directly utilized into thermal mode and service curve. Before giving the revised solutions, we first define some notations. From Fig. 1,  $t_{act}$  and  $t_{slp}$  denote the time interval that the processor consumes power  $P_a$  and  $P_s$  in one period, respectively. Analogously,  $t_{vld}$  denotes the time interval that the processor can tackle coming events in one period and  $t_{inv}$  represents the rest. Based on hardware model, we formulate them as:

$$t_{act} = t_{on} + t_{swoff}, \quad t_{slp} = t_{off} - t_{swoff} \quad (10)$$

$$t_{vld} = t_{on} - t_{swon}, \quad t_{inv} = t_{off} + t_{swon}. \quad (11)$$

With these definitions, one can use  $t_{act}$  and  $t_{slp}$  to derive the peak temperature and  $t_{vld}$  and  $t_{inv}$  to calculate the service curve of the processor; meanwhile, the time and power overhead of mode-switching are considered.

Now we define our problem as follows:

*Given a system characterized by the power model and the thermal model  $\mathbf{TM}$  described in the preceding pages, task streams that are modeled by  $\mathbf{EM}(N)$ , our goal is to derive a periodic thermal management depicted by  $t_{on}$  and  $t_{off}$  such that the peak temperature is minimized while all the events complete within their deadlines.*

#### IV. PEAK TEMPERATURE ANALYSIS

In this section, we derive the formula of the peak temperature in PTM such that our algorithm can utilize it as a criterion of the optimal pair of  $\langle t_{on}, t_{off} \rangle$ .

As PTM periodically transits the system between two power modes, the values of the parameters in the temperature model Eqn. 8 change periodically, which causes the general solution of the transient temperature  $T$  very complicated. Therefore, instead of utilizing the general solution, we derive the formula of the peak temperature based on some basic lemmas, which are obtained from close observations of the temperature evolution and are presented in the following.

*Lem. 1:* With a periodic thermal management PTM ( $t_{on}, t_{off}$ ), the temperature of the processor ceaselessly rises in the opening few periods and then rises in  $t_{act}$  and descends in  $t_{slp}$  in every following period.

*Proof:* As mentioned before, the initial temperature  $T_{init} = T_{amb} \leq T_s^\infty \leq T_a^\infty$ . Based on Eqn. 7, inequality  $\frac{dT}{dt} \geq 0$  holds in the beginning several periods when  $T \leq T_s^\infty$ . Therefore, temperature  $T$  continuously rises and then reaches  $T_s^\infty$ . It’s worth noting that  $T$  will never surpass  $T_a^\infty$  unless the initial temperature is higher than  $T_a^\infty$ , as  $T_a^\infty$  is the steady-state temperature of the ‘active’ mode. Since  $T$  has already passed  $T_s^\infty$ , it also will never drop back below  $T_s^\infty$  until being shut down. Therefore, one can summarize that PTM will keep the temperature  $T$  change between  $T_s^\infty$  and  $T_a^\infty$  once  $T$  passes  $T_s^\infty$ . Again, based on Eqn. 7, one can observe that  $\frac{dT}{dt} \geq 0$  in  $t_{act}$  and otherwise  $\frac{dT}{dt} \leq 0$ . ■

Based on Lem. 1, in the  $j$ th period, the temperature  $T$  reaches its local maximum  $T_j$  at the end of the time interval  $t_{act}$ . The peak temperature  $T^*$  can be defined as the maximum of all the  $T_j$ :

$$T^* = \max(T_1, \dots, T_L). \quad (12)$$

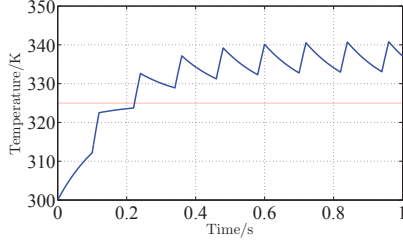


Fig. 4. Example of temperature varying with PTM( $t_{on} = 0.02s, t_{off} = 0.1s$ ) while the model-switching overhead is not considered. The thermal and hardware parameters are described in Tab. I.

As shown in Fig. 4, the local maximum increases in the beginning and then stays at a stable value in the rest time. This reveals that the peak temperature can be obtained based on the difference between two consecutive local maximums, which is depicted in the following lemma.

*Lem. 2:* Denoting the local maximal temperature in the  $j$ th period as  $T_j$ , the temperature difference between two consecutive local maximums,  $T_{j+1} - T_j$ , can be formulated as:

$$T_{j+1} - T_j = (1 - e^{-m_a t_{act}}) T_a^\infty + e^{-m_a t_{act}} (1 - e^{-m_s t_{slp}}) T_s^\infty - [1 - e^{-m_a t_{act} - m_s t_{slp}}] T_j \quad (13)$$

where  $t_{act}$  and  $t_{slp}$  are from Eqn. 10.

*Proof:* With  $T_j$ ,  $t_{slp}$  and Eqn. 8, we first derive  $T_j^{slp}$ , which is the temperature at the end of  $t_{slp}$  in the  $j$ th period. From Eqn. 8, one can get  $T_j^{slp} = T_s + (T_j - T_s)e^{-m_s t_{slp}}$ . Then with  $t_{act}$ ,  $T_a$  and  $T_j^{slp}$ , Eqn. 8 generates the following equation:

$$T_{j+1} = (1 - e^{-m_a t_{act}}) T_a^\infty + e^{-m_a t_{act}} (1 - e^{-m_s t_{slp}}) T_s^\infty + e^{-m_a t_{act} - m_s t_{slp}} T_j. \quad (14)$$

Subtracting  $T_j$  from both sides yields Eqn. 13.  $\blacksquare$

With above lemmas, the first main result of this paper is presented as the theorem below:

*Thm. 1:* Given a system as stated above and a periodic thermal management PTM ( $t_{on}, t_{off}$ ), the peak temperature of the processor is a linear combination of  $T_a^\infty$  and  $T_s^\infty$ , which is given as:

$$T^* = \lambda T_a^\infty + (1 - \lambda) T_s^\infty, \quad (15)$$

where

$$\lambda = \frac{1 - e^{-m_a t_{act}}}{1 - e^{-m_a t_{act} - m_s t_{slp}}}.$$

*Proof:* We prove Thm. 1 by contradiction. For brevity,  $\lambda T_a^\infty + (1 - \lambda) T_s^\infty$  is denoted as  $T^\diamond$ . First, suppose that the peak temperature  $T^*$  is reached in the  $i$ th period and  $T_i = T^* < T^\diamond$ . Rewriting Eqn. 13 yields that  $T_{i+1} - T_i > 0$ , which contradicts to the presumption that  $T_i$  is the peak temperature of the processor.

Similarly, assume that the peak temperature  $T^*$  is reached in  $j$ th period and  $T_j = T^* > T^\diamond$ . Therefore we have:

$$T_j - T_{j-1} > T^\diamond - T_{j-1} \quad (16)$$

According to Lem. 2:

$$\begin{aligned} T_j - T_{j-1} &= (1 - e^{-m_a t_{act} - m_s t_{slp}}) [\lambda T_a^\infty + (1 - \lambda) T_s^\infty - T_{j-1}] \\ &= (1 - e^{-m_a t_{act} - m_s t_{slp}}) (T^\diamond - T_{j-1}). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $(1 - e^{-m_a t_{act} - m_s t_{slp}}) < 1$ , the following inequality yields:

$$T_j - T_{j-1} < T^\diamond - T_{j-1} \quad (17)$$

which is in conflict with Eqn. 16. In conclusion,  $T^* = T^\diamond$ .  $\blacksquare$

Next, the boundaries of  $t_{on}$  and  $t_{off}$  are explored, then two approaches are proposed to minimize  $T^*$ .

## V. PTM ALGORITHMS

### A. Service Bound of PTM

Real-time interface is employed in this paper to ensure that all events complete within their deadlines. With the hardware model described before and a given PTM ( $t_{on}, t_{off}$ ), the lower service curve of the processor is written as:

$$\beta_R(\Delta) = \max \left( \left\lfloor \frac{\Delta}{t} \right\rfloor \cdot t_{vld}, \Delta - \left\lceil \frac{\Delta}{t} \right\rceil \cdot t_{inv} \right), \quad (18)$$

where  $t$  is the period,  $t_{vld}$  and  $t_{inv}$  are obtained from Eqn. 11. To satisfy the deadline constraints, the lower service curve of the processor  $\beta_R(\Delta)$  should satisfy the following inequality:

$$\beta_R(\Delta) \geq \beta_B(\Delta), \quad \forall \Delta \geq 0, \quad (19)$$

where  $\beta_B(\Delta)$  is the service bound for the workload modeled by  $\mathbf{EM}(N)$ . For a single event stream ( $N = 1$ ),  $\beta_B(\Delta)$  can be formulated as [18], [20]:

$$\beta_B(\Delta) = a^u(\Delta - D) \quad (20)$$

For multi-event streams ( $N \geq 2$ ), the service bound  $\beta_B(\Delta)$  in Eqn. 19 should be computed based on the scheduling policy. Note that only the service bound  $\beta_B(\Delta)$  has to be revised. The other parts of our algorithms can remain untouched. Suppose the scheduling policy of earliest deadline first (EDF) is adopted, the service bound for the  $N$  event streams is [18]:

$$\beta_B(\Delta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i^u(\Delta - D_i). \quad (21)$$

It's worth noting that EDF is not necessarily the only one scheduling policy can be adopted here. For example, when fixed priority (FP) scheduling is employed, the service bound can be calculated according to another formula [20] and fits in with our algorithms as suitable as EDF.

### B. Feasible Region of $t_{off}$

In this paper, our goal is to find the optimal  $\langle t_{on}, t_{off} \rangle$  under the deadline constraints. Apparently brutal searching the whole two-dimensional space is the least efficient way to find the solution. Based on Eqn. 15, one can find that the derivative of  $T^*$  with respect to  $t_{on}$  is  $\frac{dT^*}{dt_{on}} = (T_a^\infty - T_s^\infty) \frac{m_a e^{-m_a(t_{on} + t_{swoff})} [1 - e^{-m_s(t_{off} - t_{swoff})}]}{[1 - e^{-m_a t_{act} - m_s t_{slp}}]^2} > 0$ . Therefore, for a given  $t_{off}$ ,  $T^*$  can be minimized by searching the minimal  $t_{on}$  under the service curve constraint, Eqn. 19. Based on this feature, our algorithms generally include two steps: (1) finding the minimal  $t_{on}$  for a given  $t_{off}$  with the real-time constraint, and (2) varying  $t_{off}$  in its feasible region and getting the optimum value when  $T^*$  reaches its minimum.

In order to discover the minimal  $t_{on}$ , the feasible region of  $t_{off}$  should be determined first such that one can assure

the solution to the minimal  $t_{on}$  exists. For example, when the input is a single event stream and  $t_{off} = D$ , coming events in worst-case will miss their deadlines before they are processed, considering additional  $t_{swon}$  time units are required to switch the processor on. According to the hardware model, we directly know that  $t_{off}$  has to be no less than  $t_{swoff}$  to cover the timing overhead of model-switching. To avoid situations similar to the example,  $t_{off}$  must be bounded by an upper bound, which is calculated according to the maximum service curve in [18]:

$$t_{off}^{max} = \max \{t_{off} : \beta_R^\top(\Delta) \geq \beta_B(\Delta), \forall \Delta \geq 0\}, \quad (22)$$

where  $\beta_R^\top(\Delta)$  can be formulated as follows when we take  $t_{swon}$  into account:

$$\beta_R^\top(\Delta) = \max\{0, \Delta - t_{off} - t_{swon}\} \quad (23)$$

Finally, the feasible region of  $t_{off}$  can be depicted as  $t_{off} \in [t_{swoff}, t_{off}^{max}]$ .

### C. Searching the minimal $t_{on}$

Based on the constraint Eqn. 19, when  $t_{off}$  is fixed, the precise solution of minimal  $t_{on}$  can be calculated as:

$$t_{on}^{prc} = \min \{t_{on} : \beta_R(\Delta) \geq \beta_B(\Delta), \forall \Delta \geq 0\}. \quad (24)$$

This solution can be found by testing the  $t_{on}$ s starting from  $t_{swon}$  with step  $\epsilon$  until the minimal  $t_{on}$  satisfying Eqn. 19 is discovered. By this method, the minimal  $t_{on}$  is obtained with high accurateness while the time consumption is significant.

To reduce the computational overhead, we adopt the bounded-delay function [18], [21] to calculate an approximate minimal  $t_{on}$ . As shown in Fig. 5, for a given  $t_{off}$ , this approach first finds an affine-line which originates from point  $(t_{off}, 0)$  and is also tangent to the service bound  $\beta_B(\Delta)$ . The affine-line is colored red in the figure. The slope of the tangent is denoted as  $\eta(t_{off})$  and is defined by  $t_{off}$ :

$$\eta(t_{off}) = \inf\{\rho : \rho(\Delta - t_{off}) \geq \beta_B(\Delta), \forall \Delta \geq 0\} \quad (25)$$

Then, the bounded-delay function  $bdf(\Delta, \eta(t_{off}), t_{off})$  is formulated as:

$$bdf(\Delta, \eta(t_{off}), t_{off}) = \max[0, \eta(t_{off})(\Delta - t_{off})] \quad (26)$$

Therefore, as shown in Fig. 5,  $\beta_R(\Delta) \geq \beta_B(\Delta)$  holds as long as the lower service curve of processor is no less than  $bdf(\Delta, \eta(t_{off}), t_{off})$ .

When the mode-switching overhead is ignored, the approximate minimal  $t_{on}$  can be calculated as  $t_{on}^{apx} = \frac{\eta(t_{off}) \cdot t_{off}}{1 - \eta(t_{off})}$  (Refer to Fig. 5 for the derivation). Since we take the time overhead into account, this equation is revised as  $t_{vld}^{apx} = \frac{\eta(t_{inv}) \cdot t_{inv}}{1 - \eta(t_{inv})}$ . Based on Eqn. 11, the revised approximate  $t_{on}$  is denoted as:

$$\begin{aligned} t_{on}^{apx} &= t_{vld}^{apx} + t_{swon} \\ &= \frac{\eta(t_{off} + t_{swon})}{1 - \eta(t_{off} + t_{swon})} \cdot (t_{off} + t_{swon}) + t_{swon} \\ &= \frac{\eta(t_{off} + t_{swon})}{1 - \eta(t_{off} + t_{swon})} \cdot t_{off} + \frac{t_{swon}}{1 - \eta(t_{off} + t_{swon})}. \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

For brevity, we define function  $RVT(\eta, t_1, t_2) = \frac{\eta t_1}{1 - \eta} + \frac{t_2}{1 - \eta}$ . Therefore, the revised approximate  $t_{on}$  can be denoted as:

$$t_{on}^{apx} = RVT(\eta(t_{off} + t_{swon}), t_{off}, t_{swon}) \quad (28)$$

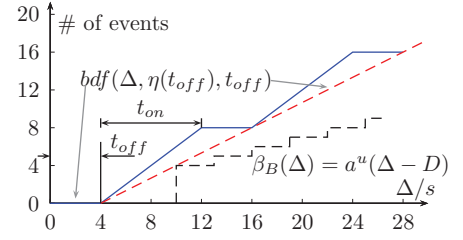


Fig. 5. Obtaining approximate minimal  $t_{on}$  based on the bounded-delay function when the mode-switching overhead is not considered.

### D. Minimize the peak temperature

Based on the precise and the approximate solutions of minimal  $t_{on}$ , two algorithms with different accuracy and efficiency are presented to minimize  $T^*$ , namely PMPT (precisely minimizes the peak temperature) and AMPT (approximately minimizes the peak temperature).

**Algorithm PMPT** For a given  $t_{off}$ , the minimal  $t_{on}$  in this algorithm is calculated based on Eqn. 24, which derives a precise solution. With  $t_{on}^{prc}$ , the corresponding peak temperatures  $T^*$  of all the tested  $t_{offs}$  can be computed from Thm. 1, then the minimal  $T^*$  in all the tested points indicates the optimal solution of  $t_{off}$ . Since there are several local minima of  $T^*$  and  $T^*$  has a irregular relationship with  $t_{off}$ , a thorough search with a fixed step  $\epsilon$  in the feasible region of  $t_{off}$  is made to find the global minimal  $T^*$ .

#### Algorithm 1 PMPT

**Input:** **TM**, **EM**( $N$ ),  $t_{swon}$ ,  $t_{swoff}$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\xi$

**Output:**  $t_{on}^{opt}$ ,  $t_{off}^{opt}$

- 1: calculate  $\beta_B(\Delta)$  based on **EM**( $N$ ) and the scheduling policy
- 2: get  $t_{off}^{max}$  from Eqn. 22
- 3:  $T_{min}^* = T_a$ ,  $t_{on}^{opt} = 0$ ,  $t_{off}^{opt} = 0$
- 4: **for**  $t_{off} = t_{off}^l$  to  $t_{off}^u$  with step  $\epsilon$  **do**
- 5:   get  $t_{inv} = t_{off} + t_{swon}$  from Eqn. 11
- 6:   find  $t_{on}^{min}$  by testing Eqn. 24 with step  $\xi$
- 7:   compute  $t_{act}^{min}$  and  $t_{slp}$  by Eqn. 10
- 8:    $T^*(t_{act}^{min}, t_{slp}) = \lambda(t_{act}^{min}, t_{slp})T_a + [1 - \lambda(t_{act}^{min}, t_{slp})]T_s^*$
- 9:   **if**  $T^*(t_{act}^{min}, t_{slp}) < T_{min}^*$  **then**
- 10:      $t_{on}^{opt} \leftarrow t_{on}^{min}$ ,  $t_{off}^{opt} \leftarrow t_{off}$
- 11:      $T_{min}^* \leftarrow T^*(t_{act}^{min}, t_{slp})$
- 12:   **end if**
- 13: **end for**

Algorithm 1 outlines the pseudo-code of algorithm PMPT. It takes as input the thermal model **TM**, the input event model **EM**( $N$ ), the time overheads of mode-switching and the accuracy coefficients  $\epsilon$  and  $\xi$ . The service bound is obtained based on the input and scheduling policy (line 1) and then the upper bound of  $t_{off}$  is generated (line 2). Then the optimal solution and minimal  $T^*$  are initialized in line 3. Lines 4-13 iteratively discover the  $t_{on}^{prc}$  and calculate the peak temperature  $T^*$  for all  $t_{offs}$  in the feasible region with a step  $\epsilon$ . The  $t_{inv}$  is computed by Eqn. 11 to derive the lower service curve (line 5). Then  $t_{on}^{prc}$  is found by examining every candidate of  $t_{on}$  from the lower bound,  $t_{swon}$ , with a step  $\xi$  (line 6). Afterwards,  $t_{on}^{prc}$  and  $t_{off}^{prc}$  are revised based on Eqn. 10 to derive the peak

temperature (line 7). The peak temperature is calculated based on Thm. 1 (line 8) and then compared to  $T_{min}^*$ . If the newly derived one is lower, the corresponding  $\langle t_{on}, t_{off} \rangle$  and  $T^*$  are assigned to the optimal solution and  $T_{min}^*$ , respectively (lines 9-12).

**Algorithm AMPT** In this algorithm, the minimal  $t_{on}$  is obtained directly from the approximation in Eqn. 28 with less computation. Then according to Thm. 1, the peak temperature can be formulated as a function of  $t_{off}$ :

$$T^* = PT(t_{off}) \quad (29)$$

$$= T_s^\infty + \frac{1 - a \cdot e^{\frac{-m_{at}swon}{1-\eta}} \cdot e^{\frac{-m_a\eta}{1-\eta}t_{off}}}{1 - b \cdot e^{\frac{-m_{at}swon}{1-\eta}} \cdot e^{(m_s - \frac{m_a\eta}{1-\eta})t_{off}}} (T_a^\infty - T_s^\infty)$$

where  $a = e^{-m_{at}swon}$ ,  $b = e^{(m_s - m_a)t_{swon}}$  and  $\eta = \eta(t_{off} + t_{swon})$ . Based on a set of systemic experiments (the details are included in appendix), we conjecture that  $PT(t_{off})$  is a unimodal function which has only one minimum in the feasible region of  $t_{off}$ . Therefore the gold section search can be utilized to find the optimal  $t_{off}$  instead of searching all  $t_{offs}$  exhaustively. The pseudo-code is detailed in Algorithm 2.

#### Algorithm 2 AMPT

**Input:**  $\mathbf{TM}, \mathbf{EM}(N), t_{swon}, t_{swoff}, \varepsilon$

**Output:**  $t_{on}^{opt}, t_{off}^{opt}$

- 1: calculate  $\beta_B(\Delta)$  based on  $\mathbf{EM}(N)$  and the scheduling policy
- 2: get  $t_{off}^{max}$  from Eqn. 22
- 3:  $t_{off}^b = t_{swoff}, t_{off}^e = t_{off}^{max}$
- 4:  $t_{off}^a \leftarrow f_1(t_{off}^s, t_{off}^e), t_{off}^b \leftarrow f_2(t_{off}^s, t_{off}^e)$   $\triangleright$  Two tested points selected by gold section
- 5:  $T_1^* \leftarrow PT(t_{off}^a), T_2^* \leftarrow PT(t_{off}^b)$
- 6: **while**  $t_{off}^e - t_{off}^a > \varepsilon$  **do**
- 7:   **if**  $T_1^* > T_2^*$  **then**
- 8:      $t_{off}^b \leftarrow t_{off}^s, t_{off}^s \leftarrow t_{off}^a, t_{off}^a \leftarrow t_{off}^b$
- 9:      $t_{off}^b \leftarrow f_2(t_{off}^s, t_{off}^e), T_1^* \leftarrow T_2^*, T_2^* \leftarrow PT(t_{off}^b)$
- 10:   **else**
- 11:      $t_{off}^s \leftarrow t_{off}^a, t_{off}^e \leftarrow t_{off}^b, t_{off}^b \leftarrow t_{off}^a$
- 12:      $t_{off}^s \leftarrow f_1(t_{off}^s, t_{off}^e), T_2^* \leftarrow T_1^*, T_1^* \leftarrow PT(t_{off}^s)$
- 13:   **end if**
- 14: **end while**

Algorithm 2 has the same input as Algorithm 1 except the accuracy coefficients  $\xi$ . The service bound and the upper bound of  $t_{off}$  are first derived (lines 1-2). Then the two endpoints of golden section selection are initialized as the lower and upper bounds of the feasible region of  $t_{off}$  (line 3). Lines 4-5 calculate the two tested points and their corresponding peak temperature with  $PT(t_{off})$ . Lines 6-14 purely do the golden section selection to discover the optimal  $t_{off}$  such that  $PT(t_{off})$  reaches its minimum. Since golden section selection is a well known algorithm, the details are not addressed herein.

## VI. CASE STUDIES

In this section, we study the viability and efficiency of our algorithms and compare them with two approaches in [2], [11]. The simulations are implemented in Matlab (32 bit) using

TABLE I. THERMAL AND HARDWARE MODEL PARAMETERS

$G$	$C$	$\Phi_i = \Phi_a$	$\theta_i$	$\theta_a$	$T_{amb}$	$t_{swon} = t_{swoff}$
$0.3 \frac{W}{K}$	$0.03 \frac{J}{K}$	$0.1 \frac{W}{K}$	$-25 W$	$-11 W$	$300 K$	$0.1 ms$

TABLE II. EVENT STREAM SETTING

	$S_1$	$S_2$	$S_3$	$S_4$	$S_5$	$S_6$	$S_7$	$S_8$	$S_9$	$S_{10}$
p (msec)	198	102	283	354	239	194	148	114	313	119
j (msec)	387	70	269	387	222	260	91	13	302	187
d (msec)	48	45	58	17	65	32	78	-	86	89
c (msec)	12	7	7	11	8	5	13	14	5	6

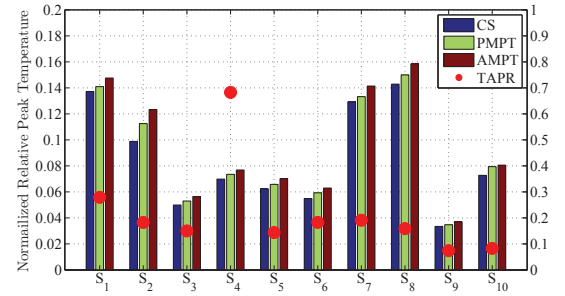


Fig. 6. Normalized Relative Peak Temperature produced by the tested approaches for single event stream scenarios with  $\chi = 1$ . The right Y axis indicates the NRPT of approach TAPR.

RTC-toolbox. All the results are obtained from a simulation platform with an Intel i7 4770 processor and 16 GB memory.

### A. System Description

The thermal and power parameters are set as described in Tab. I [11], [19]. The task streams set studied in [18], [22] is used for our case studies and the parameters are summarized in Tab. II. Earliest deadline first (EDF) is adopted as the scheduling policy for multi-event scenarios. The  $(p, j, d, c)$  event model is adopted to specified an input stream  $S_i$  by its period  $p$ , jitter  $j$ , minimal inter-arrival distance  $d$  of the stream and the worst-case execution time  $c$ . Note that other common timing models of event streams can also be employed in our case studies with the concept of arrival curve. We choose the  $(p, j, d, c)$  model because it is a commonly used model and the arrival curve can be easily generated by an existing formula. The relative deadline  $D_i$  is defined as  $D_i = \chi * p_i$  and varies according to the deadline factor  $\chi$ .

The online approach cool shaper (CS) studied in [11], which relies on not only the upper arrival curve but also the actual arrivals of the coming events to dynamically shut down the processor, and the approach TAPR (thermal-aware periodic resources) studied in [2] are adopted for the comparison. The input event model used in TAPR is sporadic task  $(c, D, P)$ , which is characterized by a worst-case execution time  $c$ , a (relative) deadline  $D$  and a minimum inter-arrival separation  $P$ . This model does not contain all the information of our  $(p, j, d, c)$  event model. Therefore, we revised  $P$  in a sporadic task as  $\max[(p - j), d]$  to satisfy the worst-case deadline constraints. With these setups, Our algorithms are compared for both single and multi-event scenarios.

### B. Simulation Results

First, we compare the minimal peak temperature derived by the four approaches. It is worth noting that the differ-



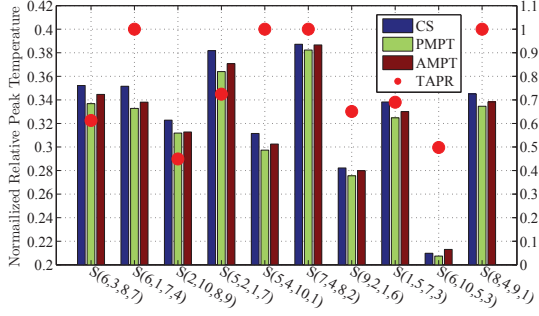


Fig. 7. Normalized Relative Peak Temperature produced by the tested approaches for ten sets of randomly selected four-events stream scenarios with  $\chi = 1$  by applying EDF scheduling. The right Y axis indicates the NRPT of approach TAPR.

ences between the numerical values of those minimal peak temperature are hard to distinguish compared to their much larger absolute values. Thus the Normalized Relative Peak Temperature (*NRPT*), which is defined in the following, is employed as the index to evaluate the approaches:

$$NRPT_A = \frac{T_A^* - T_s^\infty}{T_a^\infty - T_s^\infty} \quad (30)$$

where  $NRPT_A$  and  $T_A^*$  is the Normalized Relative Peak Temperature and the minimal peak temperature produced by approach ‘A’, respectively. From its definition, a smaller *NRPT* indicates that the approach can better minimize the peak temperature.

Fig. 6 describes the *NRPT* for all the single event streams. Figures 7-8 reveal the results for four-events and five-events scenarios, respectively. Fig. 9 shows the derived minimal peak temperature w.r.t. different relative deadlines for the four approaches while taking all streams as input. Since the results of TAPR are much higher than those of the other three approaches, we display the results of TAPR with another Y axis in these four figures. Note that in multi-event scenarios, the arrival curves in CS must be approximated for EDF scheduling. Otherwise, the arrive curves will be too complicated and cause memory overflow for the JVM in Matlab [23].

From Figures 6-9, we state below observations. (1) In all these cases, approach PMPT generates better or no worse results than approach AMPT, this is expected because PMPT brutally searches all the possible solutions to get the precise  $t_{on}$  while AMPT relies on the approximate  $t_{on}$  to minimize the peak temperature. (2) For algorithms PMPT and AMPT, the minimized peak temperatures in four-events and five-event scenarios are much higher (*NRPT*s stay inside [0.2, 0.45]) compared to single event scenarios (*NRPT*s stay inside [0.04, 0.16]). This is caused by the fact that the processor has to handle more workload in multi-event scenarios and thence generates more heat. (3) As shown in Fig. 9, the peak temperature decreases as the relative deadline increases, since the processor can stay at sleep mode longer for each mode switch. The peak temperature however will not further decrease after certain threshold is reached. (4) The minimal peak temperature in CS is generally the lowest in single event stream scenarios as CS works online and can dynamically turn off the processor according to actual workload. It’s worth noting that since the heat generated by online calculating

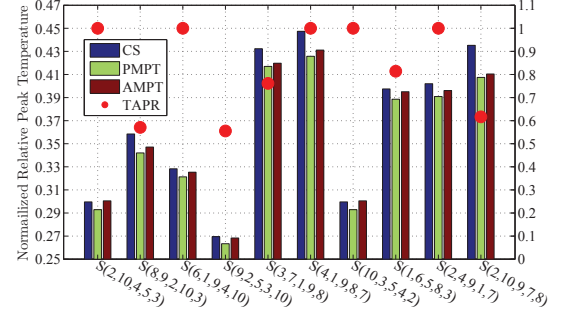


Fig. 8. Normalized Relative Peak Temperature produced by the tested approaches for ten sets of randomly selected five-events stream scenarios with  $\chi = 1$  by applying EDF scheduling. The right Y axis indicates the NRPT of approach TAPR.

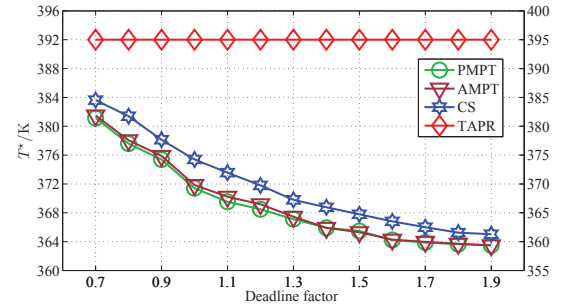


Fig. 9. Peak Temperature generated by the tested approaches w.r.t. different relative deadlines for ten-events stream scenario with EDF scheduling.

and monitoring of CS is not considered in our simulation, the peak temperature in CS will be higher when it comes to practical application. Moreover, CS approach also has to pay high penalty of the offline computation time while PMPT and AMPT approaches can achieve similar effect with much lower computation expense, which we will show later. In multi streams scenarios, however, CS yields higher peak temperature than PMPT and AMPT, which is resulted from the approximation of input arrival curves. We have made better approximations to improve the results but with trivial feedback. (5) By and large, the peak temperature derived by TAPR is the highest. The reason is the limitation of its event model where the non-determinism of  $pjd$  pattern cannot be properly modeled and the modified  $P = \max[(p - j), d]$  overestimates the incoming workload. As shown in Fig. 6, there exists an extraordinary point, which is the *NRPT* of task  $S_4$ . The reason is that  $S_4$  has the largest jitter  $r$  and the second smallest minimal inter-arrival distance  $d$ , which exacerbates the effect of the event model unsuitableness. Consequently, we can see that the peak temperature generated by TAPR reaches the upper bound in the multi-event cases as long as  $S_4$  is involved in input streams.

We also report the timing overhead of deriving a PTM scheme. Since our PTM approaches are offline computed and need negligible runtime overhead, only the offline computing part of CS is taken into account. We adopt the computation time for finding the optimal  $W_{unit}$ , which is the critical parameter for CS, as the computational overhead of CS. Fig. 10 shows the computation expense of the four approaches for ten sets of randomly selected four-event streams and Fig. 11 demonstrates how the computation expense in ten-event stream scenario varies as the relative deadline factor changes. We make below observations: (1) The computation overhead of



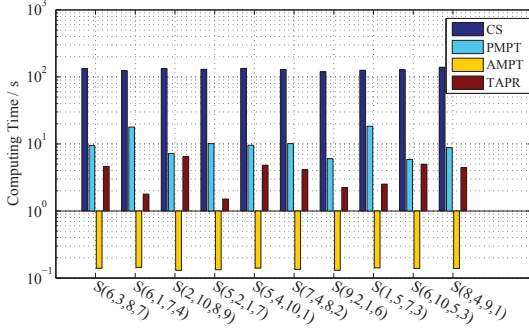


Fig. 10. Computing time of the tested approaches for randomly selected four-events stream scenarios with  $\chi = 1$  by applying EDF scheduling.

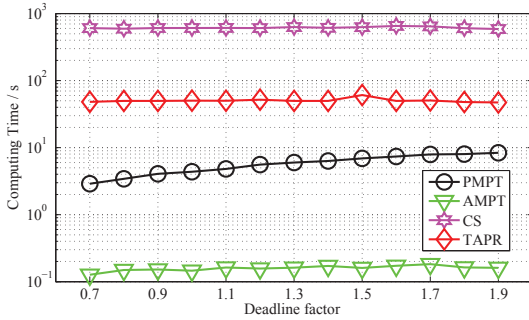


Fig. 11. Computing time of the tested approaches w.r.t. different relative deadlines for ten-events stream scenario with EDF scheduling.

cool shaper is the highest, which is about one up to four orders of magnitude larger than that of our PTM approaches. (2) In the second figure, the computation overhead of PMPT increases w.r.t. the relative deadline. The reason is that the number of the tested points of  $t_{off}$  and  $t_{on}$  increases as the relative deadline increases when  $\epsilon$  and  $\xi$  are fixed. (3) The time consumptions of AMPT are always the lowest and stable, which are within half a second. (4) Compared to PMPT, the timing overhead of AMPT is about one or two orders of magnitude lower. In conclusion, our PTM algorithms are much faster in terms of computation overhead but generate peak temperatures close to or even better than the ones of CS online approach.

## VII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, we present new approaches to minimize the peak temperature for hard real-time systems in which the input event streams are characterized by arrival curves. With the worst case deadline constraints, we propose one approach that can provide precise solutions and one approach to yield approximated solutions with lower computation expense. To verify the effectiveness and efficiency, we present several implementations of our approaches with single event and multi-event streams. Experimental results show that our algorithms can derive periodic thermal management schemes with negligible runtime overhead while the peak temperature can be constrained to similar or even better level of online approach in the literature.

As topics of future work, the periodic thermal management can be further extended to hyper-period, which combines two or more patterns of PTM in one hyper-period. Moreover, we plan to implement our PTM in multi-core platforms and further demonstrate the benefits of using PTM approaches.

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## VIII. APPENDIX

We conducted various experiments to explore how the  $T^*$  in function 29 changes w.r.t the  $t_{off}$  in its feasible region. Since  $\eta(t_{off} + t_{swon})$  is effected by the service bound, we first conducted a set of experiments to discover how different service bounds influence the function  $PT(t_{off})$ . In these experiments, thermal coefficients  $m_a$  and  $m_s$  are assumed to be the same because the difference between them is not the factor we mainly concerned. We conducted another set of experiments to reveal how this difference affects the results. The time overheads of switching the system on and off are assumed to be same in all experiments.

TABLE III. THE RANGE OF INPUT EVENT STREAMS AND SYSTEM MODEL COEFFICIENTS IN THE FIRST SET OF EXPERIMENTS

	p (msec)	j/p	d/p	c/p	$\chi$	$t_{swon} = t_{swoff}$ (msec)	$m_a = m_s$
from	20	0.1	0.1	0.05	1	0.1	1
to	1000	1.3	0.1	0.7	2	4.1	20
step	20	0.3	-	0.05	0.2	0.5	1

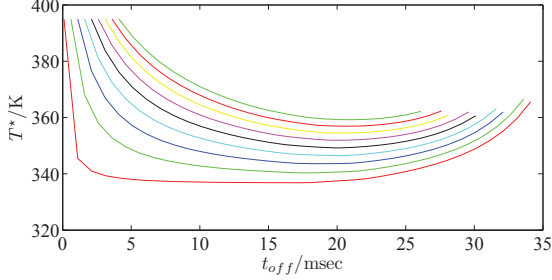


Fig. 12. Peak temperature of the processor for different transition overheads with event stream period  $p = 20ms$ ,  $c = 3ms$ ,  $j = 2ms$ ,  $\chi = 2$  and  $g_a = g_s = 6.77$ .

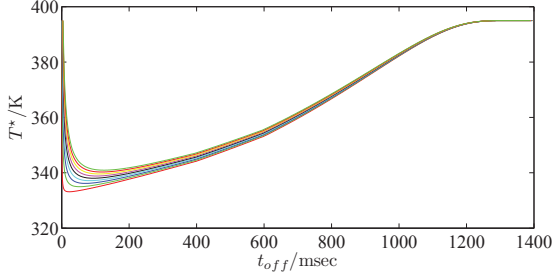


Fig. 13. Peak temperature of the processor for different transition overheads with event stream period  $p = 1000ms$ ,  $c = 100ms$ ,  $j = 100ms$ ,  $\chi = 1.5$  and  $g_a = g_s = 6.77$ .

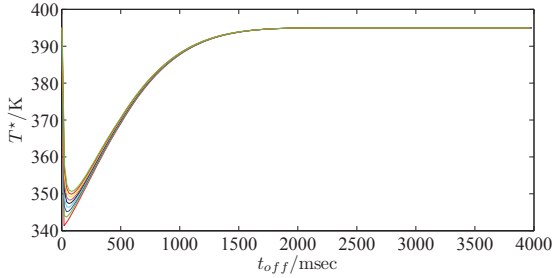


Fig. 14. Peak temperature of the processor for different transition overheads with event stream period  $p = 5000ms$ ,  $c = 1000ms$ ,  $j = 500ms$ ,  $\chi = 1$  and  $g_a = g_s = 6.77$ .

For the first set of experiments, the system model and input streams parameters are depicted in Tab. III. Based on the setup, 3780000 scenarios have been tested in our experiments. In every scenario, the function  $PT(t_{off})$  is sampled with a step  $\epsilon = 1ms$  in the feasible region of  $t_{off}$ . Then the sampled points are used to determine if the function  $PT(t_{off})$  in current scenario is unimodal. The results demonstrate that  $PT(t_{off})$  only has one minimum in the feasible region of  $t_{off}$ . Due to space limit, we only offer part of the results in the following figures. In the first three figures, there are nine curves in every figure. Each of them represents the peak temperature varies as  $t_{off}$  changes with an individual mode-switching overhead in  $\{0.1, 0.6, 1.1, \dots, 3.6, 4.1\}$ (msec).

Based on Tab. IV, we set up the second set of experiments to discover if  $PT(t_{off})$  is still unimodal when  $m_s$  doesn't

TABLE IV. THE RANGE OF INPUT EVENT STREAMS AND SYSTEM MODEL COEFFICIENTS IN THE SECOND SET OF EXPERIMENTS

	p (msec)	d/p	c/p	$\chi$	$t_{swon} = t_{swoff}$	$m_a$	$m_s/m_a$
from	20	0.1	0.05	1	0.1	1	0.5
to	1000	0.1	0.7	2	4.1	20	1.5
step	20	-	0.05	0.2	0.5	1	0.1

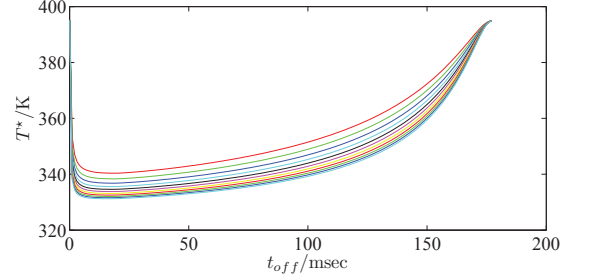


Fig. 15. Peak temperature of the processor for different thermal coefficients with event stream period  $p = 200ms$ ,  $c = 20ms$ ,  $\chi = 1$ ,  $t_{swon} = t_{swoff} = 0.6$  and  $m_a = 5$ .

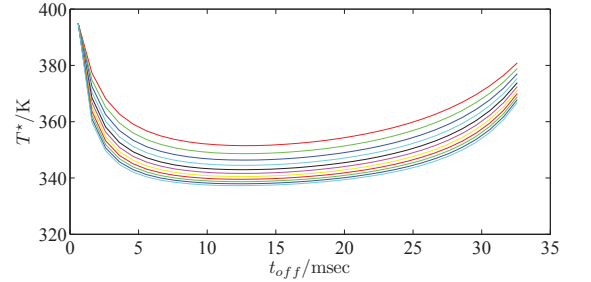


Fig. 16. Peak temperature of the processor for different thermal coefficients with event stream period  $p = 40ms$ ,  $c = 4ms$ ,  $\chi = 1$ ,  $t_{swon} = t_{swoff} = 0.6$  and  $m_a = 8$ .

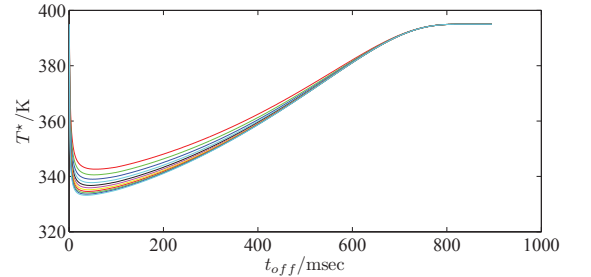


Fig. 17. Peak temperature of the processor for different thermal coefficients with event stream period  $p = 100ms$ ,  $c = 100ms$ ,  $\chi = 1$ ,  $t_{swon} = t_{swoff} = 0.6$  and  $m_a = 8$ .

always equal  $m_a$ . The jitter factor  $j/p$  is fixed as 0.1 in the experiments. Part of the results are presented in the following three figures. In every figure, there are eleven curves and every curve demonstrates the relationship between peak temperature and  $t_{off}$  for an particular  $m_s/m_a$  ranging from 0.5 to 1.5 with a step of 0.1. Each of them represents the peak temperature varies as  $t_{off}$  changes with an individual mode-switching overhead, ranging from 0.1 to 4.1 with a step of 0.1.

As shown in the figures, the peak temperature first decreases and then increases as  $t_{off}$  grows, which is an unimodal function based on the definition. The remaining results of our experiments have the same conclusion. Therefore, we conjecture that  $PT(t_{off})$  is an unimodal function.