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inputs, and also receiving output calls from it.

Where Do Events Come From?

Reactive and Energy-Efficient Programming From The Ground Up

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Abstract

In reactive and event-based systems, execution is guided by an external environment that generates inputs to the application and consumes outputs from it. Reactive languages provide dedicated syntax and semantics to deal with events and greatly simplify the programming experience in this domain. Nevertheless, the environment is typically prefabricated in a host language and the very central concept of events is implemented externally to the reactive language. In this work, we propose an interrupt handler primitive for a reactive language targeting embedded systems in order to take control of the whole event loop, from inputs to outputs. We propose the new asynchronous primitive in the context of the synchronous language Céu and discuss how they synergize to avoid race conditions at compile time, support lexically-scoped drivers, and provide automatic standby for applications.

Keywords interrupt service routines, reactive programming, standby, synchronous/asynchronous execution

Introduction

Reactive applications interact continuously and in real time with the external world through hardware peripherals such as sensors and actuators (e.g., buttons, displays, timers, etc.). These interactions are typically represented in software as input events flowing from the peripherals to the application and as output events flowing from the application to the peripherals. Peripherals can be abstracted in a single component, the environment, which connects with the application through an event loop: the application sits idle until the environment awakes it on an input; the application reacts and generates back outputs which affect the environment; the application becomes idle and the loop restarts.

Reactive languages provide dedicated syntax and se-

mantics to deal with events and simplify the development

of applications in this domain. However, the environment

is still typically implemented in a host language (e.g., C)

and controls the main event loop, invoking entry points

into the reactive language runtime on the occurrence of

The event-based interface between the reactive language and the environment is arguably inevitable, but reveals the environment as a rigid system component

that evolves in separate from the application. It also requires two languages and the programmer has to deal with multiple syntaxes, incompatible type systems, and different address spaces. Furthermore, in the context of embedded systems, a proper host OS may even be absent, which requires more low-level intervention from the application.

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In this work, we propose interrupt service routines (ISRs) as an asynchronous primitive for the synchronous reactive language Céu [7]. ISRs empower reactive applications with their own device drivers which selfgenerate inputs, bypassing the need for a host environment. Céu targets OS-less embedded architectures, such as Arduino-compatible microcontrollers. Applications in Céu can share data buffers with drivers, to avoid unnecessary copying, with some static guarantee that no data races will occur. CÉU also provides a lexical finalization mechanism to properly disable interrupts and turn off peripherals completely. Finally, the synchronous semantics of Céu enforces that applications react to inputs in bounded time and remain in idle states susceptible to standby. With the help of drivers and a power manager, the microcontroller sleeps automatically at optimal sleeping modes after each input reaction. We implemented drivers for a variety of peripherals, such as GPIO, A/D converter, USART, and nRF24L01 transceiver.

Our work is largely inspired by TinyOS [4], a lowpower OS for sensor networks, which also provides asynchronous events with data race detection [3], and automatic energy management [5]. We adapted these ideas to the structured reactive model of Céu, and refined them with stronger guarantees due to its support for lexically scoped lines of execution with automatic finalization.

Céu: Structured Synchronous Reactive Programming

Céu [7] is a Esterel-based [2] reactive programming language targeting resource-constrained embedded systems, with the characteristics that follow:

Reactive: code only executes in reactions to events and is idle most of the time.

Structured: programs use lexically-scoped structured control mechanisms such as spawn and await (to create and suspend lines of execution).

Synchronous: reactions run atomically and to completion on each line of execution, i.e., there's no implicit preemption or real parallelism.

Structured reactive programming lets developers write code in direct style, recovering from the inversion of control imposed by event-driven execution [6].

```
114
115
      1 output high/low LED;
116
      2 input high/low BUTTON;
      3 input Packet
                        RADIO_RECV;
117
      4 par/or do
118
             var high/low v = await BUTTON until (v==low);
119
      6 with
120
             finalize with
      7
121
                 emit LED(low);
122
            end
      9
123
             loop do
      10
124
                 emit LED(high);
125
                 await RADIO_RECV;
      12
126
                 emit LED(low);
      13
127
                 await RADIO_RECV;
      14
            end
128
     15
      16 end
129
```

Listing 1. A CÉU program that toggles the state of the LED whenever a radio packet is received, terminating on a button press, always with the LED off.

Listing 1 illustrates the main characteristics of Céu, namely event-driven I/O, lexically-scoped compositions, and synchronous execution. The program toggles the state of the LED whenever a radio packet is received, terminating on a button press, always with the LED off. The program first declares the LED output, and the BUTTON and RADIO_RECV input events (ln 1-3). The declarations include a payload type, i.e., each event occurrence carries a value of that type (high/low is a boolean type). Then, the program uses a par/or composition (ln 4-16) to run two lines of execution, aka trails, in parallel: a singlestatement trail that waits for a button press before terminating (ln 5), and an endless loop that toggles the LED on and off whenever a radio packet is received (ln 10-15). The finalize clause (ln 7-9) ensures that, no matter how its enclosing trail terminates (e.g., from a button press), the LED will be unconditionally turned off $(\ln 8)$.

All communication between the application and the environment is done through the await and emit primitives, which awaits an input event and generates an output event, respectively.

The par/or, which stands for parallel-or, is a lexical composition that terminates as soon as one of the trails terminates, but which also automatically aborts and finalizes the other trail(s). In the example, when the button is pressed (ln 5), not only the toggling loop will be aborted (ln 10–15), but the finalize clause will turn the LED off unconditionally (ln 8), since its enclosing

```
1 output high/low PIN_13; // connected to an LED
2 input high/low PIN_02; // connected to a button
3 #include "gpio.ceu" // GPIO driver
4
5 emit PIN_13(low);
6 loop do
7  var high/low v = await PIN_02;
8  emit PIN_13(v);
9 end
```

Listing 2. Synchronous application that turns the LED on whenever the button is pressed and off whenever it is unpressed.

block goes out of scope. The par/or is regarded as an orthogonal preemption primitive [1] because the trails need not to be tweaked in order to affect each other.

The synchronous execution model of CÉU dictates that reactions to input events are atomic and that incoming events are never lost. The environment can only generate a new input after the application yields control and closes the event loop. In Listing 1, even if two packets arrive simultaneously in the environment, the synchronous model ensures atomicity and responsiveness in the application: the first await awakes and turns the LED off atomically (ln 12–13); and the second await will awake in sequence (ln 14).

2.1 Lexically-Scoped Interrupt Service Routines

Interrupts service routines (ISRs) are software entry points that execute in response to hardware interrupts from peripherals such as timers and GPIOs. ISRs are at the lowest interface layer between the hardware and software and are the absolute source of inputs to programs. An ISR starts to execute as soon as the hardware interrupt occurs, suspending the ongoing program flow abruptly. Such asynchronous behavior reflects the inherent concurrent nature of peripherals interacting with the external world.

We propose to extend Céu with asynchronous ISRs. However, asynchronous execution confronts the synchronous mindset of Céu since the assumption that reactions are atomic no longer holds. Not only this may lead to race conditions at a fine grain, but may also affect the ordering of events at a coarse grain: the effect of an earlier event may be perceived after the effect of a later event. Still, our goal is to preserve the well-behaved interaction between the Céu application and the environment even in the presence of asynchronous ISRs. Our idea is to push all subtleties of asynchronous execution into device drivers, which emit input events to regular synchronous code in Céu, exactly as before.

```
1 // OUTPUT DRIVER
221
222
      3 { pinMode(13, OUTPUT); }
223
      4 output (high/low v) PIN_13 do
224
             { digitalWrite(13, @v); }
225
      6 end
226
227
      8 // INPUT DRIVER
228
229
     10 input high/low PIN_02;
230
     11 {
231
             pinMode(2, INPUT_PULLUP);
     12
             EICRA |= (1 << ISCOO); // sets INTO
232
     13
             EIMSK \mid = (1 << INTO);
                                       // turns on INTO
     14
233
     15 }
234
     16 spawn async/isr [INTO_vect] do
235
             emit PIN_02({digitalRead(2)});
     17
236
     18 end
237
```

Listing 3. Asynchronous driver for GPIO which, on hardware interrupts, emits an input event into a queue.

As a first example, Listing 2 and 3 uses GPIOs to connect a button (pin 02) to an LED (pin 13) via software such that the LED is on whenever the button is pressed and off whenever it is unpressed.

Listing 2, the synchronous side, first declares its interface with the external world and includes the asynchronous side as a driver (ln 1–3). It then starts with the LED off (ln 5) and enters a loop (ln 6–9) that, whenever the button changes (ln 7), toggles the state of the LED with the new value (ln 8).

Listing 3, the asynchronous side, implements the driver for the output and input events. An output implementation (ln 4–6) is similar to a parameterized subroutine: whenever the application invokes emit, the output body executes atomically. Céu supports inline C between curly braces (ln 3,5) with interpolation to evaluate Céu expressions (e.g., @v). This allows drivers to take advantage of existing libraries of embedded toolchains, such as Arduino. In the example, when the driver is included, it configures pin 13 as output (ln 3) and sets its new state whenever PIN_13 is emitted (ln 5). An input event implementation uses an ISR registered with the spawn async/isr primitive (ln 16-18), which is automatically invoked whenever the associated interrupt occurs (e.g., INTO_vect). An ISR in Céu will typically emit an input event inside its body to awake the synchronous side (ln 17). However, although the ISR executes asynchronously when the interrupt occurs, the emit goes into a queue (to be discussed) and does not interrupt the ongoing (suspended) reaction on the synchronous side. In the example, the input driver also configures pin 2 to behave as input and to generate external interrupts on level transitions (ln 11–15).

```
1 // A/D DRIVER (adc.ceu)
2
3
     output int ADC_REQUEST;
     input int ADC_DONE;
4
5
     do finalize with
6
7
         ADCSRA &= B01111111;
                                  // disables A/D converter
                  = B10000000; // disables comparator
         DIDRO
                 |= B00111111;
                                  // disables pins
10
       }
11
     end
12
              // driver initialization
13
14
              // input / output implementations
15
16
    // APPLICATION (main.ceu)
17
18
    loop do
      var int v;
19
       dο
20
         #include "adc.ceu" // driver contents above
21
         emit ADC_REQUEST(A0);
22
         v = await ADC_DONE;
23
       end
24
                               // uses sensor value "v"
25
       . . .
       await 1h;
26
27
     end
```

Listing 4. The A/D driver (ln 1–14) is included in the application inside a lexically-scoped block (ln 20–24), which turns off all driver functionalities automatically on termination.

The example illustrates the clear separation between the application and the driver through an event-driven interface. Now, the whole application is written in CÉU: the synchronous side remains well behaved with no low-level calls, and the asynchronous side deals with the complexity of device drivers. Nevertheless, drivers are typically write-once components developed by embedded specialists, which are reused in most applications. Note that each supported architecture requires a mapping between the async/isr and the actual interrupt vector table (which we provide for the AVR/ATmega and ARM/Cortex microcontrollers).

The example in Listing 4 illustrates the use of a lexically-scoped driver for the A/D converter. Note that the driver (ln 1–14) and application (ln 16–27) are actually in separate files. The application is a typical periodic sensor sampling loop, but which designates an explicit do-end block (ln 20–24) to include the driver (ln 21) and use it (ln 22–23). The driver specifies a finalization code (ln 6–12) which executes unconditionally whenever its enclosing block goes out of scope (ln 24). The finalize completely disables all A/D functionality to save energy.

```
input void A;
                            input void A;
input void B;
                      2
                            // (empty line)
var int x = 1;
                      3
                            var int y = 1;
par/and do
                      4
                            par/and do
    await A;
                                await A;
                      5
    x = x + 1;
                                y = y + 1;
                      6
with
                      7
    await B;
                                await A;
    x = x * 2;
                                y = y * 2;
                      10
                            end
```

Listing 5. Shared x Listing 6. Shared y

Figure 1. Accesses to shared x never concurrent. Accesses to shared y are concurrent but still deterministic.

As discussed in the previous section, the finalizer would also execute if aborted from a par/or enclosing the driver. Note that the driver interface (ln 3–4) is visible only inside the block and thus cannot be inadvertently used outside it.

2.2 Safe Shared-Memory Concurrency

In Céu, when multiple trails awake in the same reaction, they execute in lexical order, i.e., in the order they appear in the source code. In Figure 1, both examples define a shared variable (ln 3) and assign to it in parallel trails $(\ln 6, 9)$. In Listing 5, the two assignments to x can only execute in reactions to different events A and B (ln 5,8), which cannot occur simultaneously in accordance with the synchronous model. In Listing 6, the two assignments to y are simultaneous because they execute in reaction to the same event A. Nevertheless, because Céu follows lexical order, the execution is still deterministic, and y always becomes 4 ((1+1)*2). Even so, Céu performs (optional) concurrency checks at compile time to detect conflicting accesses to shared variables: if a variable is written in a trail segment, then a concurrent trail segment cannot access that variable [7].

The addition of asynchronous ISRs poses real threats concerning race conditions since they interrupt programs at arbitrary points. Listing 7 illustrates a minimum USART application (ln 13–22) that consumes incoming bytes (ln 18–21) as they arrive (ln 16). The USART API (ln 1–4) exposes an input event to signal incoming data (ln 3) and a circular buffer to prevent data loss (ln 4). The buffer is indispensable because the microcontroller may cope with the USART speed. The driver ISR (ln 6–11) simply appends incoming bytes to the end of the buffer (ln 9) and signals the application (ln 10). As a possible race condition, note that the ISR may fire and append a new byte to the buffer (ln 9) just before the

```
1 // USART INTERFACE
3 input none USART_RX;
4 var[32*] byte rx_buf;
                                         // '*' = circular
5
6 // DRIVER
  spawn async/isr [USART_RX_vect] do
      rx_buf = rx_buf .. [{UDRO}];
       emit USART_RX;
10
11 end
12
  // APPLICATION
13
14
15 loop do
       await USART_RX;
16
       var int i;
17
       loop i in [0 -> $rx_buf[ do
                                        // '$' = length ($)
18
           // uses rx_buf[i]
19
20
      $rx_buf = 0;
21
22 end
```

Listing 7. The USART buffer is shared between the ISR and the application, resulting in a pontential race condition. (The driver and application code are in separate files.)

application clears it (ln 21), in which case the new byte will be lost forever.

CÉU treats an async/isr as a block of code that runs in parallel with the rest of the program (hence the required prefix spawn). This way, it is clear for the compiler that the accesses to rx_buf in Listing 7 may lead to a race condition (ln 9,21), and CÉU raises a compile-time error. The programmer is responsible to protect concurrent memory accesses with atomic blocks, which disables interrupts (supposedly) for a short period of time.

However, we do not expect that application programmers should be required to resolve race conditions. Céu supports reactive abstractions (similar to coroutines) that help hiding the concurrency complexity inside the driver. Listing 8 changes the USART API (ln 1–3) to expose a code abstraction that expects a reference to a buffer and a number of bytes to receive. Now, the application (ln 29–35) invokes the abstraction (ln 33) passing a local buffer (ln 32). The driver (ln 5-27) now hides the low level interface of the previous example (ln 7–8) and implements the code abstraction (ln 15–27) that protects the access to the shared buffer with an atomic block (ln 18–21). The abstraction copies the driver buffer into the application buffer (ln 19) up to the requested number of bytes (ln 22). On the one hand the extra copying incurs a memory and runtime overhead, but on the other hand it prevents race conditions with the ISR.

```
1 // USART INTERFACE
441
      2
442
      3 code Usart_RX (var&[] byte buf, var int n) -> none;
443
      4
444
      5 // DRIVER
445
446
      7 input none USART_RX;
447
       8 var[32*] byte rx_buf;
448
449
      10 spawn async/isr [USART_RX_vect] do
450
             rx_buf = rx_buf .. [{UDRO}];
     11
451
             emit USART_RX;
      12
452
     13 end
      14
453
      15 code Usart_RX (var&[] byte buf, var int n) -> none
454
     16 do
455
     17
             loop do
456
                 atomic do
      18
457
                      buf = buf..rx_buf;
      19
458
                      $rx_buf = 0;
      20
459
      21
                  end
460
                  if $buf >= n then
      22
461
                      break:
462
     24
                  end
                  await USART_RX;
463
     25
             end
464
     26
     27 end
465
     28
466
     29 // APPLICATION
467
     30
468
     31 loop do
469
             var[255] byte buf;
     32
470
             await Usart_RX(&buf, 10);
     33
471
             // uses buf
     34
472
      35 end
```

Listing 8. The USART driver now exposes a safer (and more friendly) interface to the application. (The driver and application code are in separate files.)

Support for ISRs in the same language and memory space of the application allows programmers to choose between efficiency and safety during development by providing multiple interfaces with different levels of abstraction.

2.3 Energy-Efficient Runtime

Our runtime alternates between synchronous, well-behaved execution, and asynchronous, unpredictable ISRs. Since the language now has full control over the event loop and only executes from interrupts, it is possible for the runtime to enter in sleep mode automatically to save energy.

Listing 9 is a realization of this architecture: The runtime defines an input queue (ln 1) in which ISRs enqueue new events (e.g., Listing 8, ln 12). In the main

```
1 evt_t queue[MAX];
                                 // input queue
2 void main () {
    ceu_start();
                                  // "boot reaction"
    while (1) {
4
       evt_t evt;
5
      if (ceu_input(&evt)) {
                                 // query input queue
6
         ceu_sync(&evt);
                                 // execute synchronous
       } else {
         ceu_pm_sleep();
                                 // nothing to execute
10
    }
11
12 }
```

Listing 9. Overall runtime architecture of Céu with an input queue (ln 1), event loop (ln 4–11), synchronous execution (ln 7), and standby mode (ln 9).

function, we first generate the boot reaction (ln 3), which starts the program, spawns the ISRs, and reaches the first await statements in the multiple lines of code. Then, the runtime enters an infinite loop (ln 4–11) that queries the input queue (ln 6) to awake the program (ln 7). Note that ISRs execute asynchronously with the loop, but they typically only emit an input event into the queue which will be queried in a subsequent iteration. Note also that if the queue is empty, the runtime enters in sleep mode to save energy (ln 9), and will only awake on a new hardware interrupt.

Microcontrollers typically support multiple levels of sleep mode, each progressively saves more energy at the expense of keeping less functionality active. As an example, the least efficient mode of the *ATmega328P* allows for timer interrupts since it keeps its internal clock active, while the most efficient mode turns off all peripherals and can only awake from external interrupts.

Our runtime supports three compile-time configurations for ceu_pm_sleep (ln 9): The first configuration is a nop which simply keeps the event loop running all the time without ever sleeping. This configuration is useful when introducing new platforms. The second configuration chooses a (inefficient) sleep mode that keeps all peripherals active. Although this configuration is not the most energy efficient, at least, it requires no extra assistance from the drivers. The third configuration keeps a bit vector of the active drivers during runtime and chooses the most efficient mode, querying this vector every time ceu_pm_sleep is called.

The third configuration achieves optimal efficiency but requires a tight interaction between the drivers and the power management runtime. Listing 10 unveils the power manager (ln 1–18), the modified USART driver (ln 20–29), and an illustrative application (ln 31–43). The application is a loop that awaits in parallel for a button press (ln 36) or receiving 10 bytes (ln 39). Let's call this

```
1 // POWER MANAGER (in C)
551
      2
552
      3 enum {
553
             CEU_PM_ADC,
      4
554
             CEU_PM_TIMER1,
555
             CEU_PM_USART,
556
557
      8 };
558
559
     10 void ceu_pm_sleep (void) {
560
             if (ceu_pm_get(CEU_PM_USART) || ...) {
     11
561
                 sleep_mode_1(...);
     12
             } else if (ceu_pm_get(CEU_PM_ADC)) {
562
     13
                 sleep_mode_2(...);
563
     14
             } else {
     15
564
     16
                 sleep_mode_3(...);
565
     17
566
     18 }
567
     19
568
     20 // USART DRIVER (in Ceu)
569
     21
570
     22 code Usart_RX (var&[] byte buf, var int n) -> none
571
     23 do
572
             {ceu_pm_set(CEU_PM_USART, 1);}
     24
             do finalize with
573
     25
                 {ceu_pm_set(CEU_PM_USART, 0);}
     26
574
     ^{27}
             end
575
                    // same as in Listing 7
     28
576
     29 end
577
     30
578
     31 // APPLICATION (in Ceu)
579
     32
580
     33 input high/low PIN_02;
                                        // connected to a button
581
     34 loop do
582
             par/or do
     35
583
                 await PIN_02;
     36
     37
584
                 var[255] byte buf;
     38
585
                 await Usart_RX(&buf, 10);
     39
586
     40
                  // uses buf
587
             end
     41
588
     42
             await PIN_02;
589
     43 end
590
```

Listing 10. Interaction between the power manager, USART driver, and application (each code is actually in a separate file).

initial state STATE-A. The par/or terminates when either of them occurs, going to the next line that awaits another button click (ln 42). Let's call this other state STATE-B. After the button click, the program loops back to STATE-A. While in STATE-A, the program can awake from USART and external interrupts, which means that the power manager should choose a sleep mode in which the USART remains operational. While in STATE-B, only external interrupts should awake the program, which means that

the power manager may use the most efficient sleep mode. The power manager enumerates all microcontroller's peripherals (ln 3–8) and, before sleeping, queries their states (ln 11,13) to choose the most appropriate sleep mode (ln 12,14,16). The USART driver needs to be extended with calls to enable and disable the USART state inside the power manager: just before awaiting, the driver enables the USART (ln 24) and creates a finalization block to unregister it on termination (ln 25–27). Termination may occur either directly after receiving the requested number of bytes, or indirectly if the par/or in the application terminates on a button click (ln 36).

Note that applications need not to be explicit about energy management to take advantage of sleep modes. All happens automatically because of the synchronous-reactive execution model and energy-aware runtime of CÉU.

3 Conclusion

We extend the synchronous language Céu with asynchronous interrupt service routines (ISRs) to take control of the whole event loop in reactive systems, from inputs to outputs. ISRs empower reactive applications to also implement their own device drivers and self-generate inputs, bypassing the need for a host environment. However, asynchronous execution confronts the well-behaved semantics of synchronous languages with possible race conditions. To mitigate this threat, we extend the static concurrency checks of Céu to detect data races between ISRs and the application.

Our approach for writing drivers relies on the lexical structured mechanisms of Céu, such as parallel compositions and abortion of lines of execution, to offer stronger guarantees. For instance, the visibility of drivers can be delimited to scoped blocks to avoid resource leaks after usage. The same mechanism allows drivers to signal the power manager that associated peripherals are no longer required, allowing applications to use optimal sleep modes to save energy automatically. Our initial tests show optimal energy savings for applications in idle states.

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