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**Software-based Fault Tolerance:**

Implementation of a Fault Tolerant Rate Monotonic Scheduler

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Motivation

Mobile and embedded systems are susceptible to transient faults in the underlying hardware [1], which may occur due to rising integration density, low voltage operation and environmental influences such as radiation and electromagnetic interference. Transient faults may alter the execution state or incur soft-errors. Bitflips are a direct cause of transient faults, and occur in register, processor, main memory, and other parts of a system. The consequences of bitflips are difficult to predict, but in the worst case they may lead to catastrophic events such as unrecoverable system failure. Recently, a japanese satellite Hitomi crashed, because its control loop got corrupted. According to investigations in [2] a bitflip occurred in the satellite's rotation control, which made it rotate uncontrollably; it broke into several pieces. The financial damage was severe; a few hundred million Euros. To prevent such catastrophies, one way is to utilize software-based approaches such as redundant execution and error-correction code [3, 4, 5, 6, 7]. Yet, trivially adopting redundant execution or error correction code may lead to significant computational overhead, e.g., when  $N+1$  redundancy is used. Due to spatial limitation and timeliness, skillfully adopting software-based fault-tolerance approaches to prevent system failure due to transient faults is not a trivial problem.

Instead of over-provisioning with extra hardware or execution time, sometimes errors can be tolerated; there may be no need to protect the whole system. Due to the potential inherent safety margins and noise interference, control applications might tolerate a limited number of errors with a downgrade of control performance without leading to an unrecoverable system state. In previous studies, techniques have been proposed for delayed [8, 9] or dropped [10, 11] signal samples. Chen et al. [12] explored the fault tolerance of a LegoNXT path-tracing control application. To prevent the system from mission failures, they proposed to use the  $(m, k)$ -firm real-time task model to quantify the robustness of control tasks, which means that  $m$  out of  $k$  consecutive task instances need to be correct, called  $(m, k)$  robustness requirement, using which they provided compensation techniques to manage the expensive error correction to avoid overprovision.

## 1.2 Project Goal

The purpose of this project is to provide an implementation of the techniques in [12] on the real-time operating system RTEMS [13]. In the previous study, the application solely runs on a LegoNXT robot using nxtOSEK, and is not portable. An implementation in RTEMS allows us to port the application to several other platforms; we can test the techniques on other hardware, e.g., Raspberry Pi, to reach more general conclusions about fault tolerance of control tasks and the proposed soft-error handling techniques. The application including the fault tolerance techniques may be an option for space vehicles to manage redundant executions in the future.

## 1.3 Report Structure

The background of transient faults, fault injection and control tasks is presented in the first chapter. The system model and notation is introduced in chapter two. Task versions, the robustness requirement  $(m, k)$ , and patterns used to decide when to execute which task version are also covered. In chapter three, the soft-error handling techniques S-RE, S-DR, D-RE, and D-DR will be the central theme.

# Chapter 2

## Background

In this chapter, transient faults and their impact on systems will be introduced. An explanation of the application model, task versions, execution patterns, and the  $(m, k)$  requirement follows.

### 2.1 Causes of Transient Faults

Transient faults can occur in hardware due to rising integration density, low voltage operation and environmental influences such as radiation and electromagnetic interference [1]. By lowering the voltage operation and integration density, the probability of faults increases, because less electrons are used to distinguish the state of the hardware. Through ionization, molecules and atoms which indicate the status of transistors are removed from their original place, if the radiation or electromagnetic influence is high enough [1], causing bitflips, which means that a zero turns into a one or the other way around. In the worst case, bitflips could lead to irrecoverable system failure; they are dangerous and their effects need to be kept at bay.

### 2.2 Impact of Transient Faults

In some cases, transient faults may have no noticeable consequences, because the flipped bit may not be harmful to the system. A simple example is a scenario in which a bit was already read, the flip occurs after reading, and is ready to be overwritten. Another example is the situation in which the bitflip is not relevant for the result, such as in an OR chain, in case the deciding "1" is not affected.

In the worst case, faults can cause system failure and lead to a system crash. A flipped bit in a variable that points to a certain location may result in accessing wrong code, or invalid memory locations, potentially leading to a system crash.

On the other hand, some faults may remain unnoticed. If a variable in the memory is affected and its value is used for calculations, computation could proceed as planned but with faulty output values.

## 2.3 Faults in the Fault Tolerant Scheduler

The scheduler is designed to handle faults which appear in certain parts of the task entity, i.e., variables in main memory, register, cache, and during data transfer of these values between hardware components, such as sensor sampling data. The system is protected by the FTS scheduler from incorrect calculations incurred by faults, for example when there is lack of or faulty control task output; it can be detected and corrected.

The main application of the FTS are control tasks such as path tracking, steering, stabilization control, etc., since we can guarantee correct output values.

The FTS can only protect from faults which do not cause an unrecoverable system state. For example, the FTS can not protect the system if a fault occurs in the instruction code of the scheduler itself, the system may crash.

However, from the execution versions which are provided by the RTEMS user, we expect that detection and correction are always (or with very high probability) possible; all errors should be detected and corrected successfully. If silent data corruption occurs - when errors remain unnoticed but computation continues as usual - it would be fatal for the system if the detection or correction rate would not be sufficiently high; it could lead to mission failure, such as in the case of satellite Hitomi.

## Chapter 3

# System Model and Notation

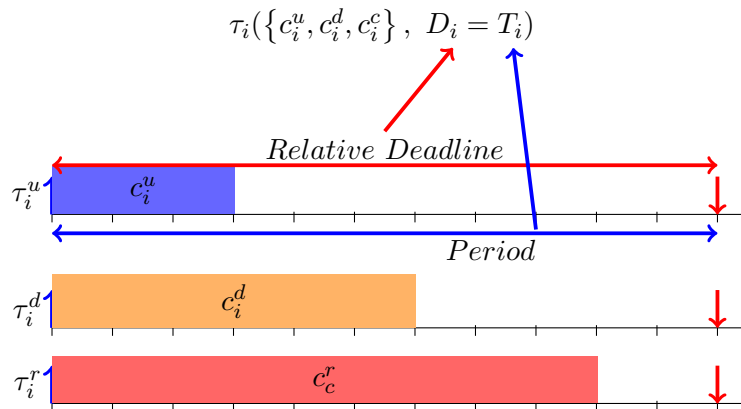
In this section models and notations used in this report are explained.

### 3.1 Control Application Model

A control application has a set of periodic, preemptive control tasks  $\Gamma = \{\tau_1, \tau_2, \dots, \tau_n\}$ . Each task has a period  $T_i$  and a relative deadline  $D_i = T_i$ . The output of each instance will be used by itself again in the next instance, in a closed loop feedback control application.

A task is available in three versions with different execution times: unreliable version  $\tau_i^u$  with execution time  $c_i^u$ , error detection version  $\tau_i^d$  with  $c_i^d$ , and error correcting version  $\tau_i^c$  with  $c_i^c$ . The least protected one is  $\tau_i^u$ , it allows incorrect output, and only protects from errors that lead to system crash by affecting the remaining system.

In the literature, several fault tolerant software techniques require additional execution time for error handling, e.g., special encoding of data [14], control flow checking [15], and majority voting [16]; we assume  $c_i^u < c_i^d < c_i^c$  holds.



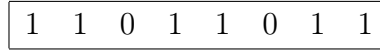
**Figure 3.1:** Possible setting of the task versions and their execution times, adapted from [17]



### 3.2 $(m, k)$ robustness requirement

To quantify the inherent tolerance of tasks to recover from previous instance's lack of or faulty output, we use the  $(m_i, k_i)$  robustness requirement.  $m$  out of any  $k$  consecutive task instances have to be correct for the control application to function without mission failure.  $m_i$  and  $k_i$  are both positive integers and  $0 < m_i \leq k_i$ .

For example, consider a control task controlling specific steering actions of a vehicle. Its robustness requirement could be that there are at least two correct in *every* three instances, denoted as  $(2, 3)$ . Fig. 3.2 contains the information whether faults were injected into instances of  $\tau_i$ . If a fault was injected, we add "0" to the bitmap, otherwise we add "1", this is done for all instances of  $\tau_i$ . In the experiments, the iterative way of checking is called *sliding window*, which is defined as follows: we first check the first three bits  $\{1, 1, 0\}$ , then the second three  $\{1, 0, 1\}$ , the third three  $\{0, 1, 1\}$ , etc. All such sets in the bitmap have at least two correct task instances, we say the  $(2, 3)$  requirement is fulfilled. If the  $(2, 3)$  requirement is not fulfilled, e.g.,  $\{0, 0, 1\}$  occurs in the bitmap, the vehicle may steer in a wrong direction and possibly cause an accident.



**Figure 3.2:** The bitmap of a task  $\tau_i$  for eight executed instances. "1" represents instances without a fault, and "0" for instances with a fault.

### 3.3 Schedulability and Scheduling

The FTS manages the executions of the different task versions by adopting RM scheduling.  $\tau_1$  has the highest priority and  $\tau_n$  the lowest. If all tasks meet their deadlines while  $(m_i, k_i)$  holds for each  $\tau_i$ , then the schedule is feasible. For all the applied scheduling strategies, their schedulability tests can be found in [12].

## Chapter 4

# Implemented Compensation Techniques

The techniques which decide when to execute which task version for  $\tau_i$  to enforce  $(m_i, k_i)$  requirements using  $(m, k)$  patterns is discussed in this section.

### 4.1 Static Pattern Based Execution

If only  $m$  out of  $k$  instances need to be correct, then, to guarantee the correctness, only  $m$  of those tasks need to be executed using  $\tau_i^c$ . To have an "execution plan" of when to execute which task version, the  $(m, k)$ -pattern [18, 19] is introduced.

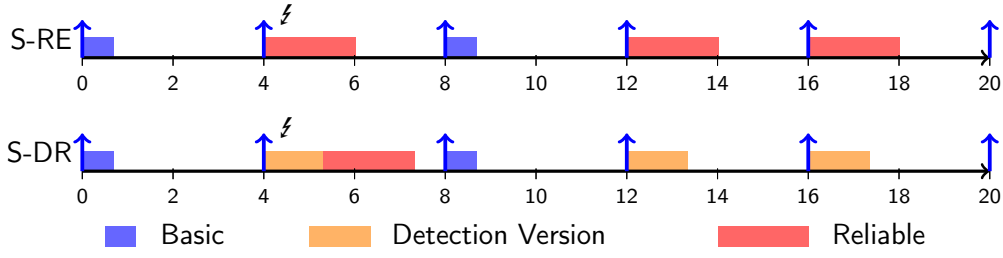
**Definition 1:** The  $(m, k)$ -pattern of task  $\tau_i$  is a binary string  $\Phi_i = \{\phi_{i,0}, \phi_{i,1}, \dots, \phi_{i,(k_i-1)}\}$  which satisfies the following properties:  $\phi_{i,j}$  is a correction instance if  $\phi_{i,j} = 1$  and a unreliable instance if  $\phi_{i,j} = 0$ , while  $\sum_{j=0}^{k_i-1} \phi_{i,j} = m_i$  [12].

A robustness requirement could be given as  $(3, 5)$ , then one way to define the  $(m, k)$ -pattern is  $\Phi = \{0, 1, 0, 1, 1\}$ . Executing all instances denoted as "1" with  $\tau_i^c$  and executing the instances marked with a "0" using  $\tau_i^u$  satisfies the  $(3, 5)$  requirement. Directly executing  $\tau_i^c$  this way is called Static Reliable Execution (S-RE).  $\{\tau^u, \tau^c, \tau^u, \tau^c, \tau^c\}$  is the schedule for this specific task; the sum of the execution times for one completion of the string is  $2c^u + 3c^c$ .

An improvement of S-RE, called Static Detection and Recovery (S-DR) gives a try with a fault-detecting version when there is a "1" in the pattern, and immediately executes  $\tau_i^c$  if an error is detected. If we assume an error occurs on the second instance, a possible schedule is  $\{\tau^u, \tau^d + \tau^c, \tau^u, \tau^d, \tau^d\}$  for the pattern above. If errors occur in every instance, then in the worst case, the sum of the execution times is  $2c^u + 3(c^d + c^c)$ .

Figure 4.1 shows S-RE in the first diagram. The system just follows the pattern, and if an error occurs in one instance, then it will either be corrected by the  $\tau_i^c$ , or the error will be tolerated, because the  $(m, k)$  requirement is always fulfilled.

In the second diagram with S-DR, the system follows the pattern as well, but always gives a try with  $\tau_i^d$  first if the bit in the pattern is a "1". An error occurs in the second instance, so the system has to execute  $\tau_i^c$  immediately after the detection version.



**Figure 4.1:** Examples for the static approaches for  $(3, 5)$  with the pattern  $\{0, 1, 0, 1, 1\}$ , adapted from [17]

## 4.2 Dynamic Compensation

This part of the report first discusses the main principle behind dynamic compensation: postponing the moment the system adopts the  $(m, k)$  pattern. Then the algorithm is presented which illustrates dynamic compensation in pseudo-code. At the end of this chapter, examples outline the difference between the static and dynamic approaches. This chapter concludes the basics which are necessary to understand the techniques and the underlying principles which were implemented in RTEMS.

Soft-errors happen randomly from time to time, and the likelihood of their occurrence is not very high. Minimizing the executions of  $\tau^c$  tasks is one of the main goals in these techniques, as  $\tau^c$  is costly considering execution time and energy consumption. We only want to execute  $\tau^c$  if it is absolutely necessary.

Dynamic compensation enhances S-RE and S-DR by making decisions on-the-fly. The main idea is to postpone the moment the system enforces the  $(m_i, k_i)$  requirement by exploiting the correctness of successful  $\tau_i^d$  executions. In the worst case, if all  $\tau_i^d$  are wrong, the system will adopt the execution pattern. To detect errors in dynamic compensation, all instances that are marked with "0" in the  $(m, k)$ -pattern need to be executed with  $\tau^d$ .

### 4.2.1 Postponing the $(m, k)$ -Pattern

We suppose that a static pattern  $\Phi_i$  is given, which is a binary string, containing the information about which version of a task to execute. It was stated earlier that dynamic compensation allows to exploit the correctness of completed and successful executions of unreliable instances; to be specific, dynamic compensation counts the successful (i.e., correct) executions of  $\tau^d$  instances, and then exploits their correctness by postponing the adoption of the  $(m, k)$ -pattern by the number of successful executions. These completed and correct task instances are defined as  $S$  and stand for success.  $S$  allows us to greedily postpone the adoption of the original static pattern  $\Phi_i$ . We can think of it as inserting  $S$  into the bitstring, but only at the beginning of the pattern.  $S$  or multiple  $S$  can only be inserted before a "0", as only "0" gives the system a *chance* to tolerate an error.

If we take the pattern  $\{0, 1, 0, 1, 1\}$  for example, it will have the form  $\{S, 0, 1, 0, 1\}$  at  $t = 1$  and  $\{S, S, 0, 1, 0\}$  after two time units  $t = 2$  of a cycle, when  $t = 0$  is the starting point and

no faults occur. Because of the successful execution of two task instances, denoted as  $S$  in the pattern, the string at  $t = 2$  now lacks the last two "1"s from the original pattern. These two are pushed out of the string, and thus the adoption of the original pattern is postponed. If the  $(m_i, k_i)$  pattern was  $(3, 5)$ , two instances out of  $m_i = 3$  were already processed correctly at  $t = 2$ , which means that only one more task instance needs to be correct for the  $(m_i, k_i)$  requirement to be fulfilled.  $S$  instances are always executed with  $\tau_i^d$  to detect errors.  $S$  can be put as *gave a try with detection version; got away with it (without an error occurring)*.

#### 4.2.2 Tolerance Counters

Because we can only give a try with  $\tau_i^d$  if there is a "0" in the pattern, we need to partition it. Replenishment counters separate the original pattern into sub-patterns which begin with 0 and end with 1. These counters monitor the current status of fault tolerance and aid in run time execution in the algorithm. If the pattern  $\{0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1\}$  is given, it is divided into the two partitions  $\{0, 0, 1\}$  and  $\{0, 1, 1\}$ . The rule is to divide the original pattern into smaller patterns that start with 0 and end with 1.

After the partitioning, the number of partitions are counted and their number is saved in  $p_i$ . The index of the task is denoted as  $i$ , and  $j$  describes the current partition in the pattern. Counter  $o_{ij}$  describes the number of  $\tau_i^u$  in each partition and  $a_{ij}$  counts the number of  $\tau_i^c$  instances in each partition. Consequently, the counter  $o_{ij}$  stands for the chances in a partition the system has to be wrong, as it records the number of the "0"s.

To give an example we consider the pattern  $\{0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1\}$ . In this case  $p_i = 2$ ,  $o_{i1} = 2$ ,  $a_{i1} = 1$ ,  $o_{i2} = 1$ ,  $a_{i2} = 2$ ; we define  $O_i = \{2, 1\}$  and  $A_i = \{1, 2\}$ . There are two  $\tau_i^u$  instances in the first partition,  $o_{i1} = 2$  and one  $\tau_i^c$   $a_{i1} = 1$ , whereas in the second partition, there is one unreliable  $o_{i2} = 1$  instance and there are two  $\tau_i^c$  instances  $a_{i2} = 2$ .

If  $o_{ij}$  is used up by errors, the system then has to follow the original pattern. To model that kind of switching behavior, a mode indicator  $\Pi$  is used, to distinguish the execution status of dynamic compensation. With the definition of  $\Pi = \{tolerant, safe\}$  the current status of the task can be specified. If the tolerance counter  $o_{ij}$  is depleted and the system isn't allowed to give any more tries, because more insertions would violate the  $(m_i, k_i)$  constraint in case of an error,  $\Pi$  will be set to safe. This causes the system to just execute the task instances with  $\tau_i^c$ . However, if the task can still tolerate errors because the tolerance counter is not depleted, then  $\Pi$  will be set to tolerant. In this case the system still has chances, and  $S$  could potentially be inserted into the pattern, thus the system is allowed to give a try with  $\tau_i^d$ .

#### 4.2.3 Algorithm for Dynamic Compensation

The algorithm for dynamic compensation works on one of the partitions of an  $(m, k)$ -pattern. At the beginning the index  $j$  is passed while the mode is set depending on whether the tolerance counter  $o_{ij}$  is depleted. If  $\Pi$  is in tolerant mode, the algorithm executes  $\tau_i^d$  which checks whether a fault was detected. If a fault is detected, then the tolerance counter  $o_{ij}$  is decreased by one.

If  $o_{ij}$  is fully depleted, equal to zero, then the system has is set to safe mode.  $a_{ij}$  stores the number of correction version executions, thus in Line 9 the value of  $a_{ij}$  is stored in  $l$ . If  $p_i$  is in safe mode, then  $l$  will be decremented step by step till it is equal to 0. When  $l = 0$ , the task is set back to tolerant mode and the index  $j$  is incremented; the next partition is processed by the algorithm. When the system is in safe mode, there are two different strategies available which can be pursued. Although the system is in safe mode ( $o_{ij}$  is already depleted), Dynamic Detection and Recovery (D-DR) will always execute  $\tau_i^d$  of the task first. Thus the system still gives a try with  $\tau_i^d$  and only executes  $\tau_i^c$  if an error occurs in  $\tau_i^d$ .

Dynamic Reliable Execution (D-RE) on the other hand will always execute  $\tau_i^c$  directly if the system is in safe mode.

```

1: procedure dyn_Compensation(mode  $\Pi$ , index  $j$ )
2: if  $\Pi$  is tolerant_mode then
3:    $result = \text{execute}(\tau_i^d)$ ;
4:   if Fault is detected in  $result$  then
5:      $o_{i,j} = o_{i,j} - 1$ ;
6:      $\text{Enqueue\_Error}(o_{i,j})$ ;
7:     if  $o_{i,j}$  is equal to 0 then
8:       Set  $\Pi$  to safe_mode;
9:       Set  $l$  to  $a_{i,j}$ ;
10:    end if
11:  end if
12: else
13:   either  $\text{Detection\_Recovery}()$  or  $\text{Reliable\_Execution}()$ ;
14:    $l = l - 1$ ;
15:   if  $l$  is equal to 0 then
16:     Set  $\Pi$  to tolerant_mode;
17:      $j = (j + 1) \bmod k_i$ ;
18:   end if
19: end if
20:  $\text{Update\_Age}(\mathbb{O}_i)$ ;
21: end procedure

```

**Algorithms 4.1:** Dynamic compensation of task  $\tau_i$  with  $(m_i, k_i)$ , adapted from [12]

### 4.3 Summary of Soft-Error Handling techniques

In this work four soft-error handling techniques are implemented. They are ordered by their overall utilization, beginning with the highest value. D-DR shows the lowest overall utilization

out of all proposed techniques [12]. To give a quick overview, the techniques are presented one below the other.

In Figure 4.2, in the first diagram, the system uses S-RE and just follows the pattern  $\{0, 1, 1\}$  for the  $(2, 3)$  requirement.

When using S-DR, the system executes  $\tau_i^u$  in the first instance, since there is a "0" in the pattern. In the second and third task instance, it executes  $\tau_i^d$  for every "1" in the pattern and immediately releases  $\tau_i^c$  when an error is detected.

When D-RE is used, the system gives a try with  $\tau_i^d$  in the first task instance. The task turns out to be correct, so the system still has one chance to be wrong, thus, in the second task instance, it gives a try with  $\tau_i^d$  again. An error occurs in the second instance, but since the system can tolerate one error due to its constraint, it can move on without taking action against the error. However, the system has to execute  $\tau_i^c$  in the third task instance to comply to  $(2, 3)$ , since an error already occurred in the second instance.

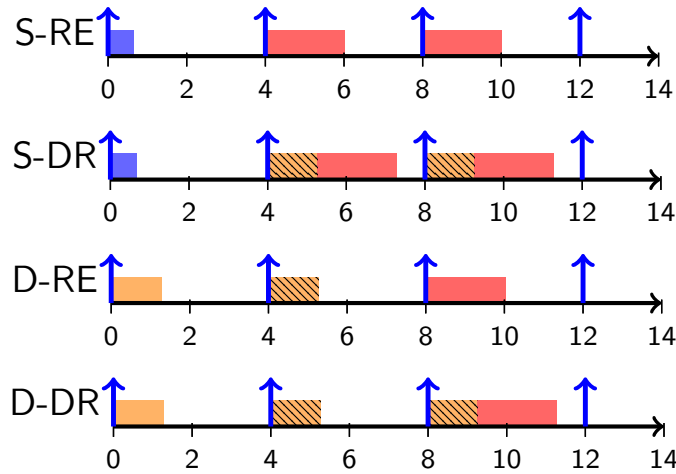
The only difference between D-DR and D-RE is that D-DR still gives a try with  $\tau_i^d$ , although the  $(2, 3)$  requirement would be broken if an error occurred. The system detects an error and executes  $\tau_i^c$  afterwards in the third instance.

- Pattern-Based Execution

- S-RE: Runs task version  $\tau_i^c$  for instances marked as "1",  $\tau_i^u$  otherwise.
- S-DR: Runs task version  $\tau_i^d$  for instances marked as "1" and recovers executing  $\tau_i^c$  if an error is detected in  $\tau_i^d$ .

- Dynamic Compensation

- D-RE: Runs execution version  $\tau_i^c$  if the tolerance counter is depleted,  $\tau_i^d$  otherwise.
- D-DR: Runs execution version  $\tau_i^d$  if the tolerance counter is depleted; runs execution version  $\tau_i^c$  for recovery if an error is detected in  $\tau_i^d$  in this case.



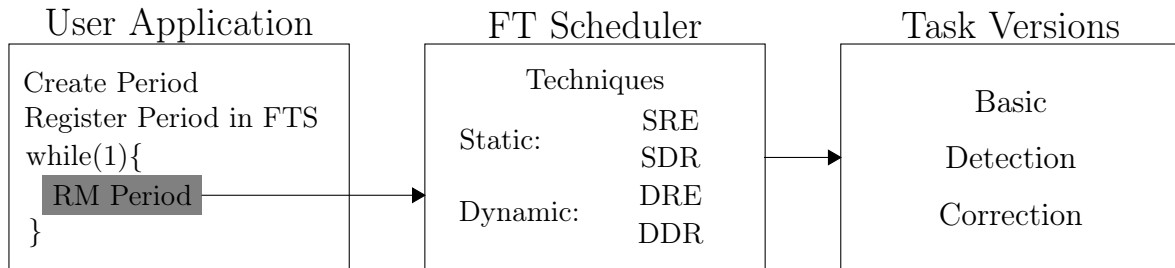
**Figure 4.2:**  $(m_i, k_i)$  is  $(2, 3)$  and the static pattern is  $\Phi = (0, 1, 1)$ . Soft-errors occur in the second and third instance (marked with stripes). Blue block:  $\tau_i^u$ , orange block:  $\tau_i^d$ , red block:  $\tau_i^c$ . Adapted from [12].

## Chapter 5

# The Fault Tolerant Scheduler integrated in RTEMS

In this chapter, the inner workings of the FTS are presented. Before reading this chapter, it is recommended to read the chapter about the rate-monotonic scheduler in [20] first.

### 5.1 FTS Scheduler Workflow



**Figure 5.1:** The flow diagram of the FTS. The while-loop calls RM Period, which in turn calls the FTS. The FTS, depending on its configuration, selects and releases the task versions.

Before using the FTS, the user has to implement the three task versions, which are basic version, detection version, and correction version. When calling the function which creates the period object, the period's ID is used to register the period for protection in the FTS. After creation, the period has to be implemented as specified in [20], using a while-loop and calling the period function in every iteration of the while-loop.

Every time the period function is called, the rate monotonic scheduler calls the FTS, as can be seen in Figure 5.1. The FTS then decides which version of the task to create and release. The decision is made based on the configuration of the FTS, e.g., fault-tolerance technique,  $(m, k)$  requirement, and using R- or E-pattern.

All task versions that were started within one period are deleted at the beginning of the next period, preventing overload situations.

## 5.2 Implementation of the Fault-tolerance Techniques

This section is about the implementation of the fault-tolerance techniques in RTEMS. The static approaches SRE and SDR use the predefined  $(m, k)$ -pattern to decide which version of the task to execute, whereas the dynamic approaches DRE and DDR calculate tolerance counters based on the  $(m, k)$ -pattern.

### 5.2.1 R- and E-patterns

There are two types of patterns available for the user, i.e., R-patterns and E-patterns [19], [18]. An R-pattern contains all "0"s at the beginning and all "1"s at the end, such as in  $\{0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1\}$ . In E-patterns, the "1"s and "0"s are distributed evenly. The pattern's correctness proofs of complying to an  $(m, k)$  requirement can be found in [19] and [18]. When using SRE or SDR, if the FTS is at the last byte and bit of the pattern, it starts reading the first bit in the pattern again.

### 5.2.2 Pattern Iteration in SRE and SDR

In the FTS, SRE and SDR follow the given static  $(m, k)$ -pattern to execute task versions while satisfying  $(m, k)$  requirements. To be able to adopt the given  $(m, k)$ -pattern, the three parameters `uint8_t * pattern_start`, `uint8_t * pattern_end`, and `uint8_t max_bitpos` can be specified by the user, or are generated by the FTS automatically. The starting and ending address of the pattern is specified by `pattern_start` and `pattern_end`, which are pointers to a `uint8_t` variable. The current byte-position is stored in `curr_pos`, whereas the single bit position in a certain byte is stored in `bit_pos`. If the pattern should end in midst of a byte, the variable `max_bitpos` can be specified (0 for the first bit, and 7 for the last bit); if it is not specified, `max_bitpos` will be initialized as 7.

The FTS iterates through this pattern with bitwise operations. The current byte's current bit is retrieved by bitwise AND. For example, if  $\{101\textcolor{red}{1}1011\}$  is the current byte, and `bit_pos` is 3, the red "1" tells us to execute a reliable version next. We do the operation  $101\textcolor{red}{1}1011 \& 000\textcolor{red}{1}0000$  to decide which task version to execute.

If current iteration step is in the last byte's last bit, the current byte will be set to the beginning address of the pattern, and `bit_pos` is set to zero.

### 5.2.3 DRE and DDR

In DRE and DDR, the FTS does not follow the  $(m, k)$ -pattern, but calculates the tolerance counters based on the  $(m, k)$ -pattern, and then executes 4.1. The FTS first checks the pattern type of the  $(m, k)$ -pattern. In case of R-pattern, there are only two partitions, and thus only two tolerance counters  $o_i$  and  $a_i$ . For E-patterns, the FTS divides the  $(m, k)$ -pattern into sub-patterns which begin with "0" and end with "1". After partitioning, for every partition in the  $(m, k)$ -pattern  $o_i$  and  $a_i$  are created. At the beginning of each period, to keep the tolerance



counters up to date, the FTS checks whether the tolerance counters are depleted. If they are depleted, they get replenished again.

## 5.3 Fault Injection and Detection to test the FTS in RTEMS

### 5.3.1 Fault Injection Mechanism in RTEMS

To simulate the occurrence of faults, a fault injection mechanism is needed. The fault rate is specified as  $p\%$  per task. Then, an integer seed variable is chosen, and the random number generator in C needs to be initialized with it by calling `srand(seed)` once. This way the `rand()` function gives us a sequence of random numbers when it is called sequentially. The sequence is the same for every seed value, i.e. `seed = 5` gives us a certain sequence of random numbers, and `seed = 6` a different sequence, but the sequences are reproducible. For example, the fault rate could be specified as 3%. Then a predefined number of random values in  $[0, 100]$  is created and the sequence is stored, as described in the function `rand_nr_list()` below.

To decide whether a fault should be injected, we retrieve one value out of the array. Only if this random value is smaller than the fault rate, a fault is injected. The value random value is retrieved by the function `get_rand()` below, and the value `rand_count` specifies which random value has already been used. The function `fault_statusget_fault(...)` checks whether the random number is smaller than the fault rate with  $rand\_nr \leq fault\_rate$  and returns the fault status. The decision to inject a fault is determined by calling `get_fault(get_rand())`, which returns the fault status. When testing the application with a control task in the future, a certain control value can be manipulated every time `get_fault()` returns a fault, e.g. the control value could be set to the maximum possible value to simulate the occurrence of a fault.

```

1 void rand_nr_list(void)
2 {
3     for ( uint16_t i = 0; i < NR_RANDS; i++ )
4     {
5         rands_0_100[i] = rand() / (RAND_MAX / (100 + 1) + 1);
6     }
7     return;
8 }
9
10 uint8_t get_rand(void)
11 {
12     return rands_0_100[rand_count++];
13 }
14
15 fault_status get_fault(uint8_t rand_nr)
16 {
17     if ( fault_rate == 0 )
18     {
19         return NO_FAULT;
20     }

```

```

21  else if ( rand_nr <= fault_rate )
22  {
23      faults++;
24      return FAULT;
25  }
26  else
27  {
28      return NO_FAULT;
29  }
30 }

```

### 5.3.2 Implementation of Fault Detection in RTEMS

We now know how the occurrence of faults is simulated in the Fault Tolerant Scheduler. To test the fault-tolerance techniques, an approach to detect errors is needed.

The user implements the three execution versions of a task, which means that the users implement their own fault detection and correction methods for their task versions. At the end of each detection version, the task detects an error (e.g. by executing the calculation in the task twice, and then comparing the results). The fault status is then sent to the FTS. The detection version has to call the function *fault\_detection\_routine(rtems\_id id, fault\_status fs)* which processes the error handling. For example, in case a fault occurred when executing a detection version with SDR, this function will trigger the release of a reliable task version immediately. The detection routine handles faults in the dynamic techniques in a similar way.

## 5.4 Example: How to use the FTS Scheduler

The three execution versions have to be implemented first. The task argument has to be initialized as *rtems\_task\_argument argument*, because the FTS will use this argument to pass the period ID to the task versions. The detection version has to call the detection routine *fault\_detection\_routine(id, fs\_T1)* at the end of its activity. For example, the three versions could print the ID of their period as follows:

```

1  /* Basic task version */
2  rtems_task BASIC_V(
3      rtems_task_argument argument
4  )
5  {
6      rtems_id id = *((rtems_id*)argument);
7      printf("Basic: ID of my Period is %i\n", id);
8      rtems_task_delete( rtems_task_self() );
9  }
10
11 /* Detection task version */
12 rtems_task DETECTION_V(
13     rtems_task_argument argument

```

```

14 )
15 {
16     rtems_id id = *((rtems_id*)argument);
17     printf("Detection: ID of my Period is %i\n", id);
18
19     /* Check whether a fault occurred */
20     fault_status fs_T1 = get_fault(get_rand());
21
22     /* Call fault detection routine at the end of the detection version activity */
23     fault_detection_routine(id, fs_T1);
24     rtems_task_delete( rtems_task_self() );
25 }
26
27 /* Correction task version */
28 rtems_task CORRECTION_V(
29     rtems_task_argument argument
30 )
31 {
32     rtems_id id = *((rtems_id*)argument);
33     printf("Correction: ID of my Period is %i\n", id);
34     rtems_task_delete( rtems_task_self() );
35 }

```

We then take a look at the configuring of the FTS, all the information needs to be defined before the period is registered for in the FTS.

```

1 /* last byte of (m,k)-pattern */
2 uint8_t end_p = 0;
3 /* first byte of (m,k)-pattern */
4 uint8_t begin_p = 0;
5 /* store the pointers */
6 uint8_t *p_s = &begin_p;
7 uint8_t *p_e = &end_p;
8 /* Define maxbit */
9 uint8_t maxbit = 7;
10 /* RTEMS task pointers */
11 rtems_task *basic;
12 rtems_task *detection;
13 rtems_task *correction;
14 /* set (m,k) */
15 uint8_t m = 12;
16 uint8_t k = 16;
17 /* Set fault tolerance technique and (m,k)-pattern type */
18 fts_tech curr_tech = DDR;
19 pattern_type patt = R_PATTERN;

```

Then, we look at how a period can be registered for protection in the FTS. We first use the Init task to create and start the task which runs the while-loop, which in turn calls the period function. A possible implementation of the task containing the while-loop is shown below.

```

1  /* Task 1 contains the while-loop */
2  rtems_task FTS_TEST(
3      rtems_task_argument unused
4  )
5  {
6      rtems_status_code          status;
7      rtems_id                   RM_period;
8      rtems_rate_monotonic_period_status    period_status;
9
10     /* Task entry points */
11     basic = &BASIC_V;
12     detection = &DETECTION_V;
13     correction = &CORRECTION_V;
14
15     /* Create a period and register the task set for RM-FTS */
16     status = rtems_rate_monotonic_create_fts( Task_name, &RM_period,
17         m, k, curr_tech, patt, p_s, p_e, maxbit, basic, detection, correction);
18
19     while (1)
20     {
21         status = rtems_rate_monotonic_period( RM_period, 100 );
22
23         if( status == RTEMS_TIMEOUT )
24         {
25             printf( "\nPERIOD TIMEOUT\n" );
26             break;
27         }
28     }
29
30     status = rtems_rate_monotonic_delete( RM_period );
31     if ( status != RTEMS_SUCCESSFUL )
32     {
33         printf( "rtems_rate_monotonic_delete failed with status of %d.\n", status );
34         exit( 1 );
35     }
36     status = rtems_task_delete( selfid );    /* should not return */
37     printf( "rtems_task_delete returned with status of %d.\n", status );
38     exit( 1 );
39 };

```

## 5.5 Add the FTS in your RTEMS system

The requirement for adding the FTS to your RTEMS system is that you already built the RTEMS tools and kernel, for example by following the Quick Start guide in the RTEMS user manual [21]. To add the FTS to your RTEMS system, navigate to the kernel, then into *cpukit/rtems*, open *Makefile.am*, and add the following lines:

```

1  include_rtems_rtems_HEADERS += include/rtems/rtems/fts_t.h

```

```
2 librtems_a_SOURCES += src/fts_t.c
```

The *.h* line belong where the other header files are included too, but above *if HAS\_MP*. The *.c* line has to be added at the bottom of the file, but above *if HAS\_MP* as well.

Then navigate to the location of the classical C API header files and copy the *fts\_t.h* file there (in *cpukit/rtems/include/rtems/rtems* for me). The *fts\_t.c* file needs to be copied into the source folder of the classical C API (in *cpukit/rtems/src* for me). Next, replace the standard *ratemoncreate.c* and *ratemonperiod.c* files with the ones from my repository. There will be a package with all the files needed, with the name "rmftspatch" and uploaded in [22].

From here on, all the file locations for the commands below need to be adapted to your own system. The next step is to bootstrap. Make sure to set your path with

```
1 export PATH=$HOME/development/rtems/4.12/bin:$PATH
```

and navigate to the location of bootstrap, *rtems/kernel/rtems*. The bootstrapping can proceed:

```
1 ./bootstrap -c && ./bootstrap -p && \
2 $HOME/development/rtems/rsb/source-builder/sb-bootstrap
```

We then navigate to */kernel/erc32* and run the configure script, for the erc32 board support package, the command is:

```
1 $HOME/development/rtems/kernel/rtems/configure --prefix=$HOME/development/rtems
   /4.12 \
2 --target=sparc-rtems4.12 --enable-rtemsbps=erc32 --enable-posix
```

The only thing left to do is running

```
1 make
2 make install
```

to compile the system. You can now access the FTS code in your user application by adding

```
1 #include <rtems/rtems/fts_t.h>
```

in your implementation.

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