WEIXUN WANG, University of Florida PRABHAT MISHRA, University of Florida ANN GORDON-ROSS, University of Florida

In recent years, efficient dynamic reconfiguration techniques have been widely employed for system optimization. Dynamic cache reconfiguration is a promising approach for reducing energy consumption as well as for improving overall system performance. It is a major challenge to introduce cache reconfiguration into real-time multitasking systems since dynamic analysis may adversely affect tasks with timing constraints. This article presents a novel approach for implementing cache reconfiguration in soft real-time systems by efficiently leveraging static analysis during runtime to minimize energy while maintain the same service level. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first attempt to integrate dynamic cache reconfiguration in real-time scheduling techniques. Our experimental results using a wide variety of applications have demonstrated that our approach can significantly (up to 74%) reduce the cache energy consumption in soft real-time systems.

Categories and Subject Descriptors: B.3.2 [Memory Structures]: Design Styles—*Cache memories*; C.3 [Special-purpose and application-based systems]: Real-time and embedded systems

General Terms: Design, Performance

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Real-time systems, low-power, embedded systems, cache

ACM Reference Format:

Wang, W., Mishra, P., and Gordon-Ross, A. 2011. Dynamic Cache Reconfiguration for Soft Real-Time Systems. ACM Trans. Embedd. Comput. Syst. 0, 1, Article 1 (2011), 28 pages.

DOI = 10.1145/0000000.0000000 http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/0000000.0000000

1. INTRODUCTION

Various research efforts in recent years have focused on design and optimization of real-time systems. These systems require unique design considerations due to timing constraints placed on the tasks. Tasks in hard real-time systems must complete execution by their deadlines in order to ensure correct system behavior. Due to these stringent constraints, real-time scheduling algorithms must perform task *schedulability analysis* based on task attributes such as priorities, periods, and deadlines [Buttazzo 1995][Liu 2000]. A task set is considered *schedulable* if there exists a schedule that satisfies all timing constraints. As embedded systems become ubiquitous, real-time systems with soft timing constraints (missing certain deadlines are acceptable) are gaining widespread acceptance. Soft real-time systems can be found everywhere including gaming, housekeeping as well as multimedia applications and devices. Tasks in these systems remain effective even if their deadlines are not guaranteed to be met. Minor deadline misses may result in temporary service or quality degradation, but will not lead to incorrect behavior. For example, users of video-streaming on mobile devices can tolerate occasional jitters caused by frame droppings, which does not affect the quality of service.

One of the most important optimizations in real-time embedded systems is energy consumption reduction since most of these systems are battery-operated devices. Processor idle time (also known

© 2011 ACM 1539-9087/2011/-ART1 \$10.00

DOI 10.1145/0000000.0000000 http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/0000000.0000000

This work was partially supported by NSF grant CCF-0903430 and SRC grant 2009-HJ-1979.

Author's addresses: W. Wang and P. Mishra, Department of Computer and Information Science and Engineering, University of Florida; A. Gordon-Ross, Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, University of Florida.

Permission to make digital or hard copies of part or all of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies show this notice on the first page or initial screen of a display along with the full citation. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than ACM must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, to republish, to post on servers, to redistribute to lists, or to use any component of this work in other works requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Permissions may be requested from Publications Dept., ACM, Inc., 2 Penn Plaza, Suite 701, New York, NY 10121-0701 USA, fax +1 (212) 869-0481, or permissions@acm.org.

as slack time) provides a unique opportunity to reduce the overall energy consumption by putting the system into sleep mode using Dynamic Power Management (DPM) techniques [Benini et al. 2000]. Alternatively, Dynamic Voltage Scaling (DVS) [Hong et al. 1999] methods can be used to achieve the same goal by reducing the clock frequency such that the tasks execute slowly but do not violate their deadlines [Jejurikar and Gupta 2006][Quan and Hu 2007].

Reconfigurable computing provides the unique ability to tune the system during runtime (*dynamically reconfigure*) to meet optimization goals by changing *tunable* system parameters. The primary aspect of reconfigurable computing research emphasizes tuning algorithms, which determine *how* and *when* to dynamically reconfigure tunable parameters to achieve higher performance, lower energy consumption, and balance overall system behavior. One such tunable component is the cache hierarchy. Research has shown that cache subsystem has become comparable to other components in the processor with respect to the contribution in overall energy consumption [Malik et al. 2000][Segars 2001]. Therefore, since different programs have distinct requirements on cache configuration during execution, we can achieve significant energy efficiency as well as performance improvements by employing dynamic cache reconfiguration in the system.

Although reconfigurable caches are highly beneficial in desktop and embedded systems, currently, reconfigurable caches have not been considered in real-time systems due to several fundamental challenges. For example, how to employ and make efficient use of reconfigurable caches in real-time systems remains unsolved. Determining the appropriate cache configuration typically requires some amount of runtime evaluation of different candidates. Furthermore, any change in cache configuration on-the-fly may arbitrarily alter task execution time. In hard real-time systems, the benefit of reconfiguration is limited since both of these facts can make scheduling decisions difficult and eventually may lead to unpredictable system behavior. However, on the other hand, soft real-time systems offer much more flexibility, which can be exploited to achieve considerable energy savings at the cost of minor impacts to user experiences. Our proposed research focuses on real-time systems with soft real-time constraints.

This article presents a novel methodology for using reconfigurable caches in real-time systems with preemptive task scheduling. Our proposed methodology provides an efficient scheduling-aware cache tuning strategy based on static profiling for both statically and dynamically scheduled realtime systems. Generally speaking, our technique is useful in any multitasking systems. The goal is to optimize energy consumption with performance considerations via reconfigurable cache tuning while ensuring that the majority of the task deadlines are met. In this paper, we consider L1 cache reconfiguration only. As shown in [Varma et al. 2005], L1 cache energy consumption can be a significant part in overall energy optimization. In fact, small embedded systems executing lightweight kernels are very likely to not even have L2 cache. While the L1 caches we are looking at are small, given that the entire system is small, L1 caches can still be a significant contributor to overall power consumption. For example, in [Gordon-Ross et al. 2007], 25% overall system power reduction is reported by considering L1 cache reconfiguration only. Also, our approach is independent of the actual cache sizes and is applicable as well as beneficial for both larger systems with large L1 caches and smaller systems with small L1 caches. Our follow-up research on dynamic cache reconfiguration for two-level cache hierarchy in soft real-time systems [Wang and Mishra 2009] considered L2 cache together with L1 caches to achieve overall energy reduction. In that paper, we investigated the interaction between reconfiguration of L1 and L2 caches. The approaches proposed in this article are valid in the context of multi-level cache hierarchy as shown in [Wang and Mishra 2009].

The rest of the article is organized as follows. Section 2 surveys the background literature addressing both dynamic cache reconfiguration and real-time scheduling techniques. Section 3 describes our proposed research on scheduling-aware cache reconfiguration in soft real-time systems. Section 4 presents our experimental results. Finally, Section 5 concludes the article.

2. RELATED WORK

Nacul et al. [Nacul and Givargis 2004] proposed an initial work on combining dynamic voltage scheduling and cache reconfiguration on workloads with time constraints. However, their work is applicable in a very restricted scenario where systems does not support task preemption. There are no prior work on dynamic cache reconfiguration in real-time systems which support task preemption. Our proposed research is the first attempt in this direction. This section surveys the background literature in the following three related domains.

2.1. Real-Time Scheduling Techniques

Based on task properties and associated systems, scheduling algorithms can be classified into various types [Liu 2000]. Earliest Deadline First (EDF) scheduling [Buttazzo 1995] and Rate Monotonic (RM) scheduling [Liu 2000] are the most frequently referenced fundamental scheduling algorithms in the real-time systems community. Periodic tasks, which usually have known worst case execution time (WCET), period, and deadline are scheduled using such methods. Sporadic tasks are accepted into the system only if the task passes acceptance tests when it arrives. Since sporadic tasks normally have hard time constraints, all accepted tasks are guaranteed to meet their deadlines, and are thus treated as periodic tasks. Aperiodic tasks are scheduled whenever enough slack time is available. Hence, aperiodic tasks normally have soft deadlines and can only be scheduled as soon as possible. Scheduling algorithms for tasks with unknown properties, like aperiodic and sporadic tasks, can be found in [Liu 2000][Sprunt 1990][Andersson et al. 2008].

Derived from RM and EDF are energy-aware task scheduling algorithms using energyoptimization techniques and aiming at various objectives, although optimal scheduling has been proved to be a NP-hard problem [Zhang et al. 2007]. DVS and DPM are the most prominent techniques, which exploit variable voltages and power supplies at runtime to reduce energy consumption. Jejurikar et al. [Jejurikar and Gupta 2006] address the problem in the presence of task mutual controls based on both EDF and RM scheduling. They also proposed in [Jejurikar et al. 2004] a DVS enabled scheduling algorithm that is aware of leakage power. Leung et al. [Leung et al. 2005] introduce a novel static voltage scheduling algorithm which can result in an energy-optimized slack distribution by relaxing the WCET constraints. Their algorithm compromises average and worst case execution times of a task to achieve greater energy savings. Quan et al. [Quan and Hu 2007] present a low-complexity voltage scheduling method with fixed priority assignment systems. Since creating additional slack is essential for revealing larger energy savings, Jejurikar et al. [Jejurikar and Gupta 2005] defer task execution in the interest of slack reclamation, further extending lowvoltage intervals. Our approach can be used in tandem with any of these state-of-the-art scheduling techniques. In other words, energy-aware scheduling can freely incorporate reconfigurable cache tuning using our methodology to further minimize energy consumption in real-time systems.

2.2. Caches in Real-Time Systems

Cache systems are included in nearly all computing systems to temporarily store frequently accessed instructions and data. Since caches have a much faster access time compared to main memory, caches effectively alleviate the increasing performance disparity between the processor and memory by exploiting the temporal and spatial locality properties of programs. However, historically, incorporating caches into real-time embedded system faces serious difficulties due to the unpredictability imposed on the system. Cache affects data access pattern and hence creates variations in data access time. For example, in a preemptive system, since a task may be interrupted by a higher-priority task and resumed again at a later time, the data of preempted tasks may be evicted from the cache. This may result in a period of cold-start compulsory cache misses, many of which may have been cache hits if the task had not been preempted. This makes it difficult to calculate task's worst-case execution time (WCET), knowing which is a prerequisite of most traditional scheduling algorithms.

Since caches introduce intra-task interference so that a specific task's execution time becomes variable at runtime, a great deal of research efforts are directed at employing caches in real-time systems either by proving schedulability through WCET analysis or avoiding hazardous compulsory miss uncertainty altogether. Cache-aware WCET analysis is a static, design time analysis of tasks in the presence of caches to predict cache impact on task execution times [Puant 2002]. Cache locking [Puant and Decotigny 2002] is a technique in which useful cache lines are "locked" in the cache when a task is preempted so that these blocks will not be evicted to accommodate the new incoming task. Through cache line locking, the WCET and cache behavior becomes more predictable since the major delay from data replacement and access is avoided. Cache partitioning [Wolfe 1993] is a similar but more aggressive approach where the cache is partitioned into reserved regions, each of which can only cache data associated with a dedicated task. However, a potential drawback to both cache locking and cache partitioning is per-task reduction of cache resources. To alleviate this limitation, cache-related preemption delay analysis [Tan and Mooney 2007][Staschulat et al. 2005] features tight delay estimation so that prediction accuracy is higher than traditional WCET analysis. This improved accuracy can in turn result in a durable task schedule. Scratch-pad memories, like caches, are also on-chip RAMs but mapped onto the address space of the processor at a specified range. Puant et al. [Puant and Pais 2007] proposed an off-line content-selection algorithm for both scratch-pad memory and cache with line locking ability to improve both predicability and WCET estimation. Our approach is applicable to real-time systems that employ caches.

2.3. Reconfigurable Cache Architectures

As mentioned in Section 1, in power constrained embedded systems, nearly half of the overall power consumption is attributed to the cache subsystem [Malik et al. 2000][Segars 2001]. Fortunately, since applications require vastly different cache requirements in terms of cache size, line size, and associativity [Zhang et al. 2004], research shows that specializing the cache to an application's needs can reduce energy consumption by 62% on average [Gordon-Ross and Vahid 2004].

There are many existing general or application specific reconfigurable cache architectures. Motorola M*CORE processor [Malik et al. 2000] provides way shut-down and way management, which has the ability to specify the content of each specific way (instruction, data, or unified way). Kim et al. [2000] presented a FPGA-based configurable cache architecture where part of the cache can serve as a computing unit. Modarresssi et al. [2006] developed a cache architecture which can be dynamically partitioned and resized to improve the performance of object-oriented embedded systems. Settle et al. [2006] proposed a dynamically reconfigurable cache specifically designed for chip multi-processors. The reconfigurable cache architecture proposed by Zhang et al. [2005] imposes no overhead to the critical path, thus cache access time does not increase. Furthermore, the cache tuner consists of a small custom hardware or a lightweight process running on a co-processor, which can alter the cache configuration via hardware or software configuration registers. The underlying cache architecture consists of four separate banks as shown in Figure 1 (a), each of which acts as a separate way. Way concatenation shown in Figure 1 (b), which logically concatenates ways together, enables configurable associativity. Way shutdown shown in Figure 1 (c) effectively shuts down ways to vary cache size. Configurable line size in Figure 1 (d) is achieved by setting a unit-length base line size and then fetching subsequent lines if the line size increases.

Given a runtime reconfigurable cache, determining the best cache configuration is a difficult process. Dynamic and static analysis are two possible techniques. With dynamic analysis, cache configurations are evaluated in system during runtime to determine the best configuration. Two methods are possible for runtime cache analysis. The first method is intrusive and physically changes the cache to each configuration in the design space, examines the effects of each configuration, and chooses the best cache configuration. This method is inappropriate for real-time systems since it imposes unpredictable performance overhead during exploration. To eliminate this performance overhead, a second method employs an N-experts based analysis [Gordon-Ross et al. 2007]. In this technique, an auxiliary structure evaluates all cache configurations simultaneously. The best cache configuration is determined by inspecting this auxiliary structure, allowing the cache to change to



Fig. 1. Cache configurability: (a) base cache bank layout, (b) way concatenation, (c) way shutdown, and (d) configurable line size.

the best configuration in one-shot, without incurring any performance overhead. Even though this method is non-intrusive, the auxiliary data structure is too power hungry to continuously evaluate the system, and thus can only operate periodically.

With static analysis, various cache alternatives are explored and the best cache configuration is selected for each application in its entirety [Gordon-Ross et al. 2005] – application-based tuning, or for each phase of execution within an application [Sherwood et al. 2003] – phase-based tuning. Since applications tend to exhibit varying execution behavior throughout its execution, phase-based tuning allows for the cache configuration to be specialized to each particular period, resulting in greater energy savings than application-based tuning. Regardless of the tuning method, the predetermined best cache configuration (based on design requirements) could be stored in a look-up table or encoded into specialized instructions. The static analysis approach is most appropriate for real-time systems due to its non-intrusive nature. Previous methods focus solely on energy savings or Pareto-optimal points trading off energy consumption and performance. However, none of these methods consider task deadlines, which are imperative in real-time systems. In other words, the existing approaches were designed for desktop applications but not applicable for real-time systems.

3. SCHEDULING-AWARE CACHE RECONFIGURATION

A major challenge for cache reconfiguration in real-time systems is that tasks are constrained by their deadlines. Even in soft real-time systems, task execution time cannot be unpredictable or prolonged arbitrarily. Our goal is to realize maximum energy savings while ensuring the system only faces an innocuous amount of deadline violations (if any). Our proposed methodology – scheduling-aware cache reconfiguration – provides an efficient and near optimal strategy for cache tuning based on static program profiling for both statically and dynamically scheduled systems. Our approach statically executes, profiles, and analyzes each task intended to run in the system. The information obtained in the profiling process is fully utilized to make reconfiguration decisions dynamically. The remainder of this section is organized as follows. First, we present an overview of our approach using simple illustrative examples. Next, we present our static analysis technique for cache config-

uration selection. Finally, we describe how the static analysis results are used during runtime for statically- and dynamically-scheduled real-time systems.

3.1. Overview

This section presents a simple illustrative example to show how reconfigurable caches benefit realtime systems. This example assumes a system with two tasks, T1 and T2. Traditionally if a reconfigurable cache technique is not applied, the system will use a *base cache* configuration Cache_{base}, which is defined in Definition 3.1.

Definition 3.1. The term **Base cache** refers to the configuration selected as the optimal one for tasks in the target system with respect to energy as well as performance based on static analysis. Caches in such systems are chosen to ensure durable task schedules and their configurations are fixed throughout all task executions.

In the presence of a reconfigurable cache, as shown in Figure 2, different optimal cache configurations are determined for every "*phase*" of each task. For ease of illustration, we divide each task into two phases: *phase*₁ starts from the beginning to the end, and *phase*₂ starts from the half position of the dynamic instruction flow (midpoint) to the end. The terms Cache¹_{T1}, Cache²_{T2}, Cache¹_{T2}, and Cache²_{T2} represent the optimal cache configurations for *phase*₁ and *phase*₂ of task *T1* and *T2*, respectively. These configurations are chosen statically to be more energy efficient (with same or better performance), in their specific phases, than the global base cache, Cache_{base}.



Fig. 2. Cache configurations selected based on task phases

Figure 3 illustrates how energy consumption can be reduced by using our approach in real-time systems. Figure 3 (a) depicts a traditional system and Figure 3 (b) depicts a system with a reconfigurable cache (our approach). In this example, *T2* arrives (at time *P1*) and preempts *T1*. In a traditional approach, the system executes using Cache_{base} exclusively. With a reconfigurable cache, the first part of *T1* executes using Cache_{T1}¹. Similarly, Cache_{T2}¹ is used for execution of *T2*. Note that the actual preemption point of *T1* is not exactly at the same place where we pre-computed the optimal cache configuration (midpoint) since tasks may arrive at any time. When *T1* resumes at time point *P2*, the cache is tuned to Cache_{T1}² since the actual preemption point is closer to the midpoint compared to the starting point. The overall energy consumed using a reconfigurable cache results in the energy savings due to use of different energy optimal caches for each phase of task execution compared to using one global base cache in the traditional system. Our experimental results suggest that the proposed approach can significantly reduce energy consumption of the memory subsystem with only very little performance penalty.

3.2. Phase-based Optimal Cache Selection

This section describes our static analysis approach to determine the optimal cache configurations for various task phases. In a preemptive system, tasks may be interrupted and resumed at any point of time. Each time a task resumes, cache performance for the remainder of task execution will differ from the cache performance for the entire application due to its own distinguishing behaviors as well as cold-start compulsory cache misses. Therefore, the optimal cache configuration for the remainder of the task execution may be different.



Fig. 3. Dynamic cache reconfigurations for tasks T1 and T2

Definition 3.2. **Phase** is defined as the execution period between one potential preemption point (also called **partition points**) and task completion. The phase that starts at i^{th} partition point is denoted as phase \mathbf{p}_n^i , where *n* is the total number of phases of that task.

Figure 4 depicts the general case where a task is divided by n-1 predefined potential preemption points $(P_1, P_2 \dots P_{n-1})$. P_0 and P_n are used to refer to the start and end point of the task, respectively. Here, $C_0, C_1 \dots C_{n-1}$ represent the optimal cache configuration (either energy or performance) for each phase, respectively. To observe the variation in cache requirements for each phase, Table I shows variation in energy-optimal and performance-optimal instruction and data caches for each phase. For example, the energy-optimal cache configuration for the phase starting from the half point to the completion (C_2) of benchmark *cjpeg* has 2048-byte capacity, 16-byte block and 2-way associativity.



Fig. 4. Task partitioning at *n* potential preemption points (P_i) resulting in *n* phases. Each phase comprises execution from the invocation/resumption point to task completion. C_i denotes the cache configuration used in each phase.

During static profiling, a *partition factor* is chosen that determines the number of potential preemption points and resulting phases. Partition granularity is defined as the number of dynamic instructions between two partition points and is determined by dividing the total number of dynamically executed instructions by the partition factor. Intuitively, the optimal partition granularity should be a single instruction, potentially leading to the largest amount of energy savings. However, such a tiny granularity would result in a prohibitively large look-up table, which is not feasible due to area as well as searching time constraints. Due to cache locality over time, the optimal performance cache is tend to be the largest cache [Hennessy and Patterson 2003] and the optimal energy cache is not necessarily the smallest dynamic energy cache [Gordon-Ross and Vahid 2004]. Thus, a trade-off should be made to determine a reasonable partition factor based on energy-savings potential and acceptable overheads. An important question one can raise is whether a larger partition

Table I. Optimal cache configurations for task phases. Each configuration is denoted by the total cache size in kilobytes (kb), followed by the associativity in number of ways (w), followed by the line size in bytes (b).

	CJPEG						
	I-Ca	ache	D-Ca	ache			
	Energy Performance		Energy	Performance			
	Optimal	Optimal	Optimal	Optimal			
C0	4KB_2W_16B	4KB_4W_16B	4KB_4W_16B	4KB_4W_16B			
C1	4KB_2W_16B	4KB_4W_32B	4KB_4W_16B	4KB_4W_16B			
C2	2KB_2W_16B	4KB_4W_16B	2KB_2W_32B	4KB_4W_16B			
C3	2KB_2W_16B	4KB_4W_16B	2KB_2W_32B	4KB_4W_16B			
		RAWC	AUDIO				
	I-Ca	ache	D-Ca	ache			
	Energy	Performance	Energy	Performance			
	Optimal	Optimal	Optimal	Optimal			
C0	1KB_1W_16B	4KB_2W_64B	2KB_2W_16B	2KB_2W_16B			
C1	1KB_1W_16B	2KB_2W_16B	2KB_2W_16B	$4KB_4W_16B$			
C2	1KB_1W_16B	4KB_4W_16B	2KB_2W_16B	4KB_4W_16B			
C3	1KB_1W_16B	4KB_2W_16b	2KB_2W_32B	4KB_4W_16B			
		A2TI	ME01				
	I-Ca	ache	D-C	ache			
	Energy	Performance	Energy	Performance			
	Optimal	Optimal	Optimal	Optimal			
C0	4KB_4W_16B	4KB_4W_16B	4KB_2W_32B	4KB_4W_16B			
C1	4KB_4W_16B	4KB_4W_16B	2KB_2W_32B	4KB_4W_16B			
C2	4KB_4W_16B	4KB_4W_16B	2KB_2W_16B	4KB_4W_16B			
C3	4KB_4W_16B	4KB_4W_16B	2KB_2W_16B	2KB_2W_16B			

factor (finer granularity) always reveals more energy savings. However, to answer this question, we need to address the following two issues.

The first issue is how the optimal cache configuration for each phase varies when the partition factor increases. We noticed that, for each task, once the partition factor is larger than a certain threshold, more and more neighboring partitions share the same optimal cache configuration. We explored how partition factor can affect the variation of optimal (both energy and performance) cache configurations for each benchmark in MediaBench [Lee et al. 1997] and EEMBC [EEMBC 2000] – the two benchmark suites we use in Section 4. Figure 5 shows the results for some of them (cjpeg, epic and rawdaudio) using partition factor 6, 12 and 18. For the same benchmark, the optimal cache configuration for each phase varies in a consistent pattern across different partition factors. For example, the energy-optimal instruction cache configuration for benchmark *cipeg* (cipeg L\$_E) is 4096B_2W_16B¹ for the first several phases and then changes to 2048B_2W_16B starting from about one third of the program: *phase* p_6^2 , *phase* p_{12}^4 and *phase* p_{18}^6 when partition factor is 6, 12 and 18, respectively. In other words, larger partition factor makes more and more phases share the same optimal cache configuration with their neighboring phases. Exception can happen when partition factor increases, different optimal cache configuration from lower partition factor case is found. For example, the performance-optimal instruction cache configuration of benchmark *cjpeg* (cjpeg_I\$_P in Figure 5 (b)) with partition factor 12 differs at *phase* p_{12}^3 compared to the similar position when partition factor is 6 (Figure 5 (a)). Our experimental result shows that though discrepancies do happen, their impact on energy savings is normally negligible because the energy/performance difference between the newly picked cache configuration and the original one is usually very small. From this observation, one can derive the fact that application behavior can sufficiently be captured by a certain partition factor. This is evident due to the well-established 90/10 law of execution -90% of the execution time is spent in only 10% of the code – in which the 90% of the time is typ-

¹It means a cache configuration with 4096-byte capacity, 16-byte line size and 2-way associativity.

ACM Transactions on Embedded Computing Systems, Vol. 0, No. 1, Article 1, Publication date: 2011.

ically spent executing loops. For each loop iteration, except the first and last iterations, execution behavior is typically similar, thus resulting in the same optimal cache configuration for all other iterations. For a loop with N iterations, the partition factor only need to be large enough to capture all dynamic instructions of iterations 2 through (N - 1), as any smaller granularity would capture a subset of iterations, each of which may have the same optimal configuration. Thus, we define a *stage* of execution as a range of consecutive dynamic instructions in which a common optimal cache configuration exists.

The second issue is whether finer partition granularity always brings more energy savings than a coarser one. With finer granularity, if there is no extra variation in the optimal cache configuration across phases, there will be no additional energy savings since the same cache configurations are being used. If variations can be observed, according to our experiments, they only happen at stage boundaries, which is a very limited portion in the entire program. Figure 6 gives an example explaining why this is the case. Suppose there are two tasks: TI and T2 in the system and partition factor (p) can be chosen as 4 or 8. A valid schedule of them is shown in Figure 6. Since T2 is executed as a whole, the cache configuration used is the optimal one for the entire task, which are the same using both partition factors. TI is preempted by T2. So when TI resumes, a different cache configuration should be picked based on the preemption point as well as the partition factor. As discussed in the first issue, higher partition factor shows consistent variation pattern of optimal cache configuration with only minor exceptions. Suppose when partition factor is 4, for task T1, the cache configuration picked for phase p_4^0 , phase p_4^1 , phase p_4^2 and phase p_4^3 are C_A , C_A , C_B and C_B , respectively. And when partition factor is 8, they are C_A , C_A , C_A , C_C , C_B , C_B , C_B and C_B for phase p_8^0 to phase p_8^7 , respectively. Using the nearest-neighbor technique as discussed in Section 3.4.1, the advantage of using partition factor 8 over 4 become effective only when the preemption happens within the range from 5/16 to 7/16 of T1 (effective area) since C_C will be chosen instead of C_A or C_B . Note that C_C may be more energy/performance efficient for the rest part of T1 than CA and CB. From the entire system's point of view, higher partition factor (8) does not help for T2 as well as T1 if them never get preempted or the preemption does not happen in the effective area. Based on our experiments, merely 3 - 8% additional energy saving (for that one task) is possible only if the preemption occurs within the effective area of the dynamic instruction flow. Empirically, the effective area is usually 5 - 8% of the task. Due to these two small probabilities multiplied together, merely 0.4% on average, finer granularity partition can bring only minor benefit.

Thus, the goal of a system designer is to find a partition factor which leads to maximized energy reduction and minimizes the number of partition points that need to be stored. The rule of thumb is to find a partition factor minimizing the number of neighboring partitions that share the same optimal cache configuration. It could be a local optimal factor for each task if varying number of table entries for different tasks is allowed or it could be a global optimal factor for the task set. Based on our experience, a partition factor ranging from 4 to 7 is sufficient to make our technique working efficiently.

Static profiling generates a **profile table** that stores the potential preemption points and the corresponding optimal cache configurations for each task. Section 3.3 and 3.4 describe how this profile table is used during runtime in statically and dynamically scheduled systems.

3.3. Statically Scheduled Systems

With static scheduling, arrival times, execution times, and deadlines are known a priori for each task and this information serves as scheduler input. The scheduler then provides a schedule detailing all actions taken during system execution. According to this schedule, we can statically execute and record the energy-optimal cache configurations that do not violate any task's deadline for every execution period of each task. For soft real-time systems, global (system-wide) energy-optimal configurations can be selected as long as the configuration performance does not severely affect system behavior. After this profiling step, the profile table is integrated with the scheduler so that the cache reconfiguration hardware (cache tuner) can tune the cache for each scheduling decision.



Fig. 5. Optimal cache configuration variation under different partition factors (a) Partition factor = 6, (b) Partition factor = 12, (c) Partition factor = 18 (Here I\$ represents instruction cache. 'E' stands for energy-optimal and 'P' stands for performance-optimal)



Fig. 6. Effective range where a higher partition factor makes a difference

3.4. Dynamically Scheduled Systems

With dynamic scheduling (online scheduling), scheduling decisions are made during runtime. In this scenario, task preemption points are unknown since new tasks may enter the system at any time with any time constraint. In this section, we present two versions of our technique based on the nature of the target system.

3.4.1. Conservative Approach. In some soft real-time systems where high service quality is required thus time constraints are pressing, only an extremely small number of violations are tolerable. The conservative approach could ensure that given a carefully chosen partition factor, almost every task could meet their deadlines with only few exceptions. To ensure the largest task schedulability, any reconfiguration decision will only change the cache into a lowest energy configuration whose execution time is not longer than that of the base cache. In other words, to maintain a high quality of service, only cache configurations with equal or higher performance than the base cache are chosen for each task phase. Note that the chosen energy-optimal configuration may not be the global lowest energy configuration but is the one with lowest energy consumption given a specific time constraint. We denote them as deadline-aware energy-optimal cache configurations.

The scheduler chooses the appropriate cache configuration from the generated profile table that contains the energy-optimal cache configurations for each task phase. Table IIa shows the profile table for task *i* with a partition factor *p*. $EO_i(n/p)$ represents the energy-optimal cache configuration for *phase* p_p^n of task *i*. Here, n/p represents the nth phase out of *p* phases. The total dynamic instruction count (*TIN*) refers to the number of dynamic instructions executed in a single run of that task.

During system execution, the scheduler maintains a task list keeping track of all existing tasks as shown in Table IIb. In addition to the static profile table Table IIa, runtime information such as arrival time (A_i), deadline (D_i), and number of already executed dynamic instructions (*EIN*) are also recorded. This information is stored not only for the scheduler, but also for the cache tuner. When a newly arrived task² begins execution for the first time, the deadline-aware energy-optimal cache configuration $EO_i(0/p)$ is obtained from the task list entry, and the cache tuner adjusts the cache

 $^{^{2}}$ To be more specific, we actually mean "jobs" (execution instance of tasks). For simplicity, a more general term "task" is used in this article.

ACM Transactions on Embedded Computing Systems, Vol. 0, No. 1, Article 1, Publication date: 2011.

containe appleach					
Task ID: i	Partition Factor: p				
Total Instru	ction Number (TIN)				
	EO _i (0/p)				
	$EO_i(1/p)$				
$EO_i(2/p)$					
I	$EO_i(p-1/p)$				

Table IIa. Static profile table for conservative approach

Table IIb. Task list entr	/ for task i for conservative :	approach

Task ID: i	Partition Factor: p			
Arrival time (A_i)	Deadline (\mathbf{D}_i)			
Total Instruction Number	Executed Instruction			
(TIN)	Number (EIN)			
EOi	(0/p)			
EOi	(1/p)			
$EO_i(2/p)$				
$EO_i(p-1/p)$				

appropriately. If preemption happens, the number of the preempted task's executed instructions *(EIN)* is calculated and stored in its task list entry.

As indicated in Section 3.2, potential preemption points are pre-decided during the profile table generation process. However, it is highly unlikely that the actual preemptions will occur precisely on these potential preemption points. Hence, a *nearest-neighbor* method is used to determine which cache configuration should be used. Essentially, if the preemption point falls between partition points n/p and (n+1)/p, the nearest point will be referred to select the current cache configuration. Algorithm 1 illustrates cache tuning algorithm for our conservative approach. This algorithm is called when a previously preempted task resumes its execution. It runs in a time complexity of O(p), where p is the partition factor. Note that the returned cache configuration information is sent to the cache tuner.

ALGORITHM 1: Selection of cache configuration for resumed preempted task in conservative approach

Input: Task list entry Output: A deadline-aware cache configuration for the resumed task Tc. for $\overline{i} = 0$ to p - 2 do if $TIN_{Tc} \times i/p \leq EIN_{Tc} < TIN_{Tc} \times (i+1)/p$ then if $(EIN_{Tc} - TIN_{Tc} \times i/p) < (TIN_{Tc} \times (i+1)/p - EIN_{Tc})$ then $PHASE_{Tc} = i/p;$ else $PHASE_{Tc} = (i+1)/p;$ end if end if end for if $EIN_{Tc} \ge TIN_{Tc} \times (p-1)/p$ then *PHASE*_{*Tc*} = (p - 1)/p; end if $Cache_{Tc} = EO_i(PHASE_{Tc});$ **Return:** Cache_{Tc}

As our experimental result shows, conservative approach obtains significant energy savings with little or no impact on quality of service. Minor number of time constraint violations are caused by cache behaviors in which optimal cache configuration for the period from the one preemption

Task	k ID: i	Partition	Factor: p				
1	Total Instruction Number (TIN)						
$EO_i(0/p)$	$EOT_i(0/p)$	$PO_i(0/p)$	$POT_i(0/p)$				
$EO_i(1/p)$	$EOT_i(1/p)$	$PO_i(1/p)$	$POT_i(1/p)$				
$EO_i(2/p)$	$EOT_i(2/p)$	$PO_i(2/p)$	$POT_i(2/p)$				
EO _{<i>i</i>} (p-1/p)	$EOT_i(p-1/p)$	$PO_i(p-1/p)$	$POT_i(p-1/p)$				

Table IIIa. Static profile table for aggressive approach

Table IIIb. (Task list entry for task *i* for aggressive approach

Ta	sk ID: i	Partition Factor: p				
Arriva	al time (A _i)	Dea	dline (\mathbf{D}_i)			
Total Instr	uction Number	Execute	d Instruction			
((TIN)	Num	ber (EIN)			
Current Phase (CP)						
$EO_i(0/p)$	$EOT_i(0/p)$	$PO_i(0/p)$	$POT_i(0/p)$			
$EO_i(1/p)$	$EOT_i(1/p)$	$PO_i(1/p)$	$POT_i(1/p)$			
$EO_i(2/p)$	$EOT_i(2/p)$	$PO_i(2/p)$	$POT_i(2/p)$			
$EO_i(p-1/p)$	$EOT_i(p-1/p)$	PO _{<i>i</i>} (p-1/p)	$POT_i(p-1/p)$			

point to another preemption point and that for the pre-decided phase differ greatly. In other words, the chosen cache configuration may happen to be inefficient for the execution period between two actual preemption points such that the lost time is not reparable by the subsequent selected cache configurations in that task. Fortunately, this kind of behavior is relatively rare.

3.4.2. Aggressive Approach. For soft real-time systems in which only moderate service quality is needed, a more aggressive version of our approach can reveal additional energy savings at the cost of possibly violating several future task deadlines, but remain in an acceptable range.

Similar to the conservative approach, a profile table is associated with every task in the system; however this profile table contains the performance-optimal cache configuration (whose execution time is the shortest) in addition to the energy-optimal configuration (the one with lowest energy consumption among all candidates) for every task phase. In order to assist dynamic scheduling, the profile table also includes the corresponding phase's execution time (in cycles) for each configuration. Table IIIa shows the profile table for task i with a partition factor of p. The terms EO, EOT, PO, and POT stand for the energy-optimal cache configuration, the energy-optimal cache configuration's execution time, the performance-optimal cache configuration, and the performance-optimal cache configuration's execution time, respectively. Notice that, the performance and energy efficiency of a cache configuration is not in inverse proportion. The energy-optimal one does not necessarily have the worst performance. Compared to the base cache, it could have both better energy efficiency and performance.

Table IIIb shows the task list entry for the aggressive approach. The difference from the conservative approach (shown in Table IIb) is that every task list entry also holds a Current Phase (CP_i) identifier. CP_i denotes the partition point that this task's execution just passed and is useful for cache reconfiguration upon task resumption. Note that newly inserted task's CP is initialized to 0. In addition to the task list, the scheduler also maintains another runtime data structure called the Ready Task List (*RTL*), which contains an identifier of each existing task currently ready to execute in the system.

To explain the aggressive approach, we use an illustrative example in which there are three tasks (jobs), *T1*, *T2*, and *T3*, with absolute deadlines D_{T1} , D_{T2} , and D_{T3} , where $D_{T2} < D_{T1} < D_{T3}$. According to EDF, the priority sequence is simply the opposite of the deadlines, which is $Pri_2 > Pri_1 > Pri_3$. Figure 7 shows a schedule for these tasks. Note that *P0*, *P1*, *P2*, and *P3* represent the time instances when any event (arrival, completion, etc.) occurs. At time point *P0*, *T1* arrives and the scheduler generates the task list entry for *T1* and adds *T1* to the *RTL*. Since *T1* is currently the only task in the system, the scheduler instructs the cache tuner to configure the cache to $EO_{T1}(0/p)$ if and

only if $P0 + EO_{T1}(0/p) < D_{T1}$, otherwise the cache will be tuned to $PO_{T1}(0/p)$, which ensures that TI's deadline will be met. At time point P1, T2 arrives with priority higher than the currently active task T1. The scheduler calculates T1's current phase CP_{T1} and updates T1's task list entry. Note that T1's deadline may be violated if the following inequality holds:

$$P1 + POT_{T1}((CP_{T1} + 1)/p) + POT_{T2}(0/p) > D_{T1}$$
(1)

This is obviously an underestimation of the execution time that the remaining portion of T1 will take, thus more aggressive, but it favors tasks with higher priority (T2). However, if we use $POT_{T1}(CP_{T1}/p)$ in Equation 1, T2 may have a lower chance of being accepted, but the lower priority task T1 would more likely meet its deadline.

If Equation 1 does not hold, the scheduler determines T2's cache configuration C_{T2} as follows (assuming $P_i + POT_i(0/p) < D_i$ for all tasks *i* otherwise task *i* is not schedulable in any situation):

if
$$(P1 + EOT_{T2}(0/p) > D_{T2})$$
 then
 $C_{T2} = PO_{T2}(0/p)$
else if $(P1 + EOT_{T2}(0/p) + POT_{T1}((CP_{T1} + 1)/p) < D_{T1})$ then
 $C_{T2} = EO_{T2}(0/p)$
else if $(P1 + EOT_{T2}(0/p) + POT_{T1}((CP_{T1} + 1)/p) > D_{T1})$ then
 $C_{T2} = PO_{T2}(0/p)$

At time point P2, T2 completes and T1 resumes since it is the only ready task. The scheduler utilizes CP_{T1} to determine the appropriate partition to choose a cache configuration. This technique is similar in principle to the nearest neighbor method used in Section 3.4.1, except that a decision should be made whether to use the energy-optimal or performance-optimal configuration based on the remaining time budget. At some point during T1's execution, T3 arrives but since T3 has a lower priority than T1, T3 begins execution after T1 completes execution. By this time, T3 is the only task and its cache configuration decision is made using the same method as task T1 at time P0.



Fig. 7. Task set and sample scheduling

Algorithm 2 illustrates the general cache configuration selection algorithm for preempted tasks of our aggressive approach. This algorithm is called either when a new task with a higher priority than the current executing task arrives or when the current task finishes execution. In the former case, Step 1 uses the executed instruction number (EIN) to calculate the Current Phase (CP) for the preempted task. While in the latter case, this step should be omitted. Step 2 picks the highest priority³ task Tc from RTL. In the former case, the newly arrived task in inserted into RTL and, obviously, Tc refers to that task. Step 3 checks the schedulability of all the tasks in RTL by iteratively checking whether each task can meet its deadline if all the preceding tasks, including itself, use performance-optimal cache configurations. This process is done in the order of tasks' priority (from highest to lowest) to achieve least discarded tasks. In Step 4, the appropriate cache configuration for Tc is selected based on whether it is safe to use energy-optimal cache configuration. This algorithm runs in time of $O(\max(p,m))$ where p is the partition factor and m is the total number of tasks in RTL.

³Here the priority means the dynamic scheduling priority decided by EDF.

ALGORITHM 2: Selection of cache configuration for aggressive approach Input: Task list entry, ready task list and preemption point Output: A appropriate cache configuration Step 1: Calculate CP for the preempted task Tp. Insert Tp to RTL. for i = 0 to p - 1 do if $TIN_{Tp} \times i/p \le EIN_{Tp} < TIN_{Tp} \times (i+1)/p$ then $CP_{Tp} = i/p;$ end if end for Step 2: Remove the task with maximum priority Tc from RTL. **Step 3:** Sort all tasks in RTL by priority, T_1 to T_m , from highest to lowest. C represents the current time instant. for j = 1 to m do if $C + POT_{Tc}(CP_{Tc}/p) + \sum_{i=1}^{j} POT_{Ti}((CP_{Ti}+1)/p) > D_{Tj}$ then Task D_{Tj} is subject to be discarded; end if end for Step 4: Select cache configuration for Tc. Let m' be the number of tasks in RTL left after Step 3. if $C + EOT_{Tc}(CP_{Tc}/p) > D_{Tc}$ then $Cache_{Tc} = PO_{Tc};$ else $EO_{-}OK = true;$ for j = 1 to m' do if $C + EOT_{Tc}(CP_{Tc}/p) + \sum_{i=1}^{J} POT_{Ti}((CP_{Ti}+1)/p) > D_{Tj}$ then $EO_{-}OK = false;$ end if end for end if if $EO_{-}OK == true$ then $Cache_{Tc} = EO_{Tc};$ else $Cache_{Tc} = PO_{Tc};$ end if **Return:** Cache_{Tc}

3.5. Impact of Storing Multiple Cache Configurations

This section investigates the extent at which individual cache configuration candidates are required during scheduling. In the approaches proposed in Section 3.4.1 and 3.4.2, the scheduler only considers either the energy-optimal cache in the conservative approach, or the energy- and performance-optimal caches in the aggressive approach, for each task phase. As justified by our experiments, we can achieve considerable amount of energy savings at the cost of very low system overheads by just storing these cache configurations in the static profile table. However, there exists other configurations which offer Pareto-optimal tradeoff points. Simply because the energy-optimal cache cannot satisfy a particular task's deadline, it does not mean that there is no cache configuration of that task which can meet the deadline and consume less energy than the performance-optimal cache. For example, as described in Algorithm 2, when the scheduler finds that using energy-optimal cache for a task is unsafe, it has no choice but to pick the performance-optimal cache. But if the second energy-optimal cache is also available to the scheduler and is able to meet the time constraint (has higher performance), the scheduler can pick that cache configuration to potentially save more energy. Figure 8 (a) illustrates this extension of the profile table.

ACM Transactions on Embedded Computing Systems, Vol. 0, No. 1, Article 1, Publication date: 2011.



Fig. 8. (a) Storing multiple optimal cache configurations for each task phase, (b) Second beneficial optimal cache selection on the Pareto-optimal curve

Note that we use the phrase *second beneficial energy-optimal cache* and *second beneficial performance-optimal cache* in Figure 8 (a). Figure 8 (b) shows how we choose them. We only consider those cache configurations on the Pareto-optimal curve which have either better energy efficiency or higher performance than other ones. In the extreme case, if we can store all these cache configurations for every task phase in the profile table, the scheduler will be capable of choosing the lowest energy cache configuration that is capable of meeting time constraints of all the existing task in the system. Thus this is a tradeoff between potential energy savings and system overhead in the form of table storage and scheduler complexity. Note that storing information for one more cache configuration in the table will potentially double the area overhead as well as increase power consumption and access time. Section 4.4 provides experimental results of this approach.

4. EXPERIMENTS

4.1. Experiments Setup

To quantify energy savings using our approach, we examined selected benchmarks from the MediaBench [Lee et al. 1997] – mostly multimedia applications – and EEMBC Automotive [EEMBC 2000] benchmark suites, representing typical tasks that might be present in a soft real-time system. All applications were executed with the default input sets provided with the benchmarks suites.

We utilized the configurable cache architecture for L1 cache developed by Zhang et al [Zhang et al. 2005] with a four-bank cache of base size 4 KB, which offers sizes of 1 KB, 2 KB, and 4 KB, line sizes ranging from 16 bytes to 64 bytes, and associativity of 1-way, 2-way, and 4-way. For comparison purposes, we define the *base cache* configuration to be a 4 KB, 2-way set associative cache with a 32-byte line size, a reasonably common configuration that meets the needs of the benchmarks studied. The L2 cache is set to a 64K unified cache with 4-way associativity and 32B line size. Our energy model, adopted from the one used in [Zhang et al. 2005], calculates both dynamic and static energy consumption, memory latency, CPU stall energy, and main memory fetch energy. Let E_{dyn} and E_{sta} denote the dynamic energy and static energy of the cache subsystem, respectively. The total cache energy consumption hence is $E_{cache} = E_{dyn} + E_{sta}$. Specifically, we have:

$$E_{dvn} = num_accesses \cdot E_{access} + num_misses \cdot E_{miss}$$
(2)

$$E_{miss} = E_{offchip_access} + E_{\mu P_stall} + E_{block_fill}$$
(3)

$$E_{sta} = P_{sta} \cdot CC \cdot t_{cvcle} \tag{4}$$

where Eaccess, Emiss and Pstatic are the energy required per cache access, per cache miss and static power consumption, respectively. Eaccess and Pstatic are collected from CACTI 4.2 [HP 2008] with 0.18 μm technology for all cache configurations. Following [Zhang et al. 2005], we represent E_{miss} as the sum of the energy consumptions for fetching data from off-chip memory $E_{offchip_access}$, processor stall due to cache miss $E_{\mu P_stall}$ and cache block refilling after a miss E_{block_fill} . CC denotes the number of clock cycles that is required to execute the task and t_{cycle} is the length of each clock cycle. The access latency (e.g., in ns) to read particular data from the cache remains the same when we reconfigure the cache because the clock frequency is fixed determined by the base cache size. The data transfer time during a cache miss is determined by the cache line size as well as the bandwidth between memory levels. In general, larger line sizes will lead to more data transfer cycles thus higher access latencies. This variance, for both L1 and L2 caches, are incorporated in our model considering different miss cycles for cache configurations with various line sizes. We adopt these values from the study in [Zhang et al. 2005]. To obtain cache hit and miss statistics, we used the SimpleScalar toolset [Burger et al. 1996] to simulate the applications. We assume an in-order issue core with a four-stage pipeline. It supports out-of-order completion but the pipeline is stalled whenever a data hazard is detected. It also supports speculation and a branch predictor with 2-bit saturating counter. We use PISA architecture in our experiments and the compiler is the default little-endian PISA compiler (sslittle-na-sstrix-gcc) which comes with SimpleScalar 3.0, with cc options CFLAGS= -O -I\$(srcdir). To populate the static profile tables for each task, we utilize SimpleScalar's external I/O trace files (eio file), checkpointing, and fastforwarding capabilities. This method allows for every benchmark phase to be individually profiled via fastforwarding execution to each potential preemption point. In our experiments, we used partition factors ranging from 4 to 7. Driven by Perl scripts, the design space of 18 cache configurations is exhaustively explored during static analysis to determine the energy-, performance-, and deadline-aware energy-optimal cache configurations for each phase of each benchmark.

	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3			
Task Set 1	epic*	pegwit*	rawcaudio*			
Task Set 2	cjpeg*	toast*	mpeg2*			
Task Set 3	A2TIME01**	AIFFTR01**	AIFIRF01**	*MadiaBanch **FFBMC		
Task Set 4	BITMNP01**	IDCTRN01**	RSPEED01**			
Task Set 5	djpeg*	rawdaudio*	untoast*			
Task Set 6	BaseFP01**	CACHEB01**	IIRFLT01**			
Task Set 7	TBLOOK01**	TTSPRK01**	PUWMOD01**			

Table IV. Benchmark task sets

ACM Transactions on Embedded Computing Systems, Vol. 0, No. 1, Article 1, Publication date: 2011.

4.2. Results

To model sample real-time embedded systems with multiple executing tasks, we created seven different task sets as shown in Table IV. In each task set, the three selected benchmarks have comparable dynamic instruction sizes in order to avoid behavioral domination by one relatively large task. For system simulation, task arrival times and deadlines are randomly generated. To achieve effective and fair comparison, we make the system utilization ratio close to the schedulability condition [Liu 2000]. We examine varying preempting points and average these values so that our results represent a generic degree of scheduling decisions.

We compare the energy consumption for each task set using different schemes: a fixed base cache configuration, the conservative approach, and the aggressive approach. Energy consumption is normalized to the fixed base cache configuration such that value of 1 represents our baseline. Figure 9 presents energy savings for the instruction and data cache subsystems. Energy savings in the instruction cache subsystem ranges from 22% to 54% for the conservative approach, while it reaches as high as 74% for the aggressive approach. Energy savings average 33% and 52% for the conservative and aggressive approaches, respectively. In the data cache subsystem, energy saving is generally less than that of the instruction cache subsystem due to less variation in cache configuration requirements. In the data cache subsystem, energy savings range from 15% to 47% for the conservative approach, while it reaches as high as 64% for the aggressive approach, and the average are 16% and 22% for the conservative and aggressive approaches, respectively.

It is worth investigating the insights behind the experimental results: why instruction cache and data cache reveal such different energy savings when executing tasks from different benchmark suites (MediaBench and EEMBC)? Note that we use benchmarks from MediaBench in task sets 1 and 2 while benchmarks from EEMBC in task sets 3 and 4. As shown in Figure 9, task set 1, for example, has more energy savings in data cache than in instruction cache using aggressive approach. By looking at the properties of each benchmark in that task set, we found that they have common characteristics in their energy-optimal and performance-optimal cache configurations stored in the profile table. To illustrate this, we sort each task's all cache configurations by their energy consumption as well as performance. Figure 10 depicts the layout of each configuration ranking by its energy and performance for benchmark epic⁴. We can see that in data cache, the chosen energyoptimal cache's performance and performance-optimal cache's energy consumption are relatively much better than in instruction cache. The higher the performance an energy-optimal cache configuration has, the higher the chance that it will be chosen by the scheduler. On the other side, the less energy an performance-optimal cache configuration consumes, the less penalty (extra energy consumption) it has to pay when the scheduler has to choose the performance-optimal one due to tight timing constraints. These two factors explain why for test case 1, data cache reveals more energy savings than instruction cache. For those task sets containing benchmarks from EEBMC, the situation is just the opposite. Task sets 3 and 4 do very well in instruction cache but show very little energy saving in data cache. Figure 11 illustrates the reason for this observation. Again, though only A2TIME01 is shown, we found almost all the benchmarks in EEMBC have the same property. In instruction cache, the performance of the energy-optimal cache is very close to that of the performance-optimal one. Similarly, the energy consumption of the performance-optimal cache is very close to that of the energy-optimal one. Interestingly, in many cases they are the same cache configuration, for example, A2TIME01 in Figure 11 (a). However, in data cache, the energyfavored caches and performance-favored caches differ tremendously. For this reason, benchmarks from EEMBC are doing extremely bad in data cache.

It is also helpful to discuss how miss rate plays its role in the cache model and thus affects the optimal cache configuration variations. Figure 12 shows the miss rates for epic, which explains the insights behind Figure 10 showing each data cache configuration behaving similarly in terms of both performance and energy efficiency (e.g. Figure 10 (b)) while the instruction caches behaves just the

⁴Due to space limit, results for one task in test set 1 is shown here. But other tasks in that set also have the similar pattern. For the same reason, though only results for the entire benchmark is shown there, other phases also show the same property.



Fig. 9. Cache subsystem energy consumption normalized to the base cache configuration for each task set (a) Instruction cache (b) Data cache

opposite. The reason for $4K_4W_16B$ and $4K_4W_32B$ being superior in both energy and performance is the following. On one hand, the benchmark's data region in the footprint is relatively large and thus the capacity of the data cache is critical. In other words, configurations with smaller sizes cannot satisfy the benchmark's footprint and thus suffer from high miss rates. Therefore, with same associativity, configurations with larger capacity always win over those with smaller size in both performance and energy. On the other hand, as shown in Figure 12, 1K configurations with 2-way associativity⁵ have similar miss rates as 2K direct-mapped caches while 2K and 2-way associativity configurations have lower miss rates than 4K direct-mapped caches. Therefore, temporal locality of the benchmark which reflects in the number of conflict misses (which further reflect in the desired cache associativity) also play an important role in deciding optimal cache configurations. The code region in the footprint is relatively small and thus can be easily satisfied, each configuration will

⁵Although 1K cache with 2-way associativity is not valid in our reconfigurable cache architecture, we include here for illustration purpose only.

ACM Transactions on Embedded Computing Systems, Vol. 0, No. 1, Article 1, Publication date: 2011.



Fig. 10. Cache configuration candidate's energy and performance rank layout (a) Instruction Cache (epic), (b) Data Cache (epic)



Fig. 11. Cache configuration candidate's energy and performance rank layout (a) Instruction Cache (A2TIME01), (b) Data Cache (A2TIME01)

show similar low miss rates thus smaller configurations could win in energy efficiency due to its low power dissipation.

To illustrate the effect from leakage power on the optimal cache preference, Figure 13 (a) and (b) show both dynamic and static energy consumption of various cache configurations for benchmark dijkstra and A2TIME01, respectively. For dijkstra, the smallest cache configuration overall wins since larger-size configurations do not show much efficiency in dynamic energy while result in larger static energy. However, for A2TIME01, larger cache configurations outperform smaller ones due to significant reductions in dynamic energy consumption. This also explains why different programs favor different cache configurations.

4.3. Suitability of Statically Determined Configurations

System's performance variations when using our approaches are shown in Table V and Table VI. We keep tracking of each task's performance during the system execution and find the percentage of those jobs of that task whose performance are higher (and lower but deadlines are met) using the selected cache configuration compared to the base cache. As discussed in Section 3.4.1, the cache configuration selected by our approach (nearest-neighbor nature) may possibly be inefficient in performance for the execution period between the actual preemption points. The percentage deadline misses are also provided for each task to evaluate the system service level. Though lower performance



mance jobs do potentially have impact on the system performance, they are not harmful since no task deadline is missed. As the results show, our approach achieves significant energy savings at a very low cost of small amount of task deadline misses which are acceptable in soft real-time systems. For example, among *epic*'s all executions (jobs), 75% of them took shorter time using the cache configurations selected by conservative approach than using base cache while 21% of them took longer time but still met the time constraints. Only 4% of all its jobs actually miss their deadlines. As Table V demonstrates, our conservative approach leads to very minor deadline misses (0 - 4%). Our aggressive approach can generate drastic reduction in energy requirements with slight higher deadlines misses (1% - 18%).

To show how early/late in the execution the deadlines are missed, for each low-priority job that is discarded, we collected its current phase (CP) as defined in Section 3.4.2, as shown in Table VII. In other words, among all the jobs that missed their deadlines (e.g. 4% of all jobs), different jobs are dropped at different stages of execution (CP). For example, in case of epic, among the 8% of jobs that are dropped, 23% of them have executed over one-fourth (CP = 1), 54% of them have executed over half (CP = 2) and 23% of them are over three-fourth (CP = 3).

4.4. Impact of Storing Multiple Cache Configurations

As discussed in Section 3.5, storing multiple beneficial cache configurations may lead to more energy savings. We explore the effect of using extended profile table by running task set 1 - 4 in Table IV. The profile table size is doubled to accommodate the second beneficial energy- and performance-optimal cache configuration. Algorithm 2 is modified to be aware of this extension.

Task Sets	Tasks	Higher perfor- mance jobs	Lower perfor- mance jobs	Deadline misses
	epic	75%	21%	4%
1	pegwit	99%	1%	0%
	rawcaudio	94%	3%	3%
	cjpeg	94%	5%	1%
2	toast	89%	4%	7%
	mpeg2	94%	2%	4%
	A2TIME01	98%	2%	0%
3	AIFFTR01	82%	15%	3%
	AIFIRF01	99%	1%	0%
	BITMNP01	100%	0%	0%
4	IDCTRN01	96%	2%	2%
	RSPEED01	99%	1%	0%

Table V. Task performance variations for conservative approach

T 1 1		T 1	,			
Iania	VI	lack	nortormanco	variations to	r anaraceiva	annroach
iabic	v I.	iasin	periornance	variations to		approact

Task Sets	Tasks	Higher perfor- mance jobs	Lower perfor- mance jobs	Deadline misses
	epic	63%	29%	8%
1	pegwit	89%	10%	1%
	rawcaudio	76%	12%	12%
	cjpeg	90%	6%	4%
2	toast	72%	16%	12%
	mpeg2	75%	17%	8%
	A2TIME01	94%	2%	3%
3	AIFFTR01	52%	30%	18%
	AIFIRF01	97%	2%	1%
	BITMNP01	62%	27%	11%
4	IDCTRN01	94%	3%	3%
	RSPEED01	91%	2%	7%

Table VII. Current phases of deadline violated tasks when they are discarded.

Task Sets	Tasks	CP = 1	CP = 2	CP = 3
	epic	23%	54%	23%
1	pegwit	0%	0%	100%
	rawcaudio	33%	34%	33%
	cjpeg	14%	34%	52%
2	toast	10%	25%	65%
	mpeg2	18%	32%	50%

We call this method *Extended* approach and Figure 14 shows its energy consumption compared to the conservative and aggressive approaches. On average, the extended approach achieves 4.6% more energy savings than aggressive approach in instruction caches while 5.9% more in data caches. In some cases, like set 3 in instruction cache and set 1 in data cache, no extra energy saving is observed due to lack of beneficial cache configurations.

As already discussed in Section 3.5, extended profile table will cause exponential increase in system overheads. Energy overhead of the profile table can be safely ignored because it only accounts for a very less proportion of the gained energy savings. However, increase in area and access time of the table affect the feasibility of applying this extended approach. When the number of different tasks is relatively small such that system overhead is not serious, extended approach is favorable than other two approaches. Since it is common to have large number of tasks in the system, applying extended approach may not be a good idea in these cases because the profile table's area could SACR Conservative

SACR Extended SACR Aggressive 1 0.9 Energy consumption normalized to SACR Conservative approach 0.8 0.7 0.6 0.5 0.4 0.3 0.2 0.1 0 Set 1 Set 3 Set 2 Set 4 Average (a) SACR Conservative SACR Aggressive SACR Extended 1 0.9 Energy consumption normalized to SACR Conservative approach 0.8 0.7 0.6 0.5 0.4 0.3 0.2 0.1 0 Set 1 Set 2 Set 3 Set 4 Average

exceed the chip area constraints and increased access time may impact the system's critical path. In extreme cases, it may lead to longer clock cycle length and lower system frequency, which should obviously be avoided.

Fig. 14. The effect of using extended profile table: cache subsystem energy consumption normalized to conservative approach for each task set (a) Instruction cache (b) Data cache

(b)

4.5. Analysis of Input Variations

Program's cache behavior, especially the data cache, can vary when being fed with different inputs. Essentially, input varies in its size, structure, and its contents. For example, different inputs may drastically affect the program's dynamic execution path (such as number of loop iterations), thus both energy- and performance-optimal caches may differ from what are stored in the profile table.

Obviously, it is impossible to exhaustively explore all possible inputs. Energy-aware task scheduling techniques face the same problem. In real-time systems, as discussed in Section 2.1, scheduler should be fed with the task set information which includes task's *execution time* (in cycles). The potential solutions include use of i) fixed input set (execution time is known beforehand) [Hu and Marculescu 2004][Rong and Pedram 2008], ii) Worst Case Execution Time (WCET) [Zhang et al.

2007][Jejurikar et al. 2004][Seo et al. 2004][Shin et al. 2001] and iii) probabilistic execution time distribution [Oh et al. 2008][Zhong and Xu 2005][Hong et al. 2006].

It is worth exploring how varying input would impact each task's cache behavior. In our experiments, we examine inputs with different sizes and observe the variation of optimal cache configurations. For the instruction cache, the energy optimal cache configuration parameters (cache size, line size and set associativity) reduce as the input size decreases. Results are similar for the data cache. The performance optimal instruction cache configuration's line size reduces as input size decreases, but cache size and associativity remain the same. However, in this case, the data cache shows non-deterministic behavior. The reason for such kind of variations in instruction cache is the size of critical data processing code sections which accounts for 90% of the time (loops etc.) may be a comparatively small segment of the entire program due to the 90/10 law. Since critical data processing code sections (instruction cache working set) remains in the cache, the line size tends to be smaller in order to reduce the time spent on cache misses, and thus static energy consumed. For the data cache, as the input size increases, spatial locality is more critical than temporal locality, thus, the cache size nearly remains the same, or even decreases, but line size increases. It is important to note that drastic changes in input size is not usual in real-time systems. We also studied the impact of changing input pattern on our approach. We observed that a change in input pattern (data structure and the absolute values change but not the size) shows a minor impact on the cache behavior. Both energy and performance optimal cache configurations show very little variation.

Here are the experimental results that support our arguments. We examined cjpeg benchmark from MediaBench. In the first set of experiments, we selected six differently sized input image files (a.ppm, b.ppm, c.ppm, d.ppm, e.ppm, f.ppm) and found that the energy/performance optimal cache configurations for both instruction and data caches, with partition factor of 4, as shown in Table VIII. In the second experiment, we selected two similarly sized images files (man.ppm and woman.ppm) with different content and exploited the cache behavior under partition factor of 4, 5 and 6. As shown in Table IX, there is very little variation in terms of the optimal cache configuration selection for the two inputs. Therefore, our approach is applicable when the input for each task is known during design time so that it can be statically profiled. Our approach is also applicable when there are changes in input pattern. This is a realistic assumption for real-time systems.

4.6. Hardware Overhead

This section describes the overhead of implementing the profile table in hardware. The profile table is stored in SRAM and accessed by the cache tuner to fetch the cache configuration information. The size of the table depends on the number of tasks in the system and the partition factor used. For conservative approach, each table entry consists of five bits since the configurable cache architecture used in this study offers 18 possible cache configurations. We have implemented the profile table using Verilog HDL and synthesized using Synopsis Design Compiler with TSMC 0.18 cell library. We estimate a table lookup frequency of once per three million nanoseconds during dynamic power computation, which means that there is a table lookup every one million instructions using a 500 MHz CPU with an average CPI of 1.5. It is clearly an overestimation (which is safe) since the benchmarks we used have around 10 to 200 million dynamic instructions. Table X illustrates our results. Each row in the table indicates the area, dynamic power, leakage power, and critical path length for profile table with different sizes. We also calculate overhead using 65nm technology as shown in Table XI. We observed that on average for each task set, the energy overhead of our approach only account for less than 0.02% (450 nJ compared to 2825563 nJ) of the total energy savings. Admittedly, aggressive approach requires more bits per lookup table entry (74 bits⁶). However, Table X and XI illustrate that the power dissipation is about linearly proportional to the table size. Therefore, even if the table entry size is increased by 15 times (5 bits to 74 bits), the total energy overhead is

 $^{^{6}}$ 74 bits are needed to store both energy- and performance-optimal cache configurations (5 + 5 bits) as well as the corresponding execution times (32 + 32 bits).

a.ppm: Size of input: 8431 bytes						
EO_icache	PO_icache	EO_dcache	PO_dcache			
4096B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B	4096B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B			
4096B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B	4096B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B			
4096B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B	4096B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B			
	b.ppm: Size of in	put: 101484 bytes				
EO_icache	PO_icache	EO_dcache	PO_dcache			
4096B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B	4096B_4W_16B	4096B_4W_16B			
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B			
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B			
	c.ppm: Size of in	put: 306915 bytes				
EO_icache	PO_icache	EO_dcache	PO_dcache			
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_32B	4096B_4W_16B	4096B_4W_16B			
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_32B	4096B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B			
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_64B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B			
	d.ppm: Size of in	put: 530895 bytes				
EO_icache	PO_icache	EO_dcache	PO_dcache			
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_32B	4096B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B			
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_32B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B			
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_64B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B			
	e.ppm: Size of inp	out: 1476015 bytes				
EO_icache	PO_icache	EO_dcache	PO_dcache			
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B	4096B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B			
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_2W_64B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B			
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_2W_64B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B			
f.ppm: Size of input: 3832336 bytes						
EO_icache	PO_icache	EO_dcache	PO_dcache			
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_2W_64B	4096B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B			
2048B_2W_16B	2048B_2W_64B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B			
2048B_2W_16B	2048B_2W_64B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B			

Table VIII. Input variation exploration.

no more than 0.3% of the total energy savings. Therefore, we can safely conclude that the overhead for profile tables are negligible compared to the energy saving for both conservative and aggressive approaches.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Dynamic reconfiguration techniques are widely used in designing efficient embedded systems. Dynamic cache reconfiguration is a promising approach to improve both energy consumption and overall performance. The contribution of this article is a novel scheduling aware dynamic cache reconfiguration technique for soft real-time systems. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first approach integrating dynamic cache reconfigurations into real-time systems. Our methodology employs an ideal combination of static analysis and dynamic tuning of cache parameters with minor or no impact on timing constraints. Our experiments demonstrated a 50% reduction on average in the overall energy consumption of the cache subsystem in soft real-time embedded systems. Our future work includes application of our approach in hard real-time systems.

REFERENCES

ANDERSSON, B., BLETSAS, K., AND BARUAH, S. 2008. Scheduling arbitrary-deadline sporadic task systems on multiprocessors. In Proceedings of Real-Time Systems Symposium. 385–394.

BENINI, L., BOGLIOLO, R., AND MICHELI, G. D. 2000. A survey of design techniques for system-level dynamic power management. *IEEE Transactions on VLSI Systems* 8, 299–316.

BURGER, D., AUSTIN, T. M., AND BENNETT, S. 1996. Evaluating future microprocessors: The simplescalar tool set. Tech. rep., University of Wisconsin-Madison.

BUTTAZZO, G. 1995. Hard Real-Time Computing Systems. Kluwer.

EEMBC. 2000. EEMBC, The Embedded Microprocessor Benchmark Consortium.

man nom: Size of input: 336165 bytes								
$\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{n}} = \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{n}} $								
EQ icache	PO icache	EO dcache	PO deache					
20/18B 2W 16B	4006B AW 32B	2048B 2W 32B	100-deache					
2048B 2W 16B	4096B 4W 32B	4096B 4W 16B	4096B 4W 16B					
2048B 2W 16B	4096B AW 64B	20/8B 2W 32B	4096B 4W 16B					
20400_20100	$\frac{2040D_2W_10D_14W_04D_1}{2040D_2W_052D_1} = \frac{4090B_4W_10B}{2040D_2W_052D_1}$							
EQ icache	PO icache	EO deache	PO dcache					
4096B 2W 16B	4096B 4W 32B	2048B 2W 32B	4096B 4W 16B					
2048B 2W 16B	4096B 4W 32B	4096B 4W 16B	4096B 4W 16B					
2048B 2W 16B	4096B 4W 64B	2048B 2W 32B	4096B 4W 16B					
2048B 2W 16B	4096B 4W 16B	2048B 2W 32B	4096B 4W 16B					
Partition factor $n = 6$								
EQ_icache	PO_icache	EQ_dcache	PO_dcache					
4096B 2W 16B	4096B 4W 32B	2048B 2W 32B	4096B 4W 16B					
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_64B	4096B_4W_16B	4096B_4W_16B					
2048B 2W 16B	4096B 4W 32B	4096B 2W 16B	4096B 4W 16B					
2048B 2W 16B	4096B 4W 64B	2048B 2W 32B	4096B 4W 16B					
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_16B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B					
W	oman.ppm: Size of	input: 312999 byte	es					
	Partition f	actor $p = 4$						
EO_icache	PO_icache	EO_dcache	PO_dcache					
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_32B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B					
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_32B	4096B_4W_16B	4096B_4W_16B					
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_64B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B					
	Partition f	actor p = 5						
EO_icache	PO_icache	EO_dcache	PO_dcache					
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_32B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B					
2048B_2W_16B	4096B 4W 32B	4096B 4W 16B	4096B 4W 16B					
2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_64B	2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B					
2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_64B 4096B_4W_16B	2048B_2W_32B 2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B					
2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_64B 4096B_4W_16B Partition f	2048B_2W_32B 2048B_2W_32B actor p = 6	4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B					
2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B EO_icache	4096B_4W_64B 4096B_4W_16B Partition f PO_icache	2048B_2W_32B 2048B_2W_32B actor p = 6 EO_dcache	4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B PO_dcache					
2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B EO_icache 2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_64B 4096B_4W_16B Partition f PO_icache 4096B_4W_32B	2048B_2W_32B 2048B_2W_32B actor p = 6 EO_dcache 2048B_2W_32B	4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B PO_dcache 4096B_4W_16B					
2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B EO_icache 2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_64B 4096B_4W_16B Partition f PO_icache 4096B_4W_32B 4096B_4W_64B	2048B_2W_32B 2048B_2W_32B actor p = 6 EO_dcache 2048B_2W_32B 4096B_4W_16B	4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B PO_dcache 4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B					
2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B EO_icache 2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_64B 4096B_4W_16B Partition f PO_icache 4096B_4W_32B 4096B_4W_64B 4096B_4W_32B	2048B.2W.32B 2048B.2W.32B actor p = 6 EO.dcache 2048B.2W.32B 4096B.4W.16B 4096B.2W.16B	4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B PO_dcache 4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B					
2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B EO_icache 2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B 2048B_2W_16B	4096B_4W_64B 4096B_4W_16B Partition f PO_icache 4096B_4W_32B 4096B_4W_64B 4096B_4W_32B 4096B_4W_64B	2048B.2W.32B 2048B.2W.32B actor p = 6 EO.dcache 2048B.2W.32B 4096B.4W.16B 4096B.2W.16B 2048B.2W.32B	4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B PO_dcache 4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B 4096B_4W_16B					

Table IX. Input pattern changes.

Table X. Overhead of different lookup tables (180nm technology)

Table size (# of entries)	Area (µm ²)	Dynamic Power (µW)	Leakage Power (µW)	Critical Path Length
64	61416	38.13	114.37	0.91
128	121200	84.25	224.90	0.91
256	244520	187.68	461.30	1.08
512	483416	327.90	904.70	1.20

Table XI. Overhead of different lookup tables (65nm technology)

Table size (# of entries)	Area (μm ²)	Dynamic Power (µW)	Leakage Power (µW)
64	6756	12.23	154.52
128	13332	27.02	303.86
256	26897	60.19	623.25
512	53176	105.16	1222.32

- GORDON-ROSS, A. AND VAHID, F. 2004. Automatic tuning of two-level caches to embedded applications. In *Proceedings* of Design, Automation and Test Conference in Europe. 208–213.
- GORDON-ROSS, A., VAHID, F., AND DUTT, N. 2005. Fast configurable-cache tuning with a unified second-level cache. In Proc. International Symposium on Low Power Electronics and Design ISLPED '05. 323–326.
- GORDON-ROSS, A., VIANA, P., VAHID, F., NAJJAR, W., AND BARROS, E. 2007. A one-shot configurable-cache tuner for improved energy and performance. In Proceedings of Design, Automation and Test Conference in Europe. 755–760.

HENNESSY, J. AND PATTERSON, D. 2003. Computer Architecture: A Quantitative Approach. Morgan Kaufmann Publishers.

- HONG, I., KIROVSKI, D., QU, G., POTKONJAK, M., AND SRIVASTAVA, M. B. 1999. Power optimization of variablevoltage core-based systems. *IEEE Transactions on Computer-Aided Design of Integrated Circuits and Systems 18*, 1702–1714.
- HONG, S., YOO, S., JIN, H., CHOI, K., KONG, J., AND EO, S. 2006. Runtime distribution-aware dynamic voltage scaling. In Proceedings of International Conference on Computer-Aided Design. 587–594.
- HP. 2008. CACTI, HP Laboratories Palo Alto, CACTI 5.3. http://www.hpl.hp.com/.
- HU, J. AND MARCULESCU, R. 2004. Energy-aware communication and task scheduling for network-on-chip architectures under real-time constraints. In *Proceedings of Design, Automation and Test Conference in Europe*. 234–239.
- JEJURIKAR, R. AND GUPTA, R. 2005. Dynamic slack reclamation with procrastination scheduling in real-time embedded systems. In Proceedings of Design Automation Conference. 111–116.
- JEJURIKAR, R. AND GUPTA, R. 2006. Energy-aware task scheduling with task synchronization for embedded real-time systems. IEEE Transactions on Computer-Aided Design of Integrated Circuits and Systems 25, 1024–1037.
- JEJURIKAR, R., PEREIRA, C., AND GUPTA, R. K. 2004. Leakage aware dynamic voltage scaling for real-time embedded systems. In Proceedings of Design Automation Conference. 275–280.
- KIM, H., SOMANI, A. K., AND TYAGI, A. 2000. A reconfigurable multi-function computing cache architecture. In Proceedings of International Symposium on Field Programmable Gate Arrays. 85–94.
- LEE, C., POTKONJAK, M., AND MANGIONE-SMITH, W. H. 1997. Mediabench: A tool for evaluating and synthesizing multimedia and communications systems. In Proceedings of International Symposium on Microarchitecture. 330–335.
- LEUNG, L., TSUI, C., AND HU, X. S. 2005. Exploiting dynamic workload variation in low energy preemptive task scheduling. In Proceedings of Design, Automation and Test Conference in Europe. 634–639.
- LIU, J. 2000. Real-Time Systems. Prentice Hall.
- MALIK, A., MOYER, B., AND CERMAK, D. 2000. A low power unified cache architecture providing power and performance flexibility. In *Proceedings of International Symposium on Low Power Electronics and Design*. 241–243.
- MODARRESSI, M., HESSABI, S., AND GOUDARZI, M. 2006. A reconfigurable cache architecture for object-oriented embedded systems. In *Proceedings of Canadian Conference on Electrical and Computer Engineering*. 959–962.
- NACUL, A. C. AND GIVARGIS, T. 2004. Dynamic voltage and cache reconfiguration for low power. In Proceedings of Design, Automation and Test Conference in Europe. 21376.
- OH, S., KIM, J., KIM, S., AND KYUNG, C. 2008. Task partitioning algorithm for intra-task dynamic voltage scaling. In Proceedings of International Symposium on Circuits and Systems. 1228–1231.
- PUANT, I. 2002. Cache analysis vs static cache locking for schedulability analysis in multitasking real-time systems. In Proceedings of International Workshop on worst-case execution time analysis.
- PUANT, I. AND DECOTIGNY, D. 2002. Low-complexity algorithms for static cache locking in multitasking hard real-time systems. In Proceedings of IEEE Real-Time Systems Symposium. 114–125.
- PUANT, I. AND PAIS, C. 2007. Scratchpad memories vs locked caches in hard real-time systems: a quantitative comparison. In *Proceedings of the conference on Design, automation and test in Europe*. 1484–1489.
- QUAN, G. AND HU, X. S. 2007. Energy efficient dvs schedule for fixed-priority real-time systems. ACM Transactions on Design Automation of Electronic Systems 6, 1–30.
- RONG, P. AND PEDRAM, M. 2008. Energy-aware task scheduling and dynamic voltage scaling in a real-time system. *Journal* of Low Power Electronics 4, 1–10.
- SEGARS, S. 2001. Low power design techniques for microprocessors. In Proceedings of International Solid State Circuit Conference.
- SEO, J., KIM, T., AND CHUNG, K. 2004. Profile-based optimal intra-task voltage scheduling for hard real-time applications. In Proceedings of Design Automation Conference. 87–92.
- SETTLE, A., CONNORS, D., AND GIBERT, E. 2006. A dynamically reconfigurable cache for multithreaded processors. *Journal of Embedded Computing* 2, 221–233.
- SHERWOOD, T., PERELMAN, E., HAMERLY, G., SAIR, S., AND CALDER, B. 2003. Discovering and exploiting program phases. In *Proceedings of International Symposium on Microarchitecture*. 84–93.
- SHIN, D., KIM, J., AND LEE, S. 2001. Low-energy intra-task voltage scheduling using static timing analysis. In Proceedings of Design Automation Conference. 438–443.
- SPRUNT, B. 1990. Aperiodic task scheduling for real-time systems. Ph.D. thesis, Carnegie Mellon University.

- STASCHULAT, J., SCHLIECKER, S., AND ERNST, R. 2005. Scheduling analysis of real-time systems with precise modeling of cache related preemption delay. In *Proceedings of Euromicro Conference on Real-Time Systems*. 41–48.
- TAN, Y. AND MOONEY, V. J. 2007. Timing analysis for preemptive multitasking real-time systems with caches. ACM Transactions on Embedded Computing Systems 6, 7.
- VARMA, A., DEBES, E., KOZINTSEV, I., AND JACOB, B. 2005. Instruction-level power dissipation in the intel xscale embedded microprocessor. In In SPIEs 17th Annual Symposium on Electronic Imaging Science & Technology.
- WANG, W. AND MISHRA, P. 2009. Dynamic reconfiguration of two-level caches in soft real-time embedded systems. In Proceedings of IEEE Computer Society Annual Symposium on VLSI. 145–150.
- WOLFE, A. 1993. Software-based cache partitioning for real-time applications. In *Proceedings of International Workshop* on Responsive Computer Systems.
- ZHANG, C., VAHID, F., AND LYSECKY, R. 2004. A self-tuning cache architecture for embedded systems. In Proceedings of Design, Automation and Test Conference in Europe. 10142.
- ZHANG, C., VAHID, F., AND NAJJAR, W. 2005. A highly configurable cache for low energy embedded systems. ACM Transactions on Embedded Computing Systems 6, 362–387.
- ZHANG, S., CHATHA, K., AND KONJEVOD, G. 2007. Approximation algorithms for power minimization of earliest deadline first and rate monotonic schedules. In *Proceedings of International Symposium on Low Power Electronics and Design*. 225–230.
- ZHONG, X. AND XU, C. 2005. Energy-aware modeling and scheduling of real-time tasks for dynamic voltage scaling. In Proceedings of International Real-Time Systems Symposium. 366–375.