

A Real-Time Feedback Scheduler based on Control Error for Environmental Energy Harvesting Systems

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Abstract: This paper addresses a real-time scheduling problem inherent to energy harvesting real-time systems. Traditionally, the energy saving problem is solved mainly by taking into account the tasks scheduling parameters such as worst-case execution time and period. In this work, we construct a feedback control scheduling scheme in which a discrete processor speed is assigned according to the control error and available energy. The real-time control tasks would get high processor speeds when their control errors increase. The experimental evaluation of this solution verifies that the feedback scheduling system based on control error gives a good compromise between available energy and systems performance.

1 INTRODUCTION

Energy consumption is today an important design issue of embedded control systems and becomes a crucial optimization metric. New innovative systems are designed (e.g. wireless sensors, Internet of Things) which are aimed to be autonomous energetically. These systems see the availability of their services limited by the amount of energy available in the batteries over time. Several methods are proposed for reducing the system energy dissipation, however any embedded system will eventually exhaust the battery. In this case and before the device can continue functioning, replacing or recharging the battery is required. However, in some applications, replacing battery is either costly or impractical. Hence, ideally such a system should be designed to achieve perpetual functioning without replacing or recharging batteries. To overcome limitations due to the batteries life, the alternative energy sources present in our environment could be exploited to achieve a perpetual operating of these systems : this is *energy harvesting*. This approach extends the batteries life or eliminates them entirely.

The problem of minimizing energy consumption while guaranteeing real-time constraints in energy harvesting systems has been widely addressed in real-time literature. However, those solutions are all based

on a the Worst-Case Execution Time (WCET) which is the upper bound of a highly volatile parameter (Axe et al., 2014), and do not consider the control performance (control error) and the available energy in the battery. Our contribution and singularity of our work lie on this new central working hypothesis.

In this paper, we present a new approach, an environmental energy-aware feedback scheduler for energy harvesting real-time systems. Our solution aims to establish compromise between energy available and control performance. The objective is to optimizing the Quality of Control (QoC) and preventing any energy shortage that would result in the destabilization of the controlled process.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. We give background materials in section 2. Related works are described in section 3. In section 4, we present the computing model, then we give the energy consumption models. We also present energy source model which is used to supplement the battery. Our contribution is presented in section 5. We discuss our contribution concerning the feedback scheduling under energy harvesting. Performance results are included and discussed in section 6. The main conclusions and some future directions are highlighted in section 7.

2 BACKGROUND MATERIAL

2.1 Real-Time Systems and Scheduling Policy

Real-Time Systems (RTS) are defined as these systems in which correctness depends not only on the correct result, but they must also consider time constraints, mainly deadlines, to deliver this result. Our work focuses on soft real-time control tasks i.e. tasks that may miss deadlines from time to time (in contrast to the so called hard real-time tasks). As a consequence the objective of our scheduling algorithm is to optimize the QoC. We use the scheduling theory in order to check temporal constraints. The EDF algorithm (Liu and Layland, 1973) is probably the most known fixed-job priority assignment scheduler in real-time systems. It is optimal regarding schedulability in the context of independent tasks and preemptive uniprocessor scheduling. Our aim in using EDF is to improve the QoC which does not require, as shown later in this paper, to meet all the deadlines.

2.2 Power Management Techniques

The conventional power management techniques are classified into two categories based on the nature of energy dissipation reduction. One of them is Dynamic Power Management (DPM). It aims to reduce the static energy dissipation by switching the active component to the low power state or shutting down the idle components. The other technique is Dynamic Voltage and Frequency Selection (DVFS) which aims to reduce the dynamic energy dissipation by lowering the operating frequency of the processor. In our work, we consider the DVFS capabilities.

3 RELATED WORKS

Traditional real-time scheduling algorithms, after the seminal works of (Liu and Layland, 1973), that introduced Rate Monotonic (RM) and Earliest Deadline First (EDF), are built on precisely known and fixed timing constraints and depend on workload to provide performance guarantees in predictable environments. However, the Worst-Case Execution Time (WCET) taken into account in task models is the upper bound of a highly volatile parameter (Azer et al., 2014). In addition, these classical algorithms may perform poorly in dynamic environments. The feedback scheduling (FBS) (Cervin, 2003; Xia, 2006; Årzén et al., 2006) offers a promising approach to

overcome these limitations where actual execution times are not fixed and unknown until the task completes. Several authors treated the problems of minimizing power by combining feedback control methods and DVFS strategy in order to take the effective task duration into account. For instance, the popular PID (Proportional-Integral-Derivative) control has been integrated into several DVFS algorithms (Soria-Lopez et al., 2005). A feedback fuzzy-DVFS scheduling method has been developed in (Jin et al., 2007). In (Xia et al., 2008), a solution is proposed to achieve further reduction in energy consumption over pure DVFS while not jeopardizing the quality of control, the sampling period of each control loop is adapted to its actual control performance, thus exploring flexible timing constraints on control tasks. However, these algorithms do not consider energy harvesting capabilities. For ambient energy harvesting, a variant of EDF, called Lazy Scheduling Algorithm (LSA) is proposed in (Moser et al., 2007) to optimally schedule tasks with deadlines, periodic or not. However, the task slack is not exploited for energy savings and DVFS was not considered (Liu et al., 2012). Some heuristics have been compared to LSA in (Chetto and Zhang, 2010) with no DVFS capabilities. Recently, in (Chetto, 2014) a novel energy-aware scheduling algorithm, namely ED-H, is presented. This algorithm, based on WCET, proved to be optimal and appropriate for the scheduling of real time jobs.

In our work, we are concerned with the DVFS technique that we apply in the so-called real-time energy harvesting systems. Closely related to our work, Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2008) proposed a DVFS algorithm (called EA-DVFS) to enhance the performance of LSA. EA-DVFS adjusts the processor behavior according to the stored energy and the energy prediction (harvested energy in future). Particularly, if the system has a sufficient amount of energy, tasks are executed at full speed; otherwise, the processor slows down to save energy. However, EA-DVFS is based on WCET and considers one task at a time instead of considering all tasks together. In addition, since the EA-DVFS algorithm uses the energy prediction, it schedules the task at full speed if there may be just as little as 1% energy left in the energy storage while the system can operate at full speed for a task without depleting the energy. That is not the desired behavior. More recent works can be found in (Liu et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2012), which also present extensions of LSA with DVFS technical and permit to improve the deadline miss rate and energy saving. The proposed algorithms compute both the start time and finishing time of every task from timing and energy constraints such as WCET. As mentioned above, this will lead

to compute approximate start time and finishing time and to declare unschedulable task sets that are actually feasible. Let us mention that in (Liu et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2012), tasks are assumed to execute at full speed if the system has sufficient energy which causes rapid discharge of the battery and induces changes in processor frequency. Also, such approach needs to be provided with a highly predictive model which necessarily has high computation complexity and memory requirement. This may be a serious problem for embedded systems with small memory space. In addition, the solutions proposed assume negligible overhead due to processor voltage and frequency switching.

In a previous work (Abbas et al., 2013), we have proposed a real-time feedback scheduler algorithm for environmental energy harvesting systems, in which the processor speed can be adjusted continuously. The presented solution accounts for the energy harvesting capabilities under the variability of tasks execution times. However, the proposed algorithm does not account for the available energy. It changes rapidly and frequently the processor speed (see Figure 7 and provokes deadline miss. Quality of control appears to be finally unacceptable. Recently, in (Abbas et al., 2014), we have addressed the same problem under discrete processor frequency modes. The proposed solution returns, when available energy level is below the threshold (set offline), the lowest discrete processor speed proportionally to the available energy and to the CPU load. However, this solution behaves like the one proposed (Abbas et al., 2013) when the portion of the available energy is below the CPU load.

In this paper, we present a new approach, an environmental energy-aware feedback scheduler for energy harvesting systems, that dynamically adjusts the discrete processor frequency according to the control performance and the available energy. The objective is to set experimentally a technique for optimizing the QoC while preventing any energy shortage that would result in the destabilization of the controlled process.

4 SYSTEM MODELS

In this section, we describe the computing model and the energy model.

4.1 Computing Model

A typical embedded real-time control system is composed (as illustrated in Figure 1) of plants to be controlled, actuators, sensors and a set of N control tasks $\Gamma = \{\tau_i | 1 \leq i \leq N\}$ which are independent and

fully preemptible. Each task is responsible for controlling an independent physical process (plant). The tasks run concurrently over the same shared processor.

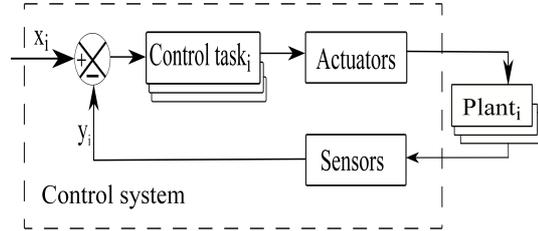


Figure 1: Embedded real-time control system.

Assume that the processor has M discrete operating frequencies f_m : $\{f_m | 1 \leq m \leq M, f_{min} = f_1 < \dots < f_m = f_{max}\}$. We define a scaling factor or processor speed S_m as the normalized frequency of f_m with respect to the maximum frequency f_{max} , that is :

$$S_m = \frac{f_m}{f_{max}} \quad (1)$$

We use EDF scheduling policy (Liu and Layland, 1973) where the task priority is proportional to its urgency. A task τ_i is characterized by the following independent parameters :

- r_i , the first release time of the task τ_i ; a task instance is named a job $\tau_{i,k}$, $k > 0$. The job $\tau_{i,0}$ is released at the date $r_{i,0} = r_i = 0$;
- T_i the release period of the task τ_i : every subsequent job $\tau_{i,k}$ is released at the date $r_{i,k} = (k - 1) \times T_i$, $k > 0$. By default, we consider the relative deadline of a control task to be equal to its period;
- e_i , the absolute error of the task τ_i : is defined as the absolute difference between the reference input x_i and the plant output y_i , i.e., $e_i = |x_i - y_i|$.

In order to compare the solution given in this work to other ones based on tasks parameters, we define the following additional parameter :

- $U_{inst}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{C_{i,1}(t)}{T_i}$, as the instantaneous processor utilization. The term $C_{i,1}(t)$ is equal to the latest estimated execution time of task τ_i at time t according to the low-pass filter proposed by (Cervin, 2003).

4.2 Energy Consumption Model

We are concerned with the DVFS technique which is able to reduce the dynamic power dissipation of a CMOS integrated circuit, such as a modern computer

processor, by reducing the frequency at which it operates. The dynamic power dissipation is given by : $P = C \times v^2 \times f$, where C denotes the effective switch capacitance related to the type of processor, f is the frequency and v is the voltage.

In this work, we based our study on the commercial processor XScale (XScale, 2007). Its main characteristics are given in Table 1 (Xu et al., 2007).

Table 1: XScale Parameters.

V(V)	0.75	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.8
F(MHz)	150	400	600	800	1000
S_m	0.15	0.4	0.6	0.8	1
P(mW)	80	170	400	900	1600
Energy switch (1.2 μ J)					
Switch time (12 μ s)					
Idle Power (mW) (63.85)					

We want to compare an algorithm that assumes continuous change with others assume discrete frequency changes so we need a model of continuous consumption. According to the relation derived in (Xu et al., 2007), several power models of this processor are cited in the literature. Those models describe the power consumption as a polynomial function of the processor speed S . We selected the model presented in (Chen et al., 2013) where the active power function is written as :

$$P = 1543.28 \times S^{2.87} + 63.85 \quad (2)$$

Figure 2 shows that the continuous approximation of the power consumed depending on the frequency, is fitting with the constructor discrete power over frequency values. Therefore, the function shown in Figure 2 appears to be as realistic as possible, if we were to assume the existence of a XScale processor able to change its frequency continuously.

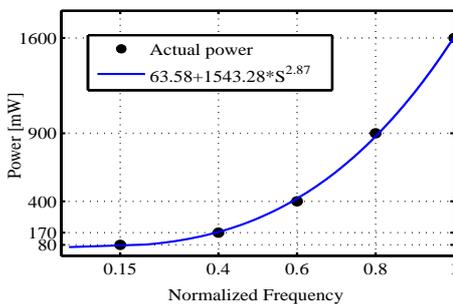


Figure 2: Power Consumption function.

For a time interval $[t_1, t_2]$, the energy consumption is given by $Ec(t_1, t_2) = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} P(S(t))dt$.

4.3 Energy Source Model

We assume that the environmental energy, such as solar energy, is harvested and converted into electrical energy to supplement the battery of an embedded system. The solar energy source behavior is modeled as follows (Moser et al., 2007) :

$$Ps(t) = |0.9R(t) \times \cos(\frac{t}{0.7\pi}) \times \cos(\frac{t}{0.1\pi})| \quad (3)$$

where $R(t)$ denotes a uniform distributed random variable between 0 and 1. The values of Ps have been cutted off at the value $Ps,max = 0.9$.

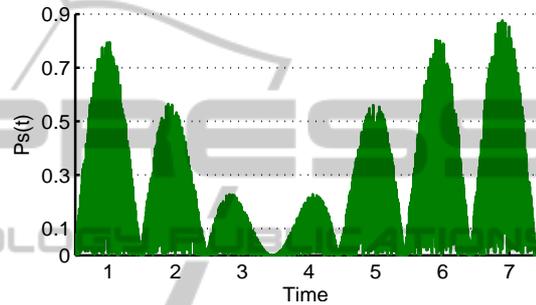


Figure 3: Power trace $Ps(t)$.

As shown in Figure 3, the obtained power trace $Ps(t)$ is simulating periods similar to those experienced by solar cells in an outdoor environment.

The input power $Ps(t)$ has excluded the loss incurred by auxiliary circuitry. In other words, $Ps(t)$ is the net power to feed the storage unit. The total energy, $Es(t_1, t_2)$, that is harvested in the time interval $[t_1, t_2]$ is given by $Es(t_1, t_2) = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} Ps(t)dt$.

The system uses an energy storage unit with nominal capacity, (E , expressed in Joules or Watts-hour). The energy level, denoted as $El(t)$ at a given time t , has to remain between two boundaries E_{min} and E_{max} . If the storage is fully discharged, no task can be executed, and the processor has to be stopped. In contrast, if the storage is fully charged, and we continue to charge it, energy is wasted. To reduce waste and to ensure QoC, it would be useful to perform tasks at the maximum CPU speed when the battery is "almost full".

5 FEEDBACK SCHEDULING BASED ON CONTROL ERROR

5.1 Control Cost Model

Assume that the reference signal x_i is a square signal whose period is $2h$. The reference signal is run during

N_r periods. From a control standpoint, the error between the reference signal x_i and the measured signal y_i should mirror how good is the control strategy (see Figure 4 (a)). If we include a decay constraint on the error we impose by the same way a relative degree of stability. It is more appropriate to impose (see Figure 4 (b)), at each half signal period, an exponential decay on the error by forcing the absolute value of the error to lie inside an envelope limited by a function of the form: $f(t) = k_0 e^{-\alpha t}$, where the parameters k_0 and α have to be chosen appropriately by the designer. k_0 and α define the desired relative stability degree.

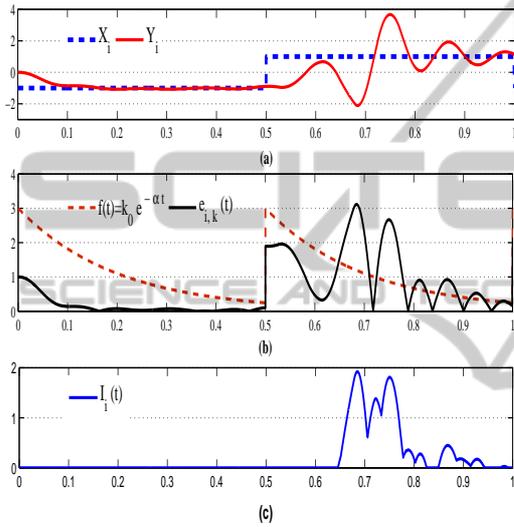


Figure 4: Parameters illustration of the control cost model.

To appropriately measure the QoC at the execution of the job $\tau_{i,k}$ at time t , we define the control cost as :

$$I_{i,k}(t) = \sup(0 ; e_i(t) - k_0 e^{-\alpha(t-(q-1)h)}) \quad (4)$$

with $1 \leq q \leq 2N_r$

where h is the duration of the half period of the reference signal, N_r is the running periods, $k_0 e^{-\alpha(t-(q-1)h)}$ is the exponential decay function imposed at the q^{th} -half period of the reference signal, $e_i(t)$ is the absolute error of the task τ_i at time t . The idea is to consider at each execution of the job $\tau_{i,k}$ only the positive value of the difference between the absolute error and exponential decay function (see Figure 4 (b)).

We assume the FBS task to be executed periodically with a period T_{F_s} . We define the control cost of the control task τ_i at the j^{th} ($j > 0$) execution of the FBS task as :

$$I_i = \int_{(j-1)T_{F_s}}^{jT_{F_s}} I_{i,k}(t) dt \quad (5)$$

The idea is to compute the control cost of the control task τ_i between two consecutive executions of FBS

task. Note that I_i allows to measure how far is the i^{th} plant from an acceptable behavior. It provides enough information about plant stability (see Figure 4 (c)). We assume that if the value I_i is not null, the corresponding plant is unstable.

For N control tasks, we define the maximum control cost of the control system as :

$$I_{sys} = \text{Max}_{1 \leq i \leq N} I_i \quad (6)$$

The use of the *Max* function is motivated by the will to give greater attention to the unstable plant.

5.2 Feedback Scheduling Framework

The framework of the proposed scheme is shown in Figure 5. Aside from the control loops, an outer feedback loop is introduced to implement feedback scheduling. The basic role of the feedback scheduler is to use the amount of available energy and the control cost given by Eq.6 of each control task as the feedback information in order to compute a discrete frequency for the processor.

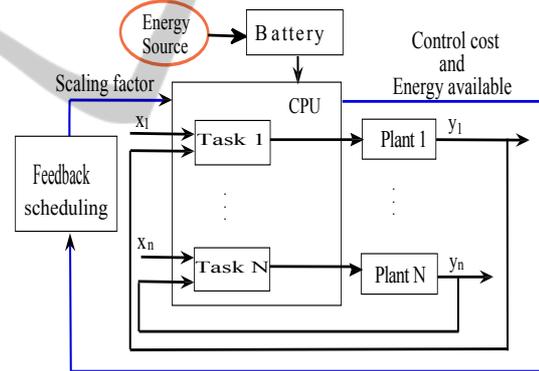


Figure 5: Scheme of the feedback scheduler.

5.3 Presentation of the Algorithm

The objective of our work is to propose a heuristic (see Algorithm 1) called FSCE-EH (Feedback Scheduler based on Control Error for Energy Harvesting) enabling the execution of tasks with a speed just above current speed if maximum control cost of the system I_{sys} (see Eq. 6) is greater than 0. Otherwise, the FSCE-EH returns current speed as a new speed if the amount of available energy is greater than a threshold set off-line. The FSCE-EH algorithm returns a speed just below current speed when I_{sys} is *null* and the available energy level is below this threshold.

Assuming $El(t)$ the amount of available energy in the battery at time t , I_{sys} the maximum control cost of the system (see Eq. 6), L the energy threshold and the current speed (scaling factor) $S(k)$. The new speed S is given by the algorithm below :

Algorithm 1: FSEC-EH.

Input:

$El(t)$, the amount of energy available;
 I_{sys} , the maximum control cost of the system (see Eq.6);
 L , the threshold ;
 $S(k)$, the current speed (see Eq.1);

Output:

S , the scaling factor required

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1 if  $I_{sys} > 0$  then
2    $S \leftarrow S(k+1)$ 
3 else
4   if  $El(t) > L$  then
5      $S \leftarrow S(k)$ 
6   else
7      $S \leftarrow S(k-1)$ 
8 return  $S$ ;
```

6 PERFORMANCE RESULTS

This section presents the simulation experiments using TrueTime (Cervin et al., 2010). Simulations aim to evaluate the QoC of the proposed scheme.

6.1 Environment and Simulation Context

For our experiments, a power generator source which supplies a battery according to the model given in Eq.(3) is implemented in TrueTime (Cervin et al., 2010). We consider an embedded control system that consists of three independent control loops. Each plant is controlled using a PID algorithm whose parameters are similar to those given in (Cervin et al., 2010). The transfer function of each plant is $G(s) = 1000/(s^2 + s)$. For this, we consider the set of three tasks $\Gamma = \{\tau_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq 3\}$. In our experiments, the nominal sampling periods of three loops are set to be $T_1 = 15$ ms, $T_2 = 16$ ms, and $T_3 = 17$ ms, respectively. The power consumption of the task τ_i under the processor speed S is given in Eq. (2), with the processor idle power equal to 63.58 mW. We assume that the energy storage capacity is $E_{max} = 2.5$ Joules at $t = 0$. The FBS task period is equal to $T_{Fs} = 80$ ms. We assume that at $t = 0$ the processor speed is $S = 1$.

In our simulation, the reference signal was run during $Nr = 55$ periods. The parameters of the stability degree are $k_0 = 3$ and $\alpha = 5$

Based on the above description, we compare the proposed feedback scheduling method (**FSCE-EH**) to the three following methods :

1. **EDFnoDVFS**: The processor operates at its full speed ($S = 1$) under the classical EDF policy, i.e., there is no DVFS scheme and no feedback scheduling;
2. **EDFbs-EgC**: Earliest Deadline Feedback Scheduling with Energy guarantee under Continuous voltage/frequency modes algorithm, proposed in (Abbas et al., 2013) in which the scaling factor S takes a value $S = U_{inst}(t)$ at each execution of the FBS task;
3. **FS-EH** (Feedback Scheduler with Energy Harvesting): heuristic proposed in (Abbas et al., 2014) in which the scaling factor S takes a value $S = 1$ at each execution of the FBS task if the amount of available energy is greater than a threshold (set offline), otherwise $S = \min\{S_m \mid S_m \geq \max(U_{inst}(t), El(t)/L)\}$.

6.2 Results and Discussions

In this section we present results of the simulations for the four methods previously listed. Each simulation has been performed during 55 s. With the aim to show the effect of the choice of the threshold, we chose 25 different values for the threshold L from 0.1 to 2.5 (battery nominal capacity).

6.2.1 Average and Minimum Energy Available

We show here, for each threshold value, the average and minimum energy available during the experiment.

When FSCE-EH and FS-EH are used, Figure 6 shows that the increases of the average energy available with the increase of threshold values. According to experiments, we found that when the threshold value is spread over the entire battery capacity (equal to 2.5) provides a high average energy available. We can see also that the minimum energy available is equal to 0 with FS-EH for all threshold values caused by the total discharge of the battery which induces the experiment stop. We note that the average energy available with EDFnoDVFS and EDFbs-EgC are equal to 0.36 J and 1.53 J, respectively. The minimum energy available with the two last algorithms is equal to 0.

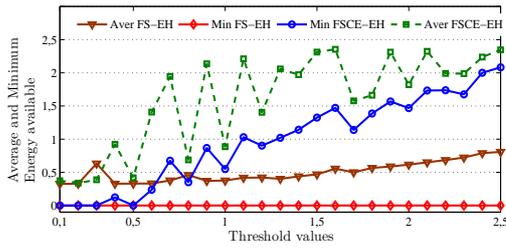


Figure 6: Average and Minimum Energy available vs Threshold with FSCE-EH and FS-EH.

6.2.2 Processor Speed Comparison

In this section, we present results showing the processor frequency variation with each method presented previously. We note that there is an overhead in time and energy for every frequency change (see Table. 2). We note also that when FSCE-EH and FS-EH are used, the threshold take value equal to 2.5

From Figure 7, we can see that under EDFbs-EgC algorithm the processor frequency is changing rapidly. The frequent change in processor frequency from low values to high values induces less reduction in energy consumption (see Figure 10).

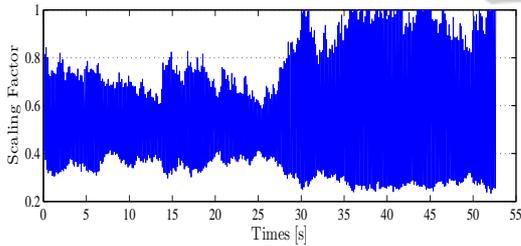


Figure 7: Scaling Factor with EDFbs-EgC.

Figure 8 shows that when FS-EH algorithm is used, a frequent change in processor frequency occur. We note that with EDFbs-EgC (resp. with FS-EH) algorithm the execution stop due to the battery discharge at $t = 52.7 s$ (resp. $t = 54.4 s$) which causes the destabilization of controlled plant.

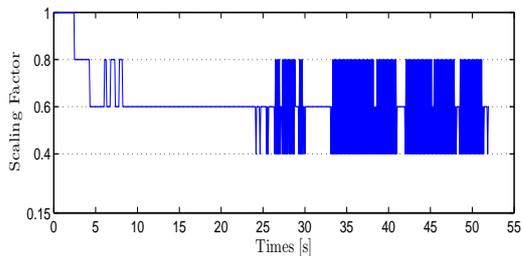


Figure 8: Scaling Factor with FS-EH.

Figure 9 shows that when FSCE-EH algorithm is used, the execution does not stop. We can see also that FSCE-EH algorithm returns a lower speed (0.15)

to favor the charge of the battery and return also a the high speed (1) to improve control performance.

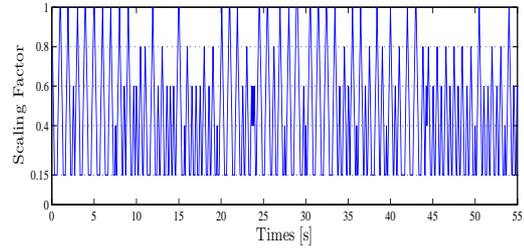


Figure 9: Scaling Factor with FSCE-EH.

6.2.3 Energy Consumption Comparison

Figures 10 and 11 show the energy available with the four methods. We can see that FSCE-EH protects against a total discharge of the battery.

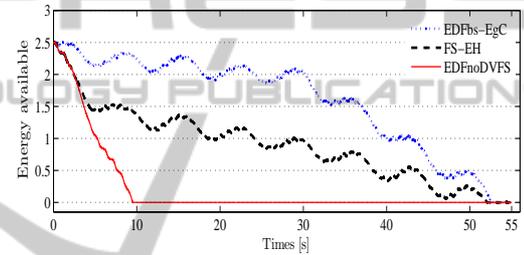


Figure 10: Energy available with EDFnoDVFS, EDFbs-EgC and FS-EH.

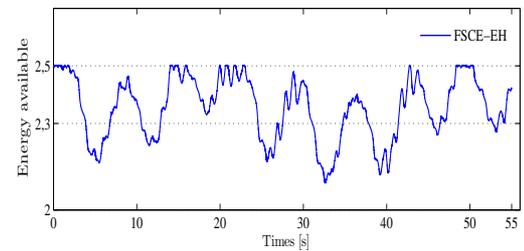


Figure 11: Energy available with FSCE-EH.

6.2.4 Rate of Missed Deadlines Comparison

We present results concerning the rate of missed deadlines that is the number of deadlines missing divided by the total number of jobs.

Figure 12 shows that under FSCE-EH a small rate of deadlines are missed. The maximum (resp. mean) rate of missed deadlines is 10.74% (resp. 4.96%) comparatively to the rate under FS-EH which equals to 0. With EDFbs-EgC algorithm the rate of missed deadlines is 0.37%.

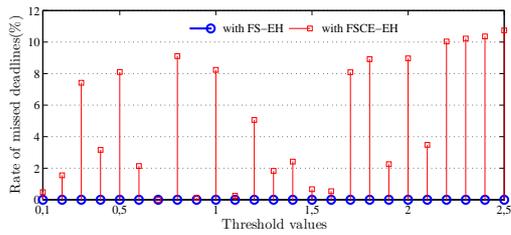


Figure 12: Rate of missed deadlines under FSCE-EH and FS-EH.

6.2.5 Quality of Control Comparison

The Integral of Absolute Error (IAE) for each closed loop system i , i.e. $J(i) = \int_0^{t_{sim}} e_i(t) dt$ measures the QoC (Quality of Control), where e_i is the absolute control error. For an experiment, we define the maximum error cost as: $J_{Max} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq 3} J(i)$.

Figure 13 shows the maximum error cost J_{Max} with FSCE-EH and FS-EH for each threshold value. We can see that FSCE-EH algorithm induce less cost comparatively to the cost induced by FS-EH algorithm. We note that the minimum J_{Max} under FS-EH is equal to 375330 obtained with threshold value equal to 2.5. Under FSCE-EH, the minimum J_{Max} is equal to 63393 (which is 16.9% less) obtained with threshold value equal to 0.7. We note also that under EDFbs-EgC the maximum error cost J_{Max} is equal to 906100. These results show that the FSCE-EH algorithm optimizes the QoC even if it induces small rate of missed deadlines (see Figure 12).

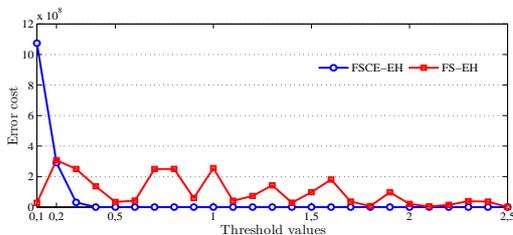


Figure 13: Maximum error cost J_{Max} with FSCE-EH and FS-EH.

7 CONCLUSIONS

This paper has addressed the problem of real-time scheduling in ambient energy harvesting systems with discrete voltage/frequency modes through the use of a feedback scheduler. The proposed solution computes the processor speed with taking into account the available energy and the control performance. The evaluation of this solution shows experimentally a good compromise between the available energy and the

quality of control and we can say that our approach is promising.

In the near future, we plan to study the problem of scheduling hybrid tasks (hard and soft real-time task) under harvesting energy constraints. The objective is to guarantee, with energy saving, the hard real-time constraints and at the same time reduce the rate of missed deadlines for the soft real-time tasks. We plan also to improve and test our work on a real hardware.

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