Lightweight IO Virtualization On MPU Enabled Microcontrollers

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ABSTRACT

In the era of the Internet of Things (IoT), millions of devices and embedded platforms based on low-cost and limited resources microcontroller units (MCUs) will be used in continuous operation. Even if over-the-air firmware update is today a common feature, many applications might require not to reboot or to support hardware resource sharing. In such a context stop, update and reboot the platform is unpractical and dynamic loading of new user code is required. This in turn requires mechanisms to protect the MCU hardware resources and the continuously executing system tasks from uncontrolled perturbation caused by new user code being dynamically loaded. In this paper, we present a framework which provides a lightweight virtualization of the IO and platform peripherals and permits the dynamic loading of new user code. The aim of this work is to support critical isolation features typical of virtualization-ready CPUs on low-cost low-power microcontrollers with no MMU (Memory Protection Unit), IOMMU or dedicated instruction extensions. Our approach only leverages the Memory Protection Unit (MPU), which is generally available in all ARM Cortex-M3 and Cortex-M4 microcontrollers. Experimental evaluations demonstrate not only the feasibility, but also the really low impact of the proposed framework in terms of memory requirements and runtime overhead.

Keywords

Virtualization, MPU, Microcontrollers, Dynamic Linking

1. INTRODUCTION

Many IoT applications envision the deployment of large numbers of microcontroller-based smart sensor nodes in hard-to-reach locations [1, 2]. This not only means that they are supposed to operate unattended, without direct maintenance, and likely with the same battery for many years; but also that the software could be updated (if necessary) only remotely; and in many scenarios it is expected that bug fixes, functional improvements, reconfiguration will be necessary over time. Clearly the traditional approach for reprogramming embedded systems based on stopping the device, updating the firmware and restarting, becomes unfeasible when millions of low cost devices are spread all over and are expected to be updated with new functionality many times over their life span.

In addition, IoT devices are expected to provide more and more services on the same hardware. The possibility to have multiple “application tasks” running on the same hardware, possibly coming from different developers, introduces the challenge of protecting the resources from misuses and to guarantee adequate computing bandwidth to all the tasks or to prevent over-allocation of resources that would lead to collective starvation.

In such a scenario, well-known virtualization technologies already used in computing servers, gateways and other high-end computing systems [3] become fundamental also in low-end and ultra-low cost programmable end-nodes for IoT. First, virtualization of the hardware resources becomes necessary to execute securely multi-function software and different applications with well-controlled interference. Then, the capability to execute new code, linked at runtime, without rebooting or changing the whole firmware avoids on-site maintenance or periodic down-time due to reboot and permits to add third-party developed code in a more flexible paradigm.

These two requirements highlight the importance of IO virtualization and dynamic linking on low-cost, low-power microcontrollers. However, hardware-supported virtualization is well known and available in operating systems for high-end embedded systems (e.g. Linux on ARM Cortex-A microprocessors), providing mechanisms for dynamic linking in low-resource microcontroller based embedded platforms, such as ARM Cortex-M MCUs, is still a challenge, and only few and limited solutions have been proposed so far.

The virtualization approach proposed in this work executes on the FreeRTOS [4] operating system and it is based on the framework presented in [5] which addressed the capability to download new functions remotely. The main contributions of this paper are:

- a Lightweight Virtualization layer which separates the user space from the kernel space, allowing virtualization of all the physical peripherals. Such a virtualization protects from tampering and it can be extended to manage hardware resource sharing (multi-tenancy);
- our solution is integrated with FreeRTOS and exploits standard communication APIs provided by the operating system. Thus, it can be easily ported also on other microcontrollers.
- we support dynamic linking of new user code, managing its life cycle as well as its orderly shutdown in case of attempted violations of protected memory regions;

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 gives an overview of works related to our contribution, Section 3 de-
scribes in depth the framework architecture and provides all technical details of this solution, Section 4 details our performance and memory footprint, while Section 5 concludes the paper.

2. RELATED WORKS

Virtualization support for embedded systems based on high-end CPUs, such as the ARM Cortex-A series, has been extensively explored in the academic literature and has reached industrial maturity [6]. This class of devices exploits the hardware extensions to provide hardware abstraction and protection of critical resources. Recent Cortex-A CPUs feature native virtualization support like MMU and IOMMU address translation, interrupt virtualization, TrustZones [7, 8], etc. Cortex-M MCUs do not come with any of those hardware extensions. Furthermore, available memory and computational resources are much more limited. Our work and the related works surveyed below deal with Cortex-M3 and Cortex-M4 class of devices, where virtualization is not a mature technology and several compromises with respect to full hardware-supported virtualization have to be made.

Abstract Virtual Machines and Interpreters

One of the most common approaches for virtualization on MCUs is based on interpreter-based virtual machines, which have been originally conceived with the main purpose of creating high-level easy-to-use languages and runtimes at a higher abstraction level than the traditional C language. Python [9, 10], Java [11, 12], Javascript [13], Lua [14] are all lightweight multi-paradigm scripting languages employed in Virtual Machines for embedded systems. Their main benefit is the cross-platform support. They are interpreted by a native virtual machine loaded on the microcontroller, thus they introduce high overhead in term of latency of access to the resources in comparison to virtualization layers written in native code, but they are designed for easy software application development and to meet the increasing demand of fast runtime customization, without the need of complex or dedicated compiling toolchains. Such a kind of virtualization, usually, is focused on improving portability, extensibility, ease-of-use in development and protection but lacks performance, multiple user level accesses and low-level hardware control. Only the exposed high level resources can be leveraged by the user.

Bogliolo et al. [15] presented Virtual Sense, a sensor node which executes java-compatible virtual machine called Darjeeling VM [12] on top of Contiki OS [16]. This work is close to ours in the emphasis on supporting resource allocation and protection for multiple independent user tasks on the MCU. However this solution, besides the overhead introduced by the interpreter, is oriented to share only network stack between Darjeeling VM tasks, while our work is general to all peripherals.

Just In Time/Ahead of Time Compilation

A well-explored approach to reduce the runtime overhead of VM interpreters is Just in Time or Ahead of Time compilation. Micropython [9] developers, for example, introduced in their platform the concept of decorator to emit ARM native opcodes and to use native C types, but not all native C types are supported and the implementation of this optimization is platform dependent. A solution can be to extend with C wrapped functions called from python, but there are drawbacks: marshaling and unmarshaling of data is very expensive in terms of computational resources and with this solution the programmer loses the low level abstraction. In comparison, using our solution, the developer implements C functions which will be executed in user level tasks. In general these approaches require a higher memory footprint to host the just-in-time or ahead-of-time compile process and do not achieve the performance of native code execution. Furthermore, they are difficult to use in contexts where real-time constraints cannot tolerate the jitter introduced by on-line compilation.

Native Implementations

Native virtualization is the closest to hardware and extremely desirable for resource and performance-limited devices. This technique usually relies on the use of MPU that is the only hardware unit available for security in low-end systems. Bhatti et al. [4] presented a complete operating system designed for WSN (Wireless Sensor Network) and optimized to simultaneous execution of threads which can be loaded dynamically. Their work relies on Mantis OS, a custom operating system. They work targets micro sensor nodes with 4KB of RAM. They support dynamic reprogramming at runtime of variables/parameters, while to add new functionalities, differently from our work, a reset is needed. Moreover they do not explicitly address security and protection.

To the best of our knowledge we find only one very recent work that addresses the problem in a broad and general sense, similarly to our solution. Andersen et al. [17] presented an embedded platform that relies on TinyOS. They use a mixed paradigm that permits to have Lua VM but the computational intensive part of code can be written in native C. To address security they use a task receiving event based system calls, to separate kernel to user space tasks. Our work differentiates from the latter by permitting to have both system call support and event based peripheral virtualization. Moreover Andersen et al. do not provide any information on the performance of the event based system call paradigm.

3. SOFTWARE ARCHITECTURE

In this section we present all the software layers in our runtime system, focusing on software protection. Figure 1 shows the layer stacking from three viewpoints, first from a hardware point of view, then from address space access, divided in IO and Flash/RAM. We divided core hardware from peripherals in two different stacks to underline that the OS can expose system calls to access to the core hardware resources, while the Virtual IO Layer is designed to access the peripherals. The last stack shows that the access to memories is direct for privileged tasks, while the access from usermode tasks is strictly regulated by MPU. Two different kinds of tasks are defined: privileged tasks and usermode tasks, which will be discussed in next section.

Another important layer depicted in Figure 1 is FreeRTOS [18], a well known Real Time Operating System for a broad range of Embedded Systems from 8 to 32bit, including low power and ultra-low power MCUs. We implemented our framework on an STM32F4 based platform, and even if some details in the following description are related to this specific microcontroller, our framework can be easily extended to be platform independent.

In Sections 3.1 and 3.2 we focus on the first and third stack, namely on exploiting the MPU and providing Safety Extensions, while in Section 3.3 we discuss the second stack.

3.1 Real Time OS

The main reason for using FreeRTOS is its versatility: it is open source with modified GPL license, many MCUs are supported and the code is maintained and upgraded often by Real Time Engineers Ltd. Moreover it is modular and there are some extensions available (e.g. MPU extension), which
can be added to the core release. The open source nature makes possible to extend it. It has moreover a small memory footprint and sources consist of a small number of files. The scheduler supports real-time operation, both time-triggered by a configurable system tick and with support for priorities with preemption.

3.2 FreeRTOS Additions

To strengthen the security of the system, the FreeRTOS MPU module has been integrated to enable the usage of the Memory Protection Unit available on the microcontroller and to activate the two levels of privileges for the tasks execution. However, the original module is an experimental release, because of some limitations that we addressed in our work:

1. It does not have a proper way to access system resources. It provides only one system call. This system call raises the privileges of the caller from usermode to privileged, executes the call and then sets the privileges back to user space. This behavior has sufficient protection in an environment where a single developer wants to keep separation between tasks, i.e. the case where a single company develops all the firmware. While in the case we want to give to a third-party user the capability to develop his own code, the knowledge of the existence of this backdoor is really dangerous for protection.

2. The exploitation of the MPU is static. The protection sections of the MPU are not reconfigurable at runtime by privileged tasks with an API.

3. The task termination is not correctly handled. When a usermode task raises an MPU trap the exception ends the system execution. Hence it would be extremely easy to create denial of service attacks.

In next sub-sections we describe our proposed solutions to these limitations. This solution has been designed and implemented.

3.2.1 MPU Extension

As already stated, this module permits to grant different access privileges on a task-by-task basis. For each task the MPU settings are stored in the task descriptor, called Task Control Block (TCB) in FreeRTOS. When a task is created, it can be started with one out of two levels of privileges:

1. Privileged Tasks (similar to Linux Kernel Mode execution). The task executes with permission granted to access all system resources, memories and peripherals.

2. Usermode Tasks (similar to Linux Usermode, also called unprivileged tasks). The task is executed in more restrictive environment and has access only to a limited subset of memory and IO addresses.

STM32 Cortex-M4 has eight configurable MPU regions. When activated, the protection policy is white-list based for usermode tasks. To access to a specific position in the address space the task should have a grant by one MPU region. For privileged tasks the protection policy is black-list based. The privileges on an MPU region can be: NONE, READ-ONLY AND READWRITE. In FreeRTOS these MPU regions are configured as follows:

Region 0 **FLASH protection**
Protects whole FLASH providing read-only privileges to both privileged and usermode tasks.

Region 1 **OS FLASH protection**
Protects from accesses by usermode tasks to the OS code in FLASH

Region 2 **OS RAM access**
Provides permission to privileged task to access the OS structures stored in RAM

Region 3 **Peripheral access**
Used to enable or disable the access to peripherals.

Region 4 **Task Stack access**
Used to give access to tasks own stack.

Region 5-7 **Not used**
These three regions are not used by FreeRTOS MPU module, thus they are available for developer purposes.

In Table 1, we show a list of MPU configurations used in our solution. There is no access to peripherals granted to usermode tasks. The access is allowed only through the IO Virtualization Architecture.

One of the main constraints of the FreeRTOS MPU module is that it permits to configure the last regions (from 5 to 7) at compile time only. Thus, we implemented a specific software module to reconfigure these regions at runtime for each task. This is done for the following reasons:

1. Access to Virtual IO Layer (deeply explained in Subsection 3.3) can be restricted by an MPU Region and must be asked by a task. This makes the Virtual IO Layer aware about the number of tasks that are using it.

2. Access to heap or other memory regions can be granted at runtime. This is open to several future applications.
3.2.2 Safety Extensions

As previously stated, the single system call paradigm is not safe. The raise_privilege system call has been removed and replaced by more specific system calls. For example to grant access to FreeRTOS Queues and Direct Task Notification, the following list of system calls are added:

- MPU_xTaskGenericNotify: Direct task notification Notify function
- MPU.QueueReceive: Receive a message on a queue
- MPU.GetCurrentTaskHandle: Get the current task handle
- IO.Layer_REGISTER: Registration to Virtual IO Layer

3.2.3 Graceful Task Termination - Killer Task

FreeRTOS does not provide task termination. Thus, when an unprivileged task tries to access a memory address without permission a trap is generated from the MPU and the OS ends its execution in an endless loop. This is not acceptable if we want to keep all other tasks and OS in execution. The desired behavior is that the task causing the trap, is aborted while the system continues its execution. Thus a memory trap handler and a specific task, called Killer Task, have been created to manage the termination of the task that raised the trap. The Killer Task is a privileged task created at boot time and it is in sleep state, when the MCU is in normal usage. When a trap occurs the task is activated. The Killer Task gets the task handles of the task that generated the trap and removes it from the scheduler execution queue. Then it resumes the scheduler execution and goes back into sleep, waiting for the next trap.

3.3 IO Virtualization Architecture

In a software protection perspective, the MPU enables the OS to keep the control on the usermode tasks. Thus, with the MPU all usermode tasks cannot tamper the whole system. On the other hand, if we want to enable a third party software developer to access only a small subset of peripherals, a fine grain control on address space must be implemented. Usually in a MCU all peripherals addresses are grouped from a starting to an ending address. However, if we want to provide fine grain access to a subset of them, three free MPU regions are really limiting. Moreover there are other two limitations: one is that the minimum area for an MPU region is usually 32 Bytes (i.e. on STM32f4) that is usually larger than the register pool of a peripheral. The other is that register set of several peripherals consists of both control registers, and reading/writing ports, at subsequent memory positions. Thus it is not possible to grant the access to a read-only register and denying the permission to a contiguous configuration register. The virtualization layer addresses these limitations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Privileged Perm.</th>
<th>Usermode Perm.</th>
<th>Region Desc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>READ ONLY</td>
<td>READ ONLY</td>
<td>all Flash Protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>READ ONLY</td>
<td>NONE</td>
<td>OS Code Segment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>READ WRITE</td>
<td>NONE</td>
<td>OS RAM Protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>READ WRITE</td>
<td>NONE</td>
<td>Peripherals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>READ WRITE</td>
<td>READ WRITE</td>
<td>Task Stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOT USED</td>
<td>NOT USED</td>
<td>User configurable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOT USED</td>
<td>NOT USED</td>
<td>User configurable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOT USED</td>
<td>NOT USED</td>
<td>User configurable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Default MPU region setting in FreeRTOS

The Virtual IO Layer architecture consists of two main components: (1) a task named Virtual IO Task and (2) a library named Virtual IO Library. The Virtual IO Task is a FreeRTOS task that handles all the IO calls from the usermode tasks to the peripherals. The Virtual IO Library contains the front-end calls, called from the usermode tasks and forwarded transparently to the Virtual IO Task, and the back-end calls invoked by the Virtual IO Task to access to the peripherals through the HAL Library. As shown in Figure 2 the Virtual IO Task acts as a task-in-the-middle that receives all calls from usermode tasks that attempt to access to the peripherals, checks the permissions and forwards the requests through the HAL library.

3.3.1 Virtual IO Library

The library consists of two subsets: a front-end functions subset and the relative back-end functions subset. When a usermode task wants to access peripherals, it needs to subscribe to the Virtual IO Layer, using a front-end function. Registration is required for two purposes:

1. The usermode task must have read only access to the Virtual IO task handle. This is needed to use the OS event notifications to notify the Virtual IO task. Therefore, one of the MPU regions of the task must be runtime configured to read-only access to Virtual IO task handler.

2. Usermode tasks are not authorized to use interrupt handlers, because interrupt handler code is executed in privileged mode. We used a queue system to communicate from interrupt handlers to usermode tasks. Hence the registration routine creates a new queue and saves the queue handler in a structure. This will be used afterwards if the task will request access to one peripheral in interrupt mode.
The registration takes place through a system call that was previously mentioned in subsection 3.2.2, hidden by a front-end call. The system call is needed to configure an MPU region described in the former purpose. The registration procedure works as follows: (1) The usermode task invokes the \texttt{IO\_Layer\_init()} routine, which through (2) the \texttt{IO\_Layer\_REGISTER} system call (3) sets an MPU region of the caller task to access to Virtual IO Task descriptor in read-only mode. This is needed to send notifications. Then the framework creates and initializes a system queue (4) for using the DMA (the procedure is described in Back End Subset subsection). Before returning, if the procedure was successful, the task is added to the list of Virtual IO subscribed tasks.

\textbf{Front End Subset}

The Front End subset is intended to be called from the usermode tasks. These calls have the same signature of the original HAL library calls, beside the function name, which is extended with a prefix to make the programmer aware that is using the Virtual IO Layer and, obviously, to avoid a name space conflict. Thus for each HAL library function that we want to expose to the third party developer a function must be written. Each function declares a structure that contains:

1. The usermode task task handler.
2. A pointer to the relative back-end function to be called by the Virtual IO Task.
3. A pointer for each original HAL Library function argument.
4. If the original HAL function returns a non-void value, a field to store it.

We refer to this structure with the name HAL Library Argument Embedding Structure (HAE Structure). Then HAE structure is instantiated in the Front End function, on the stack, and all structure’s fields are assigned with their values. A notification is sent to the Virtual IO Layer Task with a pointer to this structure. At the end, optionally the HAL Library return value is returned if the function is non-void. A recap of the embedding of this function is shown in right top corner of Figure 2.

\textbf{Back End Subset}

The Back End (or call back functions) is the part of the library meant to be called by the Virtual IO Task. For each Front End function, there is one corresponding Back End one that takes as input a single argument, a void pointer. Its body contains a declaration of the HAE structure equal to the corresponding Front End function. The void pointer is then cast in this structure, arguments are then used to call the original HAL function. When the HAL Library call ends, the return argument is written in the structure, that still resides in the usermode stack. Finally the Virtual IO Task suspends its execution waiting for the next call and control returns to the usermode task.

This architecture has two advantages: (1) the ease of use, the programmer does not need to learn a new interface to use the HAL. (2) All Front End calls and Back End calls have the same format, so they can be written by a programmer or generated by an automatic tool, given the list of HAL functions that the Virtual IO Library will support.

To handle DMA asynchronous calls and to get notified when a DMA transfer is completed, we use the Queue returned when the usermode task subscribes the Virtual IO Layer. For security it is important that all the interrupt service routines (ISR) are implemented by the system. Moreover inside each service routine there is a Queue Send operation used to notify the task that wants to use the DMA that the routine is called. To correctly notify the corresponding usermode queue a reference table is used. This reference table is set by the back-end, when the usermode task invokes one of the DMA HAL Library functions.

3.3.2 Virtual IO Task

The Virtual IO Task is a privileged task that handles the communication from usermode tasks to peripherals. It starts when the Virtual IO layer is initialized, typically at system boot time. The communication is handled via \textit{Direct Task Notification}. When started this task hangs in suspended state waiting for a call from one of the usermode registered tasks through the Front End.

The priority of this task is higher than all usermode tasks. Thus, when the notification is thrown from the Front End, the usermode task waits that the Virtual IO task ends its execution. Therefore, even if task notifications are asynchronous, the call to HAL Library is blocking because in FreeRTOS the preemption of the scheduler is priority based.

The body of this task, besides the Task Notify Wait, consists of an Access Control List (ACL), shown in Figure 2, that checks that the callee HAL Library function can be invoked by the caller. The pointer to HAE Structure is cast to a generic structure common for all HAE Structures (we always know that the first two fields are fixed: the usermode task task handler and the pointer to the call-back function), then the ACL permission check occurs. if the checking passed, the Back End function is invoked.

3.4 Dynamic Linking

The dynamic linking permits to execute new tasks without rebooting the system and enables the usage of systems resources from dynamic linked tasks. Thus, we implemented a privileged task in charge of dynamic linking other tasks named Dynamic Linker task. Runtime linked tasks must be cross compiled and have relocation and position independent compiler flags enabled. The Dynamic Linker task resolves at runtime unresolved dependencies to (1) system library functions (jump slots) and (2) global data declared in the system firmware. Once all dependencies are resolved a new FreeRTOS TCB is created and added to the ready task scheduler queue. The library in charge of dynamic linking usermode tasks is derived from the work of [5] and the dynamic linking consists of 3 steps:

1. \textbf{Allocation of Dynamic Linked Task}. The task sections are allocated in RAM.
2. \textbf{Relocation of jump slots and global data}. Resolution of jump and data dependencies that points to the system firmware.
3. \textbf{FreeRTOS task creation and start}. Creation of the FreeRTOS task. The entry point of the task is set to a known and predefined function name.

To resolve the dependencies two sections of the system firmware ELF must be stored into Flash memory: \textit{.symtab} and \textit{.strtab}. The Dynamic Linker Task uses these sections to correctly relocate jump slots and global data to their real memory addresses. The dynamic linked task can be stored in Flash or RAM memory before being runtime linked.
4. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section we present results of Virtual IO Layer and Dynamic Linking. All tests were conducted on an STM32F411RE NUCLEO-64 Board [19]. This is a platform by ST Microelectronics, it embeds an ARM® 32-bit Cortex®-M4 CPU running up to 100 MHz with FPU and MPU. It features 512 KB of Flash memory and 128 KB of RAM memory. In our software setup we use the new driver for accessing hardware peripherals provided by ST called Hardware Abstraction Layer Driver (HAL Driver) [20].

4.1 Virtual IO Layer

We identified two main use cases, i.e. ways to access peripherals in a Microcontroller unit, that must be considered separately:

1. Atomic Action:
   In this case a HAL Driver routine is called each time we access a peripheral. In other words, the call does not involve data transfers after it, either if we access an IO address once, or if we access it in a loop. An example of this behavior is when we want to configure or read a GPIO PIN, or write something on the UART.

2. Continuous Action (or Tunneling Action):
   In this second case we consider all the peripherals that involve the use of DMA. For example when we want to set Analog to Digital converter and read it at regular intervals by the DMA.

4.1.1 Virtual IO Layer Timing

The time of accessing a peripheral using the Virtual IO Layer is reported in Table 2. The first row gives the cycles to get the task handle through a system call. The MPU_xTaskGenericNotify() is the direct task notification system call. The third row reports the cycles required to notify the Virtual IO Task. The last row gives the number of cycles to return control, after the HAL Driver call back to the User mode task. The cycles measurement has been done with the DWT_CYCCNT hardware cycle counter, available in Cortex-M4 MCUs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Virtualization Step</th>
<th>VIO (Cycles)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>getTaskHandle</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPU_xTaskGenericNotify</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xTaskNotify + CS</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notify wait + CS back</td>
<td>293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>927</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Timing overhead of accessing the IO using the Virtual IO Layer in Cycles

It is worth mentioning that with this paradigm, continuous mode operations pay the overhead just once, when the setup of the peripheral or IO is performed. Thus when the DMA is working the overhead is the queue used to synchronize the ISR with the user mode task.

The cycles overhead to check if the function that the user mode task wants to use is permitted by the ACL grows linearly with the number of checks that occurs. In Figure 3, the overhead is reported. As expected the number of cycles are proportional to the number of function addresses to verify.

4.1.2 Virtual IO Layer Memory Footprint

The overhead in terms of memory footprint is described in Table 3. We show the code size of the library and of the Virtual IO Task separately, in case the compiler is invoked with the flag for performance (-O3) or space (-OS) optimization. The Size of the Virtual IO Library is measured with an average size of 50 functions (front end + back end). As we can notice from the results, the memory footprint is minimal. Moreover we notice that optimizing for space and performance gives the same overhead, it is due to the fact that employing space optimization means introducing -O2 compiler optimization as well. The code is not computationally intensive thus -O2 and -O3 produce the same timing overhead for accessing the peripheral.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opt.</th>
<th>VIO Task</th>
<th>VIO Library</th>
<th>Overhead</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-O3</td>
<td>592 B</td>
<td>2876 B</td>
<td>927 Cycles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-OS</td>
<td>464 B</td>
<td>2314 B</td>
<td>927 Cycles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Virtualization Layer code size and access overhead with relation to space and performance optimization (Opt.)

4.2 Dynamic Linking

The cycles needed to link dynamically a task are dependent from the number of relocations. As Section 3.4 describes, two possible kind of relocations are supported, global data and function call relocation, the cost of both is equal and dependent to the cycles needed to find the entry in the system firmware elf.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Single Relocation</th>
<th>Dynamic Link Step</th>
<th>KCycles</th>
<th>ms @100MHz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relocation</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allocation and Start</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.00</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Dynamic Linker Cycles

In Table 4 we show the dynamic linking execution cycles, we averaged the cycles of 10 global data and 10 function relocations. The allocation and task creation and start described in Section 3.4 are grouped in one entry, while the other entry shows the relocation. It is worth to say that the relocation cycles are required for each additional variable or function to relocate, while the task allocation and start cycles are payed just once per task link. This means that if we want to relocate 100 variables and functions we pay an average of 18.1 MCycles that at 100 MHz are 181 ms. Dynamic linked tasks usually have a number much lower than 100 relocations for a single task since they use a limited number of calls to system firmware functions or global data.

In Table 5 we show the memory footprint of the dynamic linking system in code size. As in Section 4.1.2 we measured
the overhead using compiler option for space (-OS) and performance optimization (-O3). The memory footprint of the dynamic linker is higher than the Virtual IO Layer but still limited. Moreover we show the relocation cycles of both compiler optimization flags. With space optimization we save roughly 30% in space, paying a very limited amount of overhead cycles.

Finally we implemented a task that samples with the ADC an accelerometer and, after a FIR filter stage, sends the results through the WIFI to a remote cloud. We tested it in two versions: one statically written in the system firmware, in a standard FreeRTOS with neither virtualization nor dynamic linking. The second version uses our enhanced FreeRTOS with Virtual IO and dynamic linking to link a new filter runtime. After an initialization stage, different for the two implementations, the main loop of the task (1) waits a notification from the DMA ISR, (2) collects and elaborates the samples, and (3) sends them to a third task that collects results to forward through the WIFI. Step 2 is exactly the same for both implementations and it is responsible for the majority of the execution time, the filter elaborates 512 samples each 10 ms and the filtering takes 523 KCycles (5.23 ms at 100 MHz). Step 1 costs 104 Cycles (1.04 µs at 100 MHz) and Step 3 costs 512 Cycles (5.12 µs at 100 MHz) for the static task, while for the task that uses the infrastructure presented in this paper they have an overhead of 101 Cycles each since they are implemented within system calls. The percentage increase for both Step 1 and Step 3 is 32%, while considering all 3 Steps the overhead of using our runtime system is really small, only 0.03% compared to the static one, with all advantages discussed in previous Sections.

As a concluding note, it is important to notice the fact that the runtime execution of tasks, when not interacting with the IOs or using system calls, is exactly the same as native FreeRTOS tasks, with no performance overhead for memory protection; as the MPU is completely transparent from the performance viewpoint. This is very similar to what happens in virtual machine execution for high-end cores, and in sharp contrast with interpreted virtual machines or even JIT-based systems.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we have presented a virtualization layer for low-cost microcontrollers which creates a separation between kernel mode and user mode and protects the hardware resources from misuses when concurrent tasks or function are written by different developers. Moreover we demonstrated the effectiveness of a mechanism capable to execute new runtime code, without the need of system reboot. We have focused on small size of the framework and on lower overhead, because targeted for low-cost and limited computing capabilities microcontrollers such as the ones designed for IoT and WSN. Experimental results demonstrate that the overhead is limited and time delay is negligible considering the typical application scenarios. Future works will extend dynamic linking toward multiple upload channels and will implement different permission policies to peripherals from different user mode tasks.

### 6. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was partially supported by EU Project EuroCPS H2020-ICT-2014 under Grant 644090 and in collaboration with STMicroelectronics.

### 7. REFERENCES


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<tr>
<td>-O3</td>
<td>9904 B</td>
<td>181 Kcycles</td>
<td>19 Kcycles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-OS</td>
<td>6592 B</td>
<td>190 Kcycles</td>
<td>21 Kcycles</td>
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Table 5: Dynamic Linker code size and performance with relation to the compiler optimization (Opt.)