Stochastic models & analyses for embedded systems evaluation

Sören Kemmann



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Reliability Block diagrams (RBD)

Fault Trees (FT)

Component Fault Trees (CFT)

Dynamic Fault Trees (DFT)

Stochastic Petri nets (SPN)

■ GSPN, DSPN

PN analysis

A comparison of the expressive power of model types



RBD

Reliability Block Diagrams



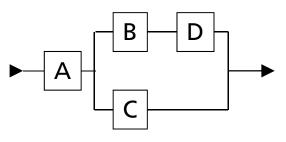
Reliability Block Diagrams (RBD)

- "Which elements of the system may fail without causing system failure?"
- Models necessary components for system functions
- Compare Fault Trees:
 - Fault Tree: Which basic events are necessary for a given failure?
 - RBDs: Which components must be available for correct operation



Reliability Block Diagrams (RBD)

Example:



- Correct system operation is given when there is a path from one side to the other
- The system works if A, B and D are available or A and C are available.
- RBD allows easy identification of A as single point of failure.

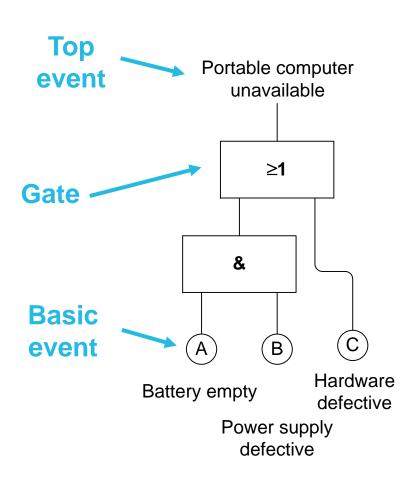


FΤ

Fault Trees



Fault trees



Analysis method for dependability properties

Recursive, deductive decomposition of causes for a given hazard or failure in the form of a DAG

- Root (top event) = hazard/failure
- Leaves (basic events) = elementary causes
- Logical gates (And, Or, ...) explain interaction of causes



Fault tree analysis

Use

Search for all relevant causes for hazards and failures

Qualitative analysis

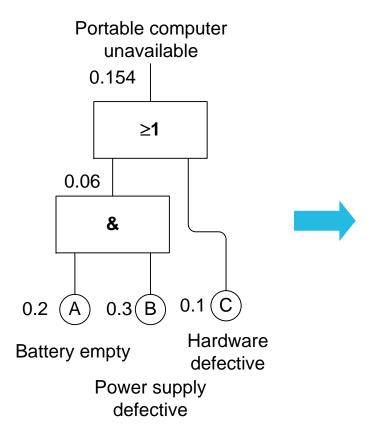
- Listing all combinations of basic events that are necessary and sufficient to cause a top event
- Search for **single points of failure** (with minimal cut sets, MCS)

Quantitative Analysis

- Calculation of hazard or failure probabilities from given probabilities for elementary causes
- Other measures
- Mean time to failure (MTTF)
- Influence/importance measures



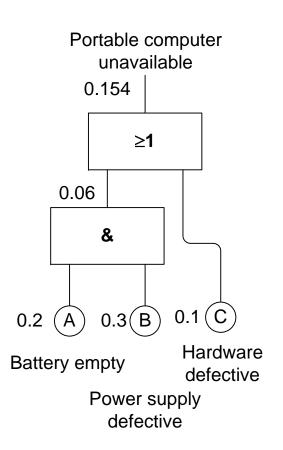
Qualitative FTA



- Determine MCS
 - Find minterms/implicants
 - ABC, AB~C, A~BC, ~ABC, ~ABC, ~A~BC
 - Remove negated variables
 - ABC, AB, AC, BC, C
 - Minimise
 - 4, B}, {C}



Quantitative FTA



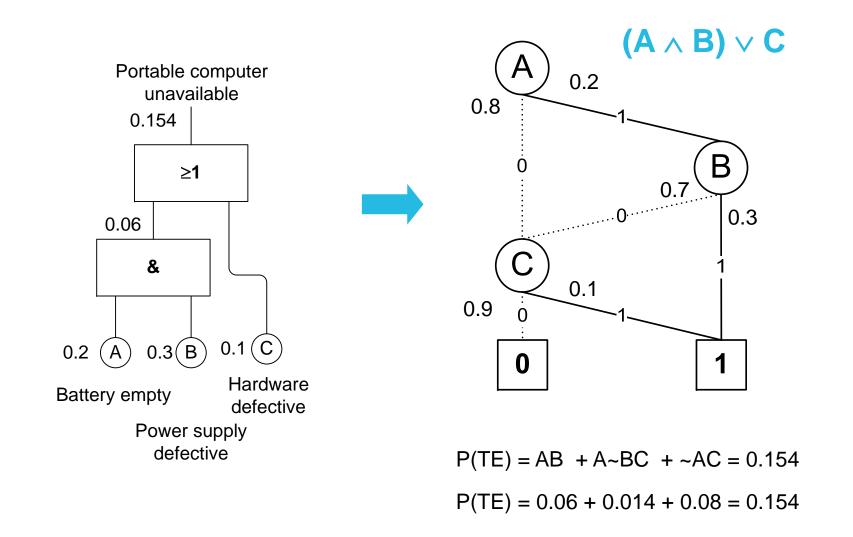
- Apply gate formulae bottom up
- Result when reaching the top event

Bottom-up calculation is inefficient for large FT. There are two main alternatives...

- Minimal cut set algorithm
- BDD-based algorithm
- (BDD = binary decision diagram)

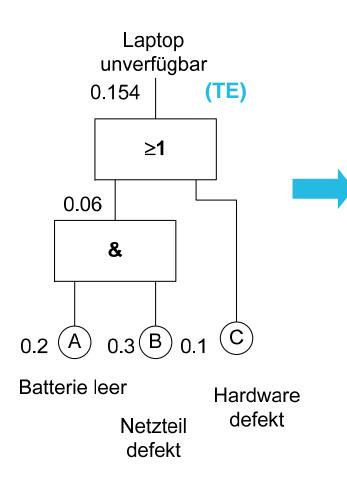


Top event probability calculation – BDD method





Top event probability calculation – MCS method



 $MCS = \{\{A, B\}, \{C\}\}$

Calculation of top event probability as sum of MCS probabilities

$$P(A)*P(B) = 0.06$$

$$P(C) = 0.1$$

$$\Sigma = 0.16 = P(TE)$$

BDD method: P(TE) = 0.154

MCS method yields approximation



Deficiencies of conventional fault trees

No compositionality

- Technical and software(-controlled) systems are made of components.
- Software design models are often compositional → lack of integration.

No integration with other (aspects of) software/embedded systems (ES) design models, such as statecharts, Matlab/Simulink models etc.

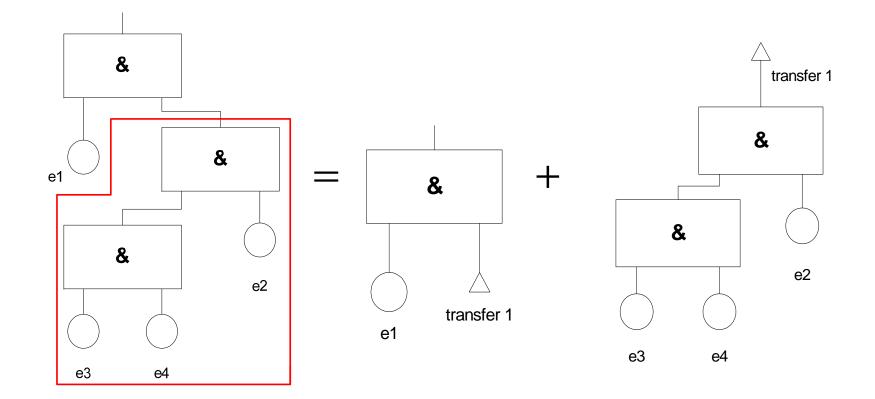


CFT

Component fault trees



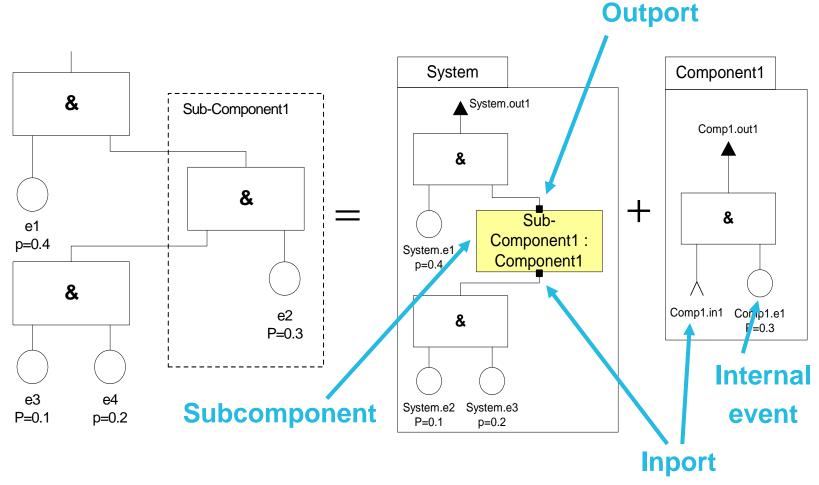
Traditional FT decomposition by modules



Traditionally, "modules" are independent subtrees.



Component fault trees



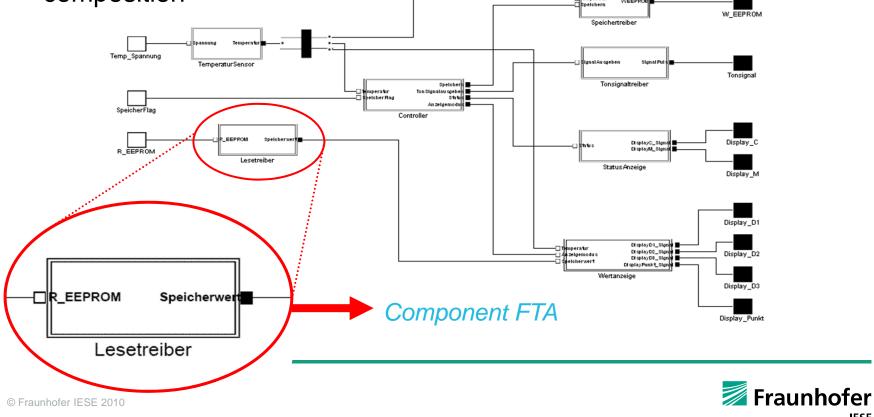
CFT component corresponds to technical component. Components have specification/realisation with in- and outports.



Component fault trees

What is this good for?

- Composition enables integration of failure with design/architecture models.
- Example: signal flow graph can be used for automatic CFT composition



IESE

DFT

Dynamic fault trees



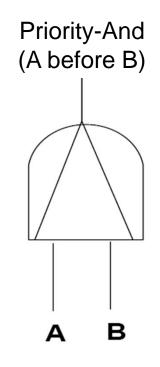
Dynamic fault trees (DFT)

- Problem
 - FTA cannot model the order in which components fail
- Solution
 - Dynamic fault trees (DFT) extend FTA to allow analysis of computerbased systems characterised by
 - Spares (cold, warm, pooled)
 - Functional and sequence dependences
 - Imperfect coverage and other common-cause failures



Dynamic fault trees (DFT)

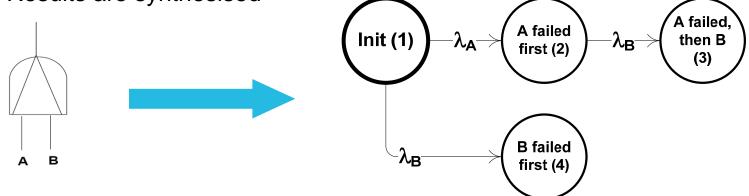
- DFT has constructs (gates) for modelling
 - Sequence dependences (priority-And)
 - Functional dependences
 - Spares (hot, warm, cold)
- DFT model is divided into independent modules that are solved separately
- Modules are classified as
 - static (containing only traditional gates) or
 - dynamic (containing at least one dynamic gate)





Dynamic fault trees (DFT)

- Separate modules are solved using most appropriate means
 - Markov chain for dynamic modules
 - BDD for static modules
 - Results are synthesised

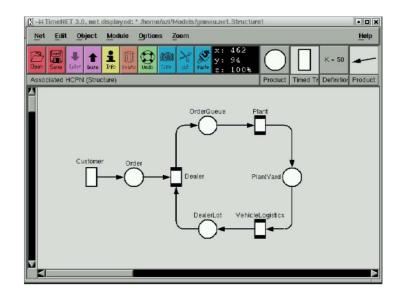


- Pros and cons
 - + Easier to use than Markov model directly
 - State space largeness (can be exponential in number of basic events)





- Modelling of system behaviour
 - With focus on concurrency
- Large number of varieties
- Formal description and graphical representation
- Based on ideas of Carl Adam Petri (Dissertation 1962)

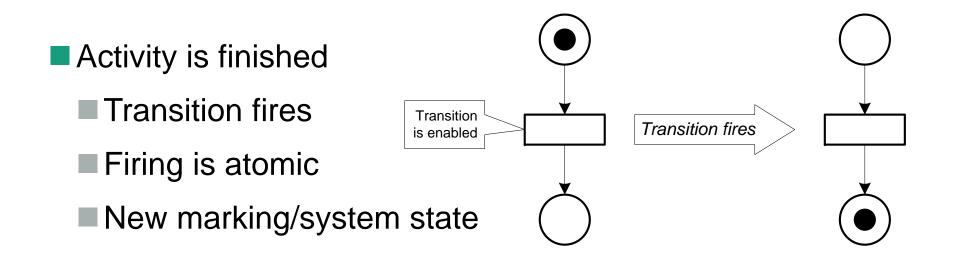




Tokens Warehouse Entities Workpiece Places Location/state of entities Transport Transitions Activities Factory Marking System state



- Ongoing activity
 - Transition is enabled
 - All preconditions of transition have to be fulfilled





Transition types

Immediate

Takes no time between enabling and firing

Can be prioritised for case of conflict

Timed

Takes time between enabling and firing

Exponentially timed

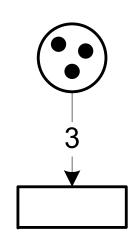
Deterministically timed





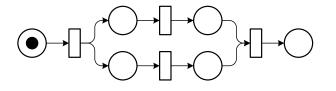
- Arc weights
 - For flow arcs
 - Minimum number of tokens on place to enable transition
 - Number of tokens consumed/produced
 - For inhibitor arcs
 - Min. number of tokens needed on place to disable transition
- Arc weights or priorities make PN Turing complete!



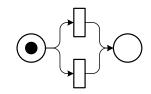


Petri nets – typical structures

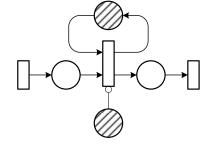
Concurrency

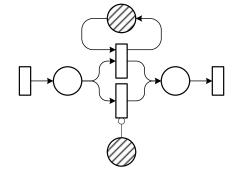


Conflict



Firing constraints





Conjunction

Disjunction



Petri Nets: Formal Definition

A marked Petri net is formally defined by the following tuple

 $PN = (P, T, F, W, M_0)$

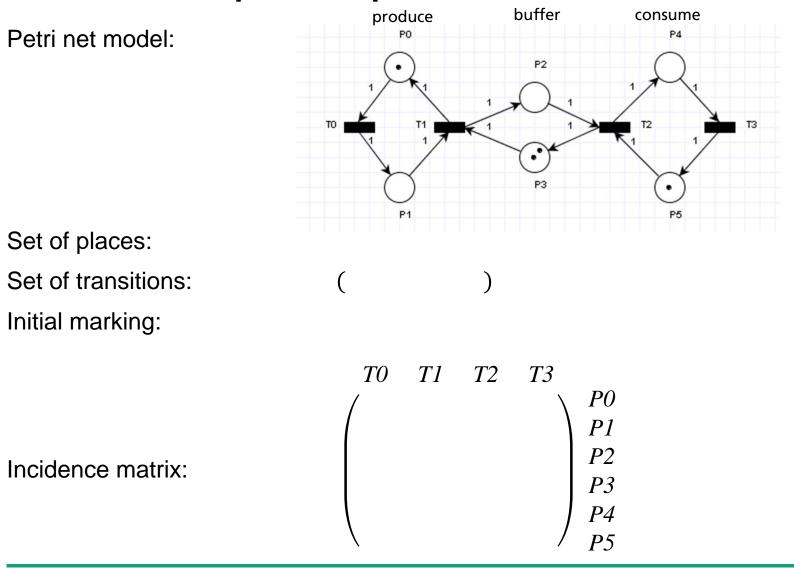
where

$P = (p_1, p_2, \dots p_P)$	is the set of places			
$T = (t_1, t_2, \dots t_T)$	is the set of transitions			
$F \subseteq (P \times T) \cup (T \times P)$	is the set of arcs			
$W:F \rightarrow (1,2,\dots)$	is a weight function			
$M_0 = (m_{01}, m_{02}, \dots m_{0P})$	is the initial marking			

Combining the information provided by the flow relations and by the weight function, we obtain the *Incidence Matrix*

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & \cdots & C_{1T} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{P1} & \cdots & C_{PT} \end{pmatrix}$$



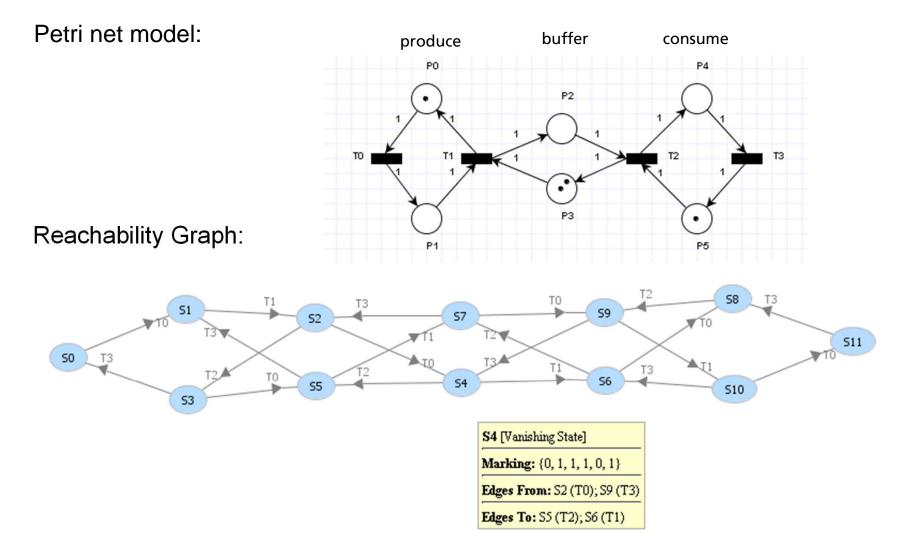


Petri Nets: Simple example – Producer/Consumer

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Petri Nets: Simple example – Producer/Consumer





Petri net types (untimed)

- Condition-event nets
 - At most one token per place
- Place-transition nets
 - Arbitrary number of tokens on places
- State machines
 - Transitions have exactly one input and output place
 - Can model finite state automata
- Marked graphs
 - Places have exactly one input and output transition
 - No conflicts possible
- Stochastic PN
- High-level PN
 - For example, coloured PN



Petri net analysis (untimed)

- PN properties
 - Behavioural properties (marking dependent)
 - Reachability \rightarrow reachability graph (one node for every PN marking)
 - Liveness (deadlock free)
 - Structural properties (marking independent)
 - Concurrency
 - Synchronisation points
- Analysis
 - Incidence matrix
 - Graph-based methods \rightarrow reachability graph



Time and Petri Nets



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Petri net types (timed)

Stochastic Petri nets (SPN)

All transition firing times are exponentially distributed

Generalised stochastic Petri nets (GSPN)
Firing times are immediate or exponentially distributed

Deterministic stochastic Petri nets (DSPN)
Immediate, exponentially distributed or deterministic



Timing Specifications

Time is associated to places

Time is associated to tokens

Time is associated to arcs

Time is associated to transitions



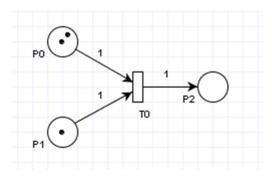
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Timed transitions

Time is associated to transitions, that represent "activities"

- Activity start corresponds to enabling
- Activity end corresponds to firing

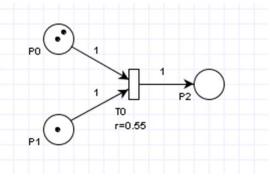
Delay is associated with transitions





Stochastic (Exponential) Petri Nets

- The delay of a transition is a random variable
- Timed Transition PN with atomic firing and race policy in which transition delays are random variables *exponentially* distributed are called Stochastic Petri Nets (SPN)
- SPN is the name chosen by Molloy in 1982, but more adequate one could be Exponential Petri Nets





Generalized Stochastic Petri Nets

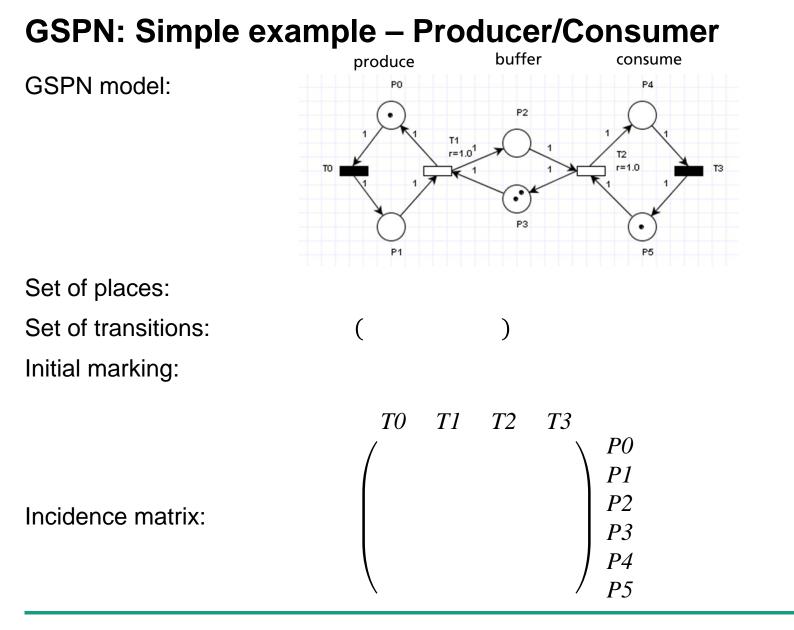
Two types of transitions

- Timed with an exponentially distributed delay
- Immediate, with constant zero delay

Why immediate transitions:

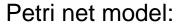
- To account for instantaneous actions (typically choices)
- To implement logical actions (e.g. emptying a place)

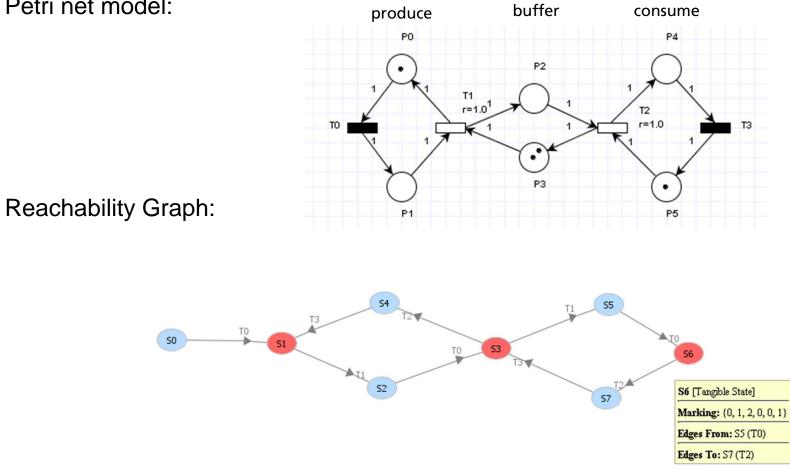






GSPN: Simple example – Producer/Consumer

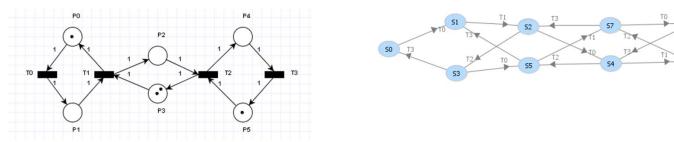




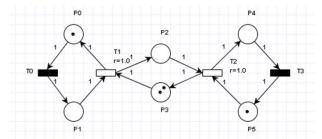


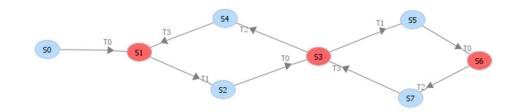
PN vs. GSPN

ΡN



GSPN







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Petri net analysis (timed)

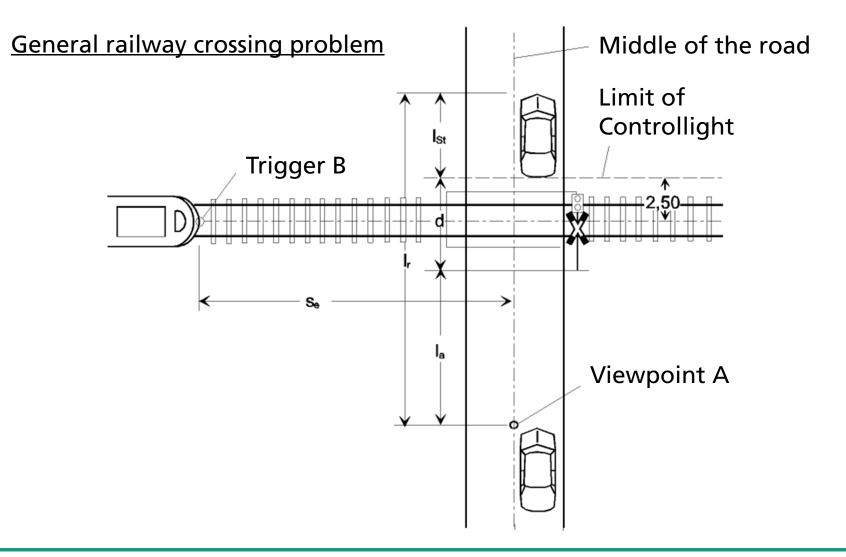
- Mapping to underlying stochastic process
- Reward measures derived from state probabilities of stochastic process
 - Determine reachability graph of SPN and GSPN
 - Convert reachability graph to Markov chain
 - May experience state space largeness problems
 - DSPN are mapped to embedded Markov chain

Simulation

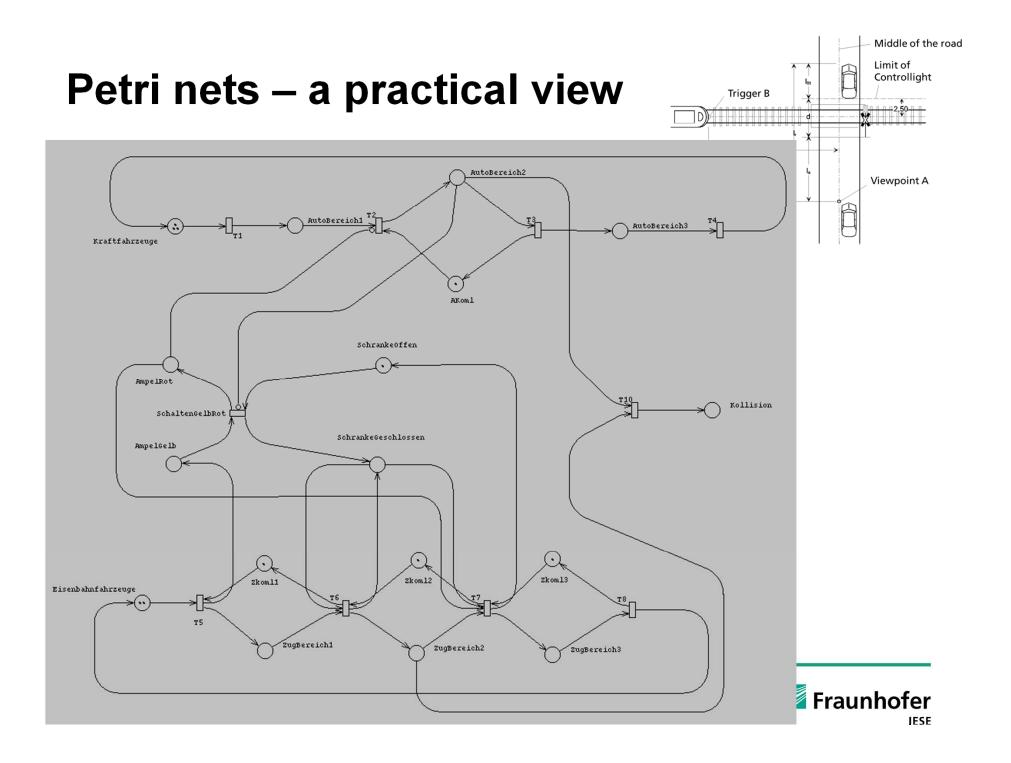
- Statistical measures
- No problems with state space size (except precision)



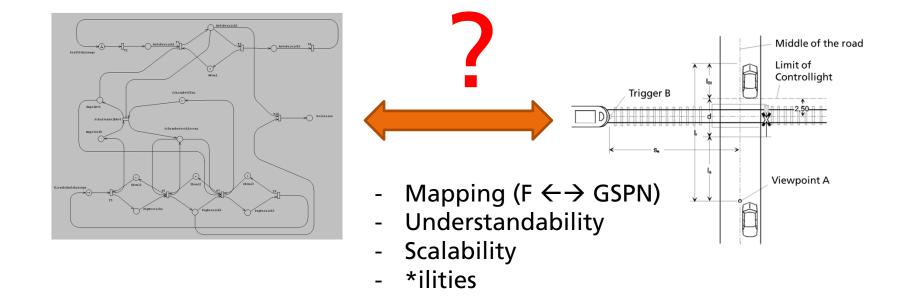
Petri nets – a practical view







Petri nets – a practical view





Expressive power of model types

	FME (C)A	FTA	ETA	RBD	Markov chain	Petri net
Property						
Direction of search	Inductive	Deductive	Inductive	Deductive	Inductive	Inductive/deductive
Sequence-dependent behaviour	No	FT extensions (DFT, SEFT)	No*	No	Yes	Yes
Deterministic dependences	No	FT extensions (SEFT)	No	No	No	Yes
Components	Yes	FT extensions (CFT, SEFT)	No	Yes	No**	No**
Semi-quantitative analysis (ordinal scale)	Yes	No***	No	No	No	No
Quantitative analysis	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

** \rightarrow There are approaches to tackle components

*** \rightarrow There are approaches for semi-quantitative Analysis

