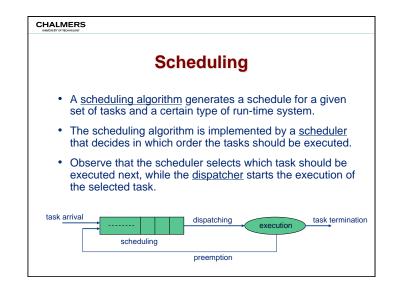
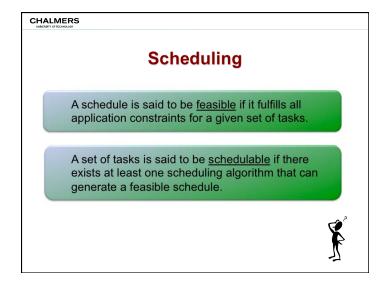
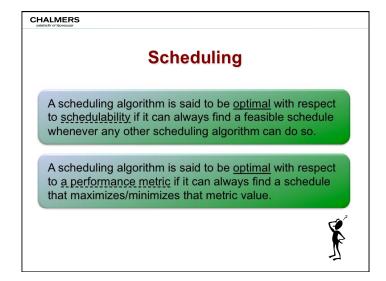


Scheduling Scheduling is used in many disciplines: (a.k.a. "operations research") Production pipelines ("Ford's automotive assembly line") Actors: workers + car parts Goal: generate schedules that maximizes system throughput (cars per time unit) Technique: job- and flow-shop scheduling Real-time systems Actors: processors, data structures, I/O hardware + tasks Goal: generate schedules that meet timing constraints (deadlines, periods, jitter) Technique: priority-based task scheduling







Scheduling constraints Examples of scheduling constraints: No processor sharing: A processor can only execute one task at a time This is a realistic assumption for any processor type being used in practice Note: in case of multi-core processors, each core is viewed as a separate processor

- A task can only execute on one processor at a time

- This is a realistic assumption for any programming model

· No dynamic task parallelism:

being used in practice

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Scheduling constraints

Examples of scheduling constraints:

- Non-preemptive scheduling:
 - Once started, a task cannot be preempted by another task
 - This assumption is not so common in priority-based scheduling
- · Greedy scheduling:
 - Once started, a task cannot be preempted by a lower-priority task
 - This assumption applies for all run-time systems used in practice
- No task migration:
 - A task can only execute on one given processor, or cannot change processor once it has started its execution
 - This is a realistic assumption for distributed systems, and is also enforced for some multi-core processor designs (e.g. AUTOSAR)

Scheduling constraints

Non-preemptive scheduling:

- · Advantages:
 - Mutual exclusion can be automatically guaranteed
 - Results from WCET analysis correspond well with real WCET behavior
- Disadvantages:
 - Negative effect on schedulability
 - Scheduling decision takes effect only after a task has completed its execution
 - Once a task starts executing, all other tasks on the same processor will be blocked until execution is complete

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Scheduling constraints

Greedy scheduling:

- Example: "traditional" static-priority scheduling (RM, DM)
 - Once a task starts executing, lower-priority tasks cannot grab the processor until execution is complete
- Advantages:
 - Scheduler relatively simple to implement
 - Supported by all run-time systems used in practice
- Disadvantages:
 - Schedulability is negatively affected:
 - · Lower-priority tasks can starve and hence miss their deadlines

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Scheduling constraints

Preemptive scheduling:

- Advantages:
 - Schedulability is not negatively affected
 - Scheduling decisions can take effect as soon as the system state changes (even in the middle of task execution)
 - · The capacities of task priorities can be used in full
- · Disadvantages:
 - Mutual exclusion has to be guaranteed by e.g. semaphores (or similar constructs)
 - WCET analysis is more complicated since cache and pipeline contents will be affected by a task switch
 - Program security may be compromised (through so-called covert channels) if full preemption is allowed

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Scheduling constraints

Fair scheduling:

- Example: p-fair scheduling (Baruah et al. 1995)
 - Although a task has started executing, lower-priority tasks receive a guaranteed time quantum per time unit for execution
 - All tasks hence make some kind of progress per time unit
- Advantages:
 - Schedulability can be maximized on a multiprocessor system (assuming that task switch cost is negligible)
- Disadvantages:
 - Not supported by run-time systems used in practice
 - Poor schedulability when task switch cost is non-negligible
 - · Fairness implies significantly more task switches than greediness

Scheduling algorithms

How much an oracle is the scheduling algorithm?

- · Myopic scheduler:
 - Scheduling algorithm only knows about currently ready tasks.
 - Scheduling decisions are only taken whenever a new task instance arrives or a running task instance terminates.
- · Clairvoyant scheduler:
 - Scheduling algorithm "knows the future"; that is, it knows in advance the arrival times of the tasks.
 - On-line clairvoyant scheduling is difficult to realize in practice.

"Predictions are always hard to make. In particular about the future." (Yogi Berra)

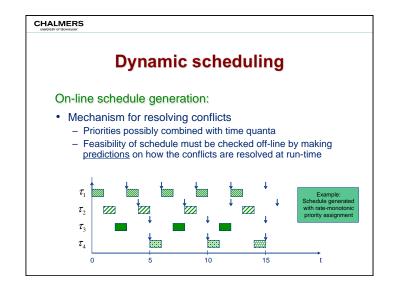
CHALMERS Static scheduling Off-line schedule generation: Simulate dynamic scheduling Record a run-time behavior (linear time complexity) Apply a search heuristic (e.g., a branch-and-bound algorithm) Find a feasible schedule (if one exists) by considering all possible execution scenarios (NP-complete problem) To the schedule of the complexity of the schedule of the schedule

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Scheduling algorithms

When are schedules generated?

- Static scheduling:
 - Schedule generated "off-line" before the tasks becomes ready, sometimes even before the system is in mission.
 - Schedule consists of a "time table", containing explicit start and completion times for each task instance, that controls the order of execution at run-time.
- Dynamic scheduling:
 - Schedule generated "on-line" as a <u>side effect</u> of tasks being executed, that is, when the system is in mission.
 - Ready tasks are sorted in a queue and receive access to the processor and shared resources at run-time using conflictresolving mechanisms.



Dynamic scheduling

Rate-monotonic scheduling (RM):

- Uses static priorities
 - Priority is determined by task frequency (rate)
 - Tasks with higher rates (i.e., shorter periods) are assigned higher priorities
- Theoretically well-established (for single-processor systems)
 - Sufficient schedulability test can be performed in linear time (under certain simplifying assumptions)
 - Exact schedulability test is an NP-complete problem
 - RM is optimal among all scheduling algorithms that uses static priorities under the assumption that D_i = T_i for all tasks (shown by C. L. Liu & J. W. Layland in 1973)

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Dynamic scheduling

Deadline-monotonic scheduling (DM):

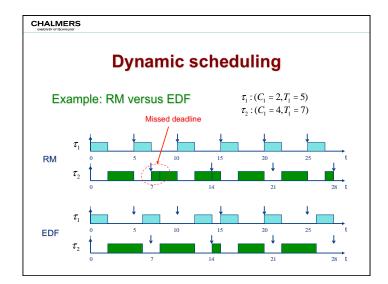
- Uses static priorities
 - Priority is determined by task deadline
 - Tasks with shorter (relative) deadlines are assigned higher priorities
 - Note: RM is a special case of DM, with $D_i = T_i$
- Theoretically well-established (for single-processor systems)
 - Exact schedulability test is an NP-complete problem
 - DM is optimal among all scheduling algorithms that uses static priorities under the assumption that D_i ≤ T_i for all tasks (shown by J. Y.-T. Leung & J. Whitehead in 1982)

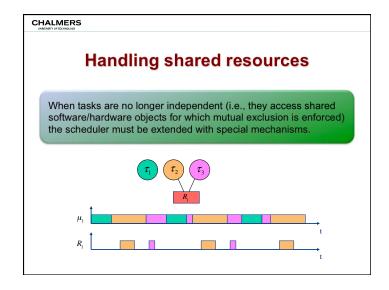
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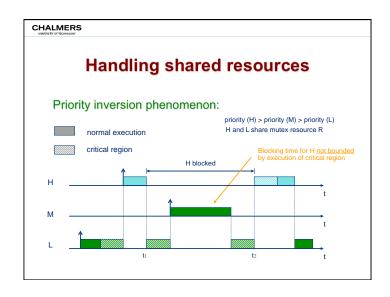
Dynamic scheduling

Earliest-deadline-first scheduling (EDF):

- · Uses dynamic priorities
 - Priority is determined by how critical the process is at a given time instant
 - The task whose <u>absolute</u> deadline is closest in time receives the highest priority
- Theoretically well-established (for single-processor systems)
 - <u>Exact</u> schedulability test can be performed in linear time (under certain simplifying assumptions)
 - EDF is optimal among all scheduling algorithms that uses dynamic priorities under the assumption that D_i = T_i for all tasks (shown by C. L. Liu & J. W. Layland in 1973)







Handling shared resources Resolving resource conflicts: (while also avoiding priority/deadline inversion) Off-line resource scheduling: Intelligent algorithms that are configured to generate schedules with no need for conflict resolution at run-time. Examples: branch-and-bound (B&B) algorithms On-line resource access protocols: Blocking protocols using dynamic adjustments of task priorities. Examples: Priority Inheritance Protocol, Deadline Inheritance Protocol, Priority Ceiling Protocol, Immediate Ceiling Priority Protocol, Stack Resource Policy Non-blocking protocols using retry loops. Examples: lock-free and wait-free object sharing

CHALMERS Handling shared resources Priority Inheritance Protocol: (Sha, Rajkumar & Lehoczky, 1990) Basic idea: When a task τ, blocks one or more higherpriority tasks, it temporarily assumes (inherits) the highest priority of the blocked tasks. Advantage: Prevents medium-priority tasks from preempting τ, and prolonging the blocking duration experienced by higher-priority tasks. Disadvantage: May deadlock: priority inheritance can cause deadlock Chained blocking: the highest-priority task may be blocked once by every other task executing on the same processor.

Handling shared resources

Priority Ceiling Protocol: (Sha, Rajkumar & Lehoczky, 1990)

- Basic idea: Each resource is assigned a <u>priority ceiling</u> equal to the priority of the highest-priority task that can lock it. Then, a task τ_i is allowed to enter a critical region only if its priority is higher than all priority ceilings of the resources currently locked by tasks other than τ_i.
 When the task τ_i blocks one or more higher-priority tasks, it temporarily inherits the highest priority of the blocked tasks.
- Advantage:
 - No deadlock: priority ceilings prevent deadlocks
 - No chained blocking: a task can be blocked at most the duration of one critical region.

Handling shared resources Priority Ceiling Protocol: priority (H) > priority (M) > priority (L) H sequentially accesses resource R_1 and R_2 M accesses resource R_3 and nests R_2 L accesses resource R_3 and nests R_2 L inherits the priority of M H blocked because its priority is not higher than ceiling for R_2 L inherits the priority of H H R₁ R₂ R₃ R₃ R₄ R₅ R₅ R₅ L inherits the priority of H

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Handling shared resources

Distributed PCP: (Rajkumar, Sha & Lehoczky, 1988)

- All critical regions associated with the same global resource are bound to a specified synchronization processor.
- A task "migrates" to the synchronization processor to execute the critical region (using remote-procedure calls)
 - Advantage: deadlock-free algorithm
 - Disadvantage: large overhead for message-passing protocol
- All critical regions associated with the same global resource are executed at a priority equal to the semaphore's priority ceiling
 - short blocking times

Handling shared resources Lock-Free and Wait-Free Object Sharing: If several tasks attempt to access a lock-free object concurrently, and if a subset of these tasks stop taking steps, then one of the remaining tasks completes its access in a finite number of steps. If several tasks attempt to access a wait-free object concurrently, and if a subset of these tasks stop taking steps, then each of the remaining tasks complete their access in a finite number of steps.

Handling shared resources

Lock-Free Object Sharing: (Anderson et al., 1996)

- Basic idea: The lock-free object sharing scheme is implemented using "retry loops". Object accesses are implemented using testand-set or compare-and-swap instructions typically found in modern RISC processors.
- Advantage:
 - Resource accesses are non-blocking
 - Deadlock-free
 - Avoids priority inversion
 - Requires no kernel-level support
- Disadvantage:
 - Potentially unbounded retry loops

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Handling shared resources

Non-existence of optimal on-line shared-resource scheduler: (Mok, 1983)

When there are mutual exclusion constraints in a system, it is impossible to find an optimal on-line scheduling algorithm (unless it is clairvoyant).

Complexity of shared-resource feasibility test: (Mok, 1983)

The problem of deciding feasibility for a set of periodic tasks which use semaphores to enforce mutual exclusion is NP-hard.

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Handling shared resources

Wait-Free Object Sharing: (Anderson et al., 1997)

 Basic idea: The wait-free object sharing scheme is implemented using a "helping" strategy where one task "helps" one or more other tasks to complete an operation.

Before beginning an operation, a task must announce its intentions in an "announce variable".

While attempting to perform its own operations, a task must also help any previously-announced operation (on its processor) to complete execution.

- Advantage:
 - Non-blocking, deadlock-free, and priority-inversion-free
 - Requires no kernel-level support
 - Precludes waiting dependencies among tasks