

Parallel & Distributed Real-Time Systems

Lecture #4

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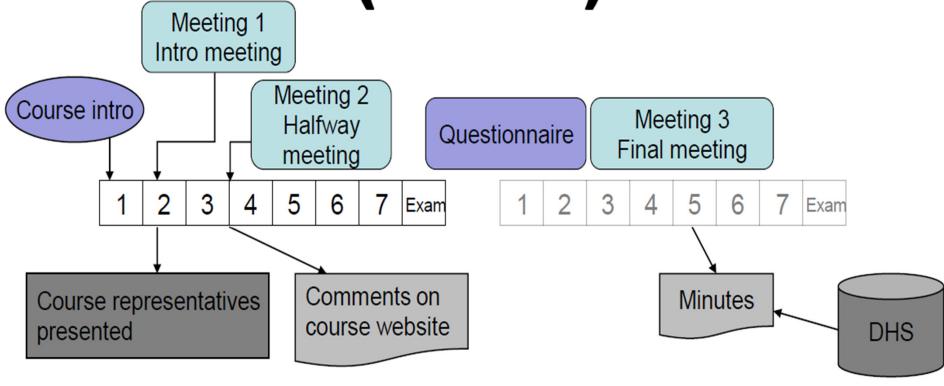
Course Evaluation Procedure

- Each course at Chalmers is evaluated with an intro meeting, a recommended half-way meeting and a final meeting.
- Questionnaires are sent out to all courses by the end of the exam week. And, can be answered until the end of Sw2 in the following Sp.
- When the questionnaires have closed, the final meeting is held.
- The final meeting is led by a programme representative.

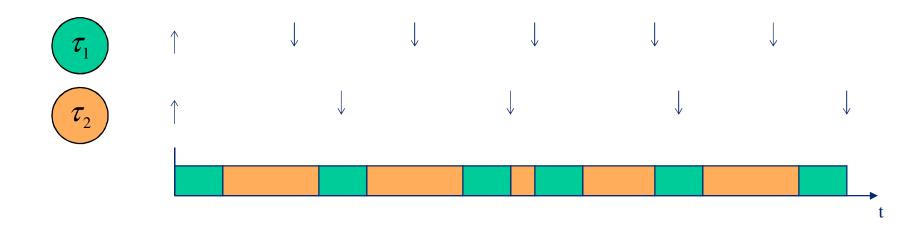




What's the procedure? (in brief)



Attempts to meet application constraints should be done in a proactive way through <u>scheduling</u>.



Schedule = resources + operations on a time line

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 is used in many disciplines:

(a.k.a. "operations research")

Classroom scheduling

Actors: classrooms, teachers, projectors + courses

Goal: generate periodic schedules within 7-week blocks

Technique: branch-and-bound algorithms

Airline crew scheduling

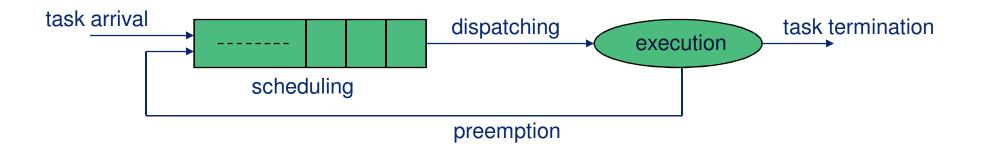
Actors: aircraft, staff + routes

Goal: generate periodic schedules that minimizes the number of

aircraft and staff used and fulfill union regulations for staff

Technique: advanced branch-and-bound algorithms

- A <u>scheduling algorithm</u> generates a schedule for a given set of tasks and a certain type of run-time system.
- The scheduling algorithm is implemented by a <u>scheduler</u> that decides in which order the tasks should be executed.
- Observe that the scheduler selects which task should be executed next, while the <u>dispatcher</u> starts the execution of the selected task.



A schedule is said to be <u>feasible</u> if it fulfills all application constraints for a given set of tasks.

A set of tasks is said to be <u>schedulable</u> if there exists at least one scheduling algorithm that can generate a feasible schedule.



A scheduling algorithm is said to be <u>optimal</u> with respect to <u>schedulability</u> if it can always find a feasible schedule whenever any other scheduling algorithm can do so.

A scheduling algorithm is said to be <u>optimal</u> with respect to <u>a performance metric</u> if it can always find a schedule that maximizes/minimizes that metric value.



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
- No dynamic task parallelism:
 - A task can only execute on one processor at a time
 - This is a realistic assumption for any programming model being used in practice

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)

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



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



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

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)

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.

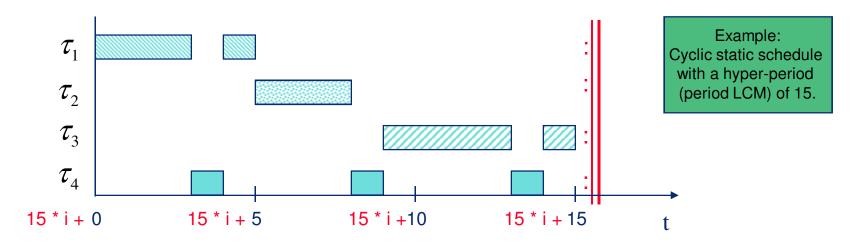
Dynamic scheduling:

- 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.

Static scheduling

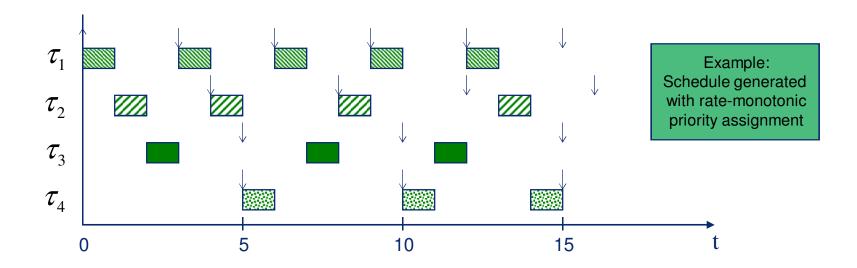
Off-line schedule generation:

- 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)



On-line schedule generation:

- Mechanisms for resolving conflicts
 - Priorities possibly combined with time quanta
 - Feasibility of schedule must be checked off-line by making predictions on how the conflicts are resolved at run-time



Rate-monotonic scheduling (RM):

- Uses <u>static</u> 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)

Deadline-monotonic scheduling (DM):

- Uses <u>static</u> 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 $D_i \le T_i$ for all tasks

(shown by J. Y.-T. Leung & J. Whitehead in 1982)

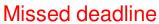
Earliest-deadline-first scheduling (EDF):

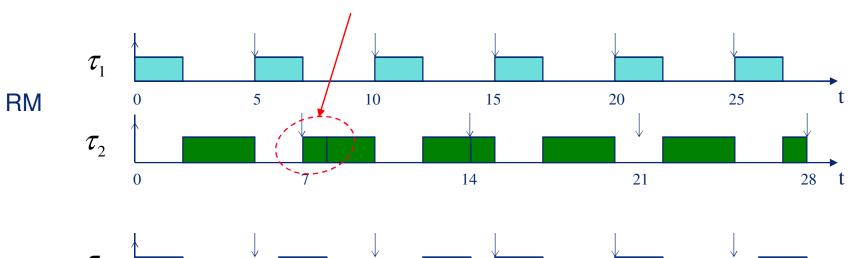
- Uses <u>dynamic</u> priorities
 - Priority is determined by how critical the process is at a given time instant
 - The task whose <u>absolute</u> deadline is closest in time receives the highest priority
- Theoretically well-established (for single-processor systems)
 - <u>Exact</u> schedulability 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)

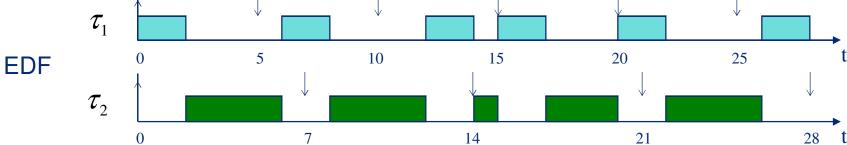
Example: RM versus EDF

 τ_1 : $(C_1 = 2, T_1 = 5)$

 τ_2 : $(C_1 = 4, T_1 = 7)$



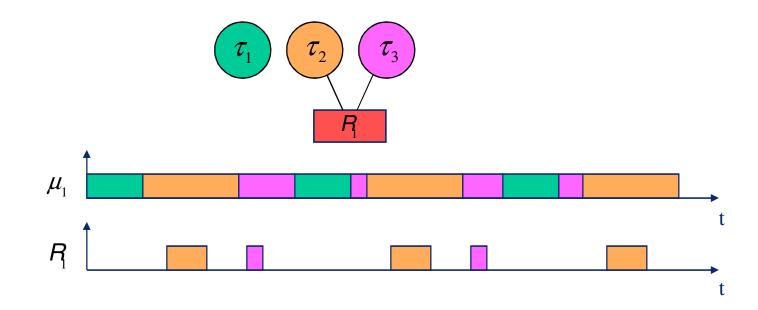






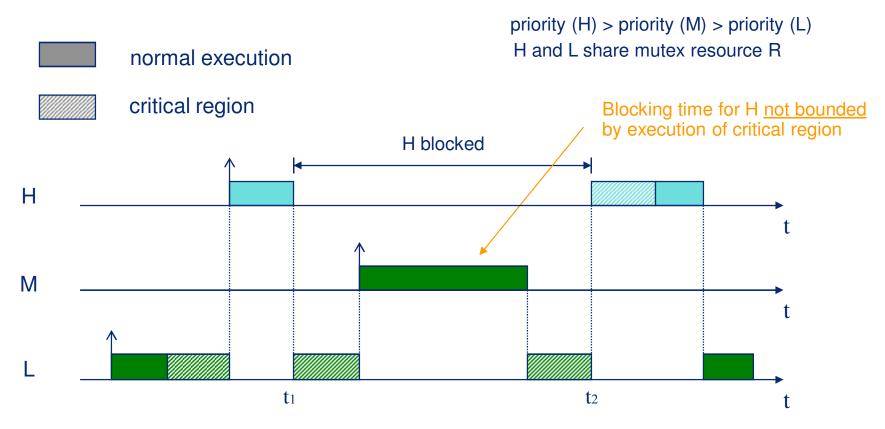


When tasks are no longer independent (i.e., they access shared software/hardware objects for which mutual exclusion is enforced) the scheduler must be extended with special mechanisms.





Priority inversion phenomenon:



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

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

• Basic idea: When a task τ_i blocks one or more higher-priority tasks, it temporarily assumes (inherits) the highest priority of the blocked tasks.

Advantage:

- Prevents medium-priority tasks from preempting τ_i 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.

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

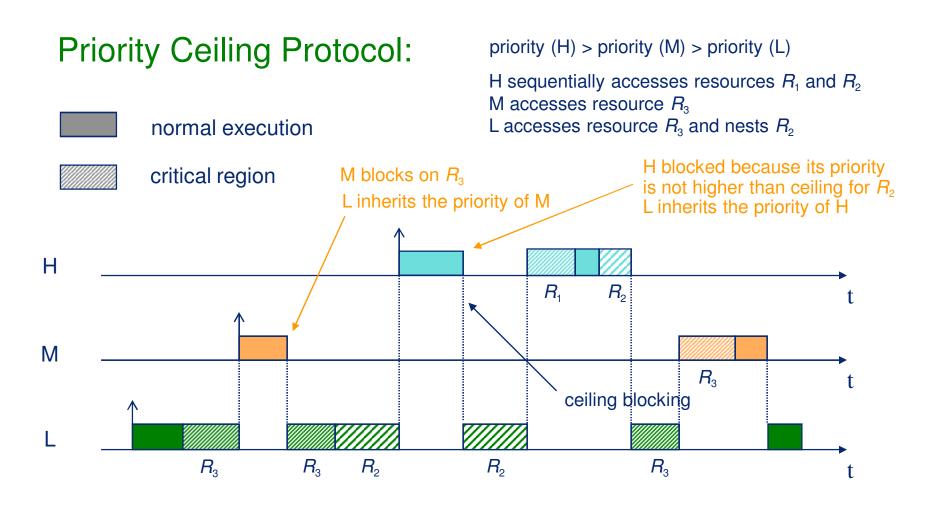
• Basic idea: Each resource is assigned a <u>priority ceiling</u> equal to the priority of the highest-priority task that can lock it. Then, a task τ_i is allowed to enter a critical region only if its priority is higher than all priority ceilings of the resources currently locked by tasks other than 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.







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

- All critical regions associated with the same global resource are bound to a specified <u>synchronization processor</u>.
- 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

Lock-Free and Wait-Free Object Sharing:

If several tasks attempt to access a <u>lock-free</u> object concurrently, and if a subset of these tasks stop taking steps, then <u>one</u> of the remaining tasks completes its access in a finite number of steps.

If several tasks attempt to access a <u>wait-free</u> object concurrently, and if a subset of these tasks stop taking steps, then <u>each</u> of the remaining tasks complete their access in a finite number of steps.

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

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

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.

End of lecture #4