CSE 237A
Timing and scheduling

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ES Design

Hardware components

Concept → Specification → Partitioning → Design

Estimation - Exploration

Software Components

Hardware

Design (Synthesis, Layout, ...)

Design (Compilation, ...)

Hardware
The scheduling problem

• Basic issue: can we meet deadlines?
  – Related problem: How much horsepower do we need to meet our deadlines?

• Why schedule?
  – CPU is shared among several processes.
    • Cost, Energy/power, Physical constraints.
  – Distribution of CPU time to processes.
    • Co-operation between processes.
    • RTOS.
Embedded vs. GP scheduling

• Priorities determine scheduling policy
  – CPU goes to highest priority process that is ready
  – Fixed priority vs. time-varying priorities.

• Workstations avoid starving processes of CPU
  – Fairness = access to CPU.

• Embedded systems must meet deadlines.
  – Low-priority processes may not run for a long time.
  – Real-time OS
    • Clear understanding of task & event timing
Timing and Clocks
Clock Properties

- **Offset** is the time difference between clocks with the same granularity
  - granularity = duration between two ticks of the clock
- **Precision** of a set of clocks is the maximum offset between any two clocks in the set
  - Local precision is maintained through internal synchronization
- **Accuracy** of a clock
  - Maximum drift with respect to the reference clock
  - Maintained through external synchronization
- **Drift** is the frequency ratio between a physical clock and the ref. clock (usually close to 1)
  - E.g. During the Gulf war a Patriot missile defense system failed to intercept an incoming scud rocket.
  - Clock drift over a 100 hour period resulted in a tracking error of 678m
Clock synchronization in distributed systems

• Distributed systems drift:
  – Relative to each other
  – Relative to a real world clock

• Two ways to solve the problem
  – State correction
    • Agree on a time and jump to it
      – discontinuities in time
    • Rate correction
      – Speed up/slow down to converge
      – Hard to implement, but less problems
      – E.g. GPS time is rate steered with accuracy 200ns to 1us
Clock synchronization in distributed systems

- **Network Time Protocol (NTP)**
  - Used for Internet time synch – within 10ms
  - Relies on GPS time servers
    - GPS within 200ns accuracy
    - Need clear sky view
    - Several min to setup time
    - Higher power requirements

- **802.11 broadcast synch**
  - Time Synch Function
    - 4ms max clock offset
    - If beacon’s timestamp is later than the station’s then the station sets its TSF timer to the beacon’s
Definitions Relevant to Timing

- **Action** is a function or task that performed by a system
- **Event** is an instance of an action
  - instances are commonly labeled using time stamps and action values.
- An **order** is a binary relation between two events
- **Delivery order** is defined by the communication system between system components.
- Two events are **temporally ordered** if the respective time instants are not identical on a directed timeline
- Two events are **causally ordered** if one event is caused by the other (primary or causative) event
  - induced by order on respective actions
  - stronger condition than temporal ordering
Logical Time & Logical Clocks

• A system consists of a set of *processes*
  – process produces a sequence of *events*

• Logical time is where time progress is by events.
  – no event = no time progress
  – the events are causally related

• A system of logical clocks consists of a time domain, T, and a logical clock, C.
  – elements of T form a partially-ordered set over the relation “has happened before”
  – C is a function that maps an event, e, to an element of T
    • C(e) is called the time-stamp of event e.
Logical Clock Implementation

- Consists of:
  - data-structure local to every process for modeling clock(s)
    - a local logical clock that helps process measure its own progress
    - a global logical clock that represents process’s view of the global logical time
  - a protocol to update the clock-related data structures to ensure consistency:
    - R1: how does a process update its local logical clock?
    - R2: how does a process update its global logical clock?
- There are several implementations of logical clocks
  - Lamport’s Scalar Time.
  - Vector time
  - Matrix time – large overhead, good for distributed garbage collection
Scalar Time

• Allows determination of a total order of events in a distributed system.

• Time domain consists of a set of non-negative integers
  – Local and global logical clocks use a single integer variable C per each process P

• Protocol rules are implemented as follows:
  – R1: before executing an event the process increments the clock:
    • C <= C+d where d > 0; typically, d = 1
  – R2: each message contains the clock value of its sender at sending time.
    • Receiving process sets its clock to the maximum of received clock value or its own clock, executes R1 and proceeds to deliver the message.
Scalar time evolution

• Lamport’s logical clock
Vector time

• For each process $pi$, vector maintains logical time of process and $pi$’s latest knowledge of every other $pj$
• Tracks casual dependencies exactly
• Used in distributed debugging, global breakpointing, checkpoint consistency for recovery etc.
Vector time example
Program execution time estimation
Execution time of a program

- **WCET**: worst case execution time
  - ensure deadlines are met – accuracy may be safety-critical, assess real-time system resource needs
- **BCET**: best case execution time
  - benchmark software & hardware, evaluate resource needs for non/soft real-time systems
- **ACET**: average case execution time
Estimating WCET & BCET

• Approaches for approximating WCET or BCET:
  – Measuring: Measure run time of program on target hardware
    • Call OS timers, use HW timers, use external HW, count emulator cycles,
    • Do high water marking: continuously record actual execution times & read at service intervals; this is standard in many RTOS implementations
  – Analysis: Compute an estimate of run time based on program analysis and model of target hardware -> complex and inexact

• Key challenges:
  – Program execution depends on inputs – carefully choose data sets
  – Program context affects execution – cache, pipeline etc.
Obtaining WCET: Flow Analysis

- Flow analysis: dynamic behavior of the program
  - Loop iterations, recursion depth, input dependencies, infeasible paths, function instances
  - Information from static analysis and manual annotations
  - Analyzed at object and source code levels
Obtaining WCET: Low-level Analysis

- Determine execution time of program parts
  - Accounts for HW effects
  - Work on object code
  - Exact results are not possible
- Local: affect single instruction + neighbors
  - pipeline effects
- Global: reaches across entire program
  - e.g. cache, branch predictors, TLBs
### Obtaining WCET: Calculation Step

- Find the path that gives the longest execution time
- **Approaches:**
  - Structure-based
  - Path-based
  - Constraint-based (Implicit path enumeration technique - IPET)

For more info see:
Scheduling
Scheduling

- A schedule reserves spatial and temporal resources for a given task set

- Scheduler decides the order of task execution, dispatcher starts task execution
Schedule properties

- **Feasible** if it fulfils all application constraints for a given set of tasks
- A set of tasks is **schedulable** if there is at least one feasible schedule
- **Optimal** if a feasible schedule is found whenever any other scheduling algorithm can do so
A time-constraint (deadline) is called **hard** if not meeting that constraint could result in a catastrophe [Kopetz’97].

- All other time constraints are called **soft**.
Periodic and aperiodic tasks

Tasks which must be executed once every $p$ units of time are called **periodic** tasks & $p$ is called their period. Each execution of a periodic task is called a **job**. All other tasks are called **aperiodic**.
Preemptive and non-preemptive

- **Non-preemptive schedulers:**
  Tasks are executed until they are done so response time for external events may be quite long.

- **Preemptive schedulers:**
  Use if some tasks have long execution times or the response time for external events needs to be short.
Static and dynamic scheduling

- **Dynamic scheduling**: done at run-time.
- **Static scheduling**: done at design-time.
  - Dispatcher allocates processor on timer interrupt
  - Timer controlled by a table generated at design time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>WCET</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>start T1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>send M5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>stop T1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>start T2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>send M3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Classification of schedulers with respect to task dependencies

Scheduling

Independent Tasks
- EDD, EDF, LL, RMS

Dependent Tasks
- Resource constrained
  - Single CPU
    - LDF
- Time constrained
  - LS
- Unconstrained
  - FDS
  - ASAP, ALAP
Aperiodic scheduling
with no precedence constraints

- Let \( \{T_i\} \) be a set of tasks. Let:
  - \( c_i \) be the execution time of \( T_i \),
  - \( d_i \) be the **deadline interval**, that is, the time between \( T_i \) becoming available and the time until which \( T_i \) has to finish execution.
  - \( l_i \) be the **laxity** or **slack**, defined as \( l_i = d_i - c_i \)

![Diagram of task availability](image)

Availability of Task \( i \) - - - \( \rightarrow \) \( d_i \)

\( c_i \) \hspace{1cm} \( l_i \) \hspace{1cm} \( t \)
**Uniprocessor with equal arrival times**

• **Earliest Due Date (EDD)** - Jackson's rule:
  
  – Any algorithm that executes a set of \( n \) independent tasks in order of increasing deadlines is optimal with respect to minimizing the maximum lateness. Proof: [Buttazzo, 2002]

• Maximum lateness is \(<0\) if all tasks complete on time
  
  \[
  \text{Max Lateness} = \max_{\text{all tasks}} (\text{completion time} - \text{deadline})
  \]

• EDD requires all tasks to be sorted by their deadlines.
  
  – complexity is \( O(n \log(n)) \).
Earliest Deadline First (EDF)

• Different arrival times - preemption can reduce lateness.

• Theorem [Horn74]:
  – Any algorithm that at any instant executes a task with the earliest absolute deadline among all the ready tasks in set $n$ is optimal with respect to minimizing the maximum lateness.

• Earliest deadline first (EDF) algorithm:
  – Insert each new task into a queue of ready tasks, sorted by their deadlines.
  – If a newly arrived task is inserted at the head of the queue, the currently executing task is preempted.
  – If sorted lists are used the complexity is $O(n^2)$
Earliest Deadline First (EDF)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>arrival</th>
<th>duration</th>
<th>deadline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task arrivals:
- T1
- T2
- T3

Earlier deadline: preemption
Later deadline: no preemption
# Earliest Deadline First (EDF)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Deadline</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Exec time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| time  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 |
|-------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| Task  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
Least laxity (LL), Least Slack Time First (LST)

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</tr>
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- Priorities are dynamically changing and are in decreasing function of slack
- Preemptive, detects missed deadlines early.
- LL is an optimal scheduler for single CPU systems.
  - Uses dynamic priorities so it cannot be used with a fixed priority OS.
- LST is often used in real-time communication protocols for scheduling message delivery times.
Periodic Task Scheduling
Characterizing the Task Set

• Set on n independent tasks $\tau_1$, $\tau_2$, ... $\tau_n$

• Request periods are $T_1$, $T_2$, ... $T_n$
  – request rate of $\tau_i$ is $1/T_i$

• Run-times are $C_1$, $C_2$, ... $C_n$

• Utilization:
  – Accumulated execution time divided by the period:

| Necessary condition for schedulability (with $m=$number of processors): |
| $\mu \leq m$ |

$$\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c_i}{p_i}$$
Rate monotonic (RM) scheduling

• Assumptions:
  – All tasks that have hard deadlines are periodic.
  – All tasks are independent.
  – $d_i = p_i$, for all tasks.
  – $c_i$ is constant and is known for all tasks.
  – The time required for context switching is negligible.
  – For a single processor and for $n$ tasks, the following equation holds for the accumulated utilization $\mu$:
    \[
    \mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c_i}{\rho_i} \leq n(2^{1/n} - 1)
    \]

• Establishes a condition for schedulability!
  – $\text{Lim } n \to \infty, \mu \sim= 0.7$
RM Scheduling

**RM policy**: The priority of a task is a monotonically decreasing function of its period.

low period = high priority

At any time, a highest priority task among all those that are ready for execution is allocated. Task priority is static so it works well with standard operating systems.

Maximum utilization as a function of the number of tasks:

\[
\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c_i}{p_i} \leq n(2^{1/n} - 1)
\]

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} (n(2^{1/n} - 1) = \ln(2)
\]
RM Scheduling: Completion time test

• Theorem:
  For a set of independent periodic tasks, if a task meets its first deadline when all the higher priority tasks started, then it meets all its future deadlines with any other task start times.

• Total cumulative demand on CPU at time \( t \) is defined as a function of the number of times a task \( i \) arrives to the system \( \left\lfloor \frac{t}{p_i} \right\rfloor \), period of the task \( p_i \), and its execution time \( C_i \)

\[
W_n(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} C_i \left\lfloor \frac{t}{p_i} \right\rfloor
\]

• Goal: Find the minimum \( t \), where \( W_i(t) = t \) is:

\[
\begin{align*}
t_0 & \leftarrow \sum_{j=1}^{i} C_j \\
 t_1 & \leftarrow W_i(t_0) \\
 t_2 & \leftarrow W_i(t_1) \\
 t_3 & \leftarrow W_i(t_2) \\
 \vdots \\
 t_k & \leftarrow W_i(t_{k-1}) \\
\text{Stop when } (W_i(t_k) = t_k)
\end{align*}
\]
Example of RM schedule

T1 preempts T2 and T3.
T2 and T3 do not preempt each other.
Case of failing RM scheduling

Task 1: period 5, execution time 2
Task 2: period 7, execution time 4
\( \mu = \frac{2}{5} + \frac{4}{7} = \frac{34}{35} \approx 0.97 \)
\( 2(2^{1/2}-1) \approx 0.828 \)

\[
\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c_i}{p_i} \leq n(2^{1/n} - 1)
\]

Not enough idle time!

Missed deadline

Missing computations scheduled in the next period
RM in Distributed/Networked Embedded Systems

• Task is scheduled on multiple resources in series
• Need to schedule communication messages
  – propagation delay & jitter
  – queuing delay & jitter
• Divide end-to-end deadline into subsystem deadlines
• Buffering to mitigate jitter problem as task may arrive too early
EDF for periodic scheduling

- Optimal for periodic scheduling
- EDF is able to schedule the example in which RMS failed.
- EDF requires dynamic priorities
  - cannot be used with operating system providing only static priorities.
- Sufficient and necessary condition for uniprocessor scheduling with EDF under assumptions:
  - All tasks are periodic, independent and with deadlines equal to periods

\[
U = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{C_i}{T_i} \leq 1
\]
Comparison EDF/RMS

RMS:

T1

EDF:

T1

T2

T2 not preempted, due to its earlier deadline.
Sporadic tasks

- If sporadic tasks were connected to interrupts, the execution time of other tasks would become very unpredictable.
  - Introduction of a sporadic task server, periodically checking for ready sporadic tasks;
  - Sporadic tasks are essentially turned into periodic tasks.
Dependent Task Scheduling
Classification of Schedulers

- Independent Tasks
  - EDD, EDF, LL, RMS

- Dependent Tasks
  - Resource constrained
    - ASAP, ALAP
  - Time constrained
    - FDS
  - Unconstrained
    - LS

Scheduling

Single CPU
  - LDF
Dependent tasks

The problem of deciding whether or not a schedule exists for a set of dependent tasks and a given deadline is NP-complete in general [Garey/Johnson].

Strategies:

1. Add resources, so that scheduling becomes easier

2. Split problem into static and dynamic part so that only a minimum of decisions need to be taken at run-time.

3. Use scheduling algorithms from high-level synthesis
Latest Deadline First (LDF) Algorithm

- Among the tasks with no successors insert the one with the latest deadline into a queue. Repeat this process, putting tasks whose successors have all been selected into the queue.
- At run-time, the tasks are executed in the generated total order.
- LDF is non-preemptive and is optimal for single processor systems.

If no local deadlines exist, LDF performs just a topological sort.
Asynchronous Arrival Times: Modified EDF Algorithm

• Transform a set of dependent tasks into a set of independent tasks with different timing parameters
• Optimal for single processor systems.
• Heuristics available when no preemption
As soon as possible (ASAP)

- ASAP: Tasks are scheduled as early as possible

\[ \tau = 0 \]
\[ \tau = 1 \]
\[ \tau = 2 \]
\[ \tau = 3 \]
\[ \tau = 4 \]
\[ \tau = 5 \]
As-late-as-possible (ALAP)

Start at last time step*:
Schedule tasks with no successors and tasks for which all successors have already been scheduled.
Resource Constrained: List Scheduling

• List scheduling: extension of ALAP/ASAP

• Preparation:
  – Topological sort of task graph $G=(V,E)$
  – Computation of priority of each task:
    Possible priorities $u$:
    • Number of successors
    • Longest path
    • **Mobility** = $\tau$ (ALAP schedule) - $\tau$ (ASAP schedule)
Mobility as a priority function

Mobility is not very precise

\[ \tau = 0 \]
\[ \tau = 1 \]
\[ \tau = 2 \]
\[ \tau = 3 \]
\[ \tau = 4 \]
\[ \tau = 5 \]

\[
\begin{align*}
\tau = 0 & : a \\
\tau = 1 & : b, c, d, e, f, g \\
\tau = 2 & : h, i, j \\
\tau = 3 & : k, l, m \\
\tau = 4 & : n \\
\tau = 5 & : z
\end{align*}
\]
List Scheduling Algorithm

- List($G(V,E)$, $B$, $u$)
  
  $i := 0$;
  
  repeat
  
  Compute set of candidate tasks $A_i$;
  
  Compute set of not terminated tasks $G_i$;
  
  Select $S_i \subseteq A_i$ of maximum priority $r$ such that
  
  $|S_i| + |G_i| \leq B$ (*resource constraint*)
  
  foreach ($v_j \in S_i$):
    
    $\tau (v_j):=i$;  (*set start time*)
    
    $i := i + 1$;
  
  until (all nodes are scheduled);
  
  return ($\tau$);

Complexity: $O(|V|)$
List Scheduling Example

- Assuming $B = 2$, unit execution time and $u$ : path length

  - $u(a) = u(b) = 4$
  - $u(c) = u(f) = 3$
  - $u(d) = u(g) = u(h) = u(j) = 2$
  - $u(e) = u(i) = u(k) = 1$
  - $\forall i : G_i = 0$
Time constrained: Force-directed scheduling

- Goal: balanced utilization of resources
- Assumes time constraints are known
- Originally for high-level synthesis
- Based on spring model

```
procedure forceDirectedScheduling;
    begin
        AsapScheduling;
        AlapScheduling;
        while not all tasks scheduled do
            begin
                select task $T$ with smallest total force;
                schedule task $T$ at time step minimizing forces;
                recompute forces;
            end;
        end;
    end
```
Force-directed scheduling steps

1. Compute time frames $R(j)$

   $R(j) = \{ \text{ASAP-control step} \ldots \text{ALAP-control step} \}$

2. Compute probability $P(j,i)$ of assignment $j \rightarrow i$

   \[
   P(j, i) = \begin{cases} 
   \frac{1}{|R(j)|} & \text{if} \quad i \in R(j) \\
   0 & \text{otherwise}
   \end{cases}
   \]
3. Compute “distribution” $D(i)$ - # Operations in control step $i$)

$$D(i) = \sum_{j, \text{type}(j) \in H} P(j, i)$$
4. Compute overall forces as a function of distribution and probabilities previously computed
   - Total forces are a sum of direct and indirect forces

\[ F(j, i) = SF(j, i) + VF(j, i) + NF(j, i) \]

   - Direct forces:

\[ SF(j, i) = \sum_{i' \in R(j)} D(i') \Delta P_i(j, i') \]

\[ \Delta P_i(j, i') = \begin{cases} 
1 - P(j, i) & \text{if } i = i' \\
-P(j, i') & \text{otherwise} 
\end{cases} \]

   - Indirect forces:

\[ VF(j, i) = \sum_{j' \in \text{ predecessor of } j} \sum_{i' \in I} D(i') \Delta P_{j, i}(j', i') \]

\[ NF(j, i) = \sum_{j' \in \text{ successor of } j} \sum_{i' \in I} D(i') \Delta P_{j, i}(j', i') \]

5. Schedule tasks to minimize forces

Force-directed scheduling steps
Scheduler Overview

- Scheduling of tasks with real-time constraints:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Equal arrival times; non-preemptive</th>
<th>Arbitrary arrival times; preemptive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent tasks</strong></td>
<td>EDD (Jackson), RM (periodic)</td>
<td>EDF (Horn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependent tasks</strong></td>
<td>LDF (Lawler), ASAP, ALAP, LS, FDS</td>
<td>EDF* (Chetto extensions)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Resource access management
Resource access protocols

- **Critical sections**: sections of code at which exclusive access to some resource must be guaranteed.
- Can be guaranteed with semaphores S.

P(S) checks semaphore to see if resource is available
- if yes, sets S to „used“.
- if no, calling task has to wait.

V(S): sets S to „unused“ and starts sleeping task (if any).
The MARS Pathfinder problem

• A few days into gathering meteorological data, the spacecraft began experiencing total system resets
• OS level preemptive priority scheduling of threads
• Problem:
  – Bus thread runs frequently; uses mutexes
  – Interrupt schedules a communication task for a short interval while the bus thread is blocked waiting for the data
  – Watchdog timer goes off if data bus task had not been executed for some time
    • initiates a total system reset

High priority: bus thread: retrieval of data from shared memory
Medium priority: communications task
Low priority: thread collecting meteorological data
Priority inversion

• Priority $T_1 >$ priority of $T_2$.
• If $T_2$ requests exclusive access first (at $t_0$), $T_1$ has to wait until $T_2$ releases the resource (time $t_3$), thus inverting the priority:

Duration of inversion bounded by length of critical section of $T_2$. 
Priority inversion with >2 tasks

- Duration of priority inversion can exceed the length of the critical section.
- Priorities: T1 > T2 > T3
  - T2 preempts T3; T2 can prevent T3 from releasing the resource.
Priority inheritance example

– Schedule according to active task priorities.
  • Tasks inherit the highest priority of tasks blocked by it
  • Transitive: if $T_1$ blocks $T_0$ and $T_2$ blocks $T_1$, then $T_2$ inherits the priority of $T_0$.
Priority inheritance on Mars

• Use a flag for the calls to mutex primitives
  – Set to on to allow priority inheritance
  – Default was “off”.

The problem on Mars was corrected by changing the flag to “on”, while the Pathfinder was already on the Mars [Jones, 1997].
Lottery Scheduling & Priority Inversion

• Flexible proportional-share resource management

• Allocation of resource rights
  – determined by holding a lottery
  – allocates resources to competing clients in proportion to the number of tickets that they hold

• Scheduling by lottery is probabilistically fair
  – Binomial distribution of a number of lotteries won by a client
  – Geometric distribution of a number of lotteries required for a client’s first win
  – scheduling quantum is typically 10 ms (100 lotteries per second)

• Priority inversion solved by ticket transfer between clients
Real-time scheduling

- **Scheduling**
  - Rate monotonic scheduling
  - EDF
  - Dependent and sporadic tasks

- **Resource access**
  - Priority inversion
  - Priority inheritance
  - Lottery scheduling
Sources and References

- Peter Marwedel, “Embedded Systems Design”
- Nikil Dutt @ UCI
- Mani Srivastava @ UCLA
- Prof. Dr. Reinhard von Hanxleden @ CAU