

## Demand-based schedulability analysis for real-time multi-core scheduling



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### ARTICLE INFO

*Article history:*

Received 20 January 2013

Received in revised form 30 July 2013

Accepted 19 September 2013

Available online 24 October 2013

*Keywords:*

Demand-based schedulability analysis

Real-time systems

Multi-core systems

### ABSTRACT

In real-time systems, schedulability analysis has been widely studied to provide offline guarantees on temporal correctness, producing many analysis methods. The demand-based schedulability analysis method has a great potential for high schedulability performance and broad applicability. However, such a potential is not yet fully realized for real-time multi-core scheduling mainly due to (i) the difficulty of calculating the resource demand under dynamic priority scheduling algorithms that are favorable to multi-cores, and (ii) the lack of understanding how to combine the analysis framework with deadline-miss conditions specialized for those scheduling algorithms. Addressing those two issues, to the best of our knowledge, this paper presents the first demand-based schedulability analysis for dynamic job-priority scheduling algorithms: EDZL (Earliest Deadline first until Zero-Laxity) and LLF (Least Laxity First), which are known to be effective for real-time multi-core scheduling. To this end, we first derive demand bound functions that compute the maximum possible amount of resource demand of jobs of each task while the priority of each job can change dynamically under EDZL and LLF. Then, we develop demand-based schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF, by incorporating those new demand bound functions into the existing demand-based analysis framework. Finally, we combine the framework with additional deadline-miss conditions specialized for those two laxity-based dynamic job-priority scheduling algorithms, yielding tighter schedulability analyses. Via simulations, we demonstrate that the proposed schedulability analyses outperform the existing schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF.

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## 1. Introduction

In the area of real-time systems in which temporal correctness is critical, real-time scheduling has been substantially studied to support real-time tasks without violating their own timing constraints. Those studies generally focus on two important issues: scheduling algorithms that determine the order of execution of a set of tasks, and schedulability analysis that verifies the temporal correctness of the task set under a specific scheduling algorithm. For uniprocessor systems with a sporadic task model (Mok, 1983), it has been proved that EDF (Earliest Deadline First) (Liu and Layland, 1973) is an optimal scheduling algorithm, and its demand-based schedulability analysis (Baruah et al., 1990) captures the optimality of EDF, i.e., the analysis is sufficient and necessary.

As multi-core architectures become popular due to its high computing capability with low power consumption, real-time multi-core scheduling has been paid an increasing amount of attention; many scheduling algorithms and their schedulability analyses

have been adapted from real-time uniprocessor scheduling theories and/or newly developed. However, schedulability analysis methods still have much room for improvement in that most existing multi-core schedulability analyses are only sufficient, not necessary.

For tighter schedulability analysis on multi-cores, we focus on the demand-based schedulability analysis method (Baruah, 2007). Different from other existing analysis methods, such as utilization-based (Goossens et al., 2003), deadline-based (Bertogna et al., 2009) and response-time-based schedulability analysis methods (Bertogna and Cirinei, 2007), the demand-based method investigates a large number of intervals with different length, and calculates the resource requirements that a task set collectively *demands* in each interval to satisfy their individual timing constraints. Then, a task set is deemed schedulable if for all the intervals, resources can be supplied to the task set more than or equal to its resource *demand*. Hence, the demand-based method has a great potential for broad applicability and high schedulability performance. That is, once the resource demand of a task set is computed under a specific scheduling algorithm, we can easily apply the demand-based schedulability analysis framework to the algorithm. Also, the method can reduce the pessimism of

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calculating the effect of *carry-in* jobs<sup>1</sup> of a task set in a given interval, by limiting the contribution of carry-in jobs through the comprehensive interval check. As a result of such a tight calculation, the demand-based method yields the exact schedulability analysis of EDF on a uniprocessor platform (Baruah et al., 1990) and one of the best EDF schedulability analyses on a multi-core platform (Baruah, 2007) (See a survey Bertogna and Baruah, 2011).

While the demand-based schedulability analysis method has achieved a great success for some simple scheduling algorithms (e.g., EDF), its potential has not been fully realized for more dynamic scheduling algorithms that are suitable for multi-cores, mainly because of two reasons. First, it is challenging to calculate the amount of resource demand under those algorithms. Second, it has not been tried to combine the demand-based schedulability analysis method with additional deadline-miss conditions specialized for those algorithms, which potentially improves schedulability.

Addressing the two issues, this paper develops demand-based schedulability analyses for two dynamic job-priority scheduling algorithms: EDZL (Earliest Deadline first until Zero Laxity) (Lee, 1994) and LLF (Least Laxity First) (Leung, 1989). EDZL is a modification of EDF; it gives the highest priority to zero-laxity jobs, and schedules other jobs according EDF, where a laxity of a job at any time instant is defined as the remaining time to its deadline minus the remaining execution time at the instant. LLF prioritizes jobs according to their laxity values; the lower laxity, the higher priority. EDZL and LLF are not only proven as optimal on a uniprocessor platform (Dertouzos and Mok, 1989; Park et al., 2005) as well as EDF, but also known to be effective on a multiprocessor platform (Cho et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2010). This is because the algorithms promote zero-laxity jobs, which should be scheduled immediately to avoid deadline misses.

To develop demand-based schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF, we need to calculate the resource demand under the algorithms. Since the priority of jobs dynamically changes under EDZL and LLF, we investigate how long a job of a later deadline can interfere another job of an earlier deadline under EDZL and LLF. Based on this, we derive demand bound functions under EDZL and LLF, and then we develop two types of schedulability analyses using the functions. First, we simply apply the functions to the existing demand-based schedulability analysis framework. Second, we incorporate the framework into additional deadline-miss conditions specialized for the laxity-based dynamic change of job priority, resulting in tighter schedulability analyses.

We demonstrate through simulation that the proposed demand-based schedulability analyses not only outperform existing schedulability analyses for EDZL (Baker et al., 2008; Lee and Shin, 2013) and LLF (Lee et al., 2010, 2012), but also find a large number of additional schedulable task sets, which are not covered by the existing schedulability analyses. As a bonus, if we apply our analyses to uniprocessors, they become exact schedulability analyses of EDZL and LLF, providing an alternative way to prove the optimality of EDZL and LLF on a uniprocessor platform.

In summary, this paper makes the following contributions.

- It calculates demand bound functions for EDZL and LLF, under which the priority of jobs dynamically changes. To the best knowledge of the authors, this study presents the first demand bound functions for dynamic job-priority scheduling algorithms;
- It develops demand-based schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF by incorporating the functions and the existing demand-based schedulability analysis framework into additional deadline-miss conditions specialized for laxity-based dynamic

<sup>1</sup> A job is said to be a carry-in job in an interval, if it is released before the interval and has remaining execution at the beginning of the interval.

priority change, thus broadening applicability of the demand-based schedulability analysis method; and

- It demonstrates the effectiveness of the proposed demand-based schedulability analyses through simulation, showing that they improve the state-of-the-art analysis methods.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces our system model, assumptions and notations, and then summarizes the existing demand-based schedulability analysis for EDF. Section 3 derives demand bound functions under EDZL and LLF. Section 4 develops demand-based schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF using the derived functions. Section 5 evaluates the schedulability performance of the analyses. Section 6 discusses related work, and finally Section 7 concludes this paper.

## 2. Background

In this section, we first present our system model, assumptions and notations. Then, we recapitulate the existing demand-based schedulability analysis for EDF (Baruah, 2007), which will be a basis for our demand-based schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF.

### 2.1. System model, assumptions and notations

In this paper we assume a sporadic task model (Mok, 1983), in which a task  $\tau_i \in \tau$  is specified by  $(T_i, C_i, D_i)$ , where  $T_i$  is the minimum separation,  $C_i$  is the worst-case execution time, and  $D_i$  is the relative deadline. Further, we restrict our attention to implicit ( $C_i \leq D_i = T_i$ ) and constrained ( $C_i \leq D_i \leq T_i$ ) deadline tasks. Let  $|\tau|$  denote the number of tasks in a task set  $\tau$ . A task  $\tau_i$  invokes a series of jobs, each separated from its predecessor by at least  $T_i$  amount of time, and supposed to finish its execution within  $D_i$  amount of time. We assume that a single job of a task cannot be executed in parallel.

We focus on a multi-core system, in which there are  $m$  identical cores. Also, we deal with global, preemptive scheduling algorithms under which jobs can be executed in any core (global), and a higher-priority job can preempt another low-priority executing job any time (preemptive). Without loss of generality, let one time unit denote the quantum length, and therefore all task parameters are specified as multiples of the quantum length.

To express a job in an interval, we use the following terms: in an interval  $[t_a, t_b]$ , a job is called

- *carry-in*, if the job is released before  $t_a$  and has remaining execution at  $t_a$ ;
- *carry-out*, if the job is released before  $t_b$  and has remaining execution at  $t_b$ ; and
- *body*, if the release time and deadline of the job are within the interval  $[t_a, t_b]$ .

Also, we express that a job  $J_1$  *interferes* another job  $J_2$  in a time slot, if  $J_1$  executes but  $J_2$ , although ready to execute, does not execute in the time slot.

### 2.2. Existing demand-based schedulability analysis for EDF

The notion of resource demand has been successfully employed in many schedulability analyses on various platforms (Baruah et al., 1990; Shin and Lee, 2003; Baruah, 2007). The demand of a given interval represents the amount of execution that should be performed in order to finish the body jobs without any deadline miss. A task set is schedulable under a scheduling algorithm if the demand of each interval is no greater than the amount of resource supplied within the same interval. A key issue is then how to calculate the demand of any given interval accurately, and it requires a good

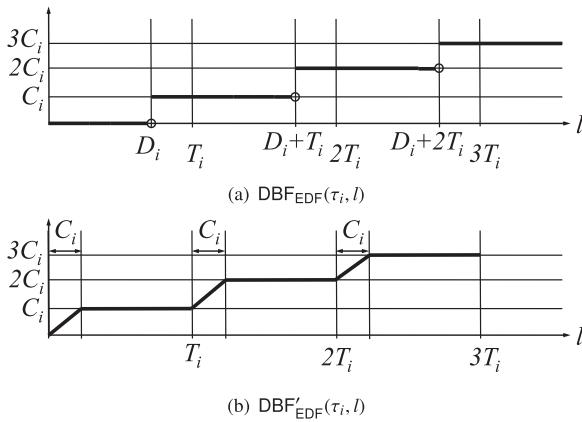


Fig. 1. Demand bound functions for EDF.

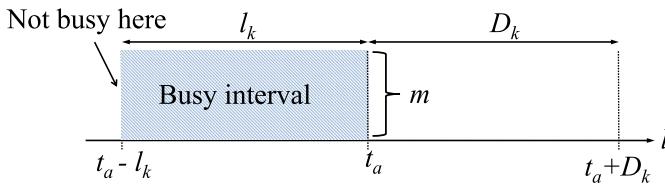


Fig. 2. Demand-based analysis framework.

understanding of which jobs would execute within the interval, according to the priorities assigned to the jobs.

Under EDF, job priorities are assigned according to deadlines, and carry-out jobs do not interfere the execution of body jobs. This makes it possible to calculate the demand of an interval without considering carry-out jobs. Considering this property, Baruah et al. (1990) introduced a demand bound function of a task  $\tau_i$  for an interval of length  $l$ , which computes the demand as the cumulative maximum execution requirements of  $\tau_i$ ' body jobs only (denoted by  $DBF_{EDF}(\tau_i, l)$ ) as follows.

$$DBF_{EDF}(\tau_i, l) \triangleq \left( \left\lfloor \frac{l - D_i}{T_i} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) \cdot C_i. \quad (1)$$

In Baruah (2007), a demand bound function of a task  $\tau_i$  for an interval of length  $l$ , which computes the demand as the cumulative maximum execution requirements of  $\tau_i$ ' body jobs and a carry-in job (denoted by  $DBF'_{EDF}(\tau_i, l)$ ) is calculated as follows.

$$DBF'_{EDF}(\tau_i, l) \triangleq \left\lfloor \frac{l}{T_i} \right\rfloor \cdot C_i + \min(C_i, l \bmod T_i). \quad (2)$$

The functions  $DBF_{EDF}(\tau_i, l)$  and  $DBF'_{EDF}(\tau_i, l)$  are illustrated in Fig. 1. Note that it trivially holds that  $DBF'_{EDF}(\tau_i, l) \geq DBF_{EDF}(\tau_i, l)$  for all  $l \geq 0$  and  $\tau_i \in \tau$ .

Using the demand bound functions, the demand-based schedulability analysis for EDF on a multi-core platform has been developed in Baruah (2007), by identifying necessary deadline miss conditions of each task. To do this, the analysis performs the following steps.

- 1 It focuses on a job of a task  $\tau_k$  whose release time and deadline are  $t_a$  and  $t_a + D_k$ , respectively.
- 2 It considers an interval  $[t_a - l_k, t_a + D_k]$  such that  $[t_a - l_k, t_a]$  is the maximum consecutive busy interval (in which all cores are occupied), and at least one core is idle in  $[t_a - l_k - 1, t_a - l_k]$ . See Fig. 2.
- 3 It calculates the demand of all jobs in  $[t_a - l_k, t_a + D_k]$ , except the job of interest. Here at most  $m - 1$  tasks have their carry-in job

because at least one core is idle in  $[t_a - l_k - 1, t_a - l_k]$  by the definition of the maximum busy interval of  $[t_a - l_k, t_a]$ .

- 4 If the amount of demand is equal to or larger than  $m \cdot (l_k + D_k - C_k + 1)$ , we deem  $\tau_k$  unschedulable.
- 5 If Step 4 does not deem  $\tau_k$  unschedulable for all  $l_k \geq 0$ , we finally guarantee that any job of  $\tau_k$  does not miss its deadline.

The above steps are mathematically expressed as follows.

**Lemma 1.** (Theorem 2 in Baruah, 2007) A task set  $\tau$  is schedulable under EDF on an  $m$ -core platform, if every task  $\tau_k \in \tau$  satisfies the following condition for all  $l_k \geq 0$ <sup>2</sup>:

$$\sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} I_{EDF}(\tau_i, l_k)$$

$$+ \sum_{m-1 \text{ largest } \tau_i \in \tau} \{I'_{EDF}(\tau_i, l_k) - I_{EDF}(\tau_i, l_k)\} < m \cdot (l_k + D_k - C_k + 1), \quad (3)$$

where

$$I_{EDF}(\tau_i, l) = \begin{cases} \min(DBF_{EDF}(\tau_i, l + D_k), l + D_k - C_k + 1), & \text{if } \tau_i \neq \tau_k, \\ \min(DBF_{EDF}(\tau_i, l + D_k) - C_k, l), & \text{if } \tau_i = \tau_k, \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

and

$$I'_{EDF}(\tau_i, l) = \begin{cases} \min(DBF'_{EDF}(\tau_i, l + D_k), l + D_k - C_k + 1), & \text{if } \tau_i \neq \tau_k, \\ \min(DBF'_{EDF}(\tau_i, l + D_k) - C_k, l), & \text{if } \tau_i = \tau_k. \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

**Proof.** The proof is given in Baruah (2007). Also, this proof is similar to the demand-based schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF to be presented in Theorem 1 in Section 4. □

Note that Lemma 1 is slightly different from Theorem 2 in Baruah (2007); while the latter employed continuous time, the former employed discrete time, which has been widely applied to Bertogna and Cirinei (2007), Bertogna et al. (2009), and Lee et al. (2010, 2012).

Then, Lemma 1 is a generalization of the exact analysis of EDF on a uniprocessor platform (Baruah et al., 1990) in that they are equivalent when  $m = 1$  (Baruah, 2007).

Building upon Lemma 1 (Baruah, 2007), the demand-based schedulability analysis method has been applied to FP (Fixed Priority) scheduling (Guan et al., 2009). For FP, it has been proven that  $l_k = 0$  is the critical instant (Davis and Burns, 2011), so we do not need to investigate  $l_k > 0$ .

Although such a demand-based analysis method in Lemma 1 is potentially applicable to any other scheduling algorithms, it has not been adapted to any dynamic job-priority scheduling algorithms (e.g., EDZL and LLF) that are more suitable for multi-core scheduling. This raises two key challenges. First, how can we calculate demand bound functions of a task set while their job priorities are dynamically changing? Second, how can we incorporate the demand bound functions into deadline-miss conditions specialized for those algorithms? In the next sections, we develop demand-based schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF, by addressing those two challenges.

### 3. Demand bound functions under EDZL and LLF

In this section, we calculate the resource demand under EDZL and LLF. To do this, we first upper-bound how long a job with a later deadline can interfere another job with an earlier deadline. Then, we derive the functions under EDZL and LLF, which will be key components for demand-based schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF to be presented in Section 4.

<sup>2</sup> An upper-bound of  $l_k$  is given in Baruah (2007).

### 3.1. Demand bound functions under EDZL

EDZL assigns the highest priority to jobs with the zero laxity state, and prioritizes other jobs according to EDF. Unlike EDF, a carry-out job can interfere a body-job if the carry-out job encounters the zero-laxity state. Therefore, a challenge for deriving a demand bound function under EDZL is to calculate the amount of execution that a carry-out job of each task demands. The following lemma is useful to address the challenge.

**Lemma 2.** Under EDZL, a job  $J_i$  of  $\tau_i$  with a later deadline  $t_0 + \alpha$  ( $\alpha > 0$ ) can interfere another job  $J_k$  of  $\tau_k$  with an earlier deadline  $t_0$  during at most  $C_i - \alpha$  amount of time.

**Proof.** Since the deadline of  $J_i$  is later than that of  $J_k$ ,  $J_i$  can interfere  $J_k$  only when it encounters the zero-laxity state. The earliest time instant for  $J_i$  to have a zero laxity is at  $t_0 + \alpha - C_i$ ; this happens when  $J_i$  does not perform any execution until it encounters the zero-laxity state. Therefore,  $J_i$  can interfere  $J_k$  only in  $[t_0 + \alpha - C_i, t_0]$ . Since  $J_k$ 's deadline is  $t_0$ , the amount of time  $J_i$  interferes  $J_k$  is at most  $C_i - \alpha$  time units.  $\square$

By Lemma 2, a job of  $\tau_i$  with a deadline of  $t_0 + \alpha$  demands at most  $C_i - \alpha$  amount of execution before  $t_0$ . Then, such a demand of a carry-out job is equal to zero when  $\alpha$  is equal to or larger than  $C_i$ , and it linearly increases up to  $C_i$  when  $\alpha$  decreases to zero.

Then, we will consider two cases for the maximum demand of jobs of  $\tau_i$  in an interval, depending on whether there is a carry-in job or not. We first look at the case of no carry-in job. Fig. 3(a) represents the release pattern of jobs of  $\tau_i$  that maximizes the demand of jobs of  $\tau_i$  under EDZL in case of no carry-in job. In this pattern, the release time of the first body job of  $\tau_i$  is aligned with the beginning of the interval of interest. Then, the demand of body jobs of  $\tau_i$  is the same as the EDF case, i.e.,  $\text{DBF}_{\text{EDF}}(\tau_i, l)$ . By Lemma 2, the demand of a carry-out job is positive only when the difference between the end of the interval of interest (i.e.,  $t_0$ ) and the deadline of the carry-out job (i.e.,  $t_0 + \alpha$ ) is less than  $C_i$ . If we express this mathematically, the demand of a carry-out job is positive only when  $D_i - C_i + T_i \cdot x < l < D_i + T_i \cdot x$ , where  $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , and here the amount of the demand is  $l - (D_i - C_i + T_i \cdot x)$ ; otherwise, there is no carry-out job or there is no resource demand by a carry-out job. Then, considering this worst-case release pattern, Fig. 4(a) illustrates the demand bound function of  $\tau_i$  under EDZL in an interval of length  $l$  in case of no carry-in job (denoted by  $\text{DBF}_{\text{EDZL}}(\tau_i, l)$ ), which is mathematically expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{DBF}_{\text{EDZL}}(\tau_i, l) &\triangleq \text{DBF}_{\text{EDF}}(\tau_i, l) \\ &+ \max \left( 0, l - \left( \left\lfloor \frac{l - D_i}{T_i} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) \cdot T_i - (D_i - C_i) \right). \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

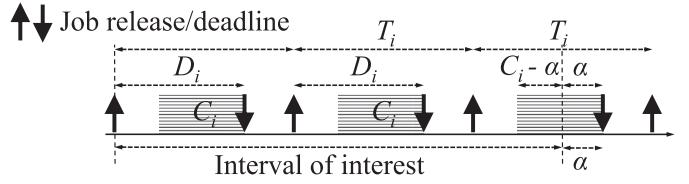
In case of allowing a carry-in job, Fig. 3(b) illustrates the worst-case release pattern of jobs of  $\tau_i$  that maximizes the demand of jobs of  $\tau_i$ . Here, the last body job's deadline is aligned with the end of the interval of interest. Therefore, there exists no carry-out job of  $\tau_i$  that can contribute to the demand in this worst-case release pattern. This means, the demand bound function of  $\tau_i$  under EDZL in an interval of length  $l$  in case of allowing a carry-in job (denoted by  $\text{DBF}'_{\text{EDZL}}(\tau_i, l)$ ) is the same as that under EDF as follows:

$$\text{DBF}'_{\text{EDZL}}(\tau_i, l) \triangleq \text{DBF}'_{\text{EDF}}(\tau_i, l), \quad (7)$$

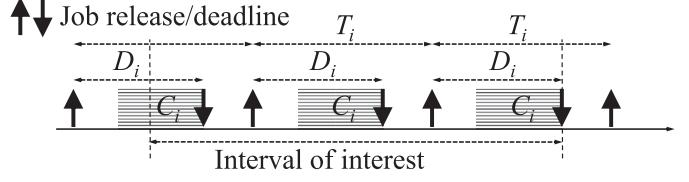
where Fig. 4(b) represents  $\text{DBF}'_{\text{EDZL}}(\tau_i, l)$ .

### 3.2. Demand bound functions under LLF

LLF assigns priorities based on laxity values: the smaller laxity, the higher priority. From the laxity-based priority assignment, we present three properties of LLF scheduling as follows.

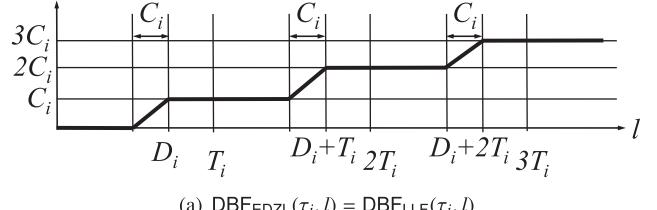


(a) The maximum demand with body jobs and a carry-out job

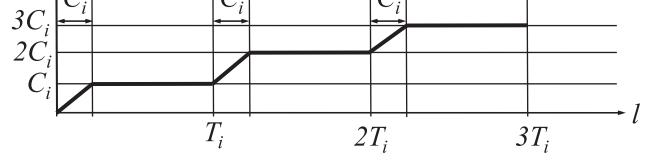


(b) The maximum demand with any job

**Fig. 3.** The release patterns of jobs of  $\tau_i$  that maximize the demand in an interval under EDZL and LLF.



(a)  $\text{DBF}_{\text{EDZL}}(\tau_i, l) = \text{DBF}_{\text{LLF}}(\tau_i, l)$



(b)  $\text{DBF}'_{\text{EDZL}}(\tau_i, l) = \text{DBF}'_{\text{LLF}}(\tau_i, l)$

**Fig. 4.** Demand bound functions for EDZL and LLF.

**Observation 1.** LLF has the following properties:

1. The laxity of a job will decrease by one if the job does not execute in the current time slot, or remain the same otherwise.
2. A job  $J_1$  can interfere another job  $J_2$  only when the laxity of  $J_1$  is equal to or smaller than that of  $J_2$ .
3. If both  $J_1$  and  $J_2$  have the same laxity at  $t$ , the two jobs have the same priority. Then,  $J_1$  can interfere  $J_2$  at most the amount of remaining execution of  $J_2$  from  $t$  on. This is because, after  $J_1$  interferes  $J_2$  in a time slot, the priority of  $J_1$  will become lower than that of  $J_2$  by the first property of LLF. Then,  $J_1$  cannot interfere  $J_2$  until  $J_2$  performs at least one execution (while  $J_1$  does not perform the execution). Therefore, if the laxity of  $J_1$  at  $t$  is the same as that of  $J_2$ ,  $J_1$  can interfere  $J_2$  at most the amount of remaining execution of  $J_2$  at  $t$ .

Using the above three properties of LLF, we now derive demand bound functions under LLF. To calculate this, we present the same lemma as EDZL. Note that, although the statement of the lemma for LLF is coincidentally the same as Lemma 2 for EDZL, the proof is totally different and more complicated.

**Lemma 3.** Under LLF, a job  $J_i$  of  $\tau_i$  with a later deadline  $t_0 + \alpha$  ( $\alpha > 0$ ) can interfere another job  $J_k$  of  $\tau_k$  with an earlier deadline  $t_0$  during at most  $C_i - \alpha$  amount of time.

**Proof.** For notational convenience, let  $C_i(t)$  and  $C_k(t)$  denote the remaining execution time of  $J_i$  and  $J_k$  at  $t$ , and let  $L_i(t)$  and  $L_k(t)$  denote the laxity of  $J_i$  and  $J_k$  at  $t$ .

For  $J_i$  to interfere  $J_k$ , the laxity of  $J_i$  should be no more than that of  $J_k$ . We consider two cases: (a) the laxity of  $J_i$  is always strictly smaller than that of  $J_k$  in  $[t_0 - \beta, t_0]$  where  $t_0 - \beta$  ( $\beta > 0$ ) is the later time instant between the release times of  $J_i$  and  $J_k$ ; and (b) there exists the earliest time instant  $t_0 - \gamma$  ( $\gamma > 0$ ) at which the laxity of  $J_i$  is equal to that of  $J_k$ , i.e.,  $L_i(t_0 - \gamma) = L_k(t_0 - \gamma)$ .

Case (a): here we assume  $C_k(t_0 - \beta) > 0$ ; otherwise,  $J_k$  already finishes its execution before  $t_0 - \beta$ , and therefore  $J_i$  cannot interfere  $J_k$ . We show the contradiction of the assumption, if  $J_i$  interferes  $J_k$  during more than  $C_i - \alpha$  amount of time.

Suppose that  $J_i$  interferes  $J_k$  during more than  $C_i - \alpha$  time units in  $[t_0 - \beta, t_0]$ . According to the first and second properties in **Observation 1**, for  $J_i$  to have a smaller laxity than  $J_k$  after interfering during more than  $C_i - \alpha$  time units, it holds that  $L_i(t_0 - \beta) < L_k(t_0 - \beta) - (C_i - \alpha)$ . Since the remaining times to the deadlines of  $J_i$  and  $J_k$  at  $t_0 - \beta$  are  $\beta + \alpha$  and  $\beta$ , respectively, the following inequality holds by the definition of laxity:

$$\begin{aligned} L_i(t_0 - \beta) &< L_k(t_0 - \beta) - C_i + \alpha \\ \Leftrightarrow \beta + \alpha - C_i(t_0 - \beta) &< \beta - C_k(t_0 - \beta) - C_i + \alpha \\ \Leftrightarrow C_k(t_0 - \beta) &< C_i(t_0 - \beta) - C_i \\ \Rightarrow C_k(t_0 - \beta) &\leq 0. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

This is a contradiction of  $C_k(t_0 - \beta) > 0$ .

Case (b): by definition,  $J_k$  has  $C_k(t_0 - \gamma)$  amount of remaining execution at  $t_0 - \gamma$ , and its remaining time to deadline is  $\gamma$ , resulting in  $L_k(t_0 - \gamma) = \gamma - C_k(t_0 - \gamma)$ . Since  $L_k(t_0 - \gamma) = L_i(t_0 - \gamma)$  and  $J_i$  has  $\gamma + \alpha$  amount of remaining time to deadline at  $t_0 - \gamma$ , the amount of remaining execution of  $J_i$  at  $t_0 - \gamma$  is calculated by  $(\gamma + \alpha) - (\gamma - C_k(t_0 - \gamma)) = \alpha + C_k(t_0 - \gamma)$ . By the third property of **Observation 1**,  $J_i$  interferes  $J_k$  at most  $C_k(t_0 - \gamma)$  amount of time in  $[t_0 - \gamma, t_0]$ . So, among  $\alpha + C_k(t_0 - \gamma)$  amount remaining execution,  $J_i$  interferes only during at most  $C_k(t_0 - \gamma)$ , which means  $J_i$  cannot interfere  $J_k$  during at least  $\alpha + C_k(t_0 - \gamma) - C_k(t_0 - \gamma) = \alpha$  amount of time. Considering the initial execution time of  $J_i$  is  $C_i$ , we conclude that  $J_i$  interferes  $J_k$  during at most  $C_i - \alpha$  amount of time.

The cases (a) and (b) prove the lemma.  $\square$

Since **Lemma 3** is coincidentally the same as **Lemma 2**, we can consider the same release patterns that maximize the resource demand of jobs of a given task as shown in **Fig. 3**. Therefore, demand bound functions of  $\tau_i$  under LLF in an interval of length  $l$  in case of no carry-in job (denoted by  $DBF_{LLF}(\tau_i, l)$ ) and the existence of a carry-in job (denoted by  $DBF'_{LLF}(\tau_i, l)$ ) are the same as those under EDZL as follows:

$$DBF_{LLF}(\tau_i, l) \triangleq DBF_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l), \quad (9)$$

$$DBF'_{LLF}(\tau_i, l) \triangleq DBF'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l), \quad (10)$$

where the functions are also illustrated in **Fig. 4**.

#### 4. Demand-based schedulability analysis of EDZL and LLF

In this section, we develop demand-based schedulability analysis of EDZL and LLF. To do this, we first apply the derived demand bound functions to the existing demand-based schedulability analysis framework. Then, we incorporate the framework into additional deadline-miss conditions specialized for EDZL and LLF, yielding tighter schedulability analyses.

##### 4.1. Schedulability analysis of EDZL and LLF with deadline-miss conditions

By applying the derived demand bound functions under EDZL and LLF to the existing demand-based schedulability analysis

framework in **Lemma 1**, we develop demand-based schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF, as stated in the following theorem.

**Theorem 1.** A task set  $\tau_i$  is schedulable under EDZL and LLF on an  $m$ -core platform, if every task  $\tau_k \in \tau$  satisfies the following condition for all  $l_k \geq 0$ <sup>3</sup>:

$$\sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} I_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l_k) + \sum_{m-1 \text{ largest } \tau_i \in \tau} \{I'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l_k) - I_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l_k)\} < m \cdot (l_k + D_k - C_k + 1), \quad (11)$$

where

$$I_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l) = \begin{cases} \min(DBF_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l + D_k), l + D_k - C_k + 1), & \text{if } \tau_i \neq \tau_k, \\ \min(DBF_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l + D_k) - C_k, l), & \text{if } \tau_i = \tau_k, \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

and

$$I'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l) = \begin{cases} \min(DBF'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l + D_k), l + D_k - C_k + 1), & \text{if } \tau_i \neq \tau_k, \\ \min(DBF'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l + D_k) - C_k, l), & \text{if } \tau_i = \tau_k. \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

**Proof.** For given  $l_k = l$ , we want to judge whether or not a job of  $\tau_k$  (whose release time and deadline are  $t_a$  and  $t_a + D_k$ ) misses its deadline, provided that an interval  $[t_a - l, t_a]$  is the maximum busy interval, as shown in **Fig. 2**. Then, for the job of interest to miss its deadline, the amount of the resource demand of all jobs except the job of interest in  $[t_a, t_a + D_k]$  should be at least  $m \cdot (D_k - C_k + 1)$ ; otherwise,  $C_k$  amount of execution of the job of interest will be successfully performed before  $t_a + D_k$ , regardless of execution patterns of other jobs. Considering that  $[t_a - l, t_a]$  is a busy interval, the amount of the resource demand of all jobs except the job of interest in  $[t_a - l, t_a + D_k]$  should be at least  $m \cdot (l + D_k - C_k + 1)$ .

Then, the remaining step is the LHS of Eq. (11) is a safe upper-bound of such a resource demand. Similar to Baruah (2007), let  $\Gamma_k$  denote a set of intervals (not necessarily continuous) of length  $D_k - C_k + 1$  over  $[t_a, t_a + D_k]$ ;  $\Gamma_k$  is chosen such that the amount of execution of other jobs than the job of interest is maximized. Since the length of  $\Gamma_k$  is  $D_k - C_k + 1$ , the amount of actual demand of jobs of  $\tau_i$  in  $\Gamma_k$  should be upper-bounded by  $D_k - C_k + 1$ , which is followed by the fact that the amount of actual demand of jobs of  $\tau_i$  in  $[t_a - l, t_a] \cup \Gamma_k$  should be upper-bounded by  $l + D_k - C_k + 1$ . This is why  $I_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l)$  and  $I'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l)$  are upper-bounded by  $l + D_k - C_k + 1$  in Eqs. (12) and (13) for  $\tau_i \neq \tau_k$ .

In case of  $\tau_i = \tau_k$ , there is no demand in  $[t_a, t_a + D_k]$  because we do not count the job of interest of  $\tau_k$ . Therefore, we deduct  $C_k$  amount from the demand, and upper-bound the demand by  $l$  (i.e., the length of  $[t_a - l, t_a]$ ) as shown in Eqs. (12) and (13) for  $\tau_i = \tau_k$ .

Then,  $I_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l)$  and  $I'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l)$  in Eqs. (12) and (13) successfully upper-bound the amount of resource demand of jobs of  $\tau_i$  in  $[t_a - l, t_a] \cup \Gamma_k$ , in case of no carry-in job and the existence of a carry-in job, respectively. By the definition of the maximum busy interval, we know that at most  $m - 1$  tasks have their carry-in jobs in  $[t_a - l, t_a + D_k]$ , but we do not know which tasks have their carry-in jobs. To safely upper-bound the demand by considering  $I_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l) \leq I'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l)$  for all  $\tau_i \in \tau$  and  $l \geq 0$ , we initially add  $I_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l)$  for  $\tau_k \in \tau$ . Then, we add the difference between  $I'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l)$  and  $I_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l)$  for  $m - 1$  tasks, which have the largest difference. Then, under any combination with up to  $m - 1$  tasks having their carry-in jobs, we can safely upper-bound the amount of the demand.

Therefore, the LHS of Eq. (11) is a safe upper-bound of the resource demand of all jobs except the job of interest in  $[t_a - l,$

<sup>3</sup> An upper-bound of  $l_k$  will be derived in Section 4.3.

$t_a \cup \Gamma_k$ . This means, if Eq. (11) holds for given  $l$ , a job of  $\tau_k$  cannot miss its deadline, provided that  $[t_a - l, t_a]$  is the maximum busy interval. Since we test Eq. (11) for all  $l \geq 0$ , the theorem holds.  $\square$

Then, **Theorem 1** can be an exact schedulability of EDZL and LLF on a uniprocessor platform, as stated in the following lemma.

**Lemma 4.** *Theorem 1 provides an alternative way to prove that EDZL and LLF are optimal scheduling algorithms on a uniprocessor platform.*

**Proof.** In Baruah et al. (1990), it has been proved that a scheduling algorithm is optimal on a uniprocessor platform, if the algorithm makes every task set  $\tau$  schedulable, which satisfies for all  $l > 0$ :

$$\sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} DBF_{EDF}(\tau_i, l) \leq l. \quad (14)$$

If we apply  $m=1$  to **Theorem 1**, the schedulability analysis is reduced as follows: a task set  $\tau$  is schedulable, if the following inequality holds for all  $l \geq \min_{\tau_i \in \tau} D_i$ :

$$\sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} DBF_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l) \leq l, \quad (15)$$

which is equivalent to the above optimality condition on a uniprocessor platform.  $\square$

While it is well-known that EDZL and LLF outperform EDF on a multiprocessor platform (Baker et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2010), the schedulability analysis of EDZL and LLF in **Theorem 1**, although it generalizes the exact schedulability analysis on uniprocessors, cannot be better than the schedulability analysis of EDF in **Lemma 1**. This is because  $DBF_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l) \geq DBF_{EDF}(\tau_i, l)$  and  $DBF'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l) = DBF'_{EDF}(\tau_i, l)$  hold for any  $\tau_i \in \tau$  and  $l > 0$ .

Therefore, we now derive another demand-based schedulability analysis of EDZL and LLF, by incorporating additional deadline-miss conditions specialized for EDZL and LLF, which will be detailed in the next subsection.

#### 4.2. Schedulability analysis of EDZL and LLF with zero-laxity conditions

Under any zero-laxity-based algorithm, which assigns the highest priority to zero-laxity jobs, such as EDZL and LLF, additional deadline-miss conditions have been identified (Baker et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2011) as stated in the following observation.

**Observation 2.** *Under any zero-laxity-based algorithm, for a job to miss its deadline, there should be  $m+1$  zero-laxity jobs before the deadline miss.*

Since zero-laxity jobs have the highest priority, a zero-laxity job misses its deadline only when  $m$  other zero-laxity jobs are executed.

Using the observation, we can develop another schedulability analysis by checking whether a task set can have  $m+1$  tasks whose job can enter the zero-laxity state, which has been combined with other schedulability analysis methods (Baker et al., 2008; Lee and Shin, 2013). Now, we incorporate the observation to the demand-based schedulability analysis.

**Theorem 2.** *A task set  $\tau_i$  is schedulable under EDZL and LLF on an  $m$ -core platform, if at least  $|\tau| - m$  tasks  $\tau_k \in \tau$  satisfy the following condition for all  $l_k \geq 0$ <sup>4</sup>:*

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{\tau_j \in \tau} \hat{I}_{EDZL}(\tau_j, l_k) \\ & + \sum_{m-1 \text{ largest } \tau_j \in \tau} \{\hat{I}'_{EDZL}(\tau_j, l_k) - \hat{I}_{EDZL}(\tau_j, l_k)\} < m \cdot (l_k + D_k - C_k), \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

where

$$\hat{I}(\tau_i, l) = \begin{cases} \min(DBF_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l + D_k), l + D_k - C_k), & \text{if } \tau_i \neq \tau_k, \\ \min(DBF_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l + D_k) - C_k, l), & \text{if } \tau_i = \tau_k, \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

and

$$\hat{I}'(\tau_i, l) = \begin{cases} \min(DBF'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l + D_k), l + D_k - C_k), & \text{if } \tau_i \neq \tau_k, \\ \min(DBF'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l + D_k) - C_k, l), & \text{if } \tau_i = \tau_k. \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

**Proof.** The proof is similar to **Theorem 1**. We focus on  $l_k = l$  such that  $[t_a - l, t_a]$  is the maximum busy interval in which  $m$  cores are occupied in  $[t_a - l, t_a]$  but at least one core is idle in  $[t_a - l - 1, t_a - l]$ .

Consider a job of  $\tau_k$ , whose release time and deadline are  $t_a$  and  $t_a + D_k$ , respectively. Similar to the definition of  $\Gamma_k$ , let  $\Gamma'_k$  denote a set of intervals (not necessarily continuous) of length  $D_k - C_k$  over  $[t_a, t_a + D_k]$ ;  $\Gamma'_k$  is also chosen such that the amount of executions of other jobs than the job of interest is maximized. Then, for the job of interest of  $\tau_k$  to encounter the zero-laxity state, the resource demand of all other jobs than the job of interest in  $\Gamma'_k$  should at least  $m \cdot (D_k - C_k)$ ; otherwise, the job of interest finishes  $C_k$  amount of execution without entering the zero-laxity state. Considering that  $[t_a - l, t_a]$  is the maximum busy interval, the resource demand of all other jobs than the job of interest in  $[t_a - l, t_a] \cup \Gamma'_k$  should be at least  $m \cdot (l + D_k - C_k)$ .

Then, since the length of  $\Gamma'_k$  is  $D_k - C_k$ ,  $\hat{I}_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l)$  for  $\tau_i \neq \tau_k$  in Eq. (17), which means the amount of the resource demand of jobs of  $\tau_i$  in  $[t_a - l, t_a] \cup \Gamma'_k$ , should be upper-bounded by  $l + D_k - C_k$ . The same upper-bound holds for  $\hat{I}'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l)$  in Eq. (18). On the other hand, it holds that  $\hat{I}_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l) = I_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l)$  and  $\hat{I}'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l) = I'_{EDZL}(\tau_i, l)$  for  $\tau_i = \tau_k$ , because they are irrelevant to  $\Gamma_k$  and  $\Gamma'_k$ .

By testing Eq. (16) for all  $l \geq 0$ , we can guarantee that a job of  $\tau_k$  cannot encounter the zero-laxity state. Then, by **Observation 2**, we guarantee that a task set  $\tau$  is schedulable if at least  $|\tau| - m$  tasks' jobs cannot reach the zero-laxity state, which proves the theorem.  $\square$

Note that the schedulability analyses of EDZL and LLF in **Theorems 1 and 2** are sustainable with respect to the minimum separations, the worst-case execution times, and the relative deadlines (i.e.,  $\{T_i, C_i, D_i\}_{\tau_i \in \tau}$ ) (Burns and Baruah, 2008), which means a task set deemed schedulable by the analyses is also deemed schedulable even if  $T_i$  and/or  $D_i$  increase and/or  $C_i$  decreases.

#### 4.3. Time-complexity

To make **Theorems 1 and 2** practical, we need to upper-bound  $l_k$  in the theorems; otherwise, it is intractable to test the theorems. Using the idea from Baruah (2007), we now calculate an upper-bound of  $l_k$  for **Theorems 1 and 2**, as stated in the following lemma.

<sup>4</sup> An upper-bound of  $l_k$  will be derived in Section 4.3.

**Lemma 5.** For Theorems 1 and 2, it is safe to investigate only a set of  $l_k$  that satisfies the following inequality:

$$l_k \leq \frac{\text{numerator}}{m - \sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} (C_i/T_i)}, \quad (19)$$

where numerator =  $\sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} C_i - m \cdot D_k + m \cdot C_k + D_k \cdot \sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} (C_i/T_i) + \sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} (T_i - D_i) \cdot (C_i/T_i)$ .

**Proof.** It is easily checked that  $I_{\text{EDZL}}(\tau_i, l_k), I'_{\text{EDZL}}(\tau_i, l_k), \hat{I}_{\text{EDZL}}(\tau_i, l_k)$  and  $\hat{I}'_{\text{EDZL}}(\tau_i, l_k)$  in Eqs. (12), (13), (17) and (18) are upper-bounded by  $\text{DBF}_{\text{EDF}}(\tau_i, l_k + D_k) + C_k$ . Therefore, to violate Eq. (11) or (16), the following inequality holds necessarily:

$$\sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} C_i + \sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} \text{DBF}_{\text{EDF}}(\tau_i, l_k + D_k) \geq m \cdot (l_k + D_k - C_k). \quad (20)$$

Using the technique in Baruah et al. (1990), i.e.,  $\text{DBF}_{\text{EDF}}(\tau_i, l) \leq l \cdot \frac{C_i}{T_i} + (T_i - D_i) \cdot \frac{C_i}{T_i}$ , the following inequality holds.

Eq. (20)

$$\begin{aligned} & \Rightarrow \sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} C_i + (l_k + D_k) \cdot \sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} \frac{C_i}{T_i} + \sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} (T_i - D_i) \cdot \frac{C_i}{T_i} \geq m \cdot (l_k + D_k - C_k) \\ & \Leftrightarrow l_k \leq \frac{\text{numerator}}{m - \sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} (C_i/T_i)}. \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

□

Then, the time-complexity of Theorems 1 and 2 with Lemma 5 is pseudo-polynomial in the task parameters, if the task set  $\tau$  satisfies that  $\sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} (C_i/T_i)$  is upper-bounded by a constant strictly smaller than  $m$ .

It is tractable to apply schedulability analyses with pseudo-polynomial time-complexity offline (see such analyses in Bertogna and Baruah, 2011). Therefore, schedulability analyses in Theorems 1 and 2 can provide offline guarantees on temporal correctness of a given task set scheduled by EDZL or LLF.

## 5. Evaluation

In this section, we compare schedulability performance of the proposed analyses with existing analyses.

### 5.1. Task set generation

We generate task sets based on a popular technique (Baker, 2005) employed in many studies, e.g., Bertogna et al. (2009) and Lee et al. (2012). We have three input parameters: (a) the number of cores  $m$  (2, 4, 8 or 16), (b) the type of tasks (constrained or implicit deadline tasks), and (c) individual task utilization ( $C_i/T_i$ ) distribution—bimodal with parameters: 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7 or 0.9, or exponential with parameters: 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7 or 0.9. Here, for a given bimodal parameter  $p$ , a value for  $C_i/T_i$  is uniformly chosen in  $[0, 0.5]$  with probability  $p$ , and in  $[0.5, 1]$  with probability  $1 - p$ . Also, for a given exponential parameter  $1/\lambda$ , a value for  $C_i/T_i$  is selected according to the exponential distribution whose probability density function is  $\lambda \cdot \exp(-\lambda \cdot x)$ .

For each task,  $T_i$  is uniformly distributed in  $[1, 1000]$ ,  $C_i$  is chosen based on (c), and  $D_i$  is uniformly chosen in  $[C_i, T_i]$  for constrained deadline task sets or  $D_i$  is set to  $T_i$  for implicit deadline task sets.

For each combination of (a), (b) and (c), we repeat the following steps and generate 100,000 task sets.

1. We generate  $m + 1$  tasks.
2. In order to exclude unschedulable sets, we check whether the current task set can pass a necessary feasibility condition (Baker and Cirinei, 2006).
3. If it fails to pass the feasibility test, we discard the current task set and return to Step 1. Otherwise, we include the current set for evaluation. Then, this set serves as a basis for the next new task set; we create a new set by adding a new task into the current set and return to Step 2.

Therefore, the number of the first task set is  $m + 1$  while that of the second, third, ... task sets is  $m + 2, m + 3, \dots$  as long as each task set passes the necessary feasibility condition (Baker and Cirinei, 2006). If the condition is not satisfied, the number of tasks in the next task set is  $m + 1$ , and we repeat the task set increment. This procedure enables to generate a wide variety of task sets in terms of the number of tasks.

For any given  $m$  and given type of task sets, 100,000 task sets are created for each task utilization model, thus yielding 1,000,000 task sets in total.

### 5.2. Schedulability performance

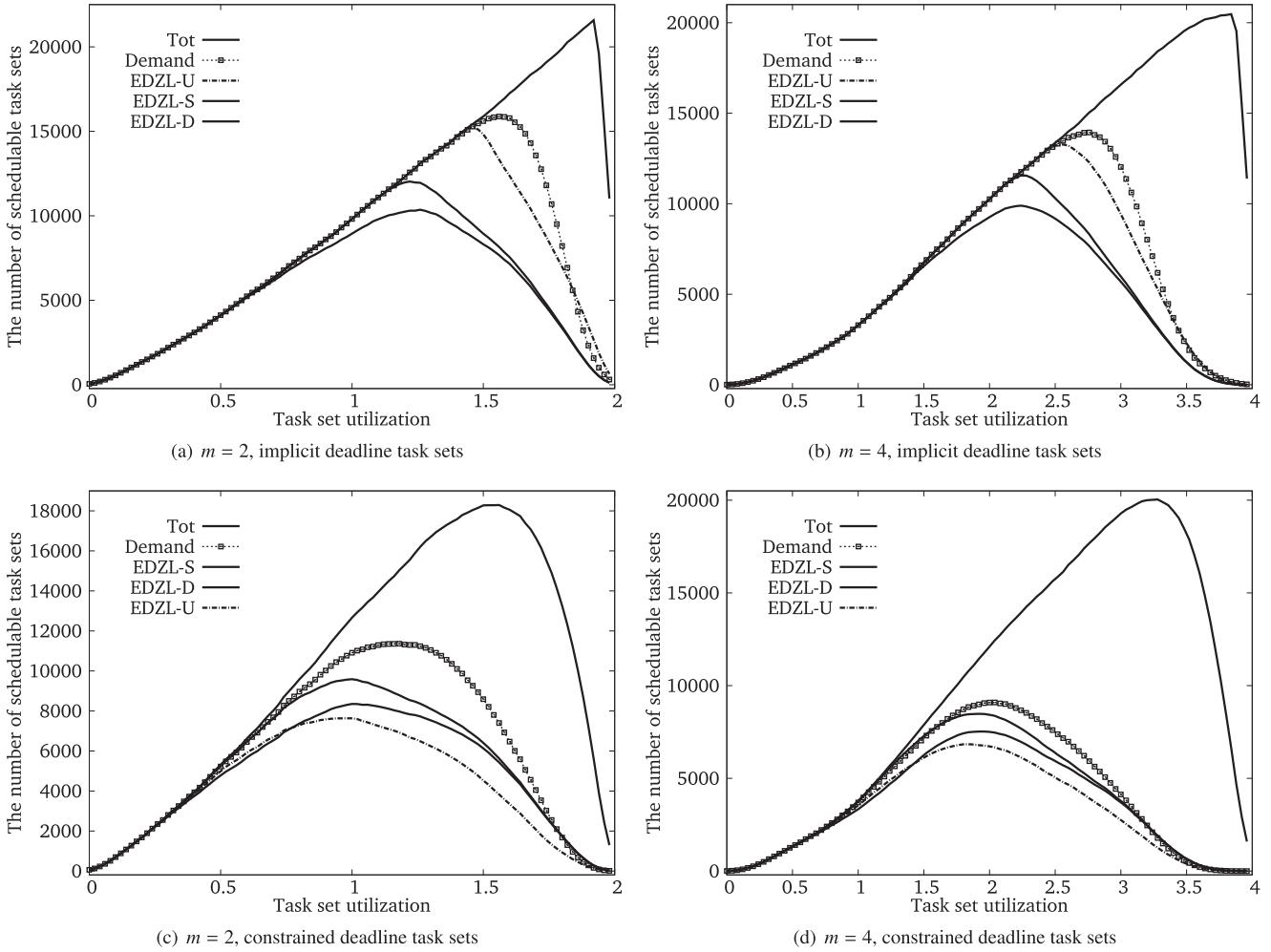
We compare the following schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF:

- Our demand-based schedulability analysis of EDZL and LLF, i.e., schedulable by either Theorem 1 or 2 (denoted by Demand),
- An existing deadline-based EDZL schedulability analysis, i.e., schedulable by Theorem 7 in Baker et al. (2008) (denoted by EDZL-D),
- An existing slack-based EDZL schedulability analysis, i.e., schedulable by Section 9 in Baker et al. (2008) (denoted by EDZL-S),
- An existing utilization-based EDZL schedulability analysis, i.e., schedulable by Theorem 2 in Lee and Shin (2013) (denoted by EDZL-U),
- An existing deadline-based LLF schedulability analysis, i.e., schedulable by Theorem 3 in Lee et al. (2010) (denoted by LLF-D), and
- An existing slack-based LLF schedulability analysis, i.e., schedulable by Fig. 5 in Lee et al. (2012) (denoted by LLF-S).

In Figs. 5 and 6, each plot shows the number of task sets proven schedulable by each test, with task set utilization ( $\sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} C_i/T_i$ ) in  $[\sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} C_i/T_i - 0.01 \cdot m, \sum_{\tau_i \in \tau} C_i/T_i + 0.01 \cdot m]$ . In the figures, “Tot” represents the number of generated task sets.

We first compare EDZL schedulability analyses. As shown in Fig. 5, EDZL-U and EDZL-S are better than other existing EDZL schedulability analyses, respectively for implicit and constrained deadline task sets. For example, if we focus in Fig. 5(a) (i.e.,  $m = 2$ , implicit deadline task sets), EDZL-U deems 74.1% task sets schedulable while EDZL-D and EDZL-S prove only 55.9% and 60.2% task sets schedulable. Likewise, EDZL-D, EDZL-S, and EDZL-U respectively deem 48.4%, 53.3%, and 43.1% constrained task sets schedulable when  $m = 2$ , (i.e., Fig. 5(c)). However, Demand outperforms all existing EDZL schedulability analyses, with  $m = 2$  and 4. For example, Demand deems 77.9% (61.6%) implicit (constrained) task sets schedulable when  $m = 2$ , which are 3.8%–22.0% (8.3%–18.5%) improvement compared to existing EDZL schedulability analyses. Also, Demand covers up to 4.0% additional schedulable task sets with  $m = 8$  and 16, which are deemed schedulable by neither EDZL-D, EDZL-S nor EDZL-U.

When it comes to LLF schedulability analyses, Demand is (one of) the best LLF schedulability analysis as shown in Fig. 6. That is, while LLF-D and LLF-S prove that 39.8%–63.5% and 43.3%–65.4% task sets



**Fig. 5.** Schedulability performance of EDZL schedulability analyses.

are schedulable with  $m=2$  and  $4$ , Demand deems 41.8%–77.9% task sets schedulable under LLF. For  $m=8$  and  $m=16$ , Demand finds up to 5.2% additional schedulable task sets, which are not covered by both LLF-D and LLF-S.

Here an interesting point is that Demand does not outperform LLF-D and LLF-S under some environment, e.g., Fig. 6(d) with  $m=4$  and constrained deadline task sets. This is because, Demand only utilizes zero-laxity conditions for tighter analysis. However, under LLF, there are additional deadline-miss conditions that are connected with complex laxity dynamics; the schedulability difference between EDZL-D and LLF-D, or EDZL-S and LLF-S comes from those conditions. Therefore, one may improve the demand-based schedulability analysis of LLF by incorporating those conditions into Demand. Note that those conditions have been presented in Lee et al. (2010, 2012), but the conditions make schedulability analyses remarkably complicated. Therefore, the issue is beyond the scope of this paper, and we will briefly discuss this in Section 7. Also, since LLF may incur frequent job preemptions, we need to consider such overhead. Section 6 in Lee et al. (2012) has introduced a variant of LLF to explore the tradeoff between the overhead and schedulability improvement, and it would be interesting to extend the demand-based analysis to the variant, which is also beyond the scope of this paper.

When it comes to time-complexity, EDZL-D, EDZL-U, EDZL-S, LLF-D and LLF-S have  $|\tau|^2 \cdot m \cdot |\tau|$ ,  $|\tau|^3 \cdot \max_{\tau_i \in \tau} D_i$ ,  $|\tau|^2 \cdot \max_{\tau_i \in \tau} C_i \cdot (D_i - C_i)$ ,

and  $|\tau|^2 \cdot \max_{\tau_i \in \tau} (D_i - C_i)$ , respectively (Lee and Shin, 2013; Lee et al., 2012). In particular, the time-complexity of the schedulability analyses with higher schedulability performance (i.e., EDZL-S and LLF-S) is pseudo-polynomial in the task parameters, which is the same as Ours. As shown in Table 1, in any case, the actual running time of Demand for each implicit deadline task set does not exceed 1 second, implying that Demand is a tractable offline schedulability test.

In summary, our demand-based schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF not only become (one of) the best single schedulability analysis for EDZL and LLF, but also cover a large number of additional schedulable task sets by EDZL and LLF, which are not proven by existing schedulability analyses.

**Table 1**  
Average running time of implicit deadline task sets

	$m=2$	$m=4$	$m=8$	$m=16$
EDZL-D	<1 ms	<1 ms	<1 ms	<1 ms
EDZL-S	<1 ms	<1 ms	<1 ms	<1 ms
EDZL-U	<1 ms	<1 ms	<1 ms	<1 ms
LLF-D	1.6 ms	4.9 ms	15.4 ms	57.0 ms
LLF-S	2.1 ms	7.2 ms	25.6 ms	109.5 ms
Demand	2.0 ms	7.6 ms	30.6 ms	127.7 ms

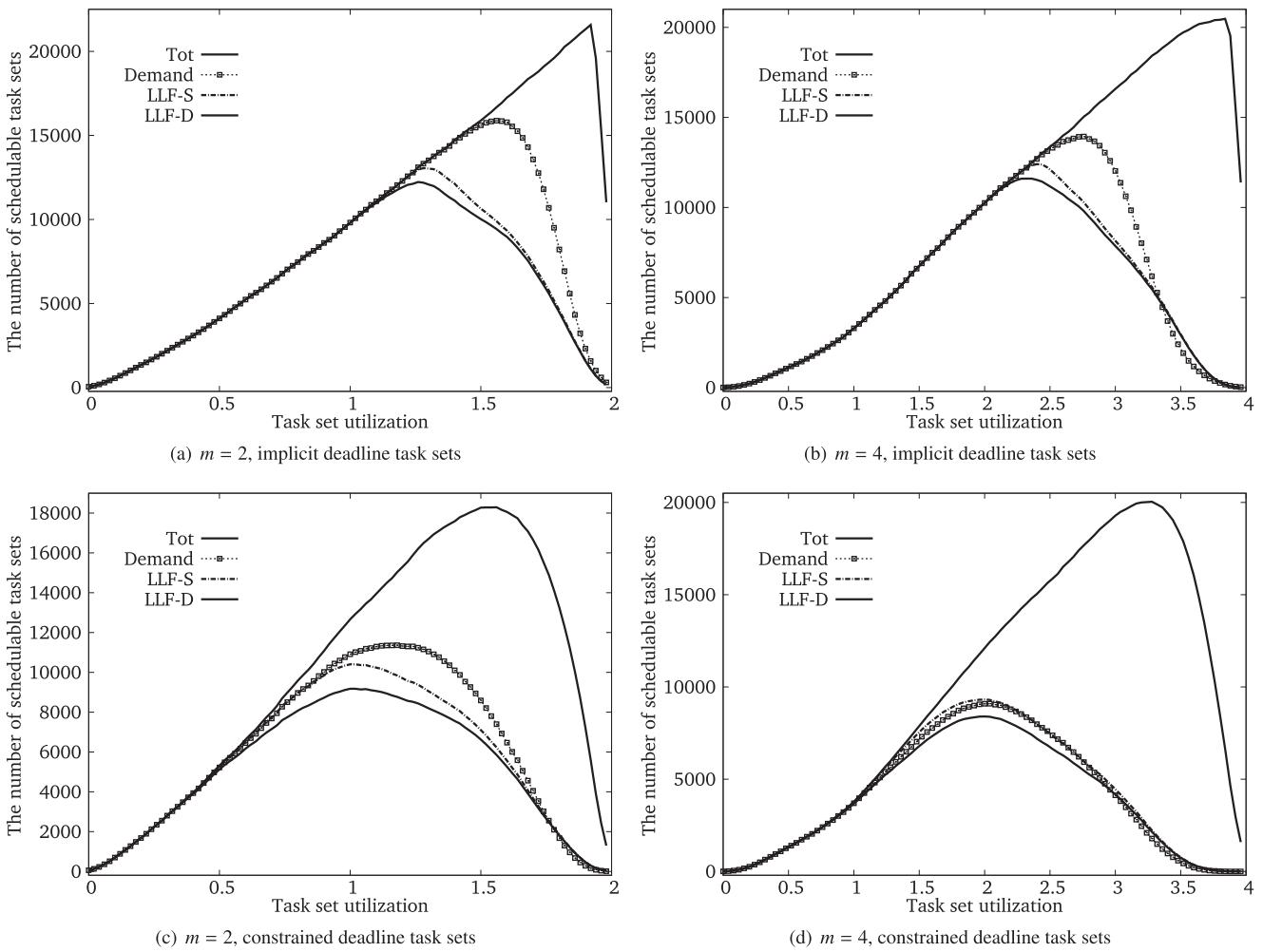


Fig. 6. Schedulability performance of LLF schedulability analyses.

## 6. Related work

To guarantee the schedulability of a task set under a specific scheduling algorithm, schedulability analysis has been widely studied. For uniprocessors, utilization-based schedulability analyses of EDF and FP (Liu and Layland, 1973) have been proposed for implicit deadline task sets. Since the analyses are no longer effective for constrained deadline task sets, people have proposed more sophisticated methods. As a result, the demand-based schedulability analysis method yields the exact schedulability analyses of EDF (Baruah et al., 1990), while the response-time-based method does that of FP (Audsley et al., 1991). With increasing popularity of multi-core chips, people have tried to adapt the two effective methods to real-time multi-core scheduling. The response-time-based method (Bertogna and Cirinei, 2007) and its simpler versions (the deadline-based and slack-based methods, Bertogna et al., 2009) have yielded many schedulability analyses for existing scheduling algorithms, e.g., Bertogna and Cirinei (2007) and Bertogna et al. (2009) for EDF, Bertogna and Cirinei (2007), Bertogna et al. (2009), and Guan et al. (2009) for FP, Baker et al. (2008) and Lee and Shin (2013) for EDZL, Lee et al. (2012) for LLF, Davis and Burns (2011) for FPZL (Fixed Priority until Zero-Laxity), Chwa et al. (2012) for SPDF (Smallest Pseudo Deadline First), etc.

However, when it comes to the demand-based schedulability analysis method, such adaptation for multi-cores has been realized only for EDF (Baruah, 2007) and FP (Guan et al., 2009).

scheduling<sup>5</sup>. Since the demand-based schedulability analysis of EDF is one of the best among a large number of existing EDF analyses in terms of schedulability performance (See a survey Bertogna and Baruah, 2011), we expect that such superiority of the demand-based method would hold for other scheduling algorithms that have been proven effective for real-time multi-core scheduling, e.g., EDZL and LLF. As we mentioned in the previous sections, there are two challenges to develop demand-based schedulability analyses of those scheduling algorithms: how to compute demand bound functions of those algorithms, and how to incorporate the demand-based method into deadline miss conditions specialized for those algorithms. Addressing the two challenges, this paper developed demand-based schedulability analyses of EDZL and LLF, and demonstrated their effectiveness in terms of schedulability performance.

## 7. Conclusion

In this paper, we have addressed two issues that block the practical applicability of the demand-based schedulability analysis method for real-time multi-core scheduling: (i) the way of

<sup>5</sup> For FP, it has been proved that the demand-based schedulability analysis can be reduced to the deadline-based analysis (Guan et al., 2009; Davis and Burns, 2011) as we mentioned in Section 2.

calculating the resource demand under dynamic, complex algorithms, and (ii) the way of incorporating the analysis method into additional deadline-miss conditions specialized for those algorithms. As a result, the demand-based schedulability analyses for EDZL and LLF outperform existing schedulability analyses.

One direction of future work is to apply the demand-based schedulability analysis framework to other scheduling algorithms than zero-laxity-based scheduling. Also, it would be interesting to incorporate the framework into additional laxity conditions for LLF. To do this, it is necessary to apply complex laxity dynamics, and to develop a large number of additional demand bound functions that calculate the resource demand of other jobs that have higher priority than a job of interest with *certain laxity* at *certain time instant*. Another direction is to extend our work to dependent task models. For example, it would be interesting to develop scheduling algorithms and their demand-based schedulability analyses by addressing cache interference among tasks (Yan and Zhang, 2011; Ding and Zhang, 2013; Guan et al., 2009).

## Acknowledgements

This work was supported in part by BRL (2009-0086964), BSRP (2012-R1A1A1014930), NCRC (2012-0000980), KEIT (2011-10041313), and KIAT (M002300089) funded by the Korea Government (MEST/MSIP/MOTIE).

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