Mapping of Applications to Platforms

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Structure of this course

Numbers denote sequence of chapters
Mapping of Applications to Platforms

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## Distinction between mapping problems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Embedded</th>
<th>PC-like</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Architectures</td>
<td>Frequently heterogeneous</td>
<td>Mostly homogeneous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>very compact</td>
<td>not compact (x86 etc)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x86 compatibility</td>
<td>Less relevant</td>
<td>Very relevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Architecture fixed?</td>
<td>Sometimes not</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model of computation (MoCs)</td>
<td>C+multiple models (data flow, discrete events, ...)</td>
<td>Mostly von Neumann (C, C++, Java)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optim. objectives</td>
<td>Multiple (energy, size, ...)</td>
<td>Average performance dominates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real-time relevant</td>
<td>Yes, very!</td>
<td>Hardly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applications</td>
<td>Several concurrent apps.</td>
<td>Mostly single application</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apps. known at design time</td>
<td>Most, if not all</td>
<td>Only some (e.g. WORD)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Problem Description

Given
- A set of applications
- Scenarios on how these applications will be used
- A set of candidate architectures comprising
  - (Possibly heterogeneous) processors
  - (Possibly heterogeneous) communication architectures
  - Possible scheduling policies

Find
- A mapping of applications to processors
- Appropriate scheduling techniques (if not fixed)
- A target architecture (if DSE is included)

Objectives
- Keeping deadlines and/or maximizing performance
- Minimizing cost, energy consumption
Focus of the ArtistDesign Network

Workshops on Mapping Applications To MPSoCs, Rheinfels castle,

- 1st: http://www.artist-embedded.org/artist/-map2mpsoc-2008-.html
- 2nd: http://www.artist-embedded.org/artist/-map2mpsoc-2009-.html
- 3rd: http://www.artist-embedded.org/artist/-map2mpsoc-2010-.html
- 4th: http://www.artist-embedded.org/artist/-Map2MPSoC-2011-.html
- Session at ESWEEK 2011 (Marwedel, Teich, Thiele, Xu, Ha et al.)
- 5th: http://www.scopesconf.org
Related Work

- Mapping to EXUs in automotive design
- Scheduling theory:
  Provides insight for the mapping \( \text{task} \rightarrow \text{start times} \)
- Hardware/software partitioning:
  Can be applied if it supports multiple processors
- High performance computing (HPC)
  Automatic parallelization, but only for
  - single applications,
  - fixed architectures,
  - no support for scheduling,
  - memory and communication model usually different
- High-level synthesis
  Provides useful terms like scheduling, allocation, assignment
- Optimization theory
Scope of mapping algorithms

Useful terms from hardware synthesis:

- **Resource Allocation**
  Decision concerning type and number of available resources

- **Resource Assignment**
  Mapping: Task $\rightarrow$ (Hardware) Resource

- **xx to yy binding:**
  Describes a mapping from behavioral to structural domain, e.g. task to processor binding, variable to memory binding

- **Scheduling**
  Mapping: Tasks $\rightarrow$ Task start times
  Sometimes, resource assignment is considered being included in scheduling.
Classes of mapping algorithms considered in this course

- **Classical scheduling algorithms**
  Mostly for independent tasks & ignoring communication, mostly for mono- and homogeneous multiprocessors

- **Dependent tasks as considered in architectural synthesis**
  Initially designed in different context, but applicable

- **Hardware/software partitioning**
  Dependent tasks, heterogeneous systems, focus on resource assignment

- **Design space exploration using evolutionary algorithms**
  Heterogeneous systems, incl. communication modeling
Real-time scheduling

Assume that we are given a task graph $G=(V,E)$.

**Def.:** A schedule $\tau$ of $G$ is a mapping $V \rightarrow D_t$ of a set of tasks $V$ to start times from domain $D_t$.

Typically, schedules have to respect a number of constraints, incl. resource constraints, dependency constraints, deadlines. **Scheduling** = finding such a mapping.
Hard and soft deadlines

Def.: A time-constraint (deadline) is called **hard** if not meeting that constraint could result in a catastrophe [Kopetz, 1997].

All other time constraints are called **soft**.

We will focus on hard deadlines.
Periodic and aperiodic tasks

Def.: 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**.

Def.: Tasks requesting the processor at unpredictable times are called **sporadic**, if there is a minimum separation between the times at which they request the processor.
Preemptive and non-preemptive scheduling

- **Non-preemptive schedulers:**
  Tasks are executed until they are done.
  Response time for external events may be quite long.
- **Preemptive schedulers:** To be used if
  - some tasks have long execution times or
  - if the response time for external events to be short.
Dynamic/online scheduling

- **Dynamic/online scheduling**: Processor allocation decisions (scheduling) at run-time; based on the information about the tasks arrived so far.
Static/offline scheduling:
Scheduling taking a priori knowledge about arrival times, execution times, and deadlines into account. Dispatcher allocates processor when interrupted by timer. 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>
Time-triggered systems (1)

In an entirely time-triggered system, the temporal control structure of all tasks is established \textit{a priori} by off-line support tools. This temporal control structure is encoded in a \textbf{Task-Descriptor List (TDL)} that contains the cyclic schedule for all activities of the node. This schedule considers the required precedence and mutual exclusion relationships among the tasks such that an explicit coordination of the tasks by the operating system at run time is not necessary. ..

The dispatcher is activated by the synchronized clock tick. It looks at the TDL, and then performs the action that has been planned for this instant [Kopetz].

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Time-triggered systems (2)

... pre-run-time scheduling is often the only practical means of providing predictability in a complex system. [Xu, Parnas].

It can be easily checked if timing constraints are met. The disadvantage is that the response to sporadic events may be poor.
Centralized and distributed scheduling

- **Mono- and multi-processor scheduling:**
  - Simple scheduling algorithms handle single processors,
  - more complex algorithms handle multiple processors.
    - algorithms for homogeneous multi-processor systems
    - algorithms for heterogeneous multi-processor systems
      (includes HW accelerators as special case).

- **Centralized and distributed scheduling:**
  Multiprocessor scheduling either locally on 1 or on several processors.
Schedulability

Set of tasks is **schedulable** under a set of constraints, if a schedule exists for that set of tasks & constraints.

**Exact tests** are NP-hard in many situations.

**Sufficient tests**: sufficient conditions for schedule checked. (Hopefully) small probability of not guaranteeing a schedule even though one exists.

**Necessary tests**: checking necessary conditions. Used to show no schedule exists. There may be cases in which no schedule exists & we cannot prove it.
Cost functions

Cost function: Different algorithms aim at minimizing different functions.

Def.: Maximum lateness = $\max_{\text{all tasks}} (\text{completion time} - \text{deadline})$
Is <0 if all tasks complete before deadline.

$T_1$

$T_2$

Max. lateness

$t$
Classical scheduling algorithms for aperiodic systems

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Aperiodic scheduling:
- 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 \(l_i = d_i - c_i\)
- \(f_i\) be the finishing time.

![Diagram of task availability](attachment:task-availability-diagram.png)
Uniprocessor with equal arrival times

Preemption is useless.

**Earliest Due Date (EDD):** Execute task with earliest due date (deadline) first.

EDD requires all tasks to be sorted by their (absolute) deadlines. Hence, its complexity is $O(n \log(n))$. 
Optimality of EDD

EDD is optimal, since it follows Jackson's rule: Given a set of \( n \) independent tasks, any algorithm that executes the tasks in order of non-decreasing (absolute) deadlines is optimal with respect to minimizing the maximum lateness.

Proof (See Buttazzo, 2002):

- Let \( \tau \) be a schedule produced by any algorithm \( A \).
- If \( A \neq \text{EDD} \) then \( \exists T_a, T_b, d_a \leq d_b, T_b \text{ immediately precedes } T_a \) in \( \tau \).
- Let \( \tau' \) be the schedule obtained by exchanging \( T_a \) and \( T_b \).
Exchanging $T_a$ and $T_b$ cannot increase lateness

Max. lateness for $T_a$ and $T_b$ in $\tau$ is $L_{\text{max}}(a,b) = f_a - d_a$

Max. lateness for $T_a$ and $T_b$ in $\tau'$ is $L'_{\text{max}}(a,b) = \max(L'_a, L'_b)$

Two possible cases

1. $L'_a \geq L'_b$: $\Rightarrow L'_{\text{max}}(a,b) = f'_a - d_a < f_a - d_a = L_{\text{max}}(a,b)$
   since $T_a$ starts earlier in schedule $\tau'$.

2. $L'_a \leq L'_b$: $\Rightarrow L'_{\text{max}}(a,b) = f'_b - d_b = f_a - d_b \leq f_a - d_a = L_{\text{max}}(a,b)$
   since $f_a = f'_b$ and $d_a \leq d_b$

$\therefore L'_{\text{max}}(a,b) \leq L_{\text{max}}(a,b)$
EDD is optimal

Any schedule $\tau$ with lateness $L$ can be transformed into an EDD schedule $\tau^n$ with lateness $L^n \leq L$, which is the minimum lateness.

EDD is optimal (q.e.d.)
Earliest Deadline First (EDF): - Horn’s Theorem -

Different arrival times: Preemption potentially reduces lateness.

**Theorem** [Horn74]: Given a set of $n$ independent tasks with arbitrary arrival times, any algorithm that at any instant executes the task with the earliest absolute deadline among all the ready tasks is optimal with respect to minimizing the maximum lateness.
Earliest Deadline First (EDF): - Algorithm -

Earliest deadline first (EDF) algorithm:
- Each time a new ready task arrives:
  - It is inserted into a queue of ready tasks, sorted by their absolute deadlines. Task at head of queue is executed.
  - If a newly arrived task is inserted at the head of the queue, the currently executing task is preempted.

Straightforward approach with sorted lists (full comparison with existing tasks for each arriving task) requires run-time $O(n^2)$; (less with binary search or bucket arrays).
Earliest Deadline First (EDF): Example -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Arrival</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Deadline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$T_1$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_2$</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_3$</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task arrivals

Earlier deadline preemption

Later deadline no preemption
Optimality of EDF

To be shown: EDF minimizes maximum lateness.

**Proof** (Buttazzo, 2002):

- Let \( \tau \) be a schedule produced by generic schedule \( A \)
- Let \( \tau_{EDF} \): schedule produced by EDF
- Preemption allowed: tasks executed in disjoint time intervals
- \( \tau \) divided into time slices of 1 time unit each
- Time slices denoted by \([t, t+1)\)
- Let \( \tau(t) \): task executing in \([t, t+1)\)
- Let \( E(t) \): task which, at time \( t \), has the earliest deadline
- Let \( t_E(t) \): time \((\geq t)\) at which the next slice of task \( E(t) \) begins its execution in the current schedule
Optimality of EDF (2)

If $\tau \neq \tau_{EDF}$, then there exists time $t$: $\tau(t) \neq E(t)$

Idea: swapping $\tau(t)$ and $E(t)$ cannot increase max. lateness.

If $\tau(t)$ starts at $t=0$ and $D=\max_i\{d_i\}$
then $\tau_{EDF}$ can be obtained from $\tau$ by at most $D$ transpositions

[Buttazzo, 2002]
Optimality of EDF (3)

Algorithm interchange:
{ for (t=0 to D-1) {
   if (τ(t) ≠ E(t)) {
      τ(t_E) = τ(t);
      τ(t) = E(t); }
} }

Using the same argument as in the proof of Jackson’s algorithm, it is easy to show that swapping cannot increase maximum lateness; hence EDF is optimal.

Does interchange preserve schedulability?
1. task E(t) moved ahead: meeting deadline in new schedule if meeting deadline in τ
2. task τ(t) delayed: if τ(t) is feasible, then (t_E+1) ≤ d_E, where d_E is the earliest deadline. Since d_E ≤ d_i for any i, we have t_E+1 ≤ d_i, which guarantees schedulability of the delayed task.

q.e.d.

[Buttazzo, 2002]
Least laxity (LL), Least Slack Time First (LST)

Priorities = decreasing function of the laxity (lower laxity $\rightarrow$ higher priority); changing priority; preemptive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>arrival</th>
<th>duration</th>
<th>deadline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$T_1$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_2$</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_3$</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Laxity calculations:
- $l(T_1) = 33 - 15 - 6 = 12$
- $l(T_2) = 29 - 15 - 2 = 12$
- $l(T_3) = 33 - 13 - 6 = 14$
- $l(T_4) = 33 - 16 - 6 = 11$
- $l(T_5) = 28 - 13 - 2 = 13$
- $l(T_6) = 29 - 16 - 1 = 12$
- $l(T_7) = 29 - 13 - 2 = 14$
Properties

- Not sufficient to call scheduler & re-compute laxity just at task arrival times.
- Overhead for calls of the scheduler.
- Many context switches.
- Detects missed deadlines early.
- LL is also an optimal scheduling for mono-processor systems.
- Dynamic priorities cannot be used with a fixed prio OS.
- LL scheduling requires the knowledge of the execution time.
Scheduling without preemption (1)

Lemma: If preemption is not allowed, optimal schedules may have to leave the processor idle at certain times.

Proof: Suppose: optimal schedulers never leave processor idle.
Scheduling without preemption (2)

\( T_1 \): periodic, \( c_1 = 2, p_1 = 4, d_1 = 4 \)
\( T_2 \): occasionally available at times \( 4*n+1, c_2 = 1, d_2 = 1 \)
\( T_1 \) has to start at \( t = 0 \)

\( \vdash \) deadline missed, but schedule is possible (start \( T_2 \) first)
\( \vdash \) scheduler is not optimal \( \vdash \) contradiction! q.e.d.
Scheduling without preemption

Preemption not allowed: optimal schedules may leave processor idle to finish tasks with early deadlines arriving late.

Knowledge about the future is needed for optimal scheduling algorithms

No online algorithm can decide whether or not to keep idle.

EDF is optimal among all scheduling algorithms not keeping the processor idle at certain times.

If arrival times are known a priori, the scheduling problem becomes NP-hard in general. B&B typically used.
Summary

Definition mapping terms

- Resource allocation, assignment, binding, scheduling
- Hard vs. soft deadlines
- Static vs. dynamic TT-OS
- Schedulability

Classical scheduling

- Aperiodic tasks
  - No precedences
    - Simultaneous (EDD)
    & Asynchronous Arrival Times (EDF, LL)