Dynamic Energy Aware Task Scheduling using Run-Queue Peek

Sachin Pawaskar
University of Nebraska at Omaha, spawaskar@unomaha.edu

Hesham Ali
University of Nebraska at Omaha, hali@unomaha.edu

Follow this and additional works at: http://digitalcommons.unomaha.edu/compsicfacproc

Part of the Computer Sciences Commons

Recommended Citation
http://digitalcommons.unomaha.edu/compsicfacproc/48
Dynamic Energy Aware Task Scheduling using Run-Queue Peek

Sachin Pawaskar and Hesham H. Ali
Department of Computer Science
University of Nebraska at Omaha
Omaha, NE 68182, USA
sachinpawaskar@msn.com | hesham@unomaha.edu

ABSTRACT
Scheduling dependent tasks is one of the most challenging problems in parallel and distributed systems. It is known to be computationally intractable in its general form as well as several restricted cases. An interesting application of scheduling is in the area of energy awareness for mobile battery operated devices where minimizing the energy utilized is the most important scheduling policy consideration. A number of heuristics have been developed for this consideration. In this paper, we study the scheduling problem for a particular battery model. In the proposed work, we show how to enhance a well know approach of accounting for the slack generated at runtime due to the difference between WCET (Worst Case Execution Time) and AET (Actual Execution Time). Our solution exploits the fact that even though some tasks become available based on the actual periodicity of a task they are not executed because the run queue is determined by the schedule generated in the offline phase I of the algorithm using the conservative EDF (Earliest Deadline First) algorithm. We peek at the task run-queue to find such tasks to eliminate wastage of the slack generated. Based on the outcome of the conducted experiments, the proposed algorithm outperformed or matched the performance of the 2-Phase dynamic task scheduling algorithm all the time.

KEY WORDS
Scheduling, Energy Awareness, Heuristics, Parallel Processing, Optimal algorithms.

1. Introduction
Mobile computing has become a reality. Through the Wireless Verification Program, Intel® and leading wireless LAN service providers have verified more than 40,000 hotspots around the world, with more cropping up each day [1]. Mobile technology is continually advancing to keep up with the needs of the mobile user. But as we work to make the ideal mobile experience, we find ourselves up against an inherent struggle between extending battery life and improving mobile performance. Power consumption has been a critical design constraint in the design of digital systems due to widely used portable systems such as cellular phones and PDAs, which require low power consumption with high speed and complex functionality. The design of such systems often involves reprogrammable processors such as microprocessors, microcontrollers, and DSPs in the form of off-the-shelf components or cores. Furthermore, an increasing amount of system functionality tends to be realized through software, which is leveraged by the high performance of modern processors. As a consequence, reduction of the power consumption of processors is important for the power-efficient design of such systems. Battery operated portable devices are widely used in mobile computing and wireless communication applications. Maximizing battery lifetime is the most important design consideration for such systems. Since the amount of energy delivered by the battery depends on the discharge current profile, the battery life can be extended by controlling the discharge current level and shape [2, 3].

Broadly, there are two kinds of methods to reduce power consumption of processors. The first is to bring a processor into a power-down mode, where only certain parts of the processor such as the clock generation and timer circuits are kept running when the processor is in an idle state. Most power-down modes have a tradeoff between the amount of power saving and the latency incurred during mode change. Therefore, for an application where latency cannot be tolerated, such as for a real-time system, the applicability of power-down may be restricted. Another method is to dynamically change the processor speed by varying the clock frequency along with the supply voltage when the required performance on the processor is lower than the maximum performance. A significant power reduction can be obtained by this method because the dynamic power of a CMOS circuit is quadratically dependent on the supply voltage [3]. In recent years there has been a significant amount of work done on studying battery characteristics and using these characteristics to shape the discharge profile. Most of the earlier work for battery-aware task scheduling has been for static tasks where complete information about the tasks is known apriori [2]. In this paper we propose an enhanced algorithm for the dynamic energy aware task scheduling problem.

2. Energy Aware Scheduling
Scheduling is a classical field with several interesting problems and results. Due to its wide range of applications, the scheduling problem has been attracting many researchers from a number of fields. A scheduling
problem emerges whenever there is a choice. The choice could be the order in which a number of tasks can be performed, and/or in the assignment of tasks for processing.

The problem is to determine some sequences of these operations that are preferred according to certain (e.g. economic) criteria. The problem of discovering these preferred sequences is referred to as the sequencing problem. Over the years, several methods have been used to deal with the sequencing problem such as complete enumeration, heuristic rules, integer programming, and sampling methods. It is clear that complete enumeration is impractical because the problem is exponential, which means that it requires too much time, sometimes years of computation time would be required even for a small number of tasks. Hence optimal solutions cannot be obtained in real time [4, 5]. However, many heuristic methods have been used to deal with most general case of the problem. Such methods include traditional priority-based algorithms [6], task merging techniques [7], critical path heuristics [6, 8]. In addition, distributed algorithms have been designed to address different versions of the scheduling problem [9].

In general, the scheduling problem assumes a set of resources and a set of consumers serviced by these resources according to a certain policy. Based on the nature of and the constraints on the consumers and the resources, the problem is to find an efficient policy (schedule) for managing the access to and the use of the resources by various consumers to optimize some desired performance measure such as the total service time (schedule length).

Energy Aware Scheduling is a special case of the general scheduling problem in which our scheduling policy is the optimization of the energy or power of the battery. Minimizing the battery power utilization becomes the most important consideration in a system that is energy aware, at the same time one must realize that along with this there are certain parameters that must be met such as tasks meeting their deadlines.

Simply put an Energy Aware Scheduling System is a scheduling problem which assumes a set of resources and a set of consumers serviced by these resources according to a Energy Aware policy. Based on the nature of and the constraints on the consumers and the resources, the problem is to find an efficient policy (schedule) for managing the access to and the use of the resources by various consumers to optimize the desired performance measure which in this case is minimum amount of battery energy. Accordingly, an Energy Aware scheduling system can be considered as consisting of a set of consumers, a set of resources, and an Energy Aware scheduling policy as shown in the Figure 1 above. Clearly, there is a fundamental similarity to scheduling problems regardless of the difference in the nature of the tasks and the environment.

3. Scheduling Model

There are several models for which different algorithms have been proposed. We take look at one such model, discuss the scheduling algorithm proposed for this model, its variations and finally present our improvement for scheduling on this model. Let us understand the basic characteristics of this Model.
1. The model assumes fixed priority scheduling.
2. The model is for a real time system, in which task deadlines must be met.

The system configuration for the battery-operated processor under consideration is described in Figure 2. The system consists of one DVS processor driven by a single battery. The battery is used to power the processor through a DC-DC converter. The DC-DC converter has an efficiency \( \eta = \frac{V_{\text{proc}}}{V_{\text{batt}}} \cdot \frac{I_{\text{proc}}}{I_{\text{batt}}} \), where \( V_{\text{batt}} \) and \( I_{\text{batt}} \) are the battery voltage and current and \( V_{\text{proc}} \) and \( I_{\text{proc}} \) are the processor voltage and current.

Non-linear properties of the battery:
There are several important properties of the battery with respect to voltage scaling that have been derived from the analytical model. We present two of the properties used for developing the real-time scheduling heuristics [10], [2]:

**Property 1**: For a fixed voltage assignment (only task start times can be changed), sequencing tasks in the non-increasing order of their currents is optimal when the task loads are constant during the execution of the task.

**Property 2**: Given a pair of two identical tasks in the profile and a delay slack to be utilized by voltage downsampling, it is always better to use the slack on the later task than on an earlier task.

**Task description**: A given task \( k \) is associated with the following parameters: the current \( I_k \), the worst case execution time \( WECT_k \), the arrival time \( a_k \), the start time \( t_k \), the actual execution time \( AET_k \), the deadline \( d_k \) and the period \( P_k \). The slack associated with a task is due to two
factors: (1) the inherent slack due to the difference between the deadline and the WCET and (2) the slack generated due to the actual execution time being less than the worst case execution time (Figure 3).

![Figure 3: Task description](image)

**Power-Down Modes:**
In most embedded systems, a processor often waits for some events from its environment, wasting its power. To reduce the waste, modern processors are often equipped with various levels of power modes. In the case of the PowerPC 603 processor [11], there are four power modes, which can be selected by setting the appropriate control bits in a register. Each mode is associated with a level of power saving and delay overhead. For example, in *sleep mode*, where only the PLL and clock are kept running, power consumption drops to 5% of full power mode with about 10 clock cycles delay to return to full power mode. In the conventional approach employed in most portable computers, a processor enters power-down mode after it stays in an idle state for a predefined time interval. Since the processor still wastes its energy while in the idle state, this approach fails to obtain a large reduction in energy when the idle interval occurs intermittently and its length is short. In [12, 13], the length of the next idle period is predicted based on a history of processor usage. The predicted value becomes the metric to determine whether it is beneficial to enter power-down modes or not. This method focuses on event driven applications such as user-interfaces because latency, which arises when the predicted value does not match the actual value, can be tolerated. However, we need an exact value instead of a predicted value for the next idle period when we are to apply the power-down modes in a hard real-time system, which is possible in the LPFPS.

4. **Overview of Previous Work**
C. Chakrabarti and J. Ahmed [2] enhanced the algorithm proposed by Y. Shin and K. Choi [3] by extending the algorithm to account for the slack generated at runtime due to the difference between WCET and AET (Actual Execution Time). They proposed an algorithm which had 2 Phases. The basic idea of the algorithms in this model is to exploit the slacks generated to reduce the voltage levels of the tasks, so that the battery charge consumed or the drop in voltage is minimized. The algorithm operates in two phases.

1. **Phase I:** Off-line task scheduling algorithm using WCET.
2. **Phase II:** On-line algorithm using AET.

In Phase I the tasks are assumed to be executed at their WCETs. A schedule is determined for one hyper-period (defined as the least common multiple of the periods of all the tasks in the task set). In Phase II (on-line), the slack generated due to the AET being less than the WCET, is used to further scale the voltage levels of the tasks.

**Phase I:** The off-line scheduling algorithm is based on a paper presented by the same co-authors [10]; it determines the task ordering and the voltage level of each instance of a task in a hyper-period. Applying WCETs in this phase guarantees that the tasks meet their deadline. This is done in two steps.

**Step 1:** Obtain a feasible schedule by using the earliest deadline first algorithm.
**Step 2:** Utilize the available slack by voltage down scaling as much as possible starting from the end of the profile.

**Phase II:** During operation of the system, the AET of a task could be a lot smaller than its WCET. It is suggested that it is best to use the slack as late as possible; which is achieved by a process called as slack forwarding. Slack forwarding is based on the observation that slack generated by early completion of a task can be made available to a later task if the later task is released prior to the time at which the slack originated.

1. **WCET Schedule.**
2. **WCET Schedule with full slack forwarding.**
3. **WCET Schedule with partial slack forwarding.**
4. **WCET Schedule with no partial slack forwarding.**

Consider two tasks $T_1$ and $T_2$ and let us assume WCET for the tasks. Task $T_1$ starts at $t_1$ and finishes at $t_2$ and $T_2$ starts at $t_3$ and finishes at $t_4$, as shown in Figure 4(a). Suppose $T_1$ actually finishes earlier at time $t_5$ generating a slack of $(t_4 - t_5)$. All of this slack is available to $T_2$ if its arrival time is at $t_6$ or before, as depicted in Figure 4(b). If the task $T_2$ was released at $t_6$, only a part of the generated slack is available to $T_2$, as shown in Figure 4(c). If the task $T_2$ was released at $t_7$ none of the generated slack is
available to T₂ as shown in the Figure 4(d). Thus the
decision of slack forwarding can be made by inspecting
the arrival time of the subsequent task to be executed.
Figure 5 provides the pseudo-code for the on-line
algorithm. The input to the online-algorithm consists of
ordering of tasks as well as their voltage levels based
WCET. The purpose of this algorithm is to readjust the
voltage level of the task based on additional slack. The
basic steps are as follows. After the completion of a task,
the scheduler gets the next task from the run queue. The
finish time of the task is estimated based on the voltage
level determined in Phase I. If the finish time is before the
release time of the next task in the queue, the voltage
level of the task is readjusted.

\[
\text{Input: Phase I schedule based on EDF algorithm}
\]
\[
\text{Repeat for Every Task}
\]
\[
\text{Get the scaling level of the next task } T_i
\]
\[
\begin{cases}
\text{Wait} & \text{if the task is not available (Current time } < \text{ Task start time)} \\
\text{Else} & \begin{cases}
\text{if (finish time of task } T_i < \text{ release time of task } T_{i+1}) & \text{Update the scaling level to absorb the slack}
\end{cases}
\end{cases}
\]
\[
\text{Execute the task}
\]

\text{Figure 5: Pseudo-Code for On-line Phase II}

\text{Example: Consider the three tasks given in Table 1 which is}
\text{reproduced below. Rate monotonic priority assignment is}
\text{a natural choice because periods } (P_i) \text{ are equal to}
\text{deadlines } (D_i). \text{Priorities are assigned in row order as}
\text{shown in the fifth column of the Table 1. Note that this is}
\text{the same example from the original algorithm 1 by Y.Shin}
\text{and K. Choi [3]; which is being adapted to show the}
\text{incremental improvement done by Chakrabarti and J.}
\text{Ahmed [2].}

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\textbf{Task} & \textbf{$P_i$} & \textbf{$D_i$} & \textbf{Priority} \\
\hline
\text{T}_1 & 50 & 50 & 10 & 1 \\
\text{T}_2 & 80 & 80 & 20 & 2 \\
\text{T}_3 & 100 & 100 & 40 & 3 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{table}

\text{Let us consider the task set in [3] represented by the Table}
\text{above. There are three tasks with periods 50, 80 and 100
minutes. The hyper-period is 400 minutes (L.C.M of 50,
80 and 100). The set of operating voltages considered
during voltage scaling is } S_v = \{3.3, 3.0, 2.7, 2.5, 2.0\}
\text{volts. Figure 6(c) shows the final task profile with the}
\text{improved algorithm after each phase as well as that}
generated with the low power fixed priority algorithm in
[3].

5. Proposed Solution: Task Run-Queue Peek
We realized that some online slack could be potentially
wasted in the algorithm proposed by C. Chakrabarti and J.
Ahmed [2] due to the fact that even though some tasks
become available based on the actual periodicity of a task
they are not executed because the run queue is determined
by the schedule generated in Phase I; which uses the EDF
algorithm based on the WCET of the tasks and we already
know that this is a very safe yet conservative approach.

\text{Motivation: Our solution exploits the fact that even}
though some tasks become available based on the actual
periodicity of a task they are not executed because the run
queue is determined by the schedule generated in the
offline phase I of the algorithm using the conservative
EDF (Earliest Deadline First) algorithm. We peek at the
task run-queue to find such tasks and schedule them for
execution if possible based on the knowledge of the
available slack and the arrival on the next task. This helps
in minimizing the wastage of the generated slack.

\text{Considering the same set of tasks as described in}
[2, 3] and shown here in Table 1., this waste of slack can
be observed at time } t=80 \text{ even though } T_2 \text{ becomes
available as per the periodicity of the task it is not}
executed because the run queue determined by the Offline
phase has } T_1 \text{ as the next task. We also notice that } T_2 \text{ can
be easily completed before } T_1 \text{ whose next earliest start
time is } t=100; \text{ because } T_2 \text{ has WCET execution time of 20
and since it starts at time } t=80 \text{ we have a timeframe of
(100 – 80) = 20 available for execution.}

\text{A similar yet slightly different situation occurs at}
time } t=240, \text{ where even though } T_2 \text{ becomes available as
per the periodicity of the task it is not executed in [2]
because the run queue determined by the Offline phase
has } T_1 \text{ as the next task at } t=250. \text{ We also notice that } T_2
\text{ cannot be easily completed before } T_1 \text{ whose next earliest
start time is } t=250; \text{ because } T_2 \text{ has WCET execution time
of 20 and since it starts at time } t=240 \text{ we have a timeframe of
(250 – 240) = 10 available for execution. But a simple task look-ahead shows that to execute both
} T_1 \text{ and } T_2 \text{ we have a total time of (240-300) = 60 and the
WCET for each is 10 and 20 respectively; a total duration
WCET of 30; which tells us that scheduling } T_2 \text{ now will
not cause us to miss the deadline for } T_1 \text{ and that both}
tasks can be executed within the available time of 60.
To avoid this waste, we enhance the algorithm such that the original start time for each periodic task is fed to the algorithm as input. Figure 7 shows the final task profile with our algorithm as well as those generated by [2] and with the low power fixed priority algorithm [3]. Since we further scale down the voltage and make more use of online slack we expect our algorithm to perform better compared to [2] and [3]. (This will be proven later by simulation experiments).

The pseudo-code for the proposed algorithm is shown in Figure 8. It is important to keep the time complexity of the online phase of the algorithm to a minimum for obvious reasons. It should be noted here that we do not add any additional time complexity to the online phase in the proposed algorithm as we only check to see if tasks are available based on their original periodicity and if these can be scheduled in the slack time before the next task becomes available based on the Phase I EDF schedule. This can easily be accomplished in constant time which is O(1) and hence there is no increase in the time complexity of the algorithm. Another important point to note if we do schedule a task earlier based on the reasoning above, we have to remove this task from the Phase I schedule or mark it as complete to make sure that we do not re-execute the task again.

Input: Phase I schedule and original task periodicity
Repeat for Every Task
Get the scaling level of the next task Ti based on Phase I schedule
If the task is not available (Current time < Task T, start time)
   {  
      if (original task periodicity shows a task Ti is available earlier) and
         (start time of Ti – T, ≥ WCET of T, or (T, ≤ – T, ≥ WCET T, + WCET T,))
         Schedule task T, and remove it from Phase I schedule
      else
         Wait
   }
Else
   {  
      if (finish time of task T, < release time of task T,)
         Update the scaling level to absorb the slack
   }
Execute the task

```
Figure 7: Task scheduling using proposed algorithm, LPPPS [3] and 2-Phase algorithm [2]
```

```
Figure 8: Pseudo-Code for proposed algorithm
```

### 6. Implementation and Results

To show the effectiveness of our algorithm we ran experiments on the proposed algorithm and the algorithm in [2]. Multiple task sets were used; which we shall call each task set as a test case. The tasks were randomly generated in a set of 3-tuple. Each task has a periodicity between 1 and 10 units. The deadlines of the tasks were made equal to that of their periods. The WCET for a task was randomly chosen between 0 and the period of the task. All the test cases where the task set was not schedulable were dropped. We assume that the AET of the tasks is drawn from a random Gaussian distribution with mean, denoted by μ, and standard deviation denoted by σ, given by the following equation [Eq1] and where BCET is assumed to be 0.1 time the WCET.

\[ \mu = WCET + BCET / 2 \]

\[ \sigma = WCET – BCET / 6 \rightarrow Eq1 \]

We assumed a continuous operating voltage for the system. The set of operating voltages considered during voltage scaling is \( S_v = \{3.3, 3.0, 2.7, 2.5, 2.0\} \) volts. Figure 9 below show performance improvements of our proposed approach and the algorithm in [2]. It is clear from the plot the proposed algorithm consistently results in a better battery performance for most cases, in no case does it perform worse. Note that we use a similar technique as in [2, 3] to generate our tasks, to have a high degree of confidence in our conclusions.

```
Figure 9: Performance improvement
```

Most of the Energy Aware Scheduling Algorithms designed so far use WCET to compute the workloads in the offline phase. In general most tasks complete between BCET and WCET. In fact; it is a well known that most tasks complete well before WCET. We propose to exploit this knowledge to our advantage and propose that instead of computing workload at WCET, we use information regarding expected execution time (EET).

Expected Execution Time (EET) may be computed in several ways; one way to compute this would be based on Actual Execution Time (AET) in the
previous hyper-period, another approach could be average of all previous AET for that task, so on and so forth. An important aspect of this approach is that at runtime depending on AET we may have some tasks completing in time greater than EET and some less than EET. This could potentially lead to deadline violations; which we need to resolve.

**Approaches to compute Expected Execution Time**

1. **Conservative Approach**: Expected Execution Time is computed conservatively so that it is closer to WCET. This approach has a lower propensity for deadline violations; which need to be resolved.

2. **Risky Approach**: Expected Execution Time is computed quite generously so that it is closer to BCET. This approach has a higher propensity for deadline violations; which need to be resolved.

7. **Conclusions**

In this paper we proposed an enhanced dynamic task scheduling algorithm using task run-queue peek technique for battery operated DVS systems that further maximize the residual charge and the battery voltage. This algorithm has a better battery performance compared to the other algorithms. Our proposed enhancement provides on average an improvement of approximately 10% over the original approach. The performance gains vary from 6% to 15% over all the test cases. An important consideration in real time systems is time complexity of the additional steps to get these performance gains. Our proposed solution steps have an overall time complexity $O(1)$ which adds only negligible processing time.

Our future research will focus on using the information regarding expected execution time (EET) instead of WCET because WCET is a very conservative approach used in the Off-line Phase to schedule tasks. We intend to explore both the suggested approaches of computing EET namely conservative and risky and study their performance relative to each other.

**References**


[7] Peter Aronsson and Peter Fritzson: Task Merging and Replication using Graph Rewriting, Tenth International Workshop on Compilers for Parallel Computers, Amsterdam, the Netherlands, Jan 8-10, 2003


