Quantifying the Effect of Period Ratios on Schedulability of Rate Monotonic

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we study the effect of period ratio and utilization of the tasks on the schedulability of rate monotonic (RM) in uni-processor systems with preemptive periodic or sporadic tasks. By quantifying this effect, we show that there exist other task sets (other than harmonic tasks in which each period is an integer multiple of the smaller periods) which are RM-friendly, i.e., they can be scheduled by RM up to 100% utilization. Furthermore, in order to quantify non-RM-friendly task sets, we derive a necessary schedulability test for RM. Our results can be used as a set of design hints for system designers during the parameter assignment phase where periods are assigned. We also show how our results can be used to reduce the computational cost of the schedulability analysis if particular properties hold between the periods. From theoretical perspective, our work improves the understanding about outputs of different random task set generation methods. We provide examples to show how the hidden effect of period ratio may lead to an inaccurate judgment about RM schedulability.

1. INTRODUCTION

Rate monotonic (RM) is a widely used scheduling algorithm which has been implemented in many real-time operating systems. It is known that RM is not able to schedule many feasible task sets which can potentially be scheduled by the earliest deadline first (EDF) scheduling algorithm [15]. So far, schedulability analysis of RM has been studied in a number of researches by introducing utilization-based tests such as [15], the exact test [1], approximation tests [5, 10], or sufficient tests [18]. These works try to distinguish a schedulable task set from a non-schedulable one, yet they are limited in terms of providing a deeper knowledge about the behavior of the rate monotonic itself.

In [11], it has been shown that if periods are harmonic, i.e., each period is an integer multiple of the smaller periods, then RM can schedule task sets up to 100% utilization. Harmonic task sets have been widely used in industries. Also there are several works showing how to construct harmonic periods from a given set of initial period values [11, 13] or from a given range [16]. However, harmonic task sets are not the only type of RM-friendly task sets, i.e., task sets that can be scheduled by RM up to 100% utilization. In [14] a stochastic analysis has been performed to show that when the period ratio approaches to infinity, the maximum schedulable utilization reaches to 1. Both of these results have motivated us to explicitly consider the role of period ratios on RM schedulability.

The timing parameters of a task set are usually described by the period (or the minimum inter-arrival time) and the worst-case execution time (WCET) of the tasks. In this paper, we focus on sporadic task sets with implicit deadlines. During our preliminary experiments we have noticed that the ratio between consecutive periods (assuming periods are sorted in an ascending order) has a significant effect on RM schedulability. Fig. 1 shows the schedulability ratio of randomly generated task sets as a function of the maximum and minimum consecutive period ratio (CPR), denoted by $K^\text{max}$ and $K^\text{min}$, respectively. We have generated the periods with the following rule $T_i = aT_{i-1}$ where $a$ is a random value with uniform distribution which is selected from a range. In Fig. 1-(a), $a \in [1, K^\text{max}]$ and in Fig. 1-(b), $a \in [K^\text{min}, 4]$. Here $T_{i-1}$ denotes period of the previous task assuming that tasks are indexed by their period and $T_1$ is the smallest period. Fig. 1 shows a strong relation between period ratio and schedulability. In this experiment, we have used the exact schedulability test [1] for determining schedulable task sets.

In this paper, we quantify the effect of timing parameters of the task set on the schedulability of RM. For this aim, we adopt some of the existing schedulability tests for RM and use them to describe the schedulability as a function of period ratio, period residual, and utilization of the tasks, where period residual is the residual part of dividing one period by another. We show that if the average period ratio is large or the residual values are either small or large, the chance that the task set is schedulable by RM is significantly high. We identify some other RM-friendly task sets based on period ratio. Furthermore, in order to identify non-RM-friendly task sets, we derive a necessary schedulability test for RM. We also show how our results can be used to reduce the computational cost of the exact schedulability analysis if particular properties hold between the periods.

Results of our work can be used by the designer/integrator of the system in order to assign parameters in an RM-friendly way. Doing so, less iterations over the whole design process are needed until the designer reaches to a schedulable set of parameters. Thus, we can reduce both time and cost of the design of large systems with large number of tasks. Moreover, our work can be used to design more efficient task partitioning algorithms for multiprocessor systems.

Knowing how RM schedulability will be affected by the timing parameters of the tasks, we will be able to design more fair experiments when we evaluate performance of the schedulability tests. Also we will have more accurate interpretation of the results. Using the diagram in Fig. 2-(a) we show how lack of this knowledge may lead to an unrealistic conclusion about RM schedulability. In this diagram, we have used the same period assignment method suggested by [3], i.e., the periods have been selected from range [1,
2. SYSTEM MODEL AND NOTATIONS

We consider a preemptive uni-processor system with a set of \( n \) independent periodic or sporadic tasks. The task set is denoted by \( \tau = \{ \tau_1, \tau_2, \ldots, \tau_n \} \). Each task \( \tau_i \), \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), is identified by \( \tau_i : (C_i, T_i) \), where \( C_i \in \mathbb{R} \) is the worst-case execution time (WCET) and \( T_i \in \mathbb{R} \) is the minimum inter-arrival time (called period). We consider implicit deadlines, i.e., deadline of the task is equal to its period. The system utilization is denoted by \( U = \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i \) where \( u_i = C_i/T_i \) is the utilization of task \( \tau_i \). The hyperperiod is the least common multiple (LCM) of the periods. The tasks are indexed according to their period so that \( T_1 \leq T_2 \leq \ldots \leq T_n \).

Our work is focused on RM, a fixed priority scheduling algorithm in which priorities are monotonic with \( 1/T_i \). A set of sporadic tasks is schedulable by RM if the worst-case response time (WCRT) of each task is not greater than its deadline. The WCRT of \( \tau_i \) can be obtained when all high priority tasks are released synchronously with the release of \( \tau_i \) and they are activated periodically.

Next, we define relative period ratio and its components.

**Definition 1.** Relative period ratio (RPR) of two tasks \( \tau_i \) and \( \tau_j \) \((1 \leq j < i \leq n)\) is denoted by \( K_{i,j} \) as

\[
K_{i,j} = k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j} = \frac{T_i}{T_j}
\]  

(1)

where \( k_{i,j} = \lfloor T_i/T_j \rfloor \) is called the base and \( \gamma_{i,j} = T_i/T_j - \lfloor T_i/T_j \rfloor \) is called the residual. Notice that \( \gamma_{i,j} \in [0, 1) \).

If in Definition 1 we have \( i = j + 1 \), namely, \( \tau_i \) and \( \tau_j \) are two consecutive tasks in the task set, \( K_{i,i-1} \) represents the consecutive period ratio (CPR). The period ratio of the task set is defined as \( K_{\text{min}} = \min\{ K_{i,i-1} \}_{i=2}^{n} \). The task set is harmonic if \( \forall i, 1 < i \leq n, K_{i,i-1} \in \mathbb{N} \). If for two tasks \( \tau_i \) and \( \tau_j \) \((T_i \leq T_j)\), \( \gamma_{i,j} = 0 \), their period is harmonic. Based on this property, we define the set of harmonic tasks with priority higher than or equal to \( \tau_i \) as

**Definition 2.** The set of harmonic tasks with task \( \tau_i \) is denoted by \( h_i \) and defined as

\[
h_i = \{ \tau_j | \gamma_{i,j} = 0, 1 \leq j < i \} \]  

(2)

1 More experiments are available in our technical report [17] with a uniform distribution. As it can be seen, by the increase in the number of tasks while keeping the utilization 0.9, the schedulability tends to 0. One may interpret the result as “RM is unable to schedule task sets with large number of tasks in 90% utilization". However, by looking at the result as "RM is unable to schedule task sets with large number of tasks in 90% utilization". Moreover, our technical report [17] with total sum 0.9. For each data point, 20,000 task sets have been generated with different number of tasks shown in the horizontal axis. (a) shows schedulability ratio and (b) shows \( K_{\text{max}} \), \( K_{\text{min}} \) and average CPR.
3. MOTIVATIONS

In the pioneer work of Liu and Layland [15], it has been shown that the hardest-to-schedule implicit deadline task set for RM has the following properties: a) $T_1 < T_2 < \ldots < T_n \leq 2T_1$, and b) $C_i = T_{i+1} - T_i$, $1 \leq i < n$, and $C_n = 2T_1 - T_n$. The first condition means that $K_{i,1} < 2$, $\forall i; 1 < i \leq n$. Ironically, however, the hardest-to-schedule task set is the fastest to be checked by the exact schedulability test. According to [14], if for every task $\tau_i$ we can find a value $t \leq T_i$ that satisfies the following inequality, the task set (defined in Sect. 2) is schedulable

$$t \geq C_i + \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \left( \frac{t}{T_j} \right) C_j$$

In order to apply the exact schedulability test for the hardest-to-schedule task set, we need to verify only one time instant per task, i.e., $t = T_i - \epsilon$ where $\epsilon$ is a small positive number. This observation motivates us to investigate the relation between the computational complexity of the exact schedulability test and the period ratio of the tasks.

Values of $t$ which must be checked in (3) are limited to the integer multiples of periods of the higher priority tasks than $\tau_i$ because the right-hand-side of the equation varies only when $t = aT_j$ where $a \in \mathbb{N}$ and $aT_j \leq T_i$. Following the work of Lehoczky et al., [14], we obtain an upper-bound on the computational complexity of the exact analysis. The following formula counts the number of jobs of high priority tasks within the period of $\tau_i$ for which (3) must be checked

$$\theta_i = \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} k_{i,j} \Rightarrow \theta_i \leq (i-1)k_{i,1} \leq (i-1)k_{n,1}$$

where $k_{i,j}$ represents the maximum number of jobs of any task $\tau_j$ within one release of $\tau_i$. Since periods are sorted, we have $k_{i,j} \leq k_{i,1} \leq k_{n,1}$ which means that for each task such as $\tau_i$, and for each high priority task such as $\tau_j$, $(j < i)$, we need to verify at most $k_{n,1}$ time instants. In order to evaluate the schedulability of the task set, we must verify the schedulability of each task $\tau_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, which means that we will have

$$\theta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} (i-1)k_{n,1}$$

which implies that

$$\theta \leq k_{n,1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (i-1) \leq k_{n,1} \times \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \leq k_{n,1} \times n^2$$

Since for each point we must verify (3) which has a complexity of $O(n)$, the final complexity will be $O(k_{n,1} \times n^3)$.

If the maximum ratio between the largest and smallest periods is limited to a reasonable number, the computational complexity of the exact test will remain polynomial-time. This observation justifies why the exact schedulability test for rate monotonic performs very well in practice. In some works, e.g. some experiments in [8], periods have been selected randomly from a fixed range such as $[100, 500]$ or $[100, 300]$, and hence, $k_{n,1}$ will be at most 5 in the generated task sets. Thus, even if the task set has 50 tasks, the maximum number of values which must be checked in (3) would be less than a million. Today’s computers can easily perform this evaluation in a reasonably short amount of time. On the other hand, if $k_{n,1}$ is an exponential value with respect to $n$, for example, imagine that $k_{n,1} \approx 2^n$ (that may happen if the periods have a wide range from a millisecond to tens of seconds), we may have exponential number of operations to verify the schedulability. However, interestingly, we have observed that the schedulability ratio of a task set with large CPR is meaningfully higher than those with small CPR. As it is shown in Fig. 1-(a), with the increase in CPR, the schedulability ratio increases significantly even in high utilizations.

When CPR increases, the ratio between the largest and the smallest period in the system increases as well. It, in turn, increases the duration of time where the decisions made by RM will be the same as EDF for each task. For example, if $T_1 = 2$ and $T_2 = 49$, then for about 47 units of time, EDF and RM both prioritize jobs of $\tau_1$ over the job of $\tau_2$. It means that the duration of time where RM takes optimal decisions (those that do not threaten the schedulability of $\tau_2$) will be increased to 47 over 49 units of time. Moreover, if $u_1 + u_2$ is not a relatively large number, the chance that WCRT of $\tau_2$ happens after time 48 when the latest job of $\tau_1$ is released, decreases.

From another perspective, quantifying the effect of period ratio on RM schedulability helps us to have a better
understanding about the results of different task set generation methods. One example is shown in Fig. 2 where periods are selected from a fixed range (e.g., in papers such as [3,8]) while the number of tasks selected from that range was increasing. If instead of decreasing average CPR (in Fig. 2-(b)), we could have a relatively fixed average CPR, then we had totally different diagram as shown in Fig. 3-(a) (note that these figures show the result of exact RM schedulability test). This time, we have fixed the average CPR, however, since with the increase in the number of tasks, the average task utilization decreases, utilization of each task reduces as well, and hence, we will have task sets with small \( u_i \) values (as shown in Fig. 3-(c)). In this case, \( C_t \) is small and hence, most of the tasks can be finished early. As a result, the adverse effect of prioritizing a job with smaller period over a job with an earlier deadline will not cause deadline misses for low priority tasks.

By quantifying the above mentioned effects on the RM schedulability, we will be able to provide design hints for system designers when they configure the system. Consequently, the number of iterations needed to achieve a schedulable configuration will reduce since the chance that the system is already schedulable is higher. Moreover, we are interested to derive conditions which help to reduce the computational cost of schedulability analysis, e.g., by identifying the cases where amortized cost of verifying schedulability of a task will be \( O(1) \). This also helps system designers to reduce the time required to find the best configuration.

4. THE EFFECT OF PERIOD RATIO

In this section, we study the effect of period ratio on RM schedulability. First we show the effect of base period ratio, i.e., \( k_{i,j} \), and then we discuss the effect of residual, i.e., \( \gamma_{i,j} \).

4.1 The Effect of Base Period Ratio

Under the RM scheduling algorithm, the exact WCRT of a task such as \( \tau_i \) is the minimum \( t \geq C_t \) which satisfies (3). \( \tau_i \) is schedulable if \( t \leq T_i \). In some works such as [18] a sufficient schedulability test is used that only verifies the schedulability in a certain set of points in time, i.e., \( t \in \{ A_{1i}, A_{2i}, \ldots, A_{ni}\} \) where

\[
A_{i,j} = \left[ \frac{T_i}{T_j} \right] T_j
\]

In order to quantify the relation between the schedulability and the period ratio, we consider \( t = T_i \) and replace it in (3). The following inequality presents a sufficient schedulability condition for \( \tau_i \)

\[
T_i \geq C_t + \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \left[ \frac{T_i}{T_j} \right] C_j
\]

In the next step, we replace \( T_i/T_j \) in (7) by its equivalent value from (1) as \( T_i \geq C_t + \sum_{1 \leq j < i} |k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j}| C_j \) which leads to

\[
T_i \geq \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \frac{(k_{i,j} + 1) C_j}{\tau_j} + \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \frac{k_{i,j} C_j}{\gamma_{i,j}}
\]

where \( k_{i,i} = 1 \) by definition. Next, we divide (8) by \( T_i \)

\[
1 \geq \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \frac{(k_{i,j} + 1) C_j}{T_i} + \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \frac{k_{i,j} C_j}{T_i}
\]

Using (1) we replace \( T_i \) with \( (k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j}) T_j \) in (9) as follows

\[
1 \geq \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \frac{(k_{i,j} + 1)}{\gamma_{i,j} + k_{i,j}} \frac{u_j}{\tau_j} + \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \frac{u_j}{\gamma_{i,j} + k_{i,j}}
\]

Note that since in the second summation in (9) we have \( \tau_j \in h_i \), for every task \( \tau_j \), residual is zero, i.e., \( \gamma_{i,j} = 0 \). Hence, by replacing \( T_i \) with \( (k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j}) T_j \), only \( k_{i,j} T_j \) remains in the denominator. Next we simplify (10) by replacing \( k_{i,j} + 1 \) with \( k_{i,j} + 1 + \gamma_{i,j} - \gamma_{i,j} \) which implies

\[
1 \geq \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \frac{1 - \gamma_{i,j}}{k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j}} \frac{u_j}{\tau_j} + \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \frac{u_j}{\gamma_{i,j} + k_{i,j}}
\]

The resulting (11) is a function of the tasks’ utilization, as well as the base and the residual of the period ratio. As it can be observed in (11), the only tasks with extra negative effect on the schedulability of \( \tau_i \) are those which are not harmonic with the period of \( \tau_i \). This observation is consistent with the results of [13] where it has been shown that to analyze the schedulability of a task set which has \( m \) harmonic chains, it is enough to consider each chain as one task (note that a harmonic chain is a set of tasks with harmonic periods). Consequently, the number of substantial tasks which must be considered in the schedulability analysis reduces to \( m \).

Next we quantify the effect of base period ratio on the schedulability of \( \tau_i \). For this aim, we plot \( \alpha_{i,j} \) for different values of \( k_{i,j} \) from 1 to 5, where

\[
\alpha_{i,j} = \frac{1 - \gamma_{i,j}}{k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j}}
\]

As it can be seen in Fig. 4, for any value of \( k_{i,j} \), the maximum value of \( \alpha_{i,j} \) appears at \( \gamma_{i,j} \approx 0 \) because this function is strictly decreasing in the range \( \gamma_{i,j} \in [0,1) \). In fact, \( \alpha_{i,j} \) can be interpreted as a multiplier which shows the adverse effect of the utilization of \( \tau_i \) on the schedulability of \( \tau_i \). For example, if \( k_{i,j} = 3 \), the maximum value of \( \alpha_{i,j} \) will be 0.33, which means that in the worst-case, \( \tau_j \) adversely adds 33% of its \( u_j \) to the total sum of the right-hand-side of (11). However, with the increase in \( k_{i,j} \), this effect becomes smaller.

**Theorem 1.** Given task set \( \tau \) defined in Sect. 2 and \( K^{\text{min}} \) which is the minimum consecutive period ratio (defined in
Sect. 2), a task such as $\tau_i$ is schedulable if
\[ 1 - \sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} u_j \geq \sum_{1 \leq j < i, \tau_j \notin h_i} \frac{u_j}{(K_{\text{min}})^{i-j}} \] (13)

Proof. If the minimum period ratio between every two consecutive tasks is at least $K_{\text{min}}$, it means that $k_{i,j} \geq (K_{\text{min}})^{i-j}$. As shown in Fig. 4, the $\alpha_i$ function is strictly decreasing and its maximum value is at $\gamma_{i,j} = 0$, which implies $\alpha_{i,j} = 1/k_{i,j}$, hence, the fraction $(\alpha_{i,j})$ in (11) can be replaced by $1/k_{i,j}$. Thus, based on the fact that $k_{i,j} \geq (K_{\text{min}})^{i-j}$, (11) can be simplified to (13) which proves the claim. \hfill \Box

For example, if $K_{\text{min}}$ is 4 and we have $\forall j, 1 \leq j < i; \tau_j \notin h_i$, then (13) will be
\[ \frac{u_{i-1}}{4} + \frac{u_{i-2}}{4^2} + \ldots + \frac{u_1}{4^{i-1}} + \sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} u_j \leq 1 \] (14)

In the next step, we show that with the increase in $K_{\text{min}}$, the chance that the task is schedulable tends to 1.

**Property 1.** In a given task set $\tau$ defined in Sect. 2 with $U \leq 1$, if $k_{i,j}$ (for all $1 \leq j < i$) or $K_{\text{min}}$ tends to infinity, the chance that the task set is schedulable by RM tends to 1.

**Proof.** If $k_{i,j}$ (or $K_{\text{min}}$) tends to infinity, $\alpha_{i,j}$ tends to 0 because $k_{i,j}$ appears in the denominator of (12). Consequently, (11) becomes $1 \geq \sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} u_j$, which is true according to the assumption. It means that both necessary and sufficient schedulability conditions of RM hold, and hence, the task set is schedulable. \hfill \Box

Property 1 shows that having large period ratio increases the schedulability of the task set. This property can be justified by the fact that for a task such as $\tau_i$, the scheduling decisions of RM and EDF are identical until the latest release of any task $\gamma_{j}$, ($1 \leq j < i$) before $T_i$, i.e., before $A_{\gamma_i}$. If the base period ratio, i.e., $k_{i,j}$ is large, the chance that the task is finished before the last release of the high priority task increases. Thus, RM decisions will not adversely affect the schedulability of $\tau_i$.

### 4.2 The Effect of Period Residual

In this subsection, we quantify the effect of period residual on the schedulability of RM. First, we show the effect of large residual values, i.e., when $\gamma_{i,j}$ tends to 1.

**Property 2.** In a given task set $\tau$ defined in Sect. 2 with $U \leq 1$, if $\gamma_{i,j}$ tends to 1 (for all $1 \leq j < i$), the chance that the task set is schedulable by RM tends to 1.

**Proof.** If $\gamma_{i,j}$ tends to 1, $\alpha_{i,j}$ in (12) tends to 0 because regardless of the value of $k_{i,j}$, $1 - \gamma_{i,j}$ tends to 0. Thus, (11) simplifies to $U \leq 1$, which already holds due to our assumption. As a result, the task set becomes schedulable by RM. \hfill \Box

Having $\gamma_{i,j} \approx 1$ means that the resulting residual from dividing $T_i$ by any $T_j$, $1 \leq j < i$, must be close to 1. Equivalently, the latest releases of the high priority tasks before $T_i$ must be as close as possible from $T_i$. In other words, the next release of the high priority tasks after $T_i$ must be very close to $T_i$, which means that the period of high priority tasks must be almost harmonic with $T_i$.

Another observation in (12) is that since $k_{i,j}$ appears in the denominator of $\alpha_{i,j}$, if $k_{i,j}$ is large, the contribution of $\gamma_{i,j}$ in the value of $\alpha_{i,j}$ becomes small. Thus, the lowest priority task among those which satisfy $\gamma_{i,j} \neq 0$ tends to play an important role in the schedulability of $\tau_i$ because it will have the smallest $k_{i,j}$.

**Remark.** To increase RM schedulability, it is better to have small residual tasks with close yet non-harmonic periods, because then $k_{i,j}$ will not help in reducing the effect of $u_{i,j}$ in the right-hand-side of (11) which adversely affects the schedulability. Thus, if a task such as $\tau_i$ has high utilization, it is better that the next task has large $k_{i+1,i}$.

In the next step, we show the effect of having small value of $\gamma_{i,j}$ on the schedulability of $\tau_i$. For this aim, first we design another sufficient schedulability test. In this test, we consider the latest release of each high priority task such as $\tau_j$ before $T_i$, denoted by $A_{\tau_j}$ (defined in (6)). Also we define $A_{i,m} = \min\{ A_{\tau_j} \}_{1 \leq j < i}$ and it describes the earliest release among the latest releases of the high priority tasks before $T_i$. Fig. 5(a) shows an example with 5 tasks and their latest release before $T_i$.

Next we rewrite (3) considering $t = A_{i,m}$ as
\[ A_{i,m} \geq C_i + \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \left[ \frac{A_{i,m}}{T_j} \right] C_j \] (15)

Since by definition, $A_{i,m} \leq A_{\tau_j}$ (for all $1 \leq j < i$), no high priority task has released its latest job before $T_i$ earlier than $A_{i,m}$. It means that total workload of $\tau_j$ before $A_{i,m}$ is smaller than or equal to $A_{i,m}/T_j$ which is smaller than $T_i/T_j \times C_j$. Hence it is safe to replace $[A_{i,m}/T_j \times C_j]$ with $T_i/T_j \times C_j$ in (15). Next, we replace $A_{i,m}$ in the left-hand-side of (15) by its equivalent value $k_{i,m} T_{m}$, and then we divide both sides of the inequality by $T_i$, thus, we have
\[ \frac{k_{i,m} T_{m}}{T_i} \geq u_i + \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \frac{u_j T_k_{i,j}}{T_i} \Rightarrow \]
\[ \frac{k_{i,m}}{k_{i,m} + \gamma_{i,m}} \geq u_i + \frac{k_{i,j} + (\gamma_{i,j} - u_{i,j})}{k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j}} u_j \Rightarrow \]
\[ \frac{k_{i,m}}{k_{i,m} + \gamma_{i,m}} \geq \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \frac{u_j}{u_{i,j}} \geq \sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} u_j \] (16)

**Property 3.** In a given task set $\tau$ defined in Sect. 2 with $U \leq 1$, if $\gamma_{i,j}$ tends to 0 (for all $1 \leq j < i$), the chance that the task set is schedulable by RM tends to 1.

**Proof.** If $\gamma_{i,j}$ tends to 0, $\gamma_{i,j}/(k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j})$ tends to 0. In addition, since $\tau_m$ is also one of the high priority tasks, $\gamma_{i,m}$ tends to zero as well. As a result, $k_{i,m}/(k_{i,m} + \gamma_{i,m})$ tends to 1, and hence, (16) becomes $\sum u_j \leq 1$, which is correct due to our assumption. Thus, $\tau_i$ becomes schedulable. \hfill \Box

Property 2 together with Property 3 show that task sets which are almost harmonic, i.e., all high priority tasks have a release just before or just after the deadline of $\tau_i$, have a high schedulability ratio, and hence, they are RM-friendly. This situation can easily happen if period of a task such as $T_i$ is an integer multiple of the hyperperiod of the high priority tasks, i.e., $T_i = x \times LCM(T_{T_1}, T_{T_2}, \ldots, T_{T_{i-1}})$ where $x \in N^{+1}$ is an arbitrary multiplier.

**Corollary 1.** In a given task set $\tau$ defined in Sect. 2 with $U \leq 1$ if for task $\tau_i$ we have $\gamma_{i,j} = 0$ for all $1 \leq j < i$ and all high priority tasks are schedulable, then $\tau_i$ will be...
$\sum_{j=1}^{i} w_j \leq 1 \quad (17)$  

Proof. If (17) does not hold, the task is not schedulable because it violates the necessary schedulability condition in [15]. Considering $\tau_{i,j} = 0, \forall j; 1 \leq j < i$, (16) will be equivalent to (17) which proves the if part of the claim. \(\square\)

Corollary 1 shows that not only tasks with harmonic periods, but also tasks with periods which are harmonic with the LCM of the other periods (even if those periods are not harmonic with each other) will be schedulable by RM if $U \leq 1$. This type of task sets can be found in automotive industry. For example, as shown in a benchmark task set from Autosar [12], period of each periodic task is one of the following values \{1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200, 1000\} (numbers are in millisecond). Even though 2 and 5, or 20 and 50 are not harmonic, all other periods are integer multiples of 10 or 50. Thus using Corollary 1 we can analyze the schedulability of such low priority tasks (through (17)) efficiently because then the amortized cost of schedulability analysis of such tasks will be $O(1)$.

The importance of Properties 1, 2, and 3 becomes more evident when we consider the fact that the task sets with large period ratio, or very small (or large) residual, usually have a large hyperperiod which happens due to nonalignment of the integer multiples of the periods. Adversely, for these task sets, the exact schedulability analysis may have considerable computational cost due to the large number of time instants which must be evaluated.

5. NECESSARY SCHEDULABILITY TEST

In this section, we provide a necessary schedulability condition for RM as a function of utilization of the tasks and period ratios. We show that this test is tighter than the existing $U \leq 1$. Moreover, we derive a condition, based on period residual, for which the test becomes exact. Results of this section are only valid for sporadic tasks or periodic tasks with synchronous release because in these cases, the worst-case release scenario is to have a synchronous periodic release pattern.

We derive a necessary schedulability condition for each task such as $T_i$ by calculating the lower bound of the effective workload of all of the tasks that must be finished before $T_i$. This lower bound is denoted by $\Omega_i$, and it has 3 components: a) the workload of $T_i$ which is equal to $C_i$, b) the exact workload of the high priority jobs which their absolute deadline is smaller than or equal to $T_i$, and c) the lower bound of the effective workload of the high priority jobs which must be executed until $T_i$ and their absolute deadline is larger than $T_i$. The last component is denoted by $\omega_i$.

In Fig. 5-(a), the RM schedule for a task set is shown. According to this schedule, the last job of $T_i$ cannot finish its execution before $T_i$, however, $T_i$ is schedulable since its worst-case response time is equal to $T_i$. In Fig. 5-(b), we show the 3 components of $\Omega_i$. The execution times which are denoted in black boxes show the lower bound of the contribution of each high priority task in $\omega_i$. As it can be seen, this lower bound is smaller than the actual contribution of the tasks; for example, in Fig. 5-(a), the last job of $T_i$ is scheduled slightly after $A_{i,4}$ while in Fig. 5-(b), its contribution to $\omega_i$ is 0. In this figure, $s_i, j$ and $f_i, j$ are the upper bound on the start time and finish time of the last jobs of the high priority tasks.

Lemma 1. Given task set $\tau$, the exact workload of the high priority jobs with absolute deadlines smaller than or equal to $T_i$ in the interval $[0, T_i]$ is

$$\sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} \left\lfloor \frac{T_i}{T_j} \right\rfloor C_j \quad (18)$$

Proof. Since in a successful schedule there is no deadline miss, all high priority jobs must be executed before their absolute deadlines. Thus, the exact workload from the higher priority tasks can be obtained by summing up the execution times of every job of those tasks which has its absolute deadline before time $T_i$. Since each task such as $T_j$, $1 \leq j \leq i$ can have at most $\left\lfloor \frac{T_i}{T_j} \right\rfloor$ jobs in the interval of time from 0 to $T_i$, the maximum workload of these jobs is (18) which proves the claim. \(\square\)

Using (18) we calculate $\Omega_i$ as

$$\Omega_i = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} \left\lfloor \frac{T_i}{T_j} \right\rfloor C_j + \omega_i \quad (19)$$

Lemma 2. Given task set $\tau$, the exact workload of the last job of task $T_i$, which is released before $T_i$ and has an absolute deadline larger than $T_i$ is

$$\min\{C_i, T_i - A_{i,1}\} \quad (20)$$

where $A_{i,1}$ is obtained from (6).

Proof. Since $T_i$ has the highest priority in each of its releases, the actual start time of the last job of $T_i$ will be at $A_{i,1}$. Also since it remains the highest priority task, it can be executed until $A_{i,1} + C_i$, however, if $C_i > T_i - A_{i,1}$, this job will be finished after $T_i$. Due to the fact that $\omega_i$ must
only include the workload which must be finished before \( T_i \), the maximum contribution of \( \tau_j \) to \( \omega_j \) cannot be larger than \( \min\{C_1, T_i - A_{1,j}\} \), which proves the claim.

As it can be seen in Fig. 5-(b), the last job of a task such as \( \tau_4 \) at \( A_{4,4} \) can be released much earlier than \( A_{1,1} \), and hence, it might have some interference with other jobs of \( \tau_1 \) or other higher priority tasks. Due to this interference, \( \tau_4 \) cannot use the whole interval \([A_{4,j}, T_i]\) for its execution since it may not always be the highest priority task in this interval. In other words, calculating the exact amount of time that the last job of a task such as \( \tau_j \) (\( 1 < j < i \)) is executed in the interval \([A_{j,j}, T_i]\) requires obtaining the exact interference from the higher priority tasks in that interval. Since this problem is not easy to solve, we simplify the condition to derive the effective workload of the last job of each task such as \( \tau \) in the interval \([A_{j,j}, T_i]\) and they are calculated as

\[
s_{i,j} = \max\{f_{i,j-1}, A_{i,j}\} \quad (21)
\]

\[
f_{i,j} = \min\{C_j, T_i - s_{i,j}\} + s_{i,j} \quad (22)
\]

where \( s_{i,1} = A_{i,1} \) and \( f_{i,1} = \min\{C_1, T_i - s_{1,1}\} + s_{1,1} \).

**Proof.** The proof is based on induction where we show that the lower bound of the effective workload of any task such as \( \tau_j \) follows \( f_{i,j} - s_{i,j} \).

**The base:** we show the claims hold for \( \tau_1 \). Since \( \tau_1 \) has the highest priority, it executes right after it is released at \( A_{1,1} \), and hence, the upper bound of its start time is equal to its actual start time at \( s_{1,1} = A_{1,1} \). Also according to Lemma 2, the exact workload of \( \tau_1 \) before \( T_i \) follows (20) which means that the actual finish time of \( \tau_1 \) is at \( f_{1,1} = s_{1,1} + \min\{C_1, T_i - A_{1,1}\} \). Thus, the claims have been proven for \( \tau_1 \).

**The assumption:** we assume that \( s_{i,m} \) and \( f_{i,m} \) obtained from (21) and (22) are the upper bound on the start and finish time of the last job of \( \tau_m \), respectively. Also \( f_{i,m} - s_{i,m} \) is the lower bound of the effective workload of \( \tau_m \) which must be scheduled before \( T_i \), according to RM scheduling algorithm.

**The induction step:** we show that \( s_{i,m+1} \) and \( f_{i,m+1} \) obtained from (21) and (22) are the upper bound on the start and finish time of the last job of \( \tau_{m+1} \), respectively. Also \( f_{i,m+1} - s_{i,m+1} \) is the lower bound of the effective workload of \( \tau_{m+1} \) which must be scheduled before \( T_i \).

Before we start the proof, we show some properties about \( f_{i,m} \). Because of the way \( \tau_{m,1} \) is defined in (6), \( T_i - A_{i,j} \) never becomes negative, thus, \( \forall j, f_{i,j} \geq 0 \). Moreover, directly from (22) we have \( \forall j, f_{i,j} \leq T_i \). Finally, due to the recursive nature of (22), we have

\[
A_{i,1} \leq f_{i,1} \leq f_{i,2} \leq \ldots \leq f_{i,m} \leq T_i \quad (23)
\]

because, for example, by replacing \( s_{i,m} \) in (22) we have \( f_{i,m} = \min\{C_m, T_i - s_{i,m}\} + \max\{f_{i,m-1}, A_{i,m}\} \) which means that

\[
f_{i,m-1} \leq f_{i,m} \quad (22)
\]

From (23) we can conclude that at \( f_{i,m} \), all of the higher priority tasks than \( \tau_{m+1} \) have been executed, otherwise \( f_{i,m} = T_i \). If \( f_{i,m} = T_i \), then a safe upper bound on \( s_{i,m+1} \) will be \( T_i \), which further leads to have a safe upper bound on the finish time of \( \tau_{m+1} \) at \( T_i \). Since our safe upper bounds fall out of the interval \([A_{i,m+1}, T_i]\), the effective workload of \( \tau_{m+1} \) will be 0. On the other hand, if \( f_{i,m} < T_i \), task \( \tau_{m+1} \) becomes the highest priority task with a pending job at time \( f_{i,m} \) and will have a chance to be scheduled by RM. If \( \tau_{m+1} \) is already released at that time, i.e., \( A_{i,m+1} \leq f_{i,m} \), a safe upper bound on its start time will be \( s_{i,m+1} = f_{i,m} \) because then there will be no other high priority task in the system and \( T_i - s_{i,m+1} > 0 \). In such situation, RM has no other choice but to schedule \( \tau_{m+1} \). Otherwise, if \( A_{i,m+1} > f_{i,m} \), since none of the tasks with higher priority than \( \tau_{m+1} \) will release a job after \( f_{i,m} \), the exact upper bound on the start time of \( \tau_{m+1} \) can be obtained at \( s_{i,m+1} = A_{i,m+1} \). The latter claim can be proven by considering the fact that due to (22) and (21), \( \forall j, 1 \leq j < m; A_{i,j} \leq f_{i,j} \leq f_{i,m} \). It means that \( \tau_{m+1} \) is released after the upper bound on the finish time of all of the higher priority tasks, and hence, as soon as it is released, it will be the highest priority task in the system and must be scheduled by RM. Putting all of the results together, we have \( s_{i,m+1} = \max\{A_{i,m+1}, f_{i,m}\} \) which proves (21). Since none of the high priority tasks will interfere with \( \tau_{m+1} \) after \( s_{i,m+1} \), the upper bound on its finish time will be the minimum between \( T_i \) and \( C_{m+1} + s_{i,m+1} \). This proves (22). Moreover, since there is no interference in the execution of \( \tau_{m+1} \) from the higher priority tasks after \( s_{i,m+1} \), the lower bound of its effective workload will be \( f_{i,m+1} - s_{i,m+1} \) which completes the proof.

Using Lemma 3 we can obtain the lower bound of the effective workload of all of the high priority tasks as

\[
\omega_i = \sum_{1 \leq j < i} (f_{i,j} - s_{i,j}) \quad (24)
\]

**Theorem 2.** Given task set \( \tau \) can be scheduled by RM only if the following condition holds

\[
T_i \geq \sum_{1 \leq j < i} \left( \frac{T_j}{T_i} \right) C_j + \sum_{1 \leq j < i} (f_{i,j} - s_{i,j}) \quad (25)
\]

where \( f_{i,j} \) and \( s_{i,j} \) are obtained from (21) and (22), respectively.

**Proof.** As shown in Lemma 1, (18) is the workload of higher priority jobs (including \( \tau_i \)) which their absolute deadline is smaller than or equal to \( T_i \) in the interval \([0, T_i]\). Also according to Lemma 3, (24) is the lower bound on the effective workload of the high priority jobs with release time smaller than \( T_i \) and absolute deadline larger than \( T_i \). Consequently, (25) is the lower bound on the effective workload of higher priority jobs together with \( \tau_i \), which must be finished within the interval \([0, T_i]\). If the lower bound of the workload, i.e., \( \Omega_i \), is larger than the duration of the interval, i.e., \( T_i \), then \( \tau_i \) must give its chances to one of the higher priority jobs which are released before \( T_i \) and hence, cannot be finish.

In the next step, we convert the necessary schedulability test in Theorem 2 to another necessary test which is a function of the utilization of the tasks and their period ratio.
Theorem 3. Given a task set $\tau$, the following inequality is a necessary schedulability condition for RM

$$\sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} u_j \leq 1 + \sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} \left( \frac{\gamma_{i,j}}{k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j}} \right) u_j = \min\{u_1, \gamma_{1,1}\} \frac{1}{k_{i,1} + \gamma_{i,1}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (26)

Proof. According to Lemma 2, equation (20) is the exact workload of the last job of $\tau_i$ before $T_i$. If $\min\{C_1, T_i - A_{i,1}\} < C_1$, then we have $f_{i,1} = T_i$, which means that according to our formulation, the safe upper bound on the start time of other high priority tasks will be $T_i$, leading to $f_{i,j} = s_{i,j} = T_i$, $\forall j$, $1 < j < i$. Otherwise if $\min\{C_1, T_i - A_{i,1}\} = C_1$, we know that $\tau_i$ must be completely considered in $\omega_i$. However, in the worst-case, we might have $f_{i,1} = T_i$ which means that there might be no other chance for other high priority jobs to add a portion of their workload to $\omega_i$. Consequently, in the worst-case, $\omega_i = f_{i,1} - s_{i,1} = \min\{C_1, T_i - A_{i,1}\}$. We use (25) which is a necessary schedulability test, remove $\sum\omega_i$ and replace it with $f_{i,1} - s_{i,1}$ which can further be simplified as

$$T_i \geq \sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} \left( \frac{T_j}{T_{i,j}} \right) C_j + \min\{C_1, T_i - \frac{T_i}{T_{i,j}} T_j\} \hspace{1cm} (27)$$

We divide (27) by $T_i$ and replacing $\{T_j/T_{i,j}\}$ by $k_{i,j}$, thus

$$1 \geq \sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} \frac{k_{i,j} C_j}{T_i} + \min\left\{ \frac{C_1}{T_i}, 1 - \frac{k_{i,1} T_1}{T_i} \right\} \hspace{1cm} (28)$$

From (1), we have $T_1/T_i = 1/(k_{i,1} + \gamma_{i,1})$, thus

$$1 - \frac{k_{i,1} T_1}{T_i} = 1 - \frac{k_{i,1}}{k_{i,1} + \gamma_{i,1}} = \frac{\gamma_{i,1}}{k_{i,1} + \gamma_{i,1}}$$

Also we have

$$\frac{C_1}{T_i} - \frac{T_i u_1}{T_i} = \frac{u_1}{k_{i,1} + \gamma_{i,1}}$$

Now we put all of these simplifications back in (28)

$$1 \geq \sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} \frac{k_{i,j} C_j}{k_{i,1} + \gamma_{i,1}} + \frac{\min\{u_1, \gamma_{1,1}\}}{k_{i,1} + \gamma_{i,1}} \hspace{1cm} (29)$$

Moreover, we can simplify $\sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} \frac{k_{i,j} u_{j}}{k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j}}$ as

$$\sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} \frac{k_{i,j} u_{j}}{k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j}} = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} u_{j} - \sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} \frac{\gamma_{i,j} u_{j}}{k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j}} \hspace{1cm} (30)$$

Using (30) we rewrite (29) to obtain (26), and hence, the claim is proven. $\square$

One of the properties of the necessary condition in Theorem 3 is that this test becomes tighter than $U \leq 1$ if

$$\sum_{1 \leq j \leq i} \frac{\gamma_{i,j} u_{j}}{k_{i,j} + \gamma_{i,j}} < \frac{\min\{u_1, \gamma_{1,1}\}}{k_{i,1} + \gamma_{i,1}} \hspace{1cm} (31)$$

because then the right-hand-side of (26) becomes smaller than 1, which means that $U \leq 1 - a$ where $a \in \mathbb{R}^{>0}$.

It is worth noting that if it was possible to calculate the exact amount of the effective workload of the high priority jobs which are released before $T_i$ and have absolute deadline after $T_i$, it would be possible to derive an exact schedulability test which is based on the workload calculation in the interval from 0 to $T_i$ instead of calculating the worst-case response time of the tasks. As one of the contributions of this paper, in the next theorem we derive a condition in which the necessary schedulability test in Theorem 2 becomes a sufficient condition too, meaning that we provide a polynomial-time exact schedulability test for RM in those specific conditions.

Theorem 4. If the following condition holds, the task set $\tau$ defined in Sect. 2 (which is either sporadic or periodic with synchronous release) is schedulable by RM if and only if (25) holds for every task $\tau_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$.

$$A_{i,1} \leq A_{i,2} \leq \ldots \leq A_{i,i-1} \hspace{1cm} (32)$$

Proof. According to (32), the order of the release of the last jobs of the high priority tasks must be the same as the order of their priorities. With this condition, the last job of $\tau_1$ is executed in the interval $[s_{i,1}, f_{i,1}]$. Since $A_{i,2} > A_{i,1}$, the last job of $\tau_2$ comes either before $f_{i,1}$ or after. In the former case, it will be the highest priority task at $f_{i,1}$ and can be scheduled in the interval $[f_{i,1}, f_{i,1} + C_{i,2}]$. Since at its release time, the processor is busy by executing $\tau_1$, there is no other chance for $\tau_2$ to start earlier than $f_{i,1}$. In the latter case where $A_{i,2} > f_{i,1}$, the task $\tau_2$ will be the highest priority task in the system right at its release since the last instance of $\tau_1$ has already been executed and it will not be released again in the system (due to the definition of $A_{i,1}$). As a result, the upper bound of the start time of $\tau_2$ which is calculated in (21) is equal to the exact start time of $\tau_2$. The same rationale can be applied to $\tau_1$ and other high priority tasks, one by one. Consequently, $\omega_i$ becomes the exact effective workload of the higher priority jobs with deadline larger than $T_i$. It means that if (25) holds, there exists a time such as $t \in [0, T_i]$ when the processor has nothing to schedule, including $\tau_i$. Although we do not know the exact value of $t$, we know it exists since (25) holds. As a result, the worst-case response time of $\tau_i$ happens before or at $T_i$, which means that $\tau_i$ is schedulable $^2$. $\square$

6. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In the first experiment, we study the effect of period ratio on the schedulability of RM. We measure the schedulability ratio, which is the ratio of schedulable task sets to the total number of generated task sets. For Fig. 1, 2-(a), and 3-(a) we have used the exact schedulability tests while in Fig. 7 we show the performance of different schedulability tests such as DCT [11], Park [18], linear method, our test in (11) which is based on verifying (3) at $t = T_i$ in (3), and finally, our necessary schedulability test in (25). DCT algorithm finds the largest set of harmonic periods which are smaller than the given periods. Then it checks whether using these periods the utilization is still smaller than 1 or not. In the linear method, (3) is used while $\{t/T_i\}$ is approximated by $\lfloor t/T_i \rfloor + 1$. Test of Park is based on verifying (3) at $t = \{A_{i,1}\}$ $\{1 \leq j \leq i\}$.

Effect of the minimum and maximum CPR on the schedulability of RM has been shown in Fig. 1 and the effect of period residual has been shown in Fig. 6. For these experiments, we have generated random task sets with 10 tasks. Each data point reports average schedulability ratio of 20,000 randomly generated task sets. To generate those task sets, we have used uUniFast [3] and generated random utilization values with total sum denoted in the diagram. Each period has been generated as $T_i = K_{i-1} \times T_{i-1}$ where $T_1$ has been selected with random distribution from $[1, 10]$.

\(^2\)A more detailed version of the proof is available in our technical report [17]
In Fig. 1-(a) and (b), $K_{i,i-1}$ is a random value with uniform distribution in range $[1, K^{\text{max}}]$ and $[K^{\text{min}}, 4]$, respectively. In Fig. 6, $T_i = (k_{i,i-1} + \gamma_{i,i-1}) \times T_{i-1}$ where $k_{i,i-1} \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\gamma_{i,i-1}$ is the horizontal axis. After generating periods, we have assigned the execution times as $C_i = u_i T_i$.

As shown in Fig. 1-(a), with the increase in the consecutive period ratio, schedulability ratio increases. According to (11), by the increase in $u_i$, the effect of $\alpha_{i,j}$ (see (12)) becomes more visible as we can see it in the schedulability ratio of task sets with 0.975 utilization. Fig. 1-(b) shows that with the growth of $K^{\text{min}}$ which implies larger CPR, the schedulability significantly increases. The reason for the drops in the schedulability around $K^{\text{min}} = 2$ and 3 is that $K^{\text{min}}$ affects $K_{i,j}$ which in turn affects the the schedulability. We have seen that when $K^{\text{min}} = 2$ or 3, the average value of $\gamma_{i,i-1}$ is around 0.5 which is not very helpful for a task set with $U = 0.975$. We have seen that the drops of the schedulability ratio are matched with the drops in the average value of consecutive residuals.

As depicted in Fig. 6, for example in $U \leq 0.9$, if we have period residual larger than 0.5, the chance that the task set becomes schedulable is high. According to this diagram, to have a higher schedulability it is better to have larger residual if the system is not highly utilized, e.g., $U < 0.95$. Otherwise, it would be better to have very small period ratio.

Next, we evaluate performance of our necessary test with the same task set generation which we used for Fig. 1-(a) and 6 for $U = 0.9$. As shown in Fig. 7-(a), the test of Park [18] is almost as good as the exact test. Also in most cases, our test in (11) which only considers $t = T_i$ in evaluating (3) is much more efficient than the linear test. When consecutive period ratio is small our necessary test is able to detect 12% of non-schedulable task sets, e.g., in $K^{\text{max}} < 1.4$. Our necessary test is more efficient if it is used for task sets with small CPR.

### 7. RELATED WORK

One of the pioneering works to characterize RM-friendly task sets is [11] where it has been shown that RM is able to schedule a harmonic task set up to 100% utilization. Our schedulability test in (16) covers the case of fully harmonic tasks and brings another proof for their schedulability. An algorithm to derive the minimum number of harmonic chains has been presented in [13]. In addition, it has been shown that each harmonic chain can be considered as one aggregating task in the test, and hence, it leads to a reduced number of tasks in the schedulability analysis process. In our work, 1) we quantify the effect of period residual (which shows how periods are close to harmonic periods) on the schedulability, and 2) we do not need to group the tasks into harmonic chains in order to reduce the complexity of the test.

In our work, we have quantified the effect of period ratios. In [14] a stochastic analysis has been performed to show that when the period ratio approaches to infinity, the maximum schedulable utilization reaches to 1. Also, the asymptotic value of this utilization depends only on the period distributions (that is, it does not depend on the distribution of WCETs). Both of these results are motivations to our work to explicitly consider the role of period ratios on the utilization bound of the RM. Meanwhile, in the current work, instead of the size of the task set (and a stochastic situation), we focus on the relative value of the periods.

A sensitivity analysis of RM schedulability with respect to the WCET and period was done by Bini et al. [4]. In our work, we consider the mutual relation between periods rather than periods themselves. In comparison, we take into account the fact that changing the value of a period irrespective of its ratio to the other periods is not necessarily a good choice for sensitivity analysis. In [7, 9], it was noticed (through experimental results) that a) selecting periods from a larger pool of numbers and b) using other random distributions such as log-uniform, affect the schedulability ratio of RM and the performance of schedulability tests. Before that, the effect of task utilization on RM schedulability has been studied in [3] but the study did not cover the effect of period. What we show in our paper (e.g., in Fig. 1-(a) and 2) emphasizes on the importance of quantifying the effect of period ratio on RM schedulability, which in our opinion, is as important as task utilization. Equation (11) shows how these two factors together affect schedulability.

In [19] an efficient schedulability bound for RM has been presented based on the ratio between the smallest and the
largest periods and utilization of the tasks. Our work considers more information about relative period ratio and residual of any pair of tasks in the tests. Moreover, our main goal is to use the tests to understand the effect of period ratio on RM schedulability. In [2], a utilization based test is introduced for arbitrary deadline tasks. This test uses information about the minimum ratio between any two consecutive periods, i.e., $K^{min}$. Different from them, we exploit information about relative period ratio of different tasks, which leads to a less pessimistic test. The analysis in [2] becomes very pessimistic for tasks with almost similar periods (small period residual), while our results show that in those cases, schedulability increases. We will consider performing a quantitative evaluation between our approach and theirs after extending our method to arbitrary deadline tasks.

In [6] it has been shown that an RM-schedulable task set with $U = 1$ will only be schedulable if the task set is semi-harmonic, i.e., $T_{n}/T_{i}; V_{i}$. Our result in (16) provides a more general way to identify schedulable tasks with small, large, or zero $\gamma_{i,j}$. Besides, we show how using $T_{i}/T_{j}; V_{i} \leq j < i$, or having condition (32), the exact schedulability analysis can be done in polynomial-time for some of the tasks.

8. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we have quantified the effect of period ratio on the schedulability of RM in order to characterize RM-friendly task sets (which can be scheduled by RM with a high chance). To quantify this effect, we have introduced sufficient schedulability tests which describe the schedulability as a function of task utilizations and relative period ratio. We have shown that not only harmonic periods but also the periods that are very close to an integer multiple of the smaller periods are RM-friendly. Moreover, when tasks have large relative period ratio, RM decisions become similar to EDF decisions, which finally leads to high schedulability ratio for those task sets. We have introduced a necessary schedulability test for RM, and then showed that if a certain condition holds for a task, our necessary (yet polynomial-time) test becomes an exact schedulability test. As a future work, we will consider constrained and arbitrary deadline tasks with release jitter and then use our results to build more efficient partitioning algorithms for multiprocessor systems.

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9. REFERENCES