

# An Optimal $k$ -Exclusion Real-Time Locking Protocol Motivated by Multi-GPU Systems\*

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## Abstract

*Graphics processing units (GPUs) are becoming increasingly important in today's platforms as their increased generality allows for them to be used as powerful co-processors. In previous work, we have found that GPUs may be integrated into real-time systems through the treatment of GPUs as shared resources, allocated to real-time tasks through mutual exclusion locking protocols. In this paper, we present an optimal  $k$ -exclusion locking protocol for globally-scheduled job-level static-priority (JLSP) systems. This protocol may be used to manage a pool of GPU resources in such systems.*

## 1 Introduction

The widespread adoption of multicore technologies in the computing industry has prompted research in a wide variety of computing fields with the goal of better understanding how to exploit multicore parallelism for greater levels of performance. In the field of real-time systems, multicore technologies have led to the revisiting of problems that have had well understood uniprocessor solutions. This research has found that uniprocessor techniques are often no longer valid or suffer from significant inefficiencies when applied directly to multiprocessor platforms. As a result, new algorithms for scheduling and synchronization and new methods of analysis have been developed. However, the topic of  $k$ -exclusion synchronization has only recently been considered for real-time multiprocessor applications [4].  $k$ -exclusion locking protocols can be used to arbitrate access to pools of similar or identical resources, such as communication channels or I/O buffers.  $k$ -exclusion extends ordinary mutual exclusion (mutex) by allowing up to  $k$  tasks to simultaneously hold locks (thus, mutual exclusion is equivalent to 1-exclusion). In this paper, we present a new

protocol for implementing  $k$ -exclusion locks in multiprocessor real-time systems.

The commonality of resource pools is enough to motivate our investigation of  $k$ -exclusion protocols for such systems. However, we are specifically driven to study such protocols due to their application to another new technology: general-purpose computation on graphics processing units (GPGPU). In prior work, we showed that mutual exclusion locks may be used to integrate individual GPUs into real-time multiprocessor systems.

The use of mutual exclusion locks naturally complements the state of current GPU technology and resolves many technical challenges arising from both hardware and software constraints [6], thus allowing guarantees on predictable execution as required by real-time systems. For example, current technology does not allow the preemption of program code executing on a GPU. Thus, once a task has commenced using a GPU, it must finish using the GPU before another task may make use of it. This can easily result in priority inversions with respect to CPU scheduling. From this perspective, there is little to distinguish the GPU, which is an I/O device, from a traditional resource. The use of a real-time locking protocol may be used to bound the durations of priority inversions.

In addition to the fundamental limitations imposed by non-preemption, GPUs (because they are I/O devices) are managed by closed-source device drivers that are currently not designed for real-time applications. This introduces a number of challenges [6]. However, the use of mutual exclusion locks to arbitrate access to a GPU prevents the closed-source driver from invoking its own resource arbitration mechanisms (such as unbounded spinning on the CPU). Thus, the use of real-time mutual exclusion locks with GPUs simultaneously addresses issues caused by non-preemption and largely prevents the GPU driver from introducing non-real-time behaviors.

This resource-based methodology can be extended to systems with multiple GPUs through the use of  $k$ -exclusion locks to protect pools of GPU resources. Such an approach may maximize GPU utilization as it avoids the need to statically assign real-time tasks to use individual GPUs. In this

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\*Work supported by NSF grants CNS 0834270, CNS 0834132, and CNS 1016954; ARO grant W911NF-09-1-0535; AFOSR grant FA9550-09-1-0549; and AFRL grant FA8750-11-1-0033.

paper, we present an optimal  $k$ -exclusion protocol that can be used to realize this approach in globally-scheduled real-time systems. At this time, we see GPU computation to be more relevant to soft real-time computing than hard real-time computing, due to difficult unresolved timing analysis issues affecting the latter on multicore platforms. Thus, our focus on global scheduling is motivated by the fact that a variety of global schedulers are capable of ensuring bounded deadline tardiness with no utilization loss [9]. Such schedulers are particularly well-suited for supporting soft real-time workloads. However, this attention to soft real-time applications does not preclude the use of the locking protocol presented in this paper in systems with hard real-time constraints.

**Prior Work.**  $k$ -exclusion locking protocols for real-time systems has been investigated before. Chen [5] presented techniques to adapt several common uniprocessor mutex protocols to derive uniprocessor  $k$ -exclusion locks. However, the use of such techniques in a multiprocessor environment requires that tasks and resources be statically bound to individual processors. This static partitioning may place undesirable limits on maximum system utilization. Further, optimal partitioning is NP-hard in the strong sense [10], even without consideration of resource locality.

Much more recently, Brandenburg et al. presented an extension to the  $O(m)$  Locking Protocol (OMLP) to support  $k$ -exclusion locks on cluster-scheduled multiprocessors [4].<sup>1</sup> While the  $k$ -OMLP may be applied to globally-scheduled systems (since a globally-scheduled system is a degenerate case of a cluster-scheduled system where there is only one cluster), real-time tasks not requiring one of the  $k$  resources may still experience delays in execution. These delays are artifact behaviors that are required in clustered scheduling, but not necessarily in global scheduling. Such delays may not be particularly harmful, in terms of schedulability, when the  $k$ -OMLP is used to protect resources with short protection durations (as may be the case with internal data structures), but may be extremely detrimental in systems using GPUs. This is due to the fact that protection durations (i.e., *critical section lengths*) for GPU resources may be very long, on the order of tens of milliseconds to even several seconds [6]. Thus, it is desirable to develop a  $k$ -exclusion protocol for globally-scheduled systems that does not affect the execution of non-GPU-using tasks. Note that such a protocol can be applied in a clustered setting if GPUs are statically allocated to clusters (in which case, clusters can be scheduled independently).

To find inspiration for an efficient  $k$ -exclusion locking protocol for real-time systems, one may also look at

<sup>1</sup>To the best of our knowledge, this is the first work investigating the  $k$ -exclusion problem in globally-scheduled real-time multiprocessor systems.

$k$ -exclusion protocols from the distributed algorithms literature, where research has been quite thorough (see, e.g., [1, 13]). However, such protocols were designed for the use in throughput-oriented systems for which predictability is not a major concern.

The use of resource locks is not the only approach that may be taken to integrate GPUs into a real-time system. A heterogeneous processor-scheduling algorithm may schedule dissimilar processors. However, existing approaches, such as [2, 8, 12], are problematic in multi-GPU systems due to one or more of the following constraints: (i) they cannot account for non-preemptive GPU execution; (ii) they require that tasks be partitioned among types of processors yet our GPU-using tasks must make use of both CPU and GPU processors; (iii) they statically assign GPU-using tasks to GPUs; (iv) they place restrictions on how GPUs may be shared among tasks; and (v) they place limits on the number of CPUs and GPUs. Heterogeneous processor-scheduling approaches may better express the parallel execution of CPU and GPU code (which is not captured when GPUs are treated as shared resources instead of processors), though they may place too many constraints on some systems. Of course, further research in this direction is clearly merited, though we leave this to future work.

**Contributions.** In this paper, we present a new real-time  $k$ -exclusion locking protocol for globally-scheduled real-time multiprocessor systems. This protocol is asymptotically optimal under suspension-oblivious schedulability analysis [3]. Our protocol is designed with real-time multiprocessor systems with multiple GPUs in mind. This leads us to use techniques that (i) minimize the worst-case wait time a task experiences to receive a resource, as this helps meet timing constraints; (ii) do not cause non-resource-using tasks to block; (iii) yield beneficial scaling characteristics of worst-case wait time with respect to resource pool size, since pool size directly affects system processing capacity in the GPU case; and (iv) increase CPU availability through the use of suspension-based methods, which aids in meeting timing constraints in practice. While our focus is on GPUs as resources, our protocol may still be used to efficiently manage pools of generic resources, offering improvements over the  $k$ -OMLP on globally-scheduled systems.

**Organization.** The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Sec. 2, we describe the task model upon which our locking protocol is built. In Sec. 3, we discuss what it means for a locking protocol to be “optimal” in a globally scheduled system and how it might be achieved. In Sec. 4, we discuss how even an informed approach can lead to sub-optimal characteristics in a  $k$ -exclusion locking protocol. We also

present our  $k$ -exclusion locking protocol and prove its optimal characteristics in this same section. We end in Sec. 5 with concluding remarks and avenues for future work.

## 2 Task Model

We consider the problem of scheduling a mixed task set of  $n$  sporadic tasks,  $T = \{T_1, \dots, T_n\}$ , on  $m$  CPUs with one pool of  $k$  resources. A subset  $T^R \subset T$  of the tasks require use of one of the system's  $k$  resources. We assume  $k \leq m$ . A *job* is a recurrent invocation of work by a task,  $T_i$ , and is denoted by  $J_{i,j}$  where  $j$  indicates the  $j^{\text{th}}$  job of  $T_i$  (we may omit the subscript  $j$  if the particular job invocation is inconsequential). Each *task*  $T_i$  is described by the tuple  $T_i(e_i, l_i, d_i, p_i)$ . The *worst-case CPU execution time* of  $T_i$ ,  $e_i$ , bounds the amount of CPU processing time a job of  $T_i$  must receive before completing. The *critical section length* of  $T_i$ ,  $l_i$ , denotes the length of time task  $T_i$  holds one of the  $k$  resources. For tasks  $T_i \notin T^R$ ,  $l_i = 0$ . The *deadline*,  $d_i$ , is the time after which a job is released by when that job must complete. Arbitrary deadlines are supported in this work. The *period* of  $T_i$ ,  $p_i$ , measures the minimum separation time between job invocations for task  $T_i$ .

We say that a job  $J_i$  is *pending* from the time of its release to the time it completes. A pending job  $J_i$  is *ready* if it may be scheduled for execution. Conversely, if  $J_i$  is not ready, then it is *suspended*. Throughout this paper, we assume that the tasks in  $T$  are scheduled using a job-level static-priority (JLSP) global scheduler.

A job  $J_{i,j}$  (of a task  $T_i \in T^R$ ) may issue a resource request  $R_{i,j}$  for one of the  $k$  resources. Requests that have been allocated a resource (*resource holders*) are denoted by  $H_x$ , where  $x$  is the index of the particular resource (of the  $k$ ) that has been allocated. Requests that have not yet been allocated a resource are *pending* requests. Motivated by common GPU usage patterns, we assume that a job requests a resource at most once, though the analysis presented in this paper can be generalized to support multiple, non-nested, requests. We let  $b_i$  denote an upper bound on the duration a job may be blocked.

In this paper, we consider locking protocols where a job  $J_i$  suspends if it issues a request  $R_i$  that cannot be immediately satisfied. In such protocols, priority-sharing mechanisms are commonly used to ensure bounded blocking durations. *Priority inheritance* is a mechanism where a resource holder may temporarily assume the higher priority of a blocked job that is waiting for the held resource. Another common technique is *priority boosting*, where a resource holder temporarily assumes a maximum system scheduling priority. The priority of a job  $J_i$  in the absence of priority-sharing is the *base priority* of  $J_i$ . We call the priority with which  $J_i$  is scheduled the *effective priority* of  $J_i$ .

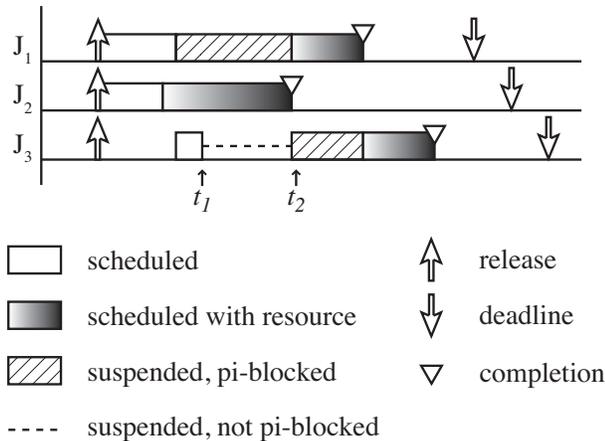
## 3 Definition of Optimality

Generally speaking, a job of a real-time task is *blocked* from execution when it attempts to acquire a resource from some set of resources of which there are none currently available; the job must wait until said resource becomes available. Schedulability analysis requires that these blocking durations be of bounded length to ensure that timing constraints, such as completing by a given deadline, are met. In [3], this definition of blocking was refined for JLSP globally-scheduled multiprocessor systems, allowing for a definition of optimality in blocking duration to be made.

It was observed that a real-time job is “blocked” only if it waits for a resource when it would otherwise be scheduled. When a job lacks sufficient priority to be scheduled, it makes no difference in terms of analysis if it is suspended implicitly by the scheduler or if it is suspended while waiting for a resource. The effect is the same: the job is not scheduled. It is only the duration of time that a job would be scheduled, but otherwise cannot due to waiting, that must be considered by analysis. In such cases there is a *priority inversion* since a lower-priority job may be scheduled in the blocked job's place. Thus, this refined definition of blocking is termed *priority inversion blocking*, or *pi-blocking*. The method to bound the time a job may experience pi-blocking depends upon the scheduling algorithm used and its analysis.

Assuming jobs suspend from execution (instead of busy-waiting) while waiting for a resource, the analytical method used to determine the effect of pi-blocking may be *suspension-oblivious* or *suspension-aware*. Suspension-oblivious analysis treats delays caused by pi-blocking as additional execution time, factoring into task utilization and thus into task set utilization as well. This treatment converts a set of dependent tasks into a task set of independent tasks with greater execution requirements. This is a safe conversion, but may be pessimistic if pi-blocking delays are long. In contrast, suspension-aware analysis does not treat pi-blocking delays as processor demand. Unfortunately, most known multiprocessor schedulability analysis techniques for JLSP global schedulers, such as the *global earliest-deadline-first* (G-EDF) algorithm, that account for blocking delays are suspension-oblivious.

It was shown in [3] that under suspension-oblivious analysis, a job  $J_i$  is not pi-blocked if there exist at least  $m$  pending higher-priority jobs, where  $m$  is the number of system CPUs. Because suspensions are analytically treated as execution time under suspension-oblivious analysis, even suspended jobs of higher-priority can eliminate priority inversions with respect to lower-priority jobs. If it can be shown in the analysis of a locking protocol that there exist at least  $m$  higher-priority suspended jobs that are waiting for a resource, then lower-priority jobs also waiting for a resource *do not experience any pi-blocking*. Such an example is illus-



**Figure 1. Job  $J_3$  does not experience pi-blocking on the interval  $[t_1, t_2]$  under suspension-oblivious analysis for this two-processor system scheduled by G-EDF. Job  $J_2$  is scheduled on this interval while job  $J_1$  is analytically considered to be scheduled. Job  $J_3$  is not pi-blocked because it does not have sufficient priority to be scheduled (analytically), whether it waits for a resource or not.**

trated in Fig. 1 for a two-processor system scheduled under G-EDF with a single shared resource. As depicted, the presence of pending jobs  $J_1$  and  $J_2$  on the interval  $[t_1, t_2]$  prevents  $J_3$  from incurring any pi-blocking under suspension-oblivious analysis.

The OMLP, as well as the locking protocol presented in this paper, are specifically designed to exploit this characteristic of suspension-oblivious analysis. Through this analysis, it was further shown in [3] that a mutex locking protocol may be considered optimal under suspension-oblivious analysis if the maximum duration of pi-blocking per resource request is  $O(m)$ —a function of fixed system resource parameters and not the number of resource-using tasks. In a  $k$ -exclusion locking protocol, we may hope to do better. Intuitively, we would like to obtain a bound of  $O(m/k)$ , so pi-blocking durations scale with the inverse of  $k$  (another fixed system parameter). Indeed, the  $k$ -OMLP achieves this bound when there exists only one pool of  $k$  resources, as is the case with our GPU system. However, as stated earlier, the  $k$ -OMLP is not suitable for our use on a JLSP globally-scheduled system with GPUs due to the excessive blocking costs charged to non-GPU-using tasks. Still, any efficient  $k$ -exclusion locking protocol we develop for a JLSP globally-scheduled system should be  $O(m/k)$ .

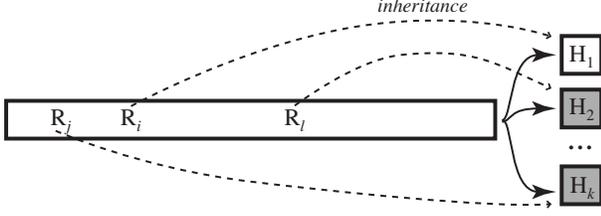
## 4 Locking Protocols

Developing an efficient  $k$ -exclusion protocol for JLSP globally-scheduled systems is a non-trivial process. Through the development of an  $O(m/k)$   $k$ -exclusion locking protocol, we found that some initial assumptions did not hold. We will now explain the development process we went through to arrive at an optimal  $k$ -exclusion locking protocol.

### 4.1 A Single Queue

A classic result from Operations Research states that a single wait-queue is the most efficient method for ordering resource requests for a pool of resources [11]. Without presenting the details of this result, we may come to understand this to be true intuitively. Consider the case where a separate queue is used for each resource. There may exist an “unlucky” request,  $R_i$ , that is enqueued behind a job that uses a resource for a very long duration. In the meantime, other requests, including those made after  $R_i$ , are quickly processed on the other queues, yet the unlucky request continues to wait. To make a colloquial analogy, this is much like the frustration one may feel at the checkout line in a grocery store. You may find yourself stuck behind someone who needs a dozen price checks on their items, while you watch others quickly pass through the remaining lines. It is impossible for a request to be forced to wait on a long-running job when a single queue is used. Hence, the single queue reduces overall wait time for all participants.

The Bank Algorithm [7] (not to be confused with Dijkstra’s Banker’s Algorithm) is a non-real-time  $k$ -exclusion locking protocol built upon the single-queue principle. It is so named due to its likeness to the single queue commonly used at a bank. Suppose we built a real-time locking protocol based upon the Bank Algorithm. There would be one FIFO queue for  $k$  resources. We can ensure no pending request is blocked unboundedly through priority inheritance. For our real-time Bank Algorithm, let each of the  $k$  resource holders (if that many exist) inherit a unique priority, if that priority is greater than its own, from the set of the  $k$  highest-priority pending requests (if that many exist). Thus, at least one resource holder is scheduled with an effective priority no less than that of any pending request. In the worst-case scenario for the highest-priority pending request,  $R_i$ , all pending resource requests ahead of  $R_i$  are serialized through a single resource, while the remaining  $k - 1$  resources remain held. This may occur since these  $k - 1$  resource holders do not inherit a priority from  $R_i$  and may not be scheduled. This case is depicted in Fig. 2. With a little work, it is possible to combine methods from the Bank Algorithm and the OMLP to arrive at an  $\Omega(m - k)$  locking protocol. However, this still falls short of our desired  $O(m/k)$ .



**Figure 2.** Pending requests ahead of  $R_i$  may be serialized through a single resource when a single wait-queue is used. Depicted above,  $R_i$  is the highest-priority request and resource holder  $H_1$  inherits  $R_i$ 's priority. The remaining  $k - 1$  resource holders inherit priority from pending requests with priorities less than  $R_i$ . The resource holders that do not inherit from  $R_i$  are not guaranteed to release their resource before  $R_i$  acquires one, thus all pending requests ahead of  $R_i$  may be forced to serialize on the resource held by  $H_1$ . In the worst-case,  $R_i$  may have to wait for  $n - k$  requests to complete before obtaining a resource.

In a non-real-time context, it is implicitly assumed that all resource holders execute simultaneously. However, this guarantee cannot be maintained in our real-time system since the priority of the highest-priority job can only be inherited by a single resource holder.<sup>2</sup> It appears that for traditional sporadic real-time systems, a single queue approach will not yield an optimal bound for worst-case pi-blocking time because it is possible for resource requests to become serialized on a single resource. We must develop a  $k$ -exclusion locking protocol where execution progress can be guaranteed for all resource holders.

#### 4.2 An Optimal $k$ -Exclusion Global Locking Protocol

The *Optimal  $k$ -Exclusion Global Locking Protocol* (O-KGLP) is a  $k$ -exclusion locking protocol that achieves the desired  $O(m/k)$  bound. In the previous section, we noted that a straightforward application of OMLP techniques to the  $k$ -exclusion problem results in  $\Omega(m - k)$  pi-blocking time. While this is optimal with respect to the number of CPUs, it does not fully exploit the greater parallelism offered by the existence of  $k$  resources. The O-KGLP offers better scaling behavior with respect to both the number of processors and resources.

<sup>2</sup>We have considered algorithms where a single priority is inherited by multiple resource holders. However, we found that this breaks the sporadic task model since multiple jobs may execute concurrently with the same inherited priority. Different schedulability tests are required to analyze such a method.

**Structure.** The O-KGLP uses  $k + 1$  job queues to organize resource requests.  $k$  FIFO queues, of length  $m/k$ , are assigned to each of the  $k$  resources. One priority queue (ordered by job priority) is used if there are more than  $m$  jobs contending for the use of a protected resource. The priority queue holds the “overflow” from the fixed-capacity FIFO queues. We denote the FIFO queues as  $FQ_x$  and the priority queue as PQ.

**Rules.** Let  $queued(t)$  denote the total number of queued jobs in the PQ and FQs at time  $t$ . The rules governing queuing behavior and priority inheritance are as follows:

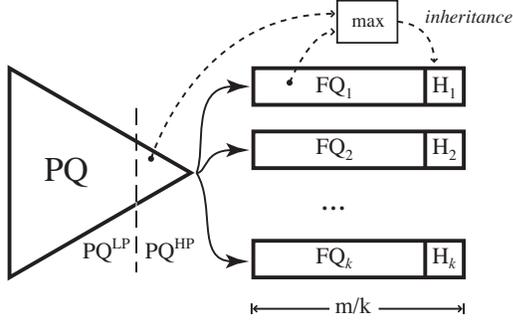
- O1** When job  $J_i$  requests a resource at time  $t_0$ ,
  - O1.1**  $R_i$  enqueues on the shortest  $FQ_x$  if  $queued(t_0) < m$ , else
  - O1.2**  $R_i$  is added to PQ.
- O2** All queued jobs are suspended except the jobs at the heads of the FQs, which are resource holders. All resource holders are ready to execute.
- O3** The effective priority of a resource holder,  $H_x$ , at time  $t$  is inherited from either the highest-priority request in  $FQ_x$ , or from a unique request among the  $k$  highest-priority pending requests in the PQ, whichever has greater priority. Each FQ claims one unique request (if available) from the  $k$  highest-priority pending request in PQ, whether or not  $H_x$  inherits priority from it.
- O4** When  $H_x$  frees a resource, its request is dequeued from  $FQ_x$  and the next request in  $FQ_x$ , if one exists, is granted the newly available resource.<sup>3</sup> Further, the claimed unique request (if it exists) from amongst the  $k$  highest-priority requests in the PQ is moved to  $FQ_x$ .

Let us define several simplifying identifiers. Let  $PQ^{HP}$  (for “high priority”) denote the set of  $\min(k, |PQ|)$  highest-priority pending requests in the PQ. Let  $U_x$  denote the unique request in  $PQ^{HP}$  associated with  $H_x$  by Rule O3. Finally, let  $PQ^{LP}$  (for “low priority”) denote the set of requests in PQ that are not in  $PQ^{HP}$ . Fig. 3 depicts the queue structure of the O-KGLP and inheritance relations.

In our initial analysis of the O-KGLP, we make the following assumption:

- A1**  $U_x$  is never evicted from  $PQ^{HP}$  by the arrival of new, higher-priority, requests.

<sup>3</sup>As an implementation optimization, if  $FQ_x$  is left empty by the dequeue of  $H_x$ , then the highest-priority pending request in the remaining FQs may be “stolen” (removed from its queue and enqueued onto  $FQ_x$ ) and granted the free resource, if such a request exists. This technique may reduce the observed average time jobs are blocked in a real system, but does not improve upon the worst case.



**Figure 3. Queue structure and priority inheritance relations used by the O-KGLP.**

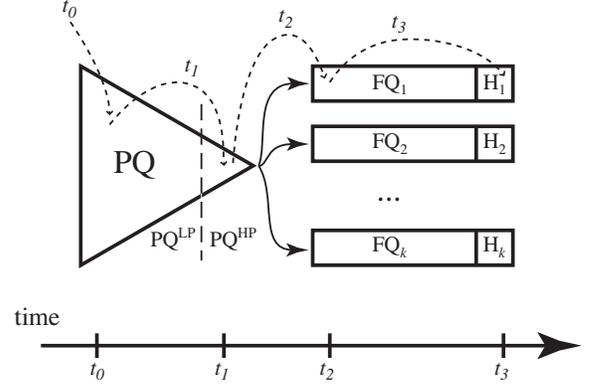
This important property is guaranteed by ensuring that  $U_x$  always has a sufficient *effective priority* to remain in  $PQ^{HP}$ . The mechanisms used to realize Assumption A1 are explained in detail later in this paper.

Before bounding the worst-case pi-blocking time a job using the O-KGLP may experience, let us define the term *progress*. We say a pending request  $R_i$  makes *progress* at time instant  $t$  if every  $H_x$ , ahead of  $R_i$  on any path through the queues that  $R_i$  may take before obtaining a resource, is scheduled with an effective priority no less than that of  $R_i$ . If  $R_i$  is pi-blocked for a bounded time  $b_i$ , then  $R_i$  is no longer pi-blocked after  $b_i$  time of progress.

Progress is ensured with relative ease through priority sharing mechanisms (inheritance, boosting, etc.) in common locking protocols where a request can only follow a single path. However, progress is more difficult to ensure when more than one path may be taken, as is the case in the O-KGLP due to its use of  $k$  FQs. We now explain how this is done in the O-KGLP.

**Blocking Analysis.**  $J_i$  may be pi-blocked during three different phases as its request traverses the queues in the O-KGLP. The first phase is the duration from when  $R_i$  enters the PQ until it joins the set  $PQ^{HP}$ . The second phase takes place from the time  $R_i$  joins  $PQ^{HP}$  to the time it is moved to an FQ. Finally, the last phase is measured from the time  $R_i$  enqueues on an FQ to the point  $R_i$  reaches the head of this FQ. We denote pi-blocking in each phase as  $b_i^{LQ}$ ,  $b_i^{HQ}$ , and  $b_i^{FQ}$ , respectively. The worst-case time  $J_i$  may be pi-blocked using the O-KGLP is equal to the sum of the maximum pi-blocking durations in each phase:  $b_i = b_i^{LQ} + b_i^{HQ} + b_i^{FQ}$ . These phases are depicted in Fig. 4.

The number of tasks,  $|T^R|$ , using the same O-KGLP lock determines whether a job may experience blocking in each of these three phases. For example, if  $|T^R| \leq k$ , then no job is ever pi-blocked ( $b_i = 0$ ) since every request can be trivially satisfied simultaneously. If  $k < |T^R| \leq m$ , then



**Figure 4. Job  $J_i$  may experience pi-blocking in three time intervals: first in the interval  $[t_0, t_1)$ , from when  $J_i$ 's request,  $R_i$ , enters the PQ to when the request joins the set  $PQ^{HP}$ ; next, in the interval  $[t_1, t_2)$ , which is the duration  $R_i$  is in  $PQ^{HP}$ ; and finally, in the interval  $[t_2, t_3)$ , which is the time  $R_i$  must wait in an FQ until it receives a resource.**

a job only experiences  $b_i^{FQ}$  pi-blocking since all possible simultaneous requests can be held in the FQs. Similarly,  $b_i^{FQ}$  and  $b_i^{HQ}$  contribute to total pi-blocking when  $m < |T^R| \leq m + k$ . A job can only experience pi-blocking in every phase when  $|T^R| > m + k$ . Let us compute the worst-case pi-blocking a job  $J_i$  may experience starting with  $b_i^{FQ}$  and working our way backwards through the queue structures.

**Lemma 1.** *A job  $J_i$  may be pi-blocked by at most  $\min\left(\frac{m}{k} - 1, \left\lfloor \frac{|T^R| - 1}{k} \right\rfloor\right)$  lower-priority jobs while enqueued on  $FQ_x$ .*

*Proof.* Progress is ensured for any  $R_i$  in  $FQ_x$  since  $H_x$  is always scheduled with an effective priority no less than  $J_i$  by Rule O3. Thus  $b_i^{FQ}$  can be bounded by the total time required to complete every request ahead of  $R_i$  in  $FQ_x$ .

In the worst case, while  $R_i$  is on  $FQ_x$ , it may be preceded by  $\frac{m}{k} - 1$  requests before it reaches the head of  $FQ_x$  and  $J_i$  receives a resource. However, if  $k < |T^R| \leq m$ , then  $J_i$  may be pi-blocked by fewer requests. In this case there may be as many as  $|T^R \setminus \{T_i\}|$  requests already in the FQs when  $J_i$  issues  $R_i$  at time  $t_0$ . Load-balancing these preceding requests evenly across the  $k$  FQs (by Rule O1.1), the shortest FQ at time  $t$  is at most  $\left\lfloor \frac{|T^R \setminus \{T_i\}|}{k} \right\rfloor$  in length since the length of any FQ may only deviate from the average FQ length by more than one. Thus,  $\left\lfloor \frac{|T^R| - 1}{k} \right\rfloor$  upper-bounds the number of lower-priority jobs that may pi-block  $J_i$  when  $k < |T^R| \leq m$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 2.**  $J_i$  experiences pi-blocking while  $R_i$  is queued on  $FQ_x$  of at most

$$b_i^{FQ} = \min \left( \frac{m}{k} - 1, \left\lfloor \frac{|T^R| - 1}{k} \right\rfloor \right) \cdot l^{max} \quad (1)$$

where  $l^{max}$  denotes the longest critical section of any task.

*Proof.*  $J_i$  experiences worst-case pi-blocking when the jobs that pi-block it have the longest possible critical sections. By Lemma 1 and by upper-bounding critical section lengths with  $l^{max}$ , the proof follows.  $\square$

**Lemma 3.**  $J_i$  may only be pi-blocked for the duration of one critical section while its request is in the set  $PQ^{HP}$ . Thus,

$$b_i^{HQ} = l^{max} \quad (2)$$

in the worst case.

*Proof.* By Assumption A1, a request  $R_i$  cannot be evicted from  $PQ^{HP}$ . By Rule O3, there exists some  $FQ_x$  such that  $H_x$  is scheduled with an effective priority no less than that of  $J_i$  while  $R_i$  is in  $PQ^{HP}$ , thus progress is guaranteed. Further,  $R_i$  will be removed from the PQ and placed onto  $FQ_x$  immediately after  $H_x$  releases its resource. It may take up to  $l^{max}$  time until  $H_x$  complete its critical section, thus  $b_i^{HQ} = l^{max}$ .  $\square$

We now present a derivation of  $b_i^{LQ}$  by placing an upper bound on the number of lower-priority jobs that may pi-block  $J_i$  while  $R_i$  is in the PQ and not in  $PQ^{HP}$ . Recall from Sec. 3 that a job is not pi-blocked at any time instant under (suspension-oblivious analysis) if there exist at least  $m$  pending higher-priority jobs.

**Lemma 4.** Progress is guaranteed for any request,  $R_i$ , pending in  $PQ^{LP}$ .

*Proof.* Assumption A1 ensures that each  $U_x \in PQ^{HP}$  has a priority no less than that of  $R_i \in PQ^{LP}$ . Thus, by Rule O3, each  $H_x$  is scheduled with an effective priority greater than  $R_i$  while  $R_i \in PQ^{LP}$ . Hence, progress for  $R_i$  is guaranteed for any path that  $R_i$  may take, even though the particular FQ  $R_i$  will traverse has yet to be determined.  $\square$

**Lemma 5.** Job  $J_i$ , with request  $R_i \in PQ^{LP}$ , is pi-blocked for at most  $\frac{m}{k} \cdot l^{max}$  time. Thus,

$$b_i^{LQ} = \frac{m}{k} \cdot l^{max}. \quad (3)$$

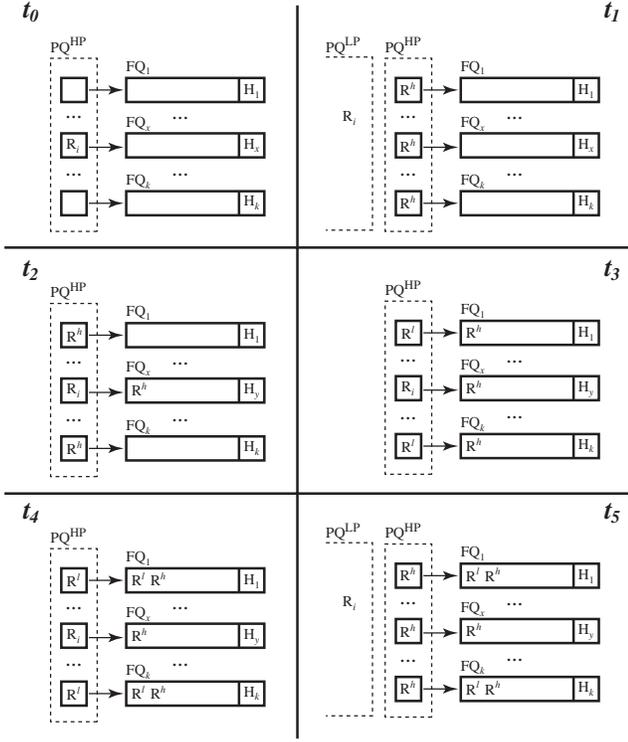
*Proof.* A job is not pi-blocked under suspension-oblivious analysis when there exist at least  $m$  other pending higher-priority jobs. By Lemma 4, all the resource holders in the FQs are scheduled with an effective priority at least that of

$R_i$  while  $R_i \in PQ^{LP}$ . Consequently, all potential lower-priority requests in the FQs when  $J_i$  issued  $R_i$  at time  $t_0$  (see Fig. 4) will be satisfied in at most  $\frac{m}{k} \cdot l^{max}$  time if  $R_i$  continues to remain in  $PQ^{LP}$ . If  $R_i$  is in  $PQ^{LP}$  after  $t_0 + \frac{m}{k} \cdot l^{max}$  time (which is possible since new requests with a higher priority than  $R_i$  may be issued before  $R_i$  is moved to  $PQ^{HP}$ ), then, by Rule O4 (and Assumption A1), all  $m$  requests in the FQs must have a higher priority than  $R_i$ , and  $J_i$  is no longer pi-blocked.  $\square$

It may appear that we have arrived at an  $O(m/k)$   $k$ -exclusion locking protocol since each component of  $b_i$  is either  $O(m/k)$  ( $b_i^{FQ}$  and  $b_i^{LQ}$ ) or  $O(1)$  ( $b_i^{HQ}$ ). However, our proofs for these bounds are founded upon the assumption that each request, once in  $PQ^{HP}$ , remains so until it is moved to an FQ. Our bound for  $b_i^{HQ}$  breaks if we allow evictions. Consider the following scenario, which is depicted in Fig. 5.

Suppose at time  $t_0$ ,  $H_x$  has just received a resource and  $H_x$  inherits the priority of  $R_i$ , the highest priority request in the PQ. At time  $t_1 = t_0 + (l^{max} - \varepsilon_0)$ ,  $k$  new requests with priorities greater than  $R_i$  are issued, and  $R_i$  is evicted from  $PQ^{HP}$ . At time  $t_2 = t_1 + \varepsilon_1$ ,  $H_y$  completes and releases its resource. Consequently, one of the new requests is moved to  $FQ_y$  and  $R_i$  rejoins the set  $PQ^{HP}$ . By Rule O3,  $R_i$  is claimed by  $H_y$ , though  $H_y$  does not inherit the priority of  $R_i$  since the newer request that just entered  $FQ_y$  has greater priority. At this point, the  $l^{max} - \varepsilon$  progress  $R_i$  had accrued before eviction has been lost.

Still, perhaps the *number* of times  $R_i$  can be evicted, while  $R_i$  remains pi-blocked, can be bounded by an  $O(m/k)$  term in a similar fashion to  $b_i^{LQ}$ . After all, it seems reasonable that higher-priority requests should be able to enter the FQs ahead of  $R_i$ . Unfortunately, so may lower-priority request. Continuing the scenario above (soon after  $R_i$  has rejoined  $PQ^{HP}$ ), at time  $t_3 = t_2 + \varepsilon_2$  all resource holders except  $H_y$  complete and the requests of  $PQ^{HP} \setminus R_i$  (which have higher priority than  $R_i$ ) are moved to the FQs, and requests with priorities less than  $R_i$  join  $PQ^{HP}$ . At time  $t_4 = t_3 + \varepsilon_3$ , once again all resource holders except  $H_y$  complete, only now lower-priority requests are moved onto the FQs and  $R_i$  remains in  $PQ^{HP}$ . Finally, at time  $t_5 = t_4 + \varepsilon_4$ , another batch of new  $k$  higher-priority requests is issued, evicting  $R_i$  from  $PQ^{HP}$  once again. This cycle may repeat with requests of lower priority than  $R_i$  entering any FQ, so we cannot prove the presence of  $m$  pending higher-priority jobs as is required



**Figure 5. Unbounded pi-blocking for  $b_i^{HQ}$  if evictions from  $PQ^{HP}$  are allowed.**  $t_0$ :  $R_i$  is in  $PQ^{HP}$  and  $H_x$  inherits the priority of  $R_i$ .  $t_1$ :  $R_i$  is evicted from  $PQ^{HP}$  by the arrival of  $k$  higher-priority requests.  $t_2$ : Resource holder  $H_y$  completes;  $R_i$  rejoins  $PQ^{HP}$ .  $t_3$ : All resource holders other than  $H_y$  complete.  $t_4$ : Once again, all resource holders other than  $H_y$  complete.  $t_5$ :  $R_i$  is evicted once again from  $PQ^{HP}$  by the arrival of  $k$  higher-priority requests. There are lower-priority requests in FQs (except for  $FQ_y$ , which may through repetitions of this scenario), so we cannot bound the time  $R_i$  is pi-blocked while in  $PQ^{HP}$ .

to end pi-blocking under suspension-oblivious analysis.<sup>4</sup>

Merely disallowing  $PQ^{HP}$  evictions will not resolve these issues since doing so trades one  $k$ -exclusion problem (resources) for another (the FQs). Since we cannot disallow the arrival of new higher-priority requests, another mechanism is required to maintain our  $O(1)$  bound for  $b_i^{HQ}$ . We will introduce three additional rules inspired by *priority donation* to maintain A1.

Developed by Brandenburg et al. [4], priority donation is priority inheritance technique that allows for the bounding of pi-blocking on cluster-scheduled systems. At a high level, jobs with higher priorities may temporarily suspend and donate their priority to resource holders. The technique uses nine rules to achieve bounded pi-blocking on cluster-scheduled systems. However, our problem domain differs from that of [4] since: (i) all jobs under consideration are already suspended and (ii) we are “scheduling” positions in queues instead of scheduling actual CPUs. This greatly simplifies the donation process. In addition to these simplifications, donation in the O-KGLP only affects tasks that make use of protected  $k$  resources, *so donation is isolated to these participating tasks*. Non-resource-using tasks do not participate and cannot experience pi-blocking as a result. This addresses the limitation discussed earlier in Sec. 1 that arises when the  $k$ -OMLP is used in a globally-scheduled system.

**Additional Rules.** The following additional rules allow us to maintain Assumption A1.

**D1** (Precedes Rule O1.2) If the arrival of  $R_i$  in the PQ would cause the eviction from  $PQ^{HP}$  of a request  $U_x$ , based upon the effective priority of  $U_x$ , then the priority of  $R_i$  is donated to  $U_x$ ,  $R_i$  is held from entering the PQ, and  $J_i$  suspends. Resource holder  $H_x$  may transitively inherit the new effective priority of  $U_x$ .

**D2**  $R_i$  ceases to donate its priority to  $U_x$  when either

**D2.1**  $U_x$  enters  $FQ_x$ , or

**D2.2** the arrival of a new request  $R_h$  would cause the eviction of  $U_x$  with the effective priority of  $R_i$ , in which case  $R_h$  replaces  $R_i$  as a donor to  $U_x$ .

**D3**  $R_i$  enqueues immediately on the PQ after  $R_i$  ceases to be a priority donor. This action takes place before the set

<sup>4</sup>One might suggest that requests from  $PQ^{HP}$  be dequeued in priority-order to avoid lower-priority requests from preceding  $R_i$ . However, doing so can result in an unbounded scenario when  $|PQ^{HP}| < k$ . Suppose there is a single request  $R_l$  in  $PQ^{HP}$  and resource holder  $H_x$  inherits a priority from  $R_l$ . After  $t^{max} - \varepsilon$  time, a higher-priority request  $R_h$  is issued and joins  $PQ^{HP}$ ; likewise, resource holder  $H_y$  inherits a priority from  $R_h$ . Soon thereafter,  $H_x$  releases its resource, causing  $R_h$  to be dequeued from the PQ (priority-order) and moved to  $FQ_x$ . The progress  $R_l$  made has been lost. Further, because  $R_h$  arrived after  $R_l$ ,  $R_l$  cannot assume the brief progress made by  $R_h$ . This scenario can recur and  $R_l$  makes no progress while in  $PQ^{HP}$ .

$PQ^{HP}$  is re-evaluated, since this event may be triggered by a request in  $PQ^{HP}$  enqueueing on an FQ.

Let us now show that Assumption A1 holds.

**Lemma 6.**  $U_x$  is never evicted from  $PQ^{HP}$  by the arrival of new, higher-priority, requests in  $PQ$ .

*Proof.* A request  $R_d$  that could cause  $U_x$  to be evicted from  $PQ^{HP}$  is prevented from entering the PQ while  $R_d$  donates its priority to  $U_x$  instead. By Rule D1 and D2,  $R_d$  is one of the  $k$  highest-priority requests in the PQ and any donors. Since  $U_x$  has the effective priority of  $R_d$ ,  $U_x$  must have one of the  $k$  highest effective priorities among requests in only the PQ.  $\square$

**Blocking Analysis Revisited.** Jobs that donate their priority experience an additional source of pi-blocking since donor requests are delayed from entering the PQ.

**Lemma 7.** A job  $J_i$  may experience pi-blocking due to donation bound by

$$b_i^D = 2 \cdot l^{max}. \quad (4)$$

*Proof.* Donation may introduce pi-blocking in addition to  $b_i^{FQ}$ ,  $b_i^{HQ}$ , and  $b_i^{LQ}$  in two ways: (i) a job may experience pi-blocking while it acts as a donor; and (ii) when its request is delayed by lower-priority requests in  $PQ^{HP}$ , which receive a donated priority. Let us first bound the duration of (i).

The donor relationship is established at request initiation, so once a donor ceases to be a donor, it can never be a donor again. Thus, bounding the duration of donation will bound the length of pi-blocking caused by donation.

A donor  $R_d$  donates its priority to a donee  $U_x$ . By Rule D1, this priority is transitively inherited by resource holder  $H_x$ . Thus,  $H_x$  makes progress with respect to the priority of  $R_d$ ;  $H_x$  will hold its resource for no longer than  $l^{max}$  time while  $R_d$  is pi-blocked. Therefore,  $U_x$  will be dequeued onto  $FQ_x$  in no later than  $l^{max}$  time while  $R_d$  is pi-blocked, at which point the donor relationship is terminated and  $R_d$  joins the PQ.

A request  $R_i$  may enter  $PQ^{LP}$  while requests with lower base priorities have a higher effective priority, thus leading to the pi-blocking (ii).  $R_i$  can be pi-blocked only while its priority is among the top  $m$ . Thus, while  $R_i$  is pi-blocked as in (ii), each request in  $PQ^{HP}$  has an effective priority among the top  $m$ , and hence so does each  $H_x$  (through inheritance). Thus,  $R_i$  can be pi-blocked for a duration of at most  $l^{max}$  due to scenario (ii).  $\square$

With all the building blocks in place, we may now derive the total pi-blocking a job using the O-KGLP may experience, which is given by

$$b_i = b_i^D + b_i^{LQ} + b_i^{HQ} + b_i^{FQ}. \quad (5)$$

We can now show that the O-KGLP is optimal with  $O(m/k)$  pi-blocking.

**Theorem 1.** The O-KGLP is optimal with  $O(m/k)$  pi-blocking.

*Proof.* The maximum pi-blocking,  $b_i$ , a job  $J_i$  may experience when issuing a request for a resource under the O-KGLP is given by Equation(5). The component terms  $b_i^D$  and  $b_i^{HQ}$  are both  $O(1)$ , while the terms  $b_i^{LQ}$  and  $b_i^{FQ}$  are  $O(m/k)$ . Thus combined,  $b_i$  is  $O(m/k)$ . This is asymptotically optimal because scenarios can be easily constructed wherein worst-case pi-blocking is  $\Omega(m/k)$  under any protocol.  $\square$

## 5 Conclusion

In this paper, we have presented the first real-time  $k$ -exclusion locking protocol designed specifically for globally-scheduled JLSP systems. The O-KGLP is asymptotically optimal with respect to the number of system CPUs and also scales inversely with additional resources.

In future work, we will evaluate the performance of the O-KGLP as a part of the schedulability analysis in a larger study that will evaluate various CPU scheduler and GPU locking protocol configurations for use in real-time multiprocessor systems with multiple GPUs.

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