## 7. Operating System Support

### 7.1 Real-time Operation

### 7.2 Scheduling Algorithms

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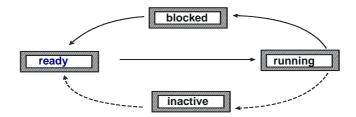
## 7.1 Real-time Operation

#### Management of processes in operating systems

Logical resources (i.e., processes) are mapped onto physical resources (e.g., central processing unit (CPU) and memory).

A process can have four states:

- running: it is allocated to a processor
- ready: it holds all operating resources except the processor
- blocked: it is waiting for the occurrence of an event (e.g., the termination of an output to disk)
- inactive: the process is not assigned to an application program.



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### **Scheduler and Dispatcher**

The **scheduler** decides which of the *inactive* processes will be moved to the *ready* state.

The **dispatcher** decides which process to move next from state *ready* to state *running*.

In conventional operating systems, **neither** scheduler **nor** dispatcher **are capable of real-time processing**.

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## **Requirements for Multimedia**

### Processing of continuous data streams

The data to be processed appears in **periodic** time-intervals.

Typical operations on multimedia data are:

- Creation and playout of audio and video packets,
- Transmission of audio and video packets,
- Compression and decompression of audio and video packets.

### Real-time requirements:

- Processing must be completed by a specific time (deadline)
- Processing of a multimedia data packet takes approximately the same amount of resources in each time period.

### **Light-weight Processes (threads)**

### Concept

- Concurrent (parallel) activities are carried out within one address space.
- Each concurrent activity is called a thread.
- Data transfer between threads is efficient (just a copy operation).
- A "context switch" (i.e., a switch between different threads) is much more efficient than a switch between normal, heavy-weight operating system processes.

#### **But:**

There is **no access protection** between threads provided by the operating system (same address space for all threads)!

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### **Reservation of Resources**

#### Pessimistic (deterministic) reservation

- · Takes the worst case into consideration
- Reserves too many resources most of the time and thus leads to sub-optimal use of the resources

#### **Optimistic (stochastic) reservation**

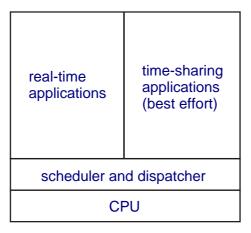
- Reservation is made for the expected value (mean value) of the processing resources
- Leads to a good utilization of the resources
- But can lead to an overload of the resources (blocking or sub-optimal execution of a process)
- Role of a run-time monitor:
  - Monitors resource usage
  - In case of overload initiates suitable action, such as scaling (QoS adaptation) or blocking of the process and withdrawal of the resource.

### **Real-time Process Specification for Multimedia**

Traditional systems usually have

- either a scheduling mechanism for time-sharing applications
- or a scheduling mechanism for real-time applications

In multimedia systems, a scheduler for both types of applications is required.



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### Real-time Applications vs. Multimedia Applications

Data in traditional real-time applications (e.g., in process automation and control) typically have **hard** real-time requirements.

Multimedia data is generally intended for presentation to the human being as the data sink. This means:

- Rare violations of deadlines are acceptable. For example, a macro block decoding failure in an MPEG video that is caused by late arrival of the data packet can be tolerated; the decoder repeats the corresponding macro block of the previous frame.
- In traditional real-time systems, operations are not always periodic. Multimedia data is periodic. Scheduling and dispatching algorithms can take advantage of the periodicity. Resource requirements are easier to predict.

### **Process Scheduling Goals**

The main goal of process scheduling and dispatching is to ensure that all deadlines of all processes are satisfied. Additional optimization goals are:

- A high average utilization of the resources, leading to high throughput
- fast computation of the resource allocation (an efficient algorithm).

The allocation does not necessarily have to be **optimal**. Complexity theory tells us that the computation of optimal schedules is NP-complete.

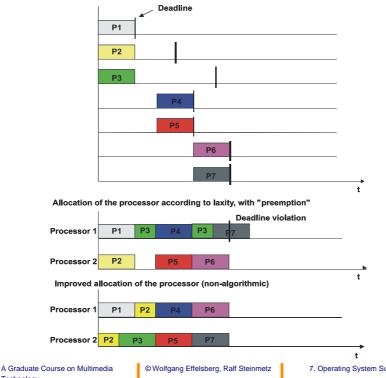
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## **Scheduling Problem: An Example**



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### 7.2 Scheduling Algorithms

### Requirements

- All deadlines must be met.
- · Resource utilization should be high.
- · Best-effort requests should not starve.
- The algorithm should be efficient, i.e., not use too much CPU time itself.

The scheduler can take advantage of the **periodicity** of continuous data streams.

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## Preemptive vs. Non-preemptive Scheduling

#### Preemptive scheduling

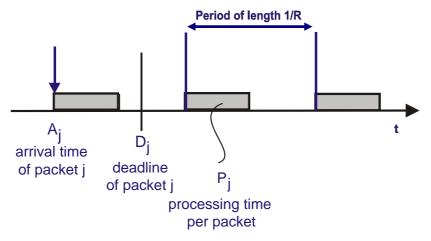
- If a process with higher priority requests a resource, the currently active (running) process is moved to the READY state, the high-priority process gets the CPU, i.e., is moved to the RUNNING state.
- There are many more process switches, process management overhead is high.

#### Non-preemptive scheduling

- Active processes are not interrupted by high-priority requests.
- Process switching occurs less frequently, overhead is lower.

Non-preemptive scheduling generally performs well for processes with short execution times.

### **Model of a Periodic Data Stream**



- · R: Arrival rate
- Pi: Processing time
- D<sub>i</sub>: Deadline for the termination of the process

These three parameters control the scheduling algorithm.

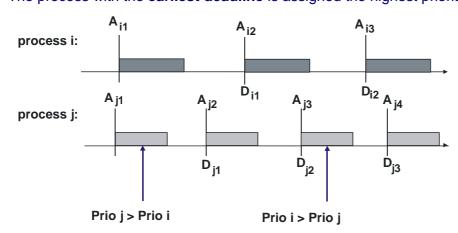
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## **Algorithm 1: Earliest Deadline First (EDF)**

The process with the earliest deadline is assigned the highest priority.



Process priorities vary over time.

One can show that the EDF algorithm always finds a valid schedule if there is one.

Resources can be used up to 100%.

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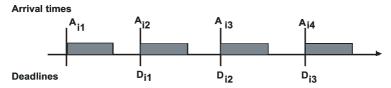
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## **EDF Scheduling**

In most cases of **periodic** scheduling, the deadline of a request is identical to the end of the period since the data buffer is needed again.



#### **Performance**

### Preemptive scheduling (Liu /Layland, 1973):

· maximum possible throughput:

$$\sum_{all \ streams \ i} R_i P_i \le 1$$

delay of a packet <= 1/R<sub>i</sub>

#### Non-preemptive scheduling (Nagarajan/Vogt, 1992)

- · same throughput as above
- delay of a packet <= 1/R<sub>i</sub> + P<sub>i</sub>

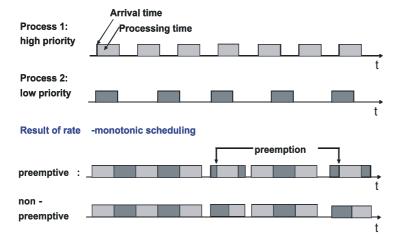
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## Algorithm 2: Rate-Monotonic Scheduling (RM)

The process with the **highest packet rate** is assigned the highest priority.

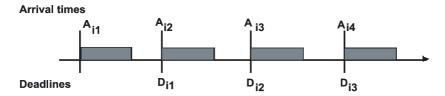


While streams are running priorities do not change; only when a new stream starts or when a stream ends, priorities are re-computed.

RM is an algorithm for **periodic** processes only.

## **Rate-Monotonic Scheduling**

Again, we set the deadline to the end of the period:



#### **Performance**

### Preemptive scheduling (Liu/Layland, 1973):

· maximum possible throughput:

$$\sum_{\textit{all streams i}} R_i P_i \le \ln 2$$

delay of a packet <= 1/R<sub>i</sub>

### Non-preemptive scheduling (Nagarajan/Vogt, 1992):

- highly sophisticated computation
- guaranteed throughput is much less

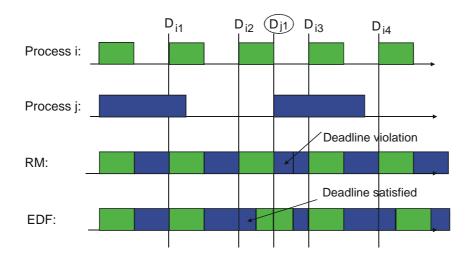
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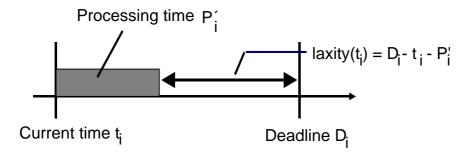
## **Examples for RM and EDF**

### With preemption



## **Other Scheduling Algorithms**

### Scheduling according to laxity



- Laxity: maximum allowed waiting time until processing begins
- The process with the smallest laxity is assigned the highest priority.
- Priorities must be updated continuously (large computational overhead).

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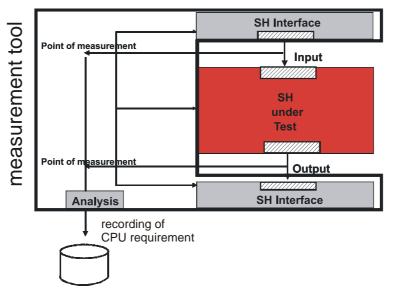
## **Determination of Processing Times**

#### **Problem**

- For most scheduling algorithms, the actual processing time per packet on the current CPU must be known!
- An analytic computation is hardly possible.

A pragmatic approach: measurement and standardization.

# **Measurement of Processing Time**



SH = Stream Handler

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