# An Effective Dynamic Task Scheduling Algorithm for Real-time Heterogeneous Multiprocessor Systems

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# Abstract

Real-time systems require both functionally correct executions and the results that are produced in time. Fault-tolerance is an important requirement of such systems, due to the catastrophic consequences of not tolerating faults. In this paper, we propose an effective Load-driven Adaptive Scheduling Algorithm (LASA) to dynamically schedule real-time tasks with fault-tolerance used in heterogeneous multiprocessor systems. In LASA, it has an adaptive mechanism to monitor the processor utilization and determine the number of backup copies been scheduled. Besides, we also design a task deferment mechanism to improve the utilization of reclaimed computing resources from redundant copies. According to our simulations, LASA makes a trade-off between the guarantee ratio and the reliability of fault-tolerance, and obviously outperforms other related methods.

**Keywords:** *Heterogeneous multiprocessor, Real-time, Task scheduling, Adaptive, Fault-tolerant* 

#### 1 Introduction

Real-time systems are defined as those systems in which the correctness of the system depends not only on the logical result of computation, but also on the time at which the results are produced [1]. In such systems, the real-time task scheduling can be performed either statically or dynamically. Since there does not exist an optimal scheduling algorithm for dynamically arrival tasks, many heuristic approaches have been evolved [1, 4, 8, 11-12]. Multiprocessor systems have emerged as a powerful computing means because of their capability for high performance and reliability for the real-time applications [8, 13-14]. Due to the nature of real-time tasks, several techniques have evolved for fault-tolerant scheduling [2, 4, 10]. In multiprocessor systems, fault-tolerance can be provided by scheduling multiple versions of tasks on different processors. Among different schemes for fault-tolerant scheduling, we choose the *Primary/Backup* (*PB*) scheme which is the most popular one.

In recent years, the adaptation mechanism opens up many avenues for further research in the dynamic scheduling problem [14]. The concept of adaptation mechanism is to allow the scheduler dynamically adjust its scheduling strategy, which can flexibly satisfy the different requirements under different circumstances. In this paper, we propose Loading-driven Adaptive Scheduling Algorithm (LASA), which will adjust the number of backup copies been scheduled based on current processor utilization. Clearly, LASA introduces a trade-off between rejecting fewer tasks and risking the fault-tolerance. Besides, we add a waiting queue to collect unschedulable tasks instead of directly reject them. When the computing resources are reclaimed after deallocating backup copies, tasks in the waiting queue can be rescheduled to improve the overall schedulability. From the simulation results, our LASA outperforms other related algorithms.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the system model and related work. Design issues and principles of LASA are introduced in section 3. In section 4, some performance evaluations are given. Finally, we give some conclusions in section 5.

#### 2 Fundamental Background

#### 2.1 System, Task, and Fault Models

The heterogeneous multiprocessor system consists of m application processors  $P_1...P_m$  connected by a network and one dedicated *scheduler*. The communication between the scheduler and application processors is through *dispatch queues*. Real-time tasks arrive at the scheduler and executed separately on all application processors. The *Spring* system is such an example [3].

Because [17] have proven that precedence constraints can be actually removed, real-time tasks are usually assumed non-preemptive, non-parallelizable, aperiodic, and independent [1, 4, 8, 11-15]. Every task  $T_i$  has following attributes: arrival time  $(a_i)$ , deadline  $(d_i)$ , and computation time on processor  $P_j$   $(c_{ij})$  [11-12]. These attributes are not known a priori until  $T_i$  arrives at the system. Each task  $T_i$  has primary  $(Pr_i)$  and backup  $(Bk_i)$ copies with identical attributes. Since tasks are not parallelizable,  $d_i - r_i$  should be long enough to schedule both primary and backup copies of  $T_i$  [4, 8].

Assume that each task encounters at most one failure either due to processor or software. That is, if  $Pr_i$  fails,  $Bk_i$ will always be completed successfully. This also implies that there is at most one failure in the system at a time. The faults are independent, and can be transient or permanent. Simply, we assume the scheduler is fault free.

# 2.2 Basic Terminologies [11, 12]

In the following, we list some definitions which will be used in our proposed algorithm. For each task  $T_i$ , we don't allow its two copies  $Pr_i$  and  $Bk_i$  been scheduled at overlapped time intervals. In addition,  $Pr_i$  and  $Bk_i$  must be executed on different application processors to tolerant permanent processor failure.

**Definition 2.1** For a task  $T_i$ , its *Latest Finish time of Primary* (*LFP*) is defined as

# $LFP(T_i) = d_i - \min\{c_{ij}\}, \forall P_j$

**Definition 2.2** For a task  $T_i$ ,  $EFT_j(T_i)$  indicates its *Earliest Finish Time* on  $P_j$ . If  $T_i$  cannot be completed before  $d_i$  on  $P_j$ ,  $EFT_j(T_i)$  is set as *infinite*.

**Definition 2.3** For a task  $T_i$ , its *Earliest Finish Time (EFT)* is defined as

$$EFT(T_i) = \min\{EFT_j(T_i)\}, \forall P_j$$

**Definition 2.4** For a task  $T_i$ , its *Latest Start Time of primary* (*LST*) is defined as

 $LST(T_i) = d_i - \max\{c_{ij}\} - 2^{nd}\max\{c_{ij}\}, \forall P_j$ 

**Definition 2.5**  $H(T_i)$  is the *heuristic* function defined as

 $H(T_i) = EFT(T_i) + d_i$ , if  $EFT(T_i)$  is not infinite

**Definition 2.6** For a task  $T_i$ ,  $BLST_j(T_i)$  indicates its *Latest* Start Time of backup on  $P_j$ . If  $Bk_i$  cannot be completed before  $d_i$  on  $P_j$ ,  $BLST_j(T_i)$  is set as zero.

**Definition 2.7** For a task  $T_i$ , its *Latest Start Time of backup (BLST)* is defined as

 $BLST(T_i) = \max\{BLST_j(T_i)\}, \forall P_j \text{ except the one}$ that executes  $Pr_i$ 

#### 2.3 Related Work

Because PB scheme schedules two copies of each task on different processors, the entire schedulability is obviously decreased. Therefore, two techniques *BB-overloading* and *backup deallocation* are designed to reduce the negative influence [4]. *Guarantee Ratio* (*GR*), which means the percentage of tasks whose deadlines are met, is a common objective for real-time task scheduling algorithms. In this paper we use the same definition of *GR* as in [5, 11-14].

$$GR = \frac{number of tasks whose deadlines are met}{total number of tasks arrived in the system} \times 100\%$$

Distance Myopic Algorithm (DMA) is a heuristic search algorithm that schedules real-time tasks on homogeneous multiprocessor with fault-tolerance [5, 11]. It uses an integrated heuristic function to prioritize tasks, and a *feasibility check window* to achieve look-ahead nature. *Fault Tolerant Myopic Algorithm (FTMA)* is extended from DMA to be used on heterogeneous multiprocessor [11]. It further changes the mechanism of



Figure 1. The loading-driven scheduler.

task queue construction to improve the schedulability. *Density first with minimum Non-overlap scheduling Algorithm (DNA)* is another effective algorithm [12]. It proposes the *density* function to select the most urgent task, and the *Minimum Non-Overlap (MNO)* strategy to minimize the reserved time slots for backup copies. All these three scheduling algorithms are quite efficient but never consider the adaptation mechanism.

In the following we introduce two adapted scheduling algorithms. [13] is an algorithm that can adjust the number of copies of each task been scheduled. Each task is given the redundancy level and fault probability, where the redundancy level is the maximum number of copies it can be scheduled. A task contributes a positive value to the *Performance Index (PI)* if completed successfully. Conversely, it incurs a small *PI* penalty if rejected and a large *PI* penalty if all its copies are failed. By evaluating the expected value of *PI*, the scheduler will decide the number of copies that each task must be scheduled.

[14] is a feedback-based algorithm that can adjust the degree of overlapping between the primary and backup copies of the same task. Its adapting strategy is based on an estimation of the primary fault probability and laxities of tasks. However, this algorithm is impractical because to decide the degree of overlapping is difficult. Besides, backup deallocation technique is unfit for this algorithm, because only part of backup copies is reclaimed.

# 3 Loading-driven Adaptive Scheduling Algorithm (LASA)

In Section 3.1, we give an overview of our proposed *Loading-driven Adaptive Scheduling Algorithm (LASA)*. Two main mechanisms of LASA, including the action of waiting queue and the loading-driven adaptation strategy, are described in Section 3.2 and 3.3 respectively.

#### 3.1 Overview

Before introducing proposed algorithm, we introduce the system model as shown in Figure 1. This architecture is similar as *Spring* system [3], with an additional *waiting queue* and the *feedback* from dispatch queues to scheduler. Unschedulable tasks will be collected in the waiting queue and tried to be rescheduled later, where other related methods usually reject them directly. The information of system loading will be responded back to the scheduler. According to this feedback, the scheduler will decide the backup copy of a task should be scheduled or not. Both these two mechanisms will be introduced in detail later.

Our proposed LASA mainly contains three phases: to select a task from the task queue, to allocate the selected task to application processors, and to reject unfitted tasks from the waiting queue. In this subsection we describe the task selection and allocation without adaptation strategy. The action of waiting queue and adaptation strategy will be introduced in Section 3.2 and 3.3.



Figure 3. The complete scheduling result of task set in Figure 2.

	$T_0$	$T_1$	$T_2$	$T_3$	$T_4$	$T_5$	$T_6$	$T_7$	$T_8$	$T_9$
$r_i$	11	16	16	18	29	45	48	53	54	70
$d_i$	118	124	131	130	137	153	157	173	165	165
$c_{i1}$	52	52	49	44	46	48	53	45	43	47
$c_{i2}$	44	52	54	48	47	47	52	54	45	46
<i>c</i> <sub><i>i</i>3</sub>	53	49	56	56	58	48	42	57	48	46
$c_{i4}$	44	53	46	43	44	43	43	59	46	44

Figure 2. A task set and its attributes.

In the first phase, the heuristic values  $H(T_i)$  of all tasks in the task queue are calculated based on Definition 2.5. During the calculation, if we find a task  $T_i$  with infinite  $EFT(T_i)$ , which means  $T_i$  cannot be successfully scheduled currently, this task will be moved into the waiting queue. After that,  $T_i$  with smallest  $H(T_i)$  value is selected to be scheduled.

In the second phase, we try to schedule both primary and backup copies of  $T_i$  to application processors. Notice that from the definition of  $EFT(T_i)$ , only one task copy of  $T_i$  is considered. That is, for the selected task  $T_i$ ,  $Pr_i$  can always be successfully scheduled but  $Bk_i$  may not. Therefore, we first calculate  $BLST(T_i)$  defined above before scheduling  $T_i$ . If  $BLST(T_i)$  equals to zero,  $T_i$  is moved to the waiting queue because there is no available time slot for  $Bk_i$  on any application processor. Otherwise, both  $Pr_i$  and  $Bk_i$  can be successfully scheduled. We simply use ASAP and ALAP strategies to schedule  $Pr_i$  and  $Bk_i$  respectively in LASA. In order to increase the overall schedulability, *BB-overloading* technique is also applied. The first two phases of LASA will be executed repeatedly until the task queue is empty.

For example, Figure 2 lists a task set and its attributes. Suppose there are four application processors, the complete scheduling result of this task set is shown in Figure 3. From this result, we can find that tasks  $T_4$ ,  $T_7$ ,  $T_8$ , and  $T_9$  are moved into the waiting queue and the *GR* equals to 60%.

#### 3.2 Task Deferment and Rejection in Waiting Queue

From related works we have surveyed, a task has only one chance to be scheduled. If it cannot be successfully scheduled at that time, it will be rejected directly. In fact, because  $Bk_i$  will be executed only when the corresponding  $Pr_i$  fails, a task still has other chances to be rescheduled. This situation is more obvious when the *backup deallocation* technique is applied. Therefore, in LASA, we add a waiting queue to collect unschedulable tasks and try to reschedule them when every backup copy is deallocated.

Meanwhile, we also need a mechanism to reject unfitted tasks from the waiting queue that cannot be successfully rescheduled any more. Hence, before rescheduling, we calculate  $LST(T_i)$  values of tasks in the



Figure 4. The scheduling result of task set in Figure 2 (with the waiting queue).



$$EFT(T_i) \neq \infty \quad BLST(T_i) \neq 0$$



Figure 5. Adaptation strategy used in LASA.

waiting queue. All  $LST(T_i)$  values are compared with the time that the backup deallocation just happens. If any  $LST(T_i)$  is smaller, which means  $T_i$  has missed the latest time been successfully scheduled already, that task will be rejected from the waiting queue.

Let us consider the previous example. Suppose no failure happens,  $Bk_0$  will be deallocated at time 55. At that time, three tasks  $T_4$ ,  $T_7$ , and  $T_8$  in the waiting queue are with  $LST(T_i)$  values 32, 57, and 63 respectively. Clearly that  $T_4$  is rejected. Because both  $T_7$  and  $T_8$  cannot be rescheduled at that time, they are resided in the waiting queue. Then, at time 62,  $Bk_2$  and  $Bk_3$  are deallocated simultaneously. At this time,  $T_7$  is rejected and  $T_8$  is successfully rescheduled on  $P_4$  and  $P_2$ . The modified scheduling result is shown in Figure 4. We can see that GR is improved from 60% to 70%.

# 3.3 Loading-driven Adaptation Strategy

When too many tasks arrive at a small time interval, the system is overloaded and some tasks will be rejected by the scheduler. Since rejecting tasks degrades the overall GR (or schedulability), it is reasonable to intentionally stop scheduling backup copies to accept more tasks. This approach apparently takes a trade-off between the GR and the degree of reliability. Hence, in LASA, we propose a loading-driven adaptation strategy, which aims to improve the GR without sacrificing too much reliability.

**Definition 3.1** For a real-time system with *m* application processors, *L* denotes the *system loading* defined as:

$$L = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i} \frac{avg(c_{ij})}{d_i - a_i}$$

for all tasks currently resided in dispatched queues and  $avg(c_{ij})$  indicates the average execution time of  $T_i$  on  $P_1...P_m$ 

As shown in above definition, we use the processor utilization in a small time interval to indicate the *system loading*. L is dynamically calculated by the scheduler. In the beginning, all dispatch queues are empty and L equals to zero. Then, L increases when the scheduler dispatches a new task, and decreases when a dispatched task is finished either successfully or faultily.

Our adaptation strategy is appended to the task allocation phase in LASA. Two thresholds  $L_A$  and  $L_R$  are



Figure 7. The scheduling result of task set in Figure 2 (at time step 70).

given in advance. As the variation of L, we adaptively apply three mechanisms as follows to allocate the selected task  $T_i$ .

**Case 1:** If both feasible time slots of  $Pr_i$  and  $Bk_i$  can be found,  $T_i$  is accepted.  $Pr_i$  is allocated directly, but  $Bk_i$  is only allocated if  $L \le L_A$ .

**Case 2:** If only the feasible time slot of  $Pr_i$  can be found,  $T_i$  is accepted with condition  $L > L_R$ . Otherwise,  $T_i$  is moved to the waiting queue.

**Case 3:** If the feasible time slot of  $Pr_i$  cannot be found,  $T_i$  is moved to the waiting queue directly.

Above allocation mechanisms are illustrated in Figure 5. Notice that the quantitative relation between  $L_A$  and  $L_R$  is uncertain. Considering the previous example, suppose that  $L_A$  and  $L_R$  equal to 0.4 and 0.5 respectively. When  $T_5$  arrives at time step 45,  $T_0 \sim T_3$  have been scheduled with

both two copies and  $T_4$  has been moved into the waiting queue. At that time, even through both feasible time slots for  $Pr_5$  and  $Bk_5$  can be found, only  $Pr_5$  is allocated because  $L = 0.451 > L_A$ . Similarly,  $T_6$  is accepted with only  $Pr_6$  been allocated. After the scheduler moves  $T_7$  and  $T_8$  into the waiting queue, the partial scheduling result is shown in Figure 6 (time step 54).

At time step 55, the scheduler deallocates  $Bk_0$  and rejects  $T_4$ . When  $Bk_2$  and  $Bk_3$  are both deallocated at time step 62,  $T_7$  is rejected and only  $Pr_8$  is allocated because L= 0.448 >  $L_A$ . Then, at time step 70,  $T_9$  is accepted with both two copies because L becomes 0.319. Figure 7 shows the complete scheduling result at time step 70. We can see that with the loading-driven adaptation strategy, *GR* is further improved to 80%. Finally, the overall algorithm of LASA is listed in Figure 8.

- Calculate H(T<sub>i</sub>) for all tasks in the task queue
   if (EFT(T<sub>i</sub>) is *infinite*)
   Move T<sub>i</sub> into the waiting queue
- 2. Select  $T_i$  with the smallest  $H(T_i)$
- 3. Find feasible time slots for the selected  $T_i$
- 4. if (*BLST*(*T<sub>i</sub>*) is not *zero*)
  if (*L* > *L<sub>A</sub>*) Allocate only *Pr<sub>i</sub>*else Allocate *Pr<sub>i</sub>* and *Bk<sub>i</sub>*else if (*L* > *L<sub>R</sub>*) Allocate only *Pr<sub>i</sub>*else Move *T<sub>i</sub>* into the waiting queue
- 5. Repeat steps 1~4 until the task queue is empty
- 6. if *backup deallocations* happened at time step *t* Calculate *LST*(*T<sub>i</sub>*) for all tasks in waiting queue
   if (*LST*(*T<sub>i</sub>*) < *t*) Reject *T<sub>i</sub>*

Figure 8. The overall algorithm of LASA.

## 4 Performance Evaluations

After designing the algorithm of LASA, we construct a simulation environment to evaluate it. Our environment and experimental results are described in this section.

# 4.1 Simulation Environment

Our environment contains two parts named the task generator and the dynamic simulator. The task generator generates a real-time task set in the non-decreasing order of arrival times. Figure 9 lists all used parameters, which can generate task set with any characteristic [12]. For a task  $T_i$ , its worst case execution times  $c_{ij}$  are uniformly distributed in interval [*MIN\_C*, *MAX\_C*]. The inter-arrival times between tasks is exponentially distributed with mean (*MIN\_C* + *MAX\_C*) / 21*m* [5]. In order to make sure that both copies of  $T_i$  can be successfully scheduled, its deadline  $d_i$  is chosen uniformly between  $(a_i + \max c_{ij} + 2^{nd}\max c_{ij}, a_i + R \times \max c_{ij})$ .

The dynamic simulator simulates events including task arrivals, task finishes, backup deallocations, and failure occurs. We consider three failure types: software failure, permanent hardware failure, and transient hardware failure. A software failure immediately terminates the task that causes the fault. The failed processor with permanent hardware failure will never be available. Contrarily, if the hardware failure is transient,

Parameter	Explanation	Values		
MIN_C	Min. execution time	10		
MAX_C	Max. execution time	80		
1	Task arrival rate	{0.4, 0.5,, 1.2}		
R	Laxity	{2, 3,, 10}		
т	Number of application	{3 4 10}		
m	processors	[3, 4,, 10]		

Figure 9. Parameters used in the task generator.

Parameter	Explanation	Values
FP	Probability of a primary copy failure	[0, 0.1]
SoftFP	Probability of software failure	
HardFP	Probability of hardware failure	0.8
PermHardFP	PermHardFP Probability of a permanent hardware failure	
MAX_Recovery	Maximum recovery time after a transient hardware fault	50

Figure 10. Parameters used in the dynamic simulator.

that processor will be available after *MAX\_Recovery*. Probabilities for failures and related parameters are listed in Figure 10 [12].

#### 4.2 Experimental Results

In this subsection, we evaluate performances of FTMA, DNA, n\_DNA (DNA with waiting queue), LASA, and m\_LASA (LASA with MNO strategy). For each set of parameters, we generate 20 task sets and each one contains 20000 independent tasks. Moreover, because FTMA requires additional parameters, we evaluate it with various parameter combinations and select the best result. We directly use the *GR* defined above as the objective.

Figures 11~13 shows the GR of different scheduling algorithm with various task arrival rates (1), task laxity (R), and the number of processors (m). In these evaluations we simply assume all application processors are fault-free. Interestingly, results in these figures are quite similar. FTMA has the lowest GR because it schedules backup copies by ASAP strategy, which is hard to take advantages from backup deallocation. Next, DNA performs better than that of FTMA, since it highly



Figure 13. Effect of the number of processors (*m*). (R = 3, I = 0.7, FP = 0,  $L_A = 0.95$ ,  $L_R = 1$ )

exploits properties of backup overloading and deallocation. From performances of DNA and n\_DNA, we find that adding the waiting queue can cause the positive influence. In summary, LASA obviously has the highest *GR* in most circumstances. According to curves of LASA and m\_LASA, we further conclude that MNO strategy is unfit for LASA.

Figure 14 shows the GR of our LASA with various failure probabilities (*FP*). We find that the GR decreases with the *FP* increasing in all cases, especially when the



Figure 14. Effect of the failure probability. The 3-tuple indicates (1, m, R)

workload is heavy. However, the decrease of GR is actually not significant, which means the performance of LASA is quite stable.

Next, in Figure 15, we evaluate the influence of GR between  $L_A$  and  $L_R$ . When  $L_A$  varies from 0.5 to 1.0, the decrease of GR is about 5% in different  $L_R$  values. Contrarily, for any constant  $L_A$ , the difference of GR is less than 0.5% when  $L_R$  varies from 0.7 to 1.0. It is obvious that the value of  $L_A$  causes more influence of GR than that of  $L_R$ .



Figure 15. Effect of the threshold values. (R = 3, m = 8, l = 1.2, FP = 0)

Finally, Figure 16 simultaneously shows the *GR* and the percentage of primary-only tasks been scheduled with various  $L_A$ . Since the value of  $L_R$  has slightly effects of *GR*, we set  $L_R$  equals to  $L_A$  for convenience in this evaluation. In this figure, we find that when  $L_A$  varies from 1.0 to 0.1, the proportion of scheduled primary-only tasks increases from 0 to 100% but the improvement of *GR* is less than 8%. Actually, the proportion of scheduled primary-only tasks can imply the fault-tolerant capability of the system. Therefore, if we don't want to sacrifice too much reliability,  $L_A$  should be set larger.

#### 5 Conclusions

In this paper, we propose an effective *Loading-driven Adaptive Scheduling Algorithm* (*LASA*) to dynamically schedule real-time tasks with fault-tolerance. LASA mainly contains two features. First, an additional waiting queue is added to collect unschedulabe tasks instead of reject them directly. These tasks are tried to be rescheduled at proper time. Second, based on the information of system loading responded back to the scheduler, we intentionally schedule only one copy of a task to accept more tasks when the system is overloaded. A simulation environment is also constructed to evaluate LASA. From experimental results, these two features



Figure 16. Effect of the threshold values. (R = 3, m = 8, l = 1.2, FP = 0)

actually can improve the overall schedulability. Besides, although the system cannot tolerant failures when it is overloaded, the sacrifice of reliability is quite minor.

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