Partitioned Multiprocessor Fixed-Priority Scheduling of Sporadic Real-Time Tasks

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Abstract—Partitioned multiprocessor scheduling has been widely accepted in academia and industry to statically assign and partition real-time tasks onto identical multiprocessor systems. This paper studies fixed-priority partitioned multiprocessor scheduling for sporadic real-time systems, in which deadline-monotonic scheduling is applied on each processor. Prior to this paper, the best known results are by Fisher, Barnah, and Baker with speedup factors $4 - \frac{1}{n}$ and $3 - \frac{1}{n}$ for arbitrary-deadline and constrained-deadline sporadic real-time task systems, respectively, where $M$ is the number of processors. We show that a greedy mapping strategy has a speedup factor $3 - \frac{1}{n}$ when considering task systems with arbitrary deadlines. Such a factor holds for polynomial-time schedulability tests and exponential-time (exact) schedulability tests. Moreover, we also improve the speedup factor to $2.84306$ when considering constrained-deadline task systems. We also provide tight examples when the fitting strategy in the mapping stage is arbitrary and $M$ is sufficiently large. For both constrained- and arbitrary-deadline task systems, the analytical result surprisingly shows that using exact tests does not gain theoretical benefits (with respect to speedup factors) if the speedup factor analysis is oblivious of the particular fitting strategy used.

Keywords: Sporadic real-time tasks, resource augmentation, approximation, schedulability analysis.

1 Introduction

The sporadic task model has been widely adopted as the basic model for real-time systems with recurring executions [31]. A sporadic real-time task $\tau_i$ is characterized by its minimum inter-arrival time $T_i$, its timing constraint or relative deadline $D_i$, and its (worst-case) execution time $C_i$. A sporadic task defines an infinite sequence of task instances, also called jobs, that arrive with the minimum inter-arrival time constraint. Under the minimum inter-arrival time constraint, any two consecutive jobs of task $\tau_i$ should be temporally separated by at least $T_i$. When a job of task $\tau_i$ arrives at time $t$, the job should finish no later than its absolute deadline $t + D_i$. If we consider a task releases its jobs periodically, such a task model is the well-known Liu and Layland task model [30], where $T_i$ is the period of the task. An input task set is said to have 1) implicit deadlines if the relative deadlines of sporadic tasks are equal to their minimum inter-arrival times, 2) constrained deadlines if the minimum inter-arrival times are no less than their relative deadlines, and (3) arbitrary deadlines, otherwise.

Through this paper, we only consider implicitly preemptive scheduling. That is, a job may be preempted by another job on a processor. For scheduling sporadic tasks on a processor, the preemptive earliest-deadline-first (EDF) policy is optimal [30] to meet the timing constraints. However, EDF requires to prioritize the jobs in the ready queue by using their absolute deadlines, and the overhead is in general not negligible. The industrial practice is to use fixed-priority scheduling, also supported in most real-time operating systems, in which a task is assigned with a fixed priority level. The seminal work by Liu and Layland [30] shows that rate monotonic (RM) scheduling is optimal for uniprocessor fixed-priority scheduling when considering implicit-deadline task systems. Moreover, deadline monotonic (DM) scheduling [29] is optimal for uniprocessor fixed-priority scheduling for constrained-deadline task systems. For arbitrary-deadline task systems, Audsley et al. [2] provide an optimal priority assignment algorithm to define the priority levels of the sporadic tasks for uniprocessor fixed-priority scheduling.

Testing whether a task set can be feasibly scheduled by a scheduling algorithm is called a schedulability test. Even though RM and DM are known to be optimal for uniprocessor fixed-priority scheduling, the exact schedulability tests for uniprocessor fixed-priority scheduling requires pseudo-polynomial time by using the exact tests by Lehoczky, Sha, and Ding [28] for constrained-deadline systems and in exponential time by Lehoczky [27] for arbitrary-deadline systems. Specifically, computing the worst-case response time of one (lowest-priority) task is shown $NP$-hard by Eisenbrand and Rothvoß [20]. There have been extensive results about testing the schedulability of uniprocessor fixed-priority scheduling. The more efficient strategy is to provide only sufficient conditions that can be verified in polynomial-time, like the utilization bound [19], [25], [30], the quadratic utilization bound [7], the hyperbolic utilization bound [8], [16], the approximated request bound functions [1], [11], [21].

To quantify the performance loss due to efficient schedulability tests and assigning tasks with fixed priority levels, we will adopt the notion of speedup factors, (also known as resource augmentation factors). A fixed-priority scheduling algorithm with a speedup factor $\rho$ guarantees to produce feasible schedules by running (each processor) $\rho$ times as fast as in the original platform (speed), if there exists a feasible schedule (under arbitrary policies) for the task system. The speedup factors of DM scheduling, with respect to the optimal uniprocessor EDF scheduling, are $\frac{1}{\ln 2}, 1.76322$, and 2 for implicit-deadline, constrained-deadline, and arbitrary-deadline task sets [17], [19], respectively.

To schedule real-time tasks on multiprocessor platforms, there have been three widely adopted paradigms: partitioned, global, and semi-partitioned scheduling. A comprehensive survey of multiprocessor scheduling in real-time systems can be found in [18]. In this paper, we consider partitioned scheduling, in which the tasks are statically partitioned onto processors and all the processors are identical. That is, all the
jobs of a task are executed on a specific processor with fixed-priority scheduling.

However, problems on multiprocessors become \(\mathcal{NP}\)-complete (or worse) in the strong sense even in the simplest possible cases. For example, deciding if an implicit-deadline task set with the same period is schedulable on multiple processors is already \(\mathcal{NP}\)-complete in the strong sense [31].

Table I: Summary of the speedup factors in the multiprocessor partitioned scheduling problem for sporadic task systems. For more details of implicit-deadline cases, please refer to Table III in the survey [18].

|                  | implicit deadlines | constrained deadlines | arbitrary deadlines |
|------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| partitioned EDF  | \(\frac{3}{M} - \frac{1}{M^2}\) [23] | 3 \(\frac{1}{M}\) [5] | 4 \(\frac{2}{M}\) [4] |
|                  | PTAS [24]         | 2.6322 \(\frac{1}{M}\) [13] | 3 \(\frac{1}{M}\) [13] |
| partitioned DM   | \(\frac{3}{4} \frac{1}{10}\) [10] | 3 \(\frac{1}{M}\) [22] | 4 \(\frac{2}{M}\) [22] |
|                  | 1.5 [25]          | 2.84306 (this paper) | 3 \(\frac{1}{M}\) (this paper) |

Our Contributions: Table I summarizes the related results and the contribution of this paper for multiprocessor partitioned scheduling. We focus on fixed-priority multiprocessor partitioned scheduling, and improve the best known results by Fisher, Baruah, and Baker [23]. The deadline-monotonic partitioning algorithm is explored in a great detail in this paper. Our contributions are:

- We show that the deadline-monotonic partitioning algorithm has a speedup factor 3 \(\frac{1}{M}\) when considering task systems with arbitrary deadlines, where \(M\) is the number of processors. Such a factor holds for polynomial-time schedulability tests and exponential-time (exact) schedulability tests. Moreover, we also improve the speedup factor to 2.84306 when considering constrained-deadline task systems by using polynomial-time and pseudo-polynomial-time (exact) schedulability tests.

- The existing results by adopting the deadline-monotonic partitioning algorithm were analyzed based on approximated schedulability tests. One of our key contributions is to answer the question: Will it be possible to further reduce the speedup factors by using exact tests in the deadline-monotonic partitioning algorithm? Our answer to this question is NO! Using exact tests in the above algorithm does not have any chance to reduce the speedup factors if the speedup factor analysis is oblivious of the particular fitting strategy used. We show that all the speedup factor analyses in this paper are asymptotically tight with polynomial-time schedulability tests and exponential-time (pseudo polynomial-time) schedulability tests if the speedup factor analysis is oblivious of the particular fitting strategy used. As a result, to improve the speedup factor, better fixed-priority scheduling strategies or more precise analyses for concrete fitting strategies are needed.

2 System Models and Preliminary Results

2.1 Task and Platform Model

We consider a set \(T = \{\tau_1, \tau_2, \ldots, \tau_N\}\) of \(N\) independent sporadic real-time tasks. A task \(\tau_i\) is defined by \((C_i, T_i, D_i)\).

That is, for task \(\tau_i\), \(D_i\) is its relative deadline, \(T_i\) is its minimum inter-arrival time (period), and \(C_i\) is its (worst-case) execution time. We consider identical processors in the platform. Therefore, no matter which processor a task is assigned to, the execution and timing property remains. According to the relations of the relative deadlines and the minimum inter-arrival times of the tasks in \(T\), the task set can be identified to be with 1) implicit deadlines, i.e., \(D_i = T_i, \forall \tau_i \in T\), 2) constrained deadlines, i.e., \(D_i \leq T_i, \forall \tau_i \in T\), or 3) arbitrary deadlines.
For brevity, the utilization of task $\tau_i$ is denoted by $U_i = \frac{C_i}{\tau_i}$. Moreover, let $\Delta_i = \max\{U_i, \frac{C_i}{\tau_i}\}$. For a set $X$, its cardinality is denoted by $|X|$.

We will consider preemptive fixed-priority scheduling on each processor. Specifically, we will only use deadline-monotonic (DM) scheduling on each processor to assign the priority levels of the tasks. That is, task $\tau_i$ is with higher priority than $\tau_j$ if $D_i < D_j$, in which the ties are broken arbitrarily. Therefore, for the rest of this paper, we index the tasks from the shortest relative deadline to the longest, i.e., $D_i \geq D_j$ if $i < j$. Note that DM priority assignment is an optimal fixed-priority scheduling for implicit-deadline and constrained-deadline task sets $[29]$. Although DM priority assignment is not an optimal fixed-priority assignment when we consider arbitrary-deadline task systems, it has a constant speedup factor, to be discussed in Section 2.3.

### 2.2 Problem Definition

Given task set $T$, a feasible task partition on $M$ identical processors is a collection of $M$ subsets, say, $T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_M$, of $T$ such that

- $T_m \cap T_{m'} = \emptyset$ for all $m \neq m'$,
- $\cup_{m=1}^M T_m$ is equal to the input task set $T$, and
- set $T_m$ can meet the timing constraints by DM scheduling on a processor $m$.

Without loss of generality, we can assume that $U_i \leq 100\%$ and $\frac{C_i}{\tau_i} \leq 100\%$, i.e., $\Delta_i \leq 100\%$, for any task $\tau_i$; otherwise, there is clearly no feasible task partition.

### 2.3 Speedup Factors/Bounds

This paper focuses on the case where the arrival times of the sporadic tasks are not specified. Therefore, the approximation is for the worst cases by considering the worst-case behaviour to be feasibly scheduled by DM. If an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ for the studied problem has a speedup factor $\rho$, it guarantees to always produce a feasible solution by speeding each processor up to $\rho$ times of the original speed in the platform, if task set $T$ can be feasibly scheduled (not restricted to DM) on the original $M$ identical processors. In other words, by taking the negation of the above statement, we know that if the algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ fails to feasibly partition the task set $T$ on $M$ identical processors, there is no feasible task partition when each processor runs $\frac{1}{\rho}$ times slower than the original platform speed. For the rest of this paper, we use 1 to denote the original platform speed. Therefore, running the platform at speed $s$ implies that the execution time of task $\tau_i$ becomes $\frac{C_i}{\tau_i}$. Note that speedup factors are used for quantifying the behaviour of the designed algorithm. This is useful, especially for the negation part to quantify the error the algorithm makes when it does not provide a feasible solution.

For fixed-priority scheduling, the speedup factors of DM scheduling, with respect to the optimal uniprocessor EDF scheduling, are $\frac{1}{\sqrt{m}}, 1.76322$, and 2 for implicit-deadline, constrained-deadline, and arbitrary-deadline task sets $[17]$, respectively. To quantify the schedulability of the input task set, we would need to know the necessary condition for being schedulable at speed $s$ on the $M$ processors. The necessary conditions $\max_{\tau_i \in T} \Delta_i \leq s$ and $\sum_{\tau_i \in T} \frac{C_i}{\tau_i} \leq s$ are pretty straightforward. As we focus on arbitrary-deadline and constrained-deadline sporadic task systems, we can also quantify the necessary condition defined by the demand. Here, we can release the first job of tasks synchronously (say, at time 0), and the subsequent job arrivals should be as rapidly as legally possible. A necessary condition to be schedulable is to ensure that the total execution time of the jobs arriving no earlier than $s$ and with relative deadlines no later than $d$ is no more than $M \cdot (d - a)$ for any $a < d$. This is identical to the well-known demand bound function $dbf(\tau_i, t)$, as in $[6]$, of a task $\tau_i$ within any time interval with length equal to $t$, defined as

$$dbf(\tau_i, t) = \max\left\{0, \frac{t - D_i}{\tau_i} + 1\right\} \times C_i.$$  \hfill (1)

Therefore, as a necessary condition, to ensure the schedulability on $M$ processors, if a task set is schedulable for an algorithm on $M$ processors, then

$$\forall t > 0, \quad \sum_{\tau_i \in T} dbf(\tau_i, t) \leq Mt.$$  \hfill (2)

With the above discussions, we can conclude the following lemma for the necessary condition to be schedulable by any algorithm, which has also been utilized by Chen and Chakraborty $[13]$.

**Lemma 1:** A task set is not schedulable by any multiprocessor scheduling algorithm by running the $M$ processors at any speed $s$ if

$$\max_{\tau_i \in T} \left\{\sum_{\tau_i \in T} \frac{C_i}{\tau_i} \leq \frac{1}{M} \sum_{\tau_i \in T} U_i \leq \Delta_i \leq s\right\} > s.$$  \hfill (3)

For the rest of the paper, we will focus ourselves on the negation part of the speedup factor analysis. That is, we are only interested in the failure cases of the partitioning algorithm and use Lemma 1 to quantify $s$ for showing the speedup factors. Note that Lemma 1 is also the necessary condition for global multiprocessor scheduling. It may seem that we are more pessimistic by comparing to the necessary condition of global multiprocessor scheduling instead of that of partitioned multiprocessor scheduling. However, in our tightness analysis, comparing to partitioned scheduling and global scheduling does not differ very much.

### 3 Deadline-Monotonic Partitioning

This section presents the deadline-monotonic partitioning strategy, proposed by Baruah and Fisher $[4], [5], [22]$, for the multiprocessor partitioned scheduling problem. Note that such a strategy works in general for fixed-priority scheduling (RM, DM) and dynamic-priority scheduling (EDF), by adopting proper schedulability tests. The speedup factor for EDF/DM was shown to be $3 - \frac{1}{M}$ and $4 - \frac{1}{2M}$ $[4], [5], [22]$ for constrained-deadline systems and arbitrary-deadline systems, respectively. When considering EDF scheduling, Chen and Chakraborty $[15]$ improved the speedup factor to $2.6322 - \frac{1}{M}$ and $3 - \frac{1}{2M}$ for constrained-deadline systems and arbitrary-deadline systems, respectively.

For completeness, we repeat the algorithm in $[4], [5], [22]$, in which the pseudo-code of Algorithm 1 Deadline-monotonic partitioning considers the given tasks.
from the shortest relative deadline to the longest relative deadline for assignment. When a task \( \tau_k \) is considered, a processor \( m \) with \( m \in \{1, 2, \ldots, M\} \) is selected to assign task \( \tau_k \), where \( T_m \) is the set of the tasks (as a subset of \( \{\tau_1, \tau_2, \ldots, \tau_{k-1}\} \)), which have been assigned to processor \( m \) before considering \( \tau_k \). If there is no feasible \( m \) that can feasibly schedule \( \tau_k \) and \( T_m \) on the processor, we return that no feasible solution is found by this algorithm.

### 3.1 Fitting Strategy

The fitting strategy when we consider to assign task \( \tau_k \) on a processor \( m \) can be

- the first-fit strategy: by choosing the minimum \( m \) that is feasible;
- the arbitrary-fit strategy: by choosing any \( m \) that is feasible (this is also the case if the speedup factor analysis is oblivious of the particular fitting strategy used);
- the best-fit strategy: by choosing the index \( m \) that has the maximum workload-index;
- the worst-fit strategy: by choosing the index \( m \) that has the minimum workload-index.

The workload-index can be defined as the total utilization or other means. The analysis in the literature [4], [5], [15], [22] works in general by using any fitting strategy listed above, even though in several cases only the first-fit strategy was mentioned in the descriptions [4], [5], [22].

### 3.2 Schedulability Tests for DM

Therefore, the remaining building block is to test whether task \( \tau_k \) can be feasibly scheduled on a processor \( m \) under DM scheduling. This has been widely studied in the literature. We will review some of these methods and explain their corresponding speedup factors when they are adopted in Step [4] in Algorithm [1].

**Constrained Deadline:** To verify the schedulability of constrained-deadline task \( \tau_k \) under fixed-priority scheduling in uniprocessor systems, the time-demand analysis (TDA) [28] can be adopted. That is, if and only if

\[
\exists t \text{ with } 0 < t \leq D_k \text{ and } C_k + \sum_{\tau_i \in T_m} \left( \frac{t}{T_i} \right) C_i \leq t, \quad (4)
\]

then task \( \tau_k \) is schedulable under DM scheduling, where \( T_m \) is the set of tasks with higher priority than task \( \tau_k \) since we sort the tasks according to their relative deadlines. TDA requires pseudo-polynomial-time complexity, as all the points that lie in \((0, D_k]\) need to be checked for Eq. (4).

Fisher, Baruah, and Baker [22] approximate the test in Eq. (4) by testing only

\[
\exists t \text{ with } 0 < t \leq D_k \text{ and } C_k + \sum_{\tau_i \in T_m} \left( 1 + \frac{t}{T_i} \right) C_i \leq t.
\]

Due to the linearity of the condition in Eq. (5), the test is equivalent to the verification of whether

\[
C_k + \sum_{\tau_i \in T_m} \left( 1 + \frac{D_k}{T_i} \right) C_i \leq D_k \quad (6)
\]

for constrained-deadline systems.

We can also approximate the schedulability test by using utilization-based analysis as follows: We classify the task set \( T_m \) into two subsets:

- \( T_{m_1} \) consists of the higher-priority tasks with periods smaller than \( D_k \);
- \( T_{m_2} \) consists of the higher-priority tasks with periods larger than or equal to \( D_k \).

The following theorem has been concluded recently by using a utilization-based schedulability-test framework [16].

**Theorem 1 (Chen, Huang, Liu [15]):** Task \( \tau_k \) in a sporadic task system with constrained deadlines is schedulable by DM scheduling algorithm on processor \( m \) if

\[
\left( \frac{C'_{k,m}}{D_k} + 1 \right) \prod_{\tau_j \in T_{m_1}} (U_j + 1) \leq 2. \quad (7)
\]

where \( C'_{k,m} \) is \( C_k + \sum_{\tau_i \in T_{m_2}} C_i \).

**Arbitrary Deadline:** For arbitrary-deadline systems, the exact schedulability test is to use a busy-window concept to evaluate the worst-case response time [27] by using TDA. The finishing time \( R_{k,h} \) of the \( h \)-th job of task \( \tau_k \) in the busy window is the minimum \( t \) such that

\[
hC_k + \sum_{\tau_i \in T_m} \left[ \frac{t}{T_i} \right] C_i \leq t.
\]

Therefore, its response time is \( R_{k,h} - (h - 1)T_k \). To test the busy window length of task \( \tau_k \), the busy window of task \( \tau_k \) finishes on the \( h \)-th job if \( R_{k,h} \leq hT_k \). The maximum response time among the jobs in the busy window is the worst-case response time [27]. The schedulability test is exact, but this takes exponential time complexity, since the busy window length can be up to the hyper-period, which is exponential of the input size.

The approximation by Fisher, Baruah, and Baker [22] in Eq. (5) remains feasible for analyzing the arbitrary-deadline systems. This leads to test whether

\[
C_k + \sum_{\tau_i \in T_m} \left( 1 + \frac{D_k}{T_i} \right) C_i \leq D_k \quad \text{and} \quad \quad (8a)
\]

\[
U_k + \sum_{\tau_i \in T_m} U_i \leq 1. \quad (8b)
\]

Eq. (8b) is important in arbitrary-deadline systems to ensure
that the approximation in Eq. (8a) does not underestimate the workload after \( D_k \).

Moreover, Bini et al. [9] provide a tighter analysis than Eq. (8b). They show that the worst-case response time of task \( \tau_k \) is at most

\[
C_k + \frac{\sum_{i \in T_m} C_i - \sum_{i \in T_m} U_i C_i}{1 - \sum_{i \in T_m} U_i}.
\]

Therefore, the schedulability condition in Eqs. (8a) and (8b) can be rewritten as

\[
C_k + D_k \left( \sum_{i \in T_m} U_i \right) + \sum_{i \in T_m} C_i - \sum_{i \in T_m} U_i C_i \leq D_k,
\]

\[ (9a) \]

and

\[
U_k + \sum_{i \in T_m} U_i \leq 1.
\]

\[ (9b) \]

### 3.3 Time Complexity and Correctness

Since we use partitioned scheduling, as long as Algorithm 1 returns a task partition, it is guaranteed to be feasible if the test in Step 4 is a sufficient schedulability test for task \( \tau_k \) by using DM scheduling. The time complexity of the algorithm depends upon the time complexity of the schedulability test and the fitting strategy. Suppose that the fitting strategy requires time complexity \( O(F) \) for one task and the time complexity to test whether task \( \tau_k \) is schedulable on processor \( m \) is \( O(H) \). Then, the overall time complexity is \( O(NMHP + NF) \). All the fitting strategies mentioned in Section 3.1 are in polynomial time. Since \( H \) can be polynomial, pseudo polynomial, or exponential of the input size, the time complexity is dominated by the adopted schedulability test algorithm.

The main issue here is to answer what can be guaranteed when Algorithm 1 returns failure in task partitioning. We will quantify such failures by showing that \( s \) in Eq. (3) is also sufficiently large to provide the speedup factor guarantee (by using the negation arguments).

### 4 Analysis for Arbitrary-Deadline Systems

This section presents our analysis for arbitrary-deadline systems. Our analysis is similar to the analysis by Fisher, Baruah, and Baker [22], but is tighter. Here, we will mainly analyze the property by using the schedulability condition in Eqs. (8a) and (8b). At the end of this section, we will explain why the analysis also works for arbitrary-deadline TDA analysis by Lehoczky [27] and response time analysis by Bini et al. [9].

**Theorem 2:** The speedup factor of Algorithm 1 is \( 3 - \frac{1}{M} \) when adopting Eqs. (8a) and (8b) for DM schedulability test under any fitting strategy.

**Proof:** Suppose that Algorithm 1 fails to find a feasible assignment for task \( \tau_k \) due to the failure when testing Eq. (8a) or Eq. (8b). Let \( M_1 \) be the set of processors in which Eq. (8a) fails. Let \( M_2 \) be the set of processors in which Eq. (8b) fails. Since task \( \tau_k \) cannot be assigned on any of the \( M \) processors, we have \( |M_1| + |M_2| = M \). By the violation of Eq. (8a), we know that

\[
|M_1| C_k + \sum_{m \in M_1} \sum_{i \in T_m} \left( 1 + \frac{D_k}{T_i} \right) C_i > |M_1| D_k
\]

\[ (10) \]

By the violation of Eq. (8b), we know that

\[
|M_2| U_k + \sum_{m \in M_2} \sum_{i \in T_m} U_i > |M_2|.
\]

Recall that \( \Delta_k \) is defined as \( \max\{U_k, \frac{C_i}{D_k}\} \). By Eqs. (10) and (11), we know that

\[
|M_1| C_k + |M_2| U_k + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} U_i + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} C_i \cdot \frac{1}{M} > M
\]

\[ (12) \]

Therefore, we know that either \( \Delta_k > \frac{1}{3 + \frac{k}{M}} \) or \( \sum_{i=1}^{k} U_i > \frac{1}{3 + \frac{k}{M}} \). Either of the former two cases implies the unschedulability of any scheduling algorithm with speed \( \frac{1}{3 + \frac{k}{M}} \). The demand bound function at time \( D_k \) is \( \sum_{i=1}^{N} \text{dem}(\tau_i, D_k) \geq \sum_{i=1}^{k} C_i \). Therefore, by Eq. (2), we know that the condition \( \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{C_i}{D_k} > \frac{1}{3 + \frac{k}{M}} \) implies the unschedulability of any scheduling algorithm with speed \( \frac{1}{3 + \frac{k}{M}} \).

Therefore, by using Lemma 1 we reach the conclusion.

The following corollaries show that the speedup factor \( 3 - \frac{1}{M} \) holds for any schedulability tests discussed in Section 3 for arbitrary-deadline sporadic task systems under DM scheduling.

**Corollary 1:** The speedup factor of Algorithm 1 is \( 3 - \frac{1}{M} \) when adopting Eqs. (9a) and (9b) for DM schedulability test under any fitting strategy.

**Proof:** By not considering the term \( \sum_{i \in T_m} U_i C_i \) in Eq. (9a), the violation of Eq. (9a) leads to the same conclusion in Eq. (10). Therefore, the speedup factor remains \( 3 - \frac{1}{M} \).

**Corollary 2:** The speedup factor of Algorithm 1 is \( 3 - \frac{1}{M} \) when adopting the exact schedulability test for DM scheduling under any fitting strategy.

**Proof:** If task \( \tau_k \) cannot pass the exact schedulability test, it also does not pass the sufficient test by using Eqs. (8a) and (8b). Therefore, we reach the same conclusion.

### 4.1 Tightness Analysis

The following theorem shows that the analysis in Theorem 2 is asymptotically tight even for implicit-deadline systems with first-fit strategy.
**Theorem 3**: The speedup factor of Algorithm 4 is at least \( 3 - \frac{3}{M+1} - \gamma \) when adopting Eqs. (8a) and (8b) for DM schedulability test under the first-fit strategy, where \( \gamma \) is an arbitrarily small positive number.

**Proof**: This theorem is proved by a concrete input task system with \( N = 3M \) tasks. There are \( M \) light tasks with execution time \( \frac{1}{3M} \) and \( M \) heavy tasks with execution time \( \frac{1}{3M} \), in which \( \epsilon \) is a small positive real, i.e., \( \epsilon > 0 \). The \( M \) light tasks are all with period \( 1 - \delta \) and relative deadline \( 1 - \delta \) with arbitrarily small and positive \( \delta \ll \epsilon \). The \( M \) heavy tasks are all with period 1 and relative deadline 1. Therefore, the 2\( M \) tasks are indexed such that

- \( C_i = \frac{1}{3M}, \quad T_i = D_i = 1 - \delta, \) for \( i = 1, 2, \ldots, M, \) and
- \( C_i = \frac{1}{3M}, \quad T_i = D_i = 1, \) for \( i = M + 1, M + 2, \ldots, 2M. \)

The setting of \( 0 < \delta \ll \epsilon \) is just to enforce the indexing. We will directly take \( \delta \to 0 \) for the rest of the proof.

By using Algorithm 1 for the above task set when adopting Eqs. (8a) and (8b) for DM schedulability test under the first-fit strategy, the \( M \) light tasks are assigned on processor 1. Then, when task \( \tau_k \) with \( k > M \) is considered, the condition in Eq. (8a) always fails for any of the first \( k - M \) processors. Therefore, task \( \tau_k \) is assigned to processor \( k - M + 1 \), for \( k = M + 1, M + 2, \ldots, 2M - 1 \). It is then clear that task \( \tau_{2M} \) cannot be assigned on any of the \( M \) processors. Therefore, Algorithm 1 returns “no feasible solution is found”.

By the above setting, we have \( \sum_{i=1}^{2M} U_i = \frac{1+M+M\epsilon}{3} \). By using Lemma 1, we know that the speedup factor of the above task set is at least

\[
\frac{1}{1+M+M\epsilon} = 3 - \frac{3+3\epsilon M}{M+1+\epsilon M} = 3 - \frac{3}{M+1} - \gamma
\]

in which the factor \( \gamma = \frac{3\epsilon M^2}{(M+1)(M+1+\epsilon M)} \) becomes negligible when \( \epsilon \) is sufficiently small.

Such a factor can also be shown by a concrete partitioned schedule. By the pigeonhole principle, the solution that minimizes the maximum utilization of a processor is to assign a light task and a heavy task on a processor, in which the utilization on the processor is \( \frac{1+\epsilon}{3} + \frac{1}{3M} \). Therefore, the task set is not schedulable on \( M \) processors only when the speed is slower than \( \frac{1+\epsilon}{3} + \frac{1}{3M} \), provided that \( \delta = 0 \). As a result, we reach the same conclusion.

It may seem at first glance that the speedup factor \( 3 - \frac{\epsilon}{3M} \) in Corollary 2 is pessimistic, since we do not actually use any property in the exponential-time exact schedulability test. However, the following theorem shows that the speedup factor \( 3 - \frac{\epsilon}{3M} \) is asymptotically tight for an arbitrary fitting strategy, for any schedulability tests used in Theorem 2, Corollary 1 and Corollary 2. As a result, to improve the speedup factor, better fixed-priority scheduling strategies or more precise analysis for concrete fitting strategies are needed.

**Theorem 4**: The speedup factor of Algorithm 4 is at least \( 3 - \frac{3}{M+1} - \gamma \) under an arbitrary fitting strategy, for any schedulability tests used in Theorem 2, Corollary 1, and Corollary 2 where \( \gamma \) is an arbitrarily small positive number.

**Proof**: This theorem is proved by a concrete input task system with \( 3M \) tasks. Let \( \delta \) and \( \epsilon \) be very small positive real numbers, with \( \delta \ll \epsilon \). There are \( M \) tasks with execution time \( \frac{1}{3M} \), period \( \infty \), and relative deadline \( 1 - \delta \). There are \( M \) tasks with execution time \( \frac{2}{3} + \epsilon \), period \( \epsilon \), and relative deadline 1. There are \( M \) tasks with execution time \( \frac{1+\epsilon}{2} \), period \( \infty \), and relative deadline \( 1 + \delta \).

Therefore, the \( 3M \) tasks are indexed such that

- \( C_i = \frac{1}{3M}, \quad T_i = \infty, \quad D_i = 1 - \delta, \) for \( i = 1, 2, \ldots, M, \) and
- \( C_i = \frac{1}{3M}, \quad T_i = \infty, \quad D_i = 1 + \delta, \) for \( i = M + 1, M + 2, \ldots, 3M. \)

Again, the setting of \( 0 < \delta \ll \epsilon \) is just to enforce the indexing. We will directly take \( \delta \to 0 \) for the rest of the proof. Now, we consider a feasible task assignment for the first \( 3M - 1 \) tasks, in which

- \( \tau_1, \tau_2, \ldots, \tau_{3M-1} \) are assigned on processor 1, and
- \( \tau_i \) and \( \tau_{i+M-1} \) are assigned on processor \( i - M \) for \( i = M + 2, M + 3, \ldots, 2M \).

By using Algorithm 1 for task \( \tau_{3M} \), we know that task \( \tau_{3M} \) cannot be feasibly assigned on any of the \( M \) processors since \( \forall 0 < t < 1 \) and \( m = 1, 2, \ldots, M \), we have

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{3M} dbf(\tau_i, t) = 0
\]

for \( 0 < t < 1 \), (2) \( \sum_{i=1}^{3M} dbf(\tau_i, 1) = 2\frac{M+1+2M+1}{3} \), and (3) for \( t < 1 \),

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{3M} dbf(\tau_i, t) \leq \frac{1+2\epsilon}{3} + t + \frac{1+\epsilon}{3M} + \frac{\epsilon M}{3}
\]

As a result, \( \max_{t>0} \sum_{i=1}^{3M} dbf(\tau_i, t) = \frac{1+2\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} \), when \( \epsilon \) is small enough. Since \( \max_{N \in \mathbb{T}} \sum_{i=1}^{3M} U_i = \frac{1+\epsilon}{3} \) and \( \sum_{i=1}^{3M} U_i = \frac{1}{3} \), by Lemma 1, the speedup factor of the above task set is

\[
\frac{1}{3M+2\epsilon+1+\frac{\epsilon}{3}} = \frac{3M}{3M+2\epsilon+1+\frac{\epsilon}{3}} = \frac{3M}{M+2\epsilon+1+\frac{\epsilon}{3}} = \frac{3M}{3M+2\epsilon+1+\frac{\epsilon}{3}}
\]

in which the factor \( \gamma = \frac{6\epsilon M^2}{(M+1)(M+1+2\epsilon M)} \) becomes negligible when \( \epsilon \) is sufficiently small. The above analysis also works for the specific task partitioning which assigns three tasks \( \tau_i, \tau_{i+M}, \) and \( \tau_{i+2M} \) on one processor for \( i = 1, 2, \ldots, M \), and assigns the priority levels by using the optimal priority assignment by Audsley et al. [2], i.e., \( \tau_{i+M} \) has the lowest priority on the processor.

**5 Analysis for Constrained Deadlines**

This section presents the analysis for constrained-deadline sporadic real-time systems. By Theorem 4, we know that the method by Fisher, Baruah, and Baker [22] leads to a speedup factor 3 when \( M \) is sufficiently large even for implicit-deadline systems. The reason is mainly due to the pessimism of Eq. 6 in the schedulability test. To get better results, we

---

1 That is, the tightness examples in Theorems 2, 4 and 5 hold even when \( \delta \) is 0 if the tasks are indexed in the specified order. Setting \( \delta \) to an arbitrarily small positive number is more precise mathematically, but this just complicates the presentation of the proofs without any added value.
do need better tests. A more precise strategy is to simply use the exact test for constrained-deadline systems by spending pseudo-polynomial time complexity. We have already shown (by Corollary [2] and Theorem [3]) that spending more time complexity does not help in arbitrary-deadline systems if the analysis does not use the property of any specific fitting strategy. Is this also the same for constrained-deadline systems?

We will first present the analysis by using TDA as the schedulability test in Step [4] in Algorithm [1]. We will conclude later that such high time complexity also does not help reduce the speedup factor, compared to the results by using the hyperbolic bound in Theorem [1].

5.1 Speedup Factor by Adopting TDA

Now, suppose that task \( \tau_k \) is the first task that fails to be assigned on any of the \( M \) processors by using TDA schedulability analysis in Step [4] in Algorithm [1]. For notational brevity, let \( T^* \) be the set \( \{ \tau_1, \tau_2, \ldots, \tau_{k-1} \} \) of the tasks

Therefore, we know that this leads to
\[
\forall m, \forall t, \text{ with } 0 < t \leq D_k, \quad C_k + \sum_{i \in T_m} \left\lfloor \frac{t}{T_i} \right\rfloor C_i > t.
\]
By taking a summation of all the \( m = 1, 2, \ldots, M \) inequalities with respect to any \( t \), we know that the unschedulability of task \( \tau_k \) by Algorithm [1] implies that
\[
\forall t \text{ with } 0 < t \leq D_k, \quad MC_k + \sum_{i \in T^*} \left\lfloor \frac{t}{T_i} \right\rfloor C_i > Mt.
\]
(13)

Therefore, by taking the negation, we know that if
\[
\exists t \text{ with } 0 < t \leq D_k, \quad C_k + \sum_{i \in T^*} \left\lfloor \frac{t}{T_i} \right\rfloor C_i \leq t,
\]
then Algorithm [1] by using TDA should succeed to assign task \( \tau_k \) on one of the \( M \) processors. This is basically very similar to TDA with a minor difference by dividing the higher-priority workload by \( M \).

Testing the schedulability condition of task \( \tau_k \) according to Eq. (14) can be done by using the same strategy used in the \( k^2U \) framework [16] to prove Theorem [1] as follows.

We classify the \( k-1 \) tasks in \( T^* \) into two subsets:
- \( T^{+1} \) consists of the tasks in \( T^* \) with periods smaller than \( D_k \),
- \( T^{+2} \) consists of the tasks in \( T^* \) with periods larger than or equal to \( D_k \).

Now, let \( C_k' \) be defined as follows:
\[
C_k' = C_k + \sum_{i \in T^{+2}} \left\lfloor \frac{t}{T_i} \right\rfloor C_i / M.
\]
(15)

Suppose that we have \( \kappa-1 \) tasks in \( T^{+1} \). Clearly, according to the definition \( \kappa \geq 1 \). Now, we can rewrite the condition in Eq. (14) as follows: if
\[
\exists t \text{ with } 0 < t \leq D_k \text{ and } C_k' + \sum_{i \in T^{+1}} \left\lfloor \frac{t}{T_i} \right\rfloor C_i / M \leq t,
\]
(16)
then Algorithm [1] by using TDA should succeed to assign task \( \tau_k \) on one of the \( M \) processors.

For completeness, we repeat the definition of the \( k^2U \) framework and the key Lemma (with some simplifications to remove individual coefficients for each task \( \tau_i \)) as follows.

**Definition 1:** A \( k \)-point effective schedulability test is a sufficient schedulability test of a fixed-priority scheduling policy by verifying the existence of \( t_j \in \{ t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k \} \) with \( t_1 \leq t_2 \leq \cdots \leq t_k \) such that
\[
C_k + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \alpha_i U_i + \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} \beta t_i U_i \leq t_j,
\]
where \( C_k > 0, \alpha > 0, U_i > 0, \) and \( \beta > 0 \) are dependent upon the setting of the task models and task \( \tau_i \).

**Lemma 2 (Chen, Huang, and Liu [16]):** For a given \( k \)-point effective schedulability test, defined in Definition [1] of a scheduling algorithm, in which \( 0 < \alpha \neq \infty \), and \( 0 < \beta \neq \infty \), task \( \tau_k \) is schedulable by the scheduling algorithm if the following condition holds
\[
\frac{C_k}{t_k} \leq \frac{2}{1 + \frac{1}{M}} - \frac{\alpha}{\beta}.
\]
(18)

**Proof:** This comes from Lemma 1 in [16].

By adopting the \( k^2U \) framework [16], we can conclude the following theorem.

**Theorem 5:**
\[
\prod_{i \in T^{+1}} (1 + U_i / M) \leq \frac{2}{1 + \frac{1}{M}}
\]
then task \( \tau_k \) is schedulable under Algorithm [1] by using TDA.

**Proof:** In the proof, we will reindex the tasks to satisfy the monotonicity of \( t_j \) in Definition [1]. That is, the \( \kappa-1 \) higher-priority tasks in \( T^{+1} \) are reindexed to form the corresponding sequence \( \tau_1, \tau_2, \ldots, \tau_{k-1} \) for ensuring that the arrival times of the last jobs no later than \( D_k \) are in a non-decreasing order. For task \( \tau_i \) in \( T^{+1} \), we set \( t_i = \frac{t_i}{D_k} T_k \). Now, we reindex the \( \kappa-1 \) higher-priority tasks such that \( t_1 \leq t_2 \leq \cdots \leq t_{k-1} \). Moreover, let \( t_{n_1} = D_k \).

Since \( T_i < D_k \) for any task \( \tau_i \) in \( T^{+1} \), we have \( t_i < T_i \). Therefore, for a given \( t_j \) with \( j = 1, 2, \ldots, \kappa \), the demand requested up to time \( t_j \) in Eq. (16) is at most
\[
C_k + \sum_{i \in T^{+2}} \left\lfloor \frac{t_j}{T_i} \right\rfloor C_i / M
= C_k' + \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa-1} \left\lfloor \frac{t_j}{T_i} \right\rfloor C_i / M
\leq C_k' + \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa-1} \frac{t_j}{T_i} C_i / M + \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa-1} C_i / M,
\]
where the inequality comes from the indexing policy defined above, i.e., \( \left\lfloor \frac{t_j}{T_i} \right\rfloor \leq \frac{t_j}{T_i} + 1 \) if \( j > i \) and \( \left\lfloor \frac{t_j}{T_i} \right\rfloor \leq \frac{t_j}{T_i} \) if \( j \leq i \).

We only apply the test for these \( \kappa \) different \( t_j \) values, which is equivalent to the test of the existence of \( t_j \) for \( j = 1, 2, \ldots, \kappa \) such that \( C_k' + \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa-1} \frac{t_j}{T_i} C_i / M + \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa-1} C_i / M \leq t_j \). This satisfies
Definition \(1\) (when \(k = \kappa\)) with \(\alpha = \frac{1}{M}\) and \(\beta = \frac{1}{M}\). Therefore, by using Lemma 2 if

\[
\frac{C_1}{D_k} \leq \frac{1 + \frac{1}{U_i}}{M_D_k} - 1,
\]

then task \(\tau_k\) is schedulable under Algorithm 1 by using TDA. By reorganizing the above equation, we reach the conclusion.

The following corollary comes from the same proof of Lemma 2 and Theorem 5, which shows that the schedulability condition also implies a lower bound of the workload

\[
\frac{C_1}{D_k} + \sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{U_i}{M_D_k}}.
\]

Corollary 3: If the schedulability condition in Theorem 5 is violated, i.e., \(\prod_{t_i \in T^{-1}} (1 + \frac{U_i}{M}) > \frac{1}{1 + \frac{C_1}{D_k}}\), then

\[
\frac{C_1}{D_k} + \sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{T_i U_i}{M_D_k} > \prod_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \left(1 + \frac{U_i}{M}\right).
\]

Proof: This comes from the same proof as in Lemma 2 (Lemma 1 in [16]) by changing the objective from minimizing \(C_1\) to minimizing \(C_1 + \sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \alpha t_i U_i\) to enforce the unschedulability. This property has been provided by Chen, Huang, and Liu [15] to prove the schedulability factor of deadline-monotonic scheduling in uniprocessor systems. Moreover, this condition has also been exploited by von der Brüggen, Chen, and Huang [32] to prove the schedulability factor of non-preemptive DM scheduling with respect to non-preemptive EDF scheduling.

The remaining proofs in this section require some mathematical tools, which are provided in the following lemmas.

Lemma 3: Suppose that \(\sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} U_i > 0\) for each task \(t_i\). Then, \(\prod_{t_i \in T^{-1}} (\frac{U_i}{M} + 1)\) is maximized when \(U_1 = U_2 = \ldots = U |T^{-1}|\).

Proof: This can be easily proved by the fact that \(\prod_{t_i \in T^{-1}} (\frac{U_i}{M} + 1)\) is a concave function with respect to the (non-negative) values of \(U_i\).

Lemma 4: The infimum \(\sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{U_i}{M}\) to enforce \(\prod_{t_i \in T^{-1}} (\frac{U_i}{M} + 1) > x\) is \(\ln(x)\).

Proof: This can be derived by using Lagrange Multiplier Method to find the minimum \(\sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{U_i}{M}\) such that \(\prod_{t_i \in T^{-1}} (\frac{U_i}{M} + 1) \geq x\). By Lemma 3, it is clear that the worst case is to have all the tasks with the same utilization. Suppose that \(|T^{-1}| = n\). We know that all the tasks are with utilization \(M(x + \frac{1}{M} - 1)\), and the utilization bound \(\sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{U_i}{M}\) is \(n(x + \frac{1}{M} - 1)\). This converges to \(\ln(x)\) when \(n\) approaches \(\infty\).

With the above discussions, we can conclude the speedup factor.

Theorem 6: The speedup factor of Algorithm 1 for constrained-deadline task systems by using TDA is \(W(0.5) \approx 2.84306\), where \(W(z)\) is the Lambert W function, i.e., the unique solution of \(z = W(z)e^{W(z)}\).

Proof: If \(\prod_{t_i \in T^{-1}} (\frac{U_i}{M} + 1) \geq 2\), we can already conclude that \(\sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{1}{M_D_k} \geq \ln 2\) by using Lemma 4 and the speedup factor is \(1/\ln 2 < 2.84306\) for such a case. We focus on the other case with \(\prod_{t_i \in T^{-1}} (\frac{U_i}{M} + 1) < 2\). Suppose that \(\sigma\) is \(\frac{2}{\prod_{t_i \in T^{-1}} (\frac{U_i}{M} + 1)} - 1\), in which \(\sigma > 0\).

If \(\tau_k\) is not schedulable under Algorithm 1 by TDA, then

\[
\frac{C_k}{D_k} + \sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{dbf(t_i, D_k)}{M_D_k} = \frac{C_k}{D_k} + \sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{dbf(t_i, D_k)}{M_D_k} \geq \frac{C_k}{D_k} + \sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{2T_i}{M_D_k} > 1 + \prod_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \left(1 + \frac{U_i}{M}\right) = 1 + \sigma > 2.
\]

where \(> 1\) is by Corollary 3. Suppose that \(\frac{C_k}{D_k}\) is \(x\). Therefore, we know that

\[
\sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{dbf(t_i, D_k)}{M_D_k} > 1 + \frac{\sigma}{2} - x.
\]

Moreover, with \(\prod_{t_i \in T^{-1}} (\frac{U_i}{M} + 1) = \frac{2}{\sigma}\) and the fact that \(\tau_k\) is not schedulable under Algorithm 1 by using TDA, by Lemma 4 we have

\[
\sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} U_i > \ln(\frac{2}{1 + \sigma}).
\]

For the rest of the proof, we consider two separate cases:

Case 1 \(x \geq \sigma\): This is an easier case. We can conclude the speedup factor by using Eq. (20)

\[
\max \left\{ \frac{C_k}{D_k}, \sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{U_i}{M_D_k} \right\} \geq \max \left\{ \sigma, \ln(\frac{2}{1 + \sigma}) \right\}
\]

\[
\geq \min_{\sigma > 0} \left\{ \max \left\{ \sigma, \ln(\frac{2}{1 + \sigma}) \right\} \right\} = 1 - \frac{1}{2.66793}
\]

where \(= 1\) holds when \(e^{\sigma}(1 + \sigma) = 2\).

Case 2 \(x < \sigma\): There are two subcases

- **Case 2a:** If \(x > \frac{1 + \sigma}{2}\), we know that \(x > \frac{1 + \sigma}{2} - x\). Therefore, by Eq. (19),

\[
\max \left\{ \frac{C_k}{D_k}, \sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{dbf(t_i, D_k)}{M_D_k} \right\} \geq x > \frac{1 + \sigma}{4}.\]

Hence,

\[
\max \left\{ \frac{C_k}{D_k}, \sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{U_i}{M_D_k}, \sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{dbf(t_i, D_k)}{M_D_k} \right\} > \max \left\{ \frac{1 + \sigma}{4}, \ln(\frac{2}{1 + \sigma}) \right\} \geq \min_{y \geq 0} \left\{ y, \ln(\frac{1}{2y}) \right\}
\]

\[
=W(0.5) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{2.84306},\]

where \(= 0.5\) holds when \(ye\) is \(0.5\).

- **Case 2b:** If \(x \leq \frac{1 + \sigma}{2}\), we know that \(x \leq \frac{1 + \sigma}{2} - x\). Therefore, by Eq. (19),

\[
\max \left\{ \frac{C_k}{D_k}, \sum_{t_i \in T^{-1}} \frac{dbf(t_i, D_k)}{M_D_k} \right\} > \min_{y \geq 0} \max \{g_1(y), g_2(y)\} = g_1(y^*)\]

where \(y^*\) is the intersection of these two functions, i.e., \(g_1(y^*) = g_2(y^*)\) if such a value \(y^*\) exists. That is, \(\max_{y \geq 0} \{g_1(y), g_2(y)\} \geq \min_{y \geq 0} \max \{g_1(y), g_2(y)\} = g_1(y^*) \leq g_2(y^*)\).

These cases are concluded by the following trick: Suppose that \(g_1(y)\) is an increasing function and \(g_2(y)\) is a decreasing function with respect to \(y\) when \(y \geq 0\). Then, we know that the lower bound on \(\max\{g_1(y), g_2(y)\}\) is \(g_1(y^*)\), where \(g_1(y^*) = g_2(y^*)\) if such a value \(y^*\) exists. That is, \(\max \{g_1(y), g_2(y)\} \geq \min_{y \geq 0} \max \{g_1(y), g_2(y)\} = g_1(y^*)\).
\[
\frac{1+\sigma}{\sigma} - x \geq \frac{1+\sigma}{\sigma}
\]
Hence,
\[
\max \left\{ \frac{C_k}{D_k}, \sum_{\tau_i \in T^*} \frac{U_i}{M}, \sum_{\tau_i \in T^*} \frac{df(\tau_i, D_k)}{M} \right\}
\]
\[
> \max \left\{ \frac{1+\sigma}{4}, \ln \left( \frac{2}{1+\sigma} \right) \right\} \geq \min \max \left\{ y, \ln \left( \frac{1}{2y} \right) \right\}
\]
\[
=W(0.5) \approx \frac{1}{2.84306},
\]
where \(y\) holds when \(ye^y = 0.5\).

Therefore, by all the above cases, we know that
\[
\max \left\{ \frac{C_k}{D_k}, \sum_{\tau_i \in T^*} \frac{U_i}{M}, \sum_{\tau_i \in T^*} \frac{df(\tau_i, D_k)}{M} \right\} > W(0.5) \approx \frac{1}{2.84306},
\]
which concludes the proof by applying Lemma 1.

5.2 Speedup Factor by Hyperbolic Bound

This subsection further presents the speedup factor of Algorithm 1 when adopting the hyperbolic bound in Eq. (2) for testing the schedulability of DM scheduling. The speedup factor analysis in Theorem 6 for TDA schedulability analysis relies only on the violation of the schedulability condition in Theorem 5. We will show that adopting the hyperbolic bound of Eq. (7) results in the same condition in Theorem 5. Therefore, we can reach the same conclusion as in Theorem 6 by using the hyperbolic bound in polynomial time. We use the same notations, e.g., \(T^{k-1}, T^{k+2}, \kappa\), etc., as used in Section 5.1.

Theorem 7: If
\[
\prod_{\tau_i \in T^{k-1}} \left( 1 + \frac{U_i}{M} \right) \leq \frac{2}{1 + C_k'},
\]
then task \(\tau_k\) is schedulable under Algorithm 1 by using the hyperbolic bound in Eq. (7), where \(C_k' = C_k + \sum_{\tau_i \in T^{k+2}} C_i\).

Proof: We prove this by contrapositive. Suppose that task \(\tau_k\) is not schedulable under Algorithm 1 by using the hyperbolic bound in Eq. (7). Therefore, for \(m = 1, 2, \ldots, M\), we have
\[
\left( C_k + \sum_{\tau_i \in T^2 \cap T_m} C_i \right) \frac{1}{D_k} + 1 \prod_{\tau_i \in T^{k-1}} (U_i + 1) \geq 2.
\]
By multiplying the above \(M\) inequalities, we reach
\[
2^M < \left( \prod_{m=1}^{M} \left( C_k + \sum_{\tau_i \in T^2 \cap T_m} C_i \right) \frac{1}{D_k} + 1 \right) \left( \prod_{\tau_i \in T^{k-1}} (U_i + 1) \right)
\]
\[
\leq \left( C_k + \sum_{\tau_i \in T^2} C_i \right) \frac{1}{D_k} + 1 \prod_{\tau_i \in T^{k-1}} \left( U_i + 1 \right)^M,
\]
where \(\leq 1\) comes from Lemma 3 (for the first part) and from the fact \((1+U_i) \leq (1+U_i/M)^M\) when \(M\) is a positive integer and \(U_i \geq 0\) (for the second part). Therefore, we conclude that the unschedulability of task \(\tau_k\) implies that
\[
2 < \left( C_k + \sum_{\tau_i \in T^2} C_i \right) \frac{1}{D_k} + 1 \prod_{\tau_i \in T^{k-1}} \left( U_i + 1 \right)^M.
\]

By contrapositive, we reach the conclusion.

Theorem 8: The speedup factor of Algorithm 1 by using the hyperbolic bound in Eq. (7) is \(W(0.5) \approx 2.84306\), where \(W(z)\) is the Lambert W function, i.e., \(z = W(z)e^{W(z)}\).

Proof: Since the schedulability condition remains the same as in Theorem 5, the speedup factor is also the same as in Theorem 5.

5.3 Tightness Analysis

We conclude this section by showing that the above speedup factor analysis is tight when \(M\) is sufficiently large under an arbitrary fitting strategy.

Theorem 9: For constrained-deadline task systems, the speedup factor of Algorithm 1 is at least \(W(0.5) \approx 2.84306\) when adopting TDA or the hyperbolic bound in Eq. (7) for DM schedulability test under an arbitrary fitting strategy, when \(M\) is sufficiently large.

Proof: We prove this theorem by providing a concrete task system by assuming that \(M\) is sufficiently large. There are \(N = 2M^2 + 1\) tasks. Let \(f = \frac{2}{W(0.5)} \approx 0.7094674\), i.e., \(\ln(\frac{1}{f}) = \frac{1}{f}\). Let \(\delta\) be an arbitrarily small positive number just for enforcing the indexing:

\[T_i = D_i = f + (\frac{1}{\sqrt{M}} - 1) \frac{1}{f-M}, C_i = \frac{1}{f-M}, \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \ldots, M^2,\]

\[T_i = \infty, D_i = 1 + \delta, C_i = \frac{1}{f-M} \approx 0.0552, \text{ for } i = M^2 + 1, M^2 + 2, \ldots, 2M^2,\]

\[T_N = \infty, D_N = 1 + 2\delta, C_N = 0.5f + \epsilon, \text{ with } N = 2M^2 + 1, \text{ where } \epsilon \text{ is a positive small number.}\]

We again simply take \(\delta\) to be 0 for the rest of the proof. Moreover, \(\frac{1}{f}\) is also considered negligible for the simplicity of computation, since \(M\) is assumed to be sufficiently large.

For an arbitrary fitting algorithm, consider the following task assignment by assigning task \(\tau_{i+j-M}\) to processor \(i\) with \(i = 1, 2, \ldots, M\) for every \(j = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, 2M - 1\). It is not difficult to see that the above task assignment can be achieved feasibly and results in a feasible task assignment for the first \(2M^2\) tasks. The set of the tasks assigned on processor \(m\) is denoted as \(T_m\). Now, consider task \(\tau_{2M^2+1}\), i.e., \(\tau_N\) to be assigned on processor \(m\). The overall execution time request at time 0 is \(0.5f + \epsilon + 1.5f - 1 + f = f + \epsilon\) on processor \(m\). Therefore, it can be easily seen that task \(T_m \cup \{\tau_N\}\) is not schedulable under DM scheduling on processor \(m\) since the TDA test in Eq. (6) fails. As a result, task \(\tau_N\) cannot be assigned on any processor.

In this input task set, the utilization of the individual task \((\frac{C_i}{D_i})\) is not more than \(\frac{f-1}{f}\) for each task \(\tau_i\). Moreover, the overall task utilization is \(M \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \frac{\mu}{f-M}\), where \(\mu = \frac{1-f}{M-1}\). Due to the assumption that \(M\) is sufficiently large, the total utilization is a left Riemann sum, i.e., \(M \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \frac{\mu}{f-M} \approx M \int_0^{1-f} \frac{1}{f-x} dx = M \ln(\frac{1}{f})\). By the fact that \(\ln(\frac{1}{f}) = \frac{1}{f}\), we know that the total utilization is \(M \frac{1}{f}\) when \(M\) is sufficiently large.

Now, we examine \(\max_{i>0} \sum_{\tau_i} \frac{\sum_{\tau_i} df(\tau_i, t)}{M_t} \). By definition, \(\max_{i>0} \sum_{\tau_i} \frac{\sum_{\tau_i} df(\tau_i, t)}{M_t} \). By the con-
construction of the task set, we have (1) $\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} dbf(\tau_i, t) = 0$ if $0 < t < 1$, and (2) $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} dbf(\tau_i, t)}{Mt} = \frac{f}{2}$ if $t = 1$. Therefore, we know that the speedup factor for this task set is purely dominated by $\max_{t>0} \frac{dbf^*(t)}{t}$.

However, proving that $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} dbf(\tau_i, t)}{Mt} \leq \frac{f}{2}$ if $t > 1$ is pretty complicated. The proof involves quite some mathematical derivations, and is left in Appendix A. It should be clear that we can ignore the $M - 1$ duplicated copies of the tasks by considering only the tasks assigned on one processor (before considering $\tau_N$). The complete proof is Appendix A. The proof strategy first makes an over-approximation, denoted as $dbf^*(t)$, of the sum $\sum_{\tau_i \in T} dbf(\tau_i, t)$ of the demand bound functions at time $t$ (after removing the $M - 1$ duplicated copies). Based on such an over-approximation, it can be shown that $\max_{t>0} \frac{dbf^*(t)}{t}$ happens when $t$ is a positive integer for $T_m$. It can then be proved that the maximum $\frac{dbf^*(t)}{t}$ happens when $t = 1$ or $t = \infty$, in which both leads $\frac{dbf^*(t)}{t}$ to $\frac{f}{2}$.

Figure 1 draws the functions $dbf^*(t)$ and $\frac{dbf^*(t)}{t}$ in the range of $[1, 6]$. Figure 2 provides an illustrative view of $\frac{dbf^*(t)}{t}$ from $t = 1, 2, \ldots, 4000$. It can also be easily shown by assigning $\tau_N$ to one processor alone, we can find a task partition that requires a speedup factor asymptotically equal to $\frac{f}{2}$ when $M$ is sufficiently large.

6 Concluding Remarks

This paper provides detailed analysis for the deadline-monotonic partitioning algorithm proposed by Fisher, Baruah, and Baker [22] for multiprocessor partitioned fixed-priority scheduling, by using exact schedulability tests and approximated schedulability tests. It may seem at first glance that using exact schedulability tests is more precise, but the proof shows that such exact tests are with the same speedup factors as approximated tests. We show that the deadline-monotonic partitioning algorithm has a speedup factor $3 - \frac{1}{M}$ when considering task systems with arbitrary deadlines. Such a factor holds for polynomial-time schedulability tests and exponential-time schedulability tests. Moreover, we also improve the speedup factor to $2.84306$ when considering constrained-deadline task systems.

The speedup factor analyses in this paper are asymptotically tight if the analysis is oblivious of the particular fitting strategy used. In all the tightness analyses, we only take Lemma [1] which also implicitly implies the reference to optimal global scheduling. The tasks are designed on purpose, e.g., $M^2$ tasks (instead of $M$ tasks) with period $\infty$ in the proof of Theorem 9 to show that such factors also hold (asymptotically or with minor changes) for optimal partitioned scheduling. However, this does not limit the potential to have better speedup factors by adopting better fixed-priority scheduling strategies or more precise analysis for concrete fitting strategies.
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Appendix A

Proof of Theorem 9 The remaining part of the proof is to show that \( \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{df_r(t_i, \ell)}{M} \leq \frac{1}{2} \) for all \( t \geq 1 \) in the input instance. Since each task has \( M - 1 \) duplicated copies with the same task characteristics, we will implicitly drop the \( M - 1 \) duplicated copies by considering only these \( 2M \) tasks in \( T_m \). We index these tasks according to their periods in a non-decreasing order. Due to the setting of the task periods, we know that \( T_i = f + \frac{i-1}{M} \) for \( i = 1, 2, \ldots, M \) and \( T_i = \infty \) for \( i = M + 1, M + 2, \ldots, 2M \).

For the rest of the proof, we will only analyze the demand bound function of these \( 2M \) tasks on one processor, and our objective is to show that \( \sum_{i=1}^{2M} df_r(t_i, \ell) \leq \frac{1}{2} \) for all \( t \geq 1 \). Note that this is identical to the original \( N \) tasks on \( M \) processors. Moreover, for the rest of the proof, we only consider the arrival pattern that defines the demand bound function of the system from time 0 on the processor.

For \( t = 1 \), we know that \( \sum_{i=1}^{2M} df_r(t_i, \ell) = \frac{1}{f} \). For \( t > 1 \), we need to identify the demand of the \( M \) periodic tasks, whose periods are not \( \infty \), more precisely. Here, we define some terms for the simplicity of the explanations. We define a pile of jobs as follows: The \( \ell \)-th job of task \( \tau_i \) is placed in the \( \ell \)-th pile. Therefore, by the definition, each pile has \( M \) jobs and has total execution time equal to \( 1 - f + \frac{1}{M} \) if \( \ell \approx 1 - f \) since \( M \) is sufficiently large. Precisely, the absolute deadline and the arrival time of the \( j \)-th job (from the earliest arrival) in the \( \ell \)-th pile are \( \ell \cdot (f + j - 1) \) and \( (\ell - 1) \cdot (f + j - 1) \), respectively. Therefore, the contribution of the jobs in the \( \ell \)-th pile to the demand bound function at time \( t \) is at most

\[
\frac{df_1(f)}{T_t} = \begin{cases} 
0 & \text{if } t < \ell \cdot f \\
(t - \ell \cdot f) + \frac{1}{\ell} & \text{if } \ell \cdot f \leq t < \ell \\
1 - f & \text{if } t \geq \ell 
\end{cases}
\]

We can now define a safe upper bound \( df_1^\ell(t) \) of the demand bound function of the \( 2M \) tasks for \( t \geq 1 \) as follows:

\[
df_1^\ell(t) = 1.5f - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} df_i^\ell(t).
\]
Based on such an over-approximation, $dbf^2(t)$ is a piece-wise linear function, which is differentiable. Figure 1 illustrates the above definition of $dbf^2(t)$ and $\frac{dbf^2(t)}{t}$.

We now prove that $\max_{t \geq 1} \frac{dbf^2(t)}{t}$ happens when $t$ is a positive integer. For any positive number $\ell$, the function $dbf^2(t)$ for $t$ in the interval $[\ell, \ell + 1)$ can have either two segments $\left[\ell, \left(\frac{\ell}{\ell} + 1\right)f\right]$, $\left[\left(\frac{\ell}{\ell} + 1\right)f, \ell + 1\right]$ or three segments $\left[\ell, \left(\frac{\ell}{\ell} + 1\right)f\right]$, $\left[\left(\frac{\ell}{\ell} + 1\right)f, \ell + 1\right]$ and $\left[\left(\frac{\ell}{\ell} + 1\right)f, \ell + 1\right]$ of linearly continuous functions. For example, in Figure 1a in interval $[2, 3)$, there are three segments and, in interval $[3, 4)$, there are only two segments.

The case when $\ell$ is 1 is clear, since $dbf^2(t) = 1.5f - 1 + 1 - f = 0.5f$ when $1 \leq t < 2$ and $dbf^2(t) = 0.5f + (t - 2f)/2$ when $2 \leq t < 2$. Therefore, $dbf^2(t)/t \leq dbf^2(1)$ when $1 \leq t < 2$. Similarly, $dbf^2(t)/t \leq dbf^2(3)/3$ when $2 \leq t < 3$, as also illustrated in Figure 1b.

For a given $t \geq 3$, by the definition that $f \approx 0.7034674$, we also know that $\left(\frac{t}{\ell}\right) \geq \lfloor t \rfloor + 1$. Consider the case that there are two linear segments of the function $dbf^2(t)$ in $[\ell, \ell + 1)$ for an integer $\ell \geq 3$. In this case, these two segments are $\left[\ell, \left(\frac{\ell}{\ell} + 1\right)f\right]$, $\left[\left(\frac{\ell}{\ell} + 1\right)f, \ell + 1\right]$. When $\ell \leq t \leq \left(\frac{\ell}{\ell} + 1\right)f$, we know that

$$dbf^2(t) = 1.5f - 1 + \ell(1 - f) + \sum_{i=t+1}^{\lfloor t \rfloor} (t - i) \cdot \frac{1}{i}$$

$$= dbf^2(t) + (t - \ell) \cdot \left(\sum_{i=t+1}^{\lfloor t \rfloor} \frac{1}{i}\right).$$

When $\left(\frac{\ell}{\ell} + 1\right)f \leq t < \ell + 1$, we know that

$$dbf^2(t) = dbf^2(t) + (t - \ell) \cdot \left(\sum_{i=t+1}^{\lfloor t \rfloor} \frac{1}{i}\right)$$

where the first order derivative of $dbf^2(t)$ with respect to $x$ is $\sigma_x^{\ell} - dbf^2(\ell)$, we know that the function $dbf^2(t)$ monotonically decreases, or monotonically increases, or remains with the same respect with $x$ values. If, for contradiction, there exists a $t$ with $\ell \leq t < \ell + 1$ such that $\frac{dbf^2(t)}{t} > \frac{dbf^2(\ell)}{\ell}$ and $\frac{dbf^2(t)}{t} > \frac{dbf^2(\ell + 1)}{t + 1}$, then $dbf^2(t)$ in the first segment must be increasing and $dbf^2(t)$ in the second segment must be decreasing. However, with Eq. (23) and Eq. (24), it is rather clear that the slope of $dbf^2(t)$ of the second linear segment is larger than the slope of the first linear segment when there are two linear segments in $[\ell, \ell + 1)$ and $\ell \geq 3$. Therefore, if $dbf^2(t)$ is an increasing function in the first segment, it must be also an increasing function in the second segment. Hence, $dbf^2(t)/t \leq \max_{\ell \geq 1} \left\{ \frac{dbf^2(t)}{t} \right\}$ when $\ell \leq t < \ell + 1$.

The remaining part of the proof is to show that the maximum $\frac{dbf^2(t)}{t}$ happens when $t = 1$ or $t = \infty$, in which both lead $\frac{dbf^2(t)}{t}$ to $\frac{5}{8}$. We can easily evaluate $\frac{dbf^2(t)}{t}$ for $t = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$ as follows:

- $\frac{dbf^2(1)}{1} = 1.5f - 1 + 1 - f = 0.5f \approx 0.3517337$
- $\frac{dbf^2(2)}{2} = 1.5f - 1 + 2 - 2f = 0.5f \approx 0.3241$
- $\frac{dbf^2(3)}{3} = 1.5f - 1 + 3 - 3f = 0.5f \approx 0.3304$
- $\frac{dbf^2(4)}{4} = 1.5f - 1 + 4 - 4f = 0.5f \approx 0.3344$
- $\frac{dbf^2(5)}{5} = 1.5f - 1 + 5 - 5f = 0.5f \approx 0.3357$

For any positive integer $\ell$ with $\ell \geq 5$, we can reformulate Eq. (23) into the following equation:

$$dbf^2(\ell) = 1.5f - 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \left(1 - f\right) + \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \frac{\ell - i \cdot f}{i}$$

$$= 1.5f - 1 - \ell \cdot \left(1 - f\right) + \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \frac{\ell - i \cdot f}{i}$$

(25)

We can complete the proof by showing that $\frac{dbf^2(\ell + 1)}{t + 1} - \frac{dbf^2(\ell)}{t} \geq 0$ for any positive integer $\ell \geq 5$. Such a fact can be seen in Figure 2 based on numerical evaluations, but a formal proof requires quite some effort due to the floor function. For any positive integer $\ell$ with $\ell \geq 5$, we have

$$\frac{dbf^2\left(\ell + 1\right)}{\ell + 1} - \frac{dbf^2\left(\ell\right)}{\ell}$$

$$= 1.5f - 1 - \ell \cdot \left(1 - f\right) + \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \frac{\ell - i \cdot f}{i}$$

$$= 1.5f - 1 - \frac{\ell - f}{\ell + 1}$$

$$= 1.5f - 1 - \frac{\ell - f}{\ell + 1}$$

(26)

Since $\ell \geq 5$, the above equation is well-defined. Due to the fact that $f \approx 0.7034674$, we know that $\left(\left|\ell + 1\right|/f\right)$ is either $\left|\ell + 1\right|/f$ or $\left|\ell - f\right|/f$. For the case with $f = 1$, then $\left|\ell + 1\right|/f = \left|\ell - f\right|/f$ for such a case. If $2 - 1 < b < 1$, then $\left|\ell + 1\right|/f = \left|\ell - f\right|/f + 2$, which implies that $\left|\ell + 1\right|/f = \left|\ell - f\right|/f + 2$. We now analyze these two cases individually.

**Case 1**: $0 \leq b < 2 - \frac{5}{7}$: In this case, $\left(\left|\ell + 1\right|/f\right)$ =
\[ Y_1(b) = \frac{(\ell - b)f - 1.5f + 1}{\ell(b + 1)} - \frac{f + 1}{\ell + 1} + \frac{1}{\ell - b + 1}. \] (27)

We take the first order derivative of \( Y_1(b) \) with respect to \( b \). Since \( \frac{dY_1(b)}{db} = \frac{-f}{\ell(b + 1)} + \frac{1}{(\ell - b + 1)^2} \) is an increasing function with respect to \( b \) and \( \frac{1}{\ell(b + 1)} + \frac{1}{(\ell - b + 1)^2} = f \left( \frac{-\ell(b + 1) - f^2 + f(\ell + 1)^2 - f(\ell + 1)}{\ell(b + 1)(\ell + 1)\ell} \right) < 0 \), for a given positive \( \ell \), the function \( Y_1(b) \) is at least \( Y_1(2 - \frac{1}{f}) \). Since

\[
Y_1\left(2 - \frac{1}{f}\right) = \frac{\ell - 3.5f + 2}{\ell(b + 1)} - \frac{f + 1}{\ell + 1} + \frac{1}{\ell - b + 1}
= \frac{-f(\ell + 1) - 2.5f + 2}{\ell(b + 1)} + \frac{f}{\ell + 1 - f}
= \frac{(\ell + 1)(f^2 + 2 - 3.5f) + 2.5f^2 - 2f}{\ell(b + 1)(\ell + 1 - f)}
> 0, \quad \text{[due to } \ell \geq 5.]\]

we know that \( Y_1(b) > 0 \) for any integer \( \ell \geq 5 \) and \( 0 \leq b < 2 - \frac{1}{f} \). Therefore, \( \frac{dbf^2(\ell + 1)}{\ell} - \frac{dbf^2(\ell)}{\ell} > 0 \) for such a case.

**Case 2:** \( 2 - \frac{1}{f} \leq b < 1 \): In this case, \( \lfloor (\ell + 1)/f \rfloor = \lfloor \ell/f \rfloor + 2 \). Therefore, Eq. (26) becomes

\[
Y_2(b) = \frac{\ell - bf - 1.5f + 1}{\ell(b + 1)} - \frac{2f + 1}{\ell + 1} + \frac{1}{\ell - b + 1} + \frac{1}{\ell - b + 2}.
\]

(28)

We take the first order derivative of \( Y_2(b) \) with respect to \( b \). Since \( \frac{dY_2(b)}{db} = \frac{-f}{\ell(b + 1)} + \frac{1}{(\ell - b + 1)^2} + \frac{1}{(\ell + 1)^2} \) is an increasing function with respect to \( b \), and \( \frac{1}{\ell(b + 1)} + \frac{1}{(\ell - b + 1)^2} + \frac{1}{(\ell + 1)^2} > f \left( \frac{-\ell(b + 1) + 2f}{\ell(b + 1)(\ell + 1)} \right) > 0 \), for a given \( \ell \geq 3 \), the function \( Y_2(b) \) is at least \( Y_2(2 - \frac{1}{f}) \). Since

\[
Y_2\left(2 - \frac{1}{f}\right) = \frac{\ell - 3.5f + 2}{\ell(b + 1)} - \frac{2f + 1}{\ell + 1} + \frac{1}{\ell - b + 1} + \frac{1}{\ell - b + 2}
= Y_1\left(2 - \frac{1}{f}\right) > 0, \quad \text{[due to } \ell \geq 5.]\]

we know that \( Y_2(b) > 0 \) for any integer \( \ell \geq 5 \) and \( 2 - \frac{1}{f} \leq b < 1 \). Therefore, \( \frac{dbf^2(\ell + 1)}{\ell} - \frac{dbf^2(\ell)}{\ell} > 0 \) for such a case.

With the above two cases, we can conclude that \( \frac{dbf^2(\ell)}{\ell} \leq \frac{df^2(\infty)}{\infty} = \ell \) for any positive integer \( \ell \geq 5 \), which concludes the proof. \( \Box \)