CS370 Operating Systems

Colorado State University
Yashwant K Malaiya
Spring 2020 Lecture 8
Scheduling

Slides based on
• Text by Silberschatz, Galvin, Gagne
• Various sources
• **A process** is isolated from other processes. Processes can run concurrently.

• **A thread** is not isolated from other threads belonging to the same process. Runs concurrently with other threads.

• **POSIX:** Portable Operating System Interface is a family of IEEE standards. It defines application programming interface (API), command line shells and utility interfaces, compatibility with variants of OSs.

• Processes/threads/IPC/IO.

• **What is a pthread?** POSIX compliant implementation of threads.

• **A function** when called within a new thread, runs concurrently with other threads.

• **Java threads: user threads or kernel threads?** Most JVMs implement threads with native, OS level threads,

• **Examples of threads:*** Self exercise set 4
FAQ

• **Why use threads:**
  – Parallelism if multiple cores/hyper-threading available.
  – Concurrency: quicker responses to some of the things like refreshing output, checking spelling as one types etc.

• **Implicit threading:** thread creating automated: compiler assisted higher level programming

• **Unix signals vs interrupts:** Signals are a limited form of inter-process communication. Interrupts are often initiated by hardware. In both cases, some specific routines respond.

• **Hyper-threading:** Requires additional hardware. Widely used

• **Signals example** (assume pid = 162): kill -9 162 or kill –s sigkill 162

• **Pthread example:** pthread_kill(ThreadID, SIGKILL );
Chapter 5: CPU Scheduling

• Basic Concepts
• Scheduling Criteria
• Scheduling Algorithms
• Thread Scheduling
• Multiple-Processor Scheduling
• Real-Time CPU Scheduling
• Operating Systems Examples
• Algorithm Evaluation
Diagram of Process State

Ready to Running: scheduled by scheduler
Running to Ready: scheduler picks another process, back in ready queue
Running to Waiting (Blocked): process blocks for input/output
Waiting to Ready: Input available
Basic Concepts

- Maximum CPU utilization obtained with multiprogramming
- CPU–I/O Burst Cycle – Process execution consists of a cycle of CPU execution and I/O wait
  - **CPU burst** followed by **I/O burst**
  - CPU burst distribution is of main concern
Typical distribution of CPU bursts. Most CPU bursts are just a few ms.
CPU Scheduler

- **Short-term scheduler** selects from among the processes in ready queue, and allocates the CPU to one of them
  - Queue may be ordered in various ways
- CPU scheduling decisions may take place when a process:
  1. Switches from running to waiting state
  2. Switches from running to ready state
  3. Switches from waiting to ready
  4. Terminates
- Scheduling under 1 and 4 is **nonpreemptive**
- All other scheduling is **preemptive**. These need to be considered
  - access to shared data by multiple processes
  - preemption while in kernel mode
  - interrupts occurring during crucial OS activities
Dispatcher module gives control of the CPU to the process selected by the short-term scheduler; this involves:

- switching context
- switching to user mode
- jumping to the proper location in the user program to restart that program

**Dispatch latency** — time it takes for the dispatcher to stop one process and start another running
The Dispatcher (dentist’s office)
Scheduling Criteria

- **CPU utilization** – keep the CPU as busy as possible: **Maximize**
- **Throughput** – # of processes that complete their execution per time unit: **Maximize**
- **Turnaround time** – time to execute a process from submission to completion: **Minimize**
- **Waiting time** – amount of time a process has been waiting in the ready queue: **Minimize**
- **Response time** – time it takes from when a request was submitted until the first response is produced, not output (for time-sharing environment): **Minimize**
Terms for a single process

- command arrives
- command begins running
- the first output of command appears
- command finishes executing

- wait time
- response time
- execution time
- turnaround time
We will now examine several major scheduling approaches

- **Decide** which process in the ready queue is allocated the CPU

- Could be preemptive or nonpreemptive
  - preemptive: remove in middle of execution ("forced")

- **Optimize** *measure* of interest
  - We will use **Gantt charts** to illustrate *schedules*
  - Bar chart with start and finish times for processes
Nonpreemptive vs Preemptive scheduling

• **Nonpreemptive**: Process keeps CPU until it relinquishes it when
  – It terminates
  – It switches to the waiting state
  – Used by initial versions of OSs like Windows 3.x

• **Preemptive** scheduling
  – Pick a process and let it run for a maximum of some fixed time
  – If it is still running at the end of time interval?
    • Suspend it and pick another process to run

• **A clock interrupt** at the end of the time interval to give control back of CPU back to scheduler
Scheduling Algorithms

- First-Come, First-Served (FCFS)
- Shortest-Job-First (SJF)
  - Shortest-remaining-time-first
- Priority Scheduling
- Round Robin (RR) with time quantum
- Multilevel Queue
  - Multilevel Feedback Queue
- “Completely fair”

Comparing Performance
- Average waiting time etc.
First- Come, First-Served (FCFS) Scheduling

- Process requesting CPU first, gets it first
- Managed with a FIFO queue
  - When process *enters* ready queue
    - PCB is tacked to the *tail* of the queue
  - When CPU is *free*
    - It is allocated to process at the *head* of the queue
- Simple to write and understand
First-Come, First-Served (FCFS) Scheduling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Burst Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$P_1$</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_2$</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_3$</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• Suppose that the processes arrive in the order: $P_1$, $P_2$, $P_3$ but almost the same time.

The Gantt Chart for the schedule is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P₁</th>
<th>P₂</th>
<th>P₃</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• Waiting time for $P_1 =$ ; $P_2 =$ ; $P_3 =$

• Average waiting time: ($+$+$+$)/ =

• Throughput: / = per unit time

Pause for students to do the computation

Henry Gantt, 1910s
First-Come, First-Served (FCFS) Scheduling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Burst Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$P_1$</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_2$</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_3$</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suppose that the processes arrive in the order: $P_1$, $P_2$, $P_3$ but almost the same time. The Gantt Chart for the schedule is:

- Waiting time for $P_1 = 0$; $P_2 = 24$; $P_3 = 27$
- Average waiting time: $(0 + 24 + 27)/3 = 17$
- Throughput: $3/30 = 0.1$ per unit time
Suppose that the processes arrive in the order: $P_2, P_3, P_1$

- The Gantt chart for the schedule is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>P_2</th>
<th>P_3</th>
<th>P_1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Waiting time for $P_1 = 6$; $P_2 = 0$; $P_3 = 3$
- Average waiting time: $(6 + 0 + 3)/3 = 3$
  - Much better than previous case
- But note -Throughput: $3/30 = 0.1$ per unit same
- **Convoy effect** - short process behind long process
  - Consider one CPU-bound and many I/O-bound processes
Shortest-Job-First (SJF) Scheduling

• Associate with each process the length of its next CPU burst
  – Use these lengths to schedule the process with the shortest time

• Reduction in waiting time for short process \textit{GREATER THAN} Increase in waiting time for long process

• SJF is optimal – gives \textit{minimum average waiting time} for a given set of processes
  – The difficulty is knowing the length of the next CPU request
  – Estimate or could ask the user
### Example of SJF

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Burst Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$P_1$</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_2$</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_3$</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_4$</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- All arrive at time 0.
- SJF scheduling chart

- Average waiting time for $P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4 = \left( \frac{0 + 2 + 4 + 5}{4} \right) / 4 = \frac{11}{4}$

Pause for students to do the computation.
Example of SJF

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Burst Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( P_1 )</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( P_2 )</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( P_3 )</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( P_4 )</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- All arrive at time 0.
- SJF scheduling chart

- Average waiting time for \( P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4 \) = \( \frac{3 + 16 + 9 + 0}{4} \) = 7
Determining Length of Next CPU Burst

- Can only estimate the length – should be similar to the recent bursts
  - Then pick process with shortest predicted next CPU burst

- Can be done by using the length of previous CPU bursts, using exponential averaging
  1. \( t_n = \text{actual length of } n^{\text{th}} \text{ CPU burst} \)
  2. \( \tau_{n+1} = \text{predicted value for the next CPU burst} \)
  3. \( \alpha, 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1 \)
  4. Define: \( \tau_{n+1} = \alpha t_n + (1 - \alpha)\tau_n \).

- Commonly, \( \alpha \) set to \( \frac{1}{2} \)
Prediction of the Length of the Next CPU Burst

Blue points: guess
Black points: actual
\(\alpha = 0.5\)

Ex:
\[0.5 \times 6 + 0.5 \times 10 = 8\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CPU burst (t_i)</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;guess&quot; (\tau_i)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Examples of Exponential Averaging

- \( \alpha = 0 \)
  - \( \tau_{n+1} = \tau_n \)
  - Recent history does not count
- \( \alpha = 1 \)
  - \( \tau_{n+1} = \alpha t_n \)
  - Only the actual last CPU burst counts
- \( \tau_{n+1} = \alpha t_n + (1 - \alpha)\tau_n \).

If we expand the formula, substituting for \( \tau_n \), we get:

\[
\tau_{n+1} = \alpha t_n + (1 - \alpha)\alpha t_{n-1} + \ldots \\
+ (1 - \alpha)^j \alpha t_{n-j} + \ldots \\
+ (1 - \alpha)^{n+1} \tau_0
\]

- Since both \( \alpha \) and \( 1 - \alpha \) are less than or equal to 1, each successive term has less weight than its predecessor

Widely used for predicting stock-market etc.
Shortest-remaining-time-first (preemptive SJF)

• Preemptive version called **shortest-remaining-time-first**

• Now we add the concepts of varying arrival times and preemption to the analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Arrival Time</th>
<th>Burst Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$P_1$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_2$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_3$</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_4$</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

  (will preempt because 4<7)

  (will not preempt)

• **Preemptive SJF Gantt Chart**

• Average waiting time for $P_1,P_2,P_3,P_4$

  $$= [(10-1)+(1-1)+(17-2)+(5-3)]/4 = 26/4 = 6.5 \text{ msec}$$
Priority Scheduling

• A priority number (integer) is associated with each process

• The CPU is allocated to the process with the highest priority (smallest integer ≡ highest priority)
  – Preemptive
  – Nonpreemptive

• SJF is priority scheduling where priority is the inverse of predicted next CPU burst time

• Problem ≡ Starvation – low priority processes may never execute
  – Solution ≡ Aging – as time progresses increase the priority of the process

MIT had a low priority job waiting from 1967 to 1973 on IBM 7094! 😊
Example of Priority Scheduling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Burst Time</th>
<th>Priority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$P_1$</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_2$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 (highest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_3$</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_4$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_5$</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- P1, P2, P3, P4, P5 all arrive at time 0.
- Priority scheduling Gantt Chart

![Gantt Chart]

- Average waiting time for P1, .. P5: $(6+0+16+18+1)/5 = 8.2$ msec
Round Robin (RR) with time quantum

- Each process gets a small unit of CPU time (time quantum $q$), usually 10-100 milliseconds. After this, the process is preempted, added to the end of the ready queue.
- If there are $n$ processes in the ready queue and the time quantum is $q$, then each process gets $1/n$ of the CPU time in chunks of at most $q$ time units at once. No process waits more than $(n-1)q$ time units.
- Timer interrupts every quantum to schedule next process
- Performance
  - $q$ large $\Rightarrow$ FIFO
  - $q$ small $\Rightarrow$ $q$ must be large with respect to context switch, otherwise overhead is too high (overhead typically in 0.5% range)
Example of RR with \textbf{Time Quantum = 4}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Burst Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$P_1$</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_2$</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_3$</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Arrive a time 0 in order $P_1$, $P_2$, $P_3$: The Gantt chart is:

  \begin{center}
  \begin{tabular}{cccccccccc}
    & $P_1$ & $P_2$ & $P_3$ & $P_1$ & $P_1$ & $P_1$ & $P_1$ & $P_1$ \\
    0    & 4     & 7     & 10    & 14    & 18    & 22    & 26    & 30    \\
  \end{tabular}
  \end{center}

- Waiting times: $P_1$:10-4 =6, $P_2$:4, $P_3$:7, average $17/3 = 5.66$ units
- Typically, higher average turnaround than SJF, but better \textit{response}
- $q$ should be large compared to context switch time
- $q$ usually \textbf{10ms to 100ms}, context switch < 10 µsec

\textbf{Response time}: Arrival to beginning of execution
\textbf{Turnaround time}: Arrival to finish of execution
Much smaller quantum compared to burst: many switches
Turnaround Time Varies With The Time Quantum

Rule of thumb: 80% of CPU bursts should be shorter than q

Illustration
q=7:
Turnaround times for P1,P2,P3,P4: 6,9,10,17 \( \text{av} = 10.5 \)
Similarly for q =1, ..6 (verify yourself)

Students: Repeat for q = 1, ..6 at home to verify the plot.
Multilevel Queue

• Ready queue is partitioned into separate queues, e.g.:
  – **foreground** (interactive)
  – **background** (batch)

• Process permanently in a given queue

• Each queue has its own scheduling algorithm, e.g.:
  – foreground – RR
  – background – FCFS

• Scheduling must be done between the queues:
  – Fixed priority scheduling; (i.e., serve all from foreground then from background). Possibility of starvation. Or
  – Time slice – each queue gets a certain amount of CPU time which it can schedule amongst its processes; i.e., 80% to foreground in RR, 20% to background in FCFS
Multilevel Queue Scheduling

Real-time processes may have the highest priority.
Multilevel *Feedback* Queue

- A process can move between the various queues; *aging* can be implemented this way
- Multilevel-feedback-queue scheduler defined by the following parameters:
  - number of queues
  - scheduling algorithms for each queue
  - method used to determine when to *upgrade* a process
  - method used to determine when to *demote* a process
  - method used to determine which queue a process will enter when that process needs service

*Inventor Corbato* won the Touring award!
Example of Multilevel Feedback Queue

• Three queues:
  – $Q_0$ – RR with time quantum 8 milliseconds
  – $Q_1$ – RR time quantum 16 milliseconds
  – $Q_2$ – FCFS (no time quantum limit)

• Scheduling
  – A new job enters queue $Q_0$ which is served FCFS
    • When it gains CPU, job receives 8 milliseconds
    • If it does not finish in 8 milliseconds, job is moved to queue $Q_1$
  – At $Q_1$ job is again served FCFS and receives 16 additional milliseconds
    • If it still does not complete, it is preempted and moved to queue $Q_2$

Upgrading may be based on aging. Periodically processes may be moved to the top level.

Variations of the scheme were used in earlier versions of Linux.
Thread Scheduling

- Thread scheduling is similar
- Distinction between user-level and kernel-level threads
- When threads supported, threads scheduled, not processes

Scheduling competition
- Many-to-one and many-to-many models, thread library schedules user-level threads to run on LWP
  - Known as process-contention scope (PCS) since scheduling competition is within the process
  - Typically done via priority set by programmer
- Kernel thread scheduled onto available CPU is system-contention scope (SCS) – competition among all threads in system
- Pthread API allows both, but Linux and Mac OSX allows only SCS.

LWP layer between kernel threads and user threads in some older OSs
Multiple-Processor Scheduling

• CPU scheduling more complex when multiple CPUs are available.

• **Assume Homogeneous processors** within a multiprocessor

• **Asymmetric multiprocessing** – individual processors can be dedicated to specific tasks at design time

• **Symmetric multiprocessing (SMP)** – each processor is self-scheduling,
  – all processes in common ready queue, **or**
  – each has its own private queue of ready processes
    • Currently, most common

• **Processor affinity** – process has affinity for processor on which it is currently running **because of info in cache**
  – soft affinity: **try but no guarantee**
  – hard affinity can specify processor sets
Note that memory-placement algorithms can also consider affinity. Non-uniform memory access (NUMA), in which a CPU has faster access to some parts of main memory.
• If SMP, need to keep all CPUs loaded for efficiency

• **Load balancing** attempts to keep workload evenly distributed
  – **Push migration** – periodic task checks load on each processor, and if found pushes task from overloaded CPU to other CPUs
  – **Pull migration** – idle processors pulls waiting task from busy processor
  – Combination of push/pull may be used.
Multicore Processors

- Recent trend to place multiple processor cores on same physical chip
- Faster and consumes less power
- Multiple threads per core
  - Concurrent
  - Parallel: with hyper-threading hardware
Real-Time CPU Scheduling

• Can present obvious challenges
  – **Soft real-time systems** – no guarantee as to when critical real-time process will be scheduled
  – **Hard real-time systems** – task must be serviced by its deadline

• For real-time scheduling, scheduler must support preemptive, priority-based scheduling
  – But only guarantees soft real-time

• For hard real-time must also provide ability to meet deadlines
  – **periodic** ones require CPU at constant intervals
Virtualization and Scheduling

- Virtualization software schedules multiple guests onto CPU(s)
- Each guest doing its own scheduling
  - Not knowing it doesn’t own the CPUs
  - Can effect time-of-day clocks in guests
- VMM has its own scheduler
- Various approaches have been used
  - Workload aware, Guest OS cooperation, etc.
• Solaris scheduling: 6 classes, Inverse relationship between priorities and time quantum
• Windows XP scheduling: 32 priority levels (real-time, not real-time levels)
• Linux scheduling schemes have continued to evolve.
• Linux **Completely fair scheduler** (CFS, 2007):
  – Variable time-slice based on number and priority of the tasks in the queue.
  – Maximum execution time based on waiting processes (Q/n).
  – Processes kept in a red-black binary tree with scheduling complexity of $O(\log N)$
  – Process with lowest weighted spent execution (virtual run time) time is picked next. Weighted by priority (“niceness”).