

Section 6: Scheduling, Deadlock

CS 162

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1 Vocabulary

- **Scheduler** - Routine in the kernel that picks which thread to run next given a vacant CPU and a ready queue of unblocked threads.
- **Linux CFS** - Linux scheduling algorithm designed to optimize for fairness. It gives each thread a weighted share of some target latency and then ensures that each thread receives that much virtual CPU time in its scheduling decisions.
- **Multi-Level Feedback Queue Scheduling** - MLFQS uses multiple queues with priorities, dropping CPU-bound jobs that consume their entire quanta into lower-priority queues.
- **Priority Inversion** - If a higher priority thread is blocking on a resource (a lock, as far as you're concerned but it could be the Disk or other I/O device in practice) that a lower priority thread holds exclusive access to, the priorities are said to be inverted. The higher priority thread cannot continue until the lower priority thread releases the resource. This can be amended by implementing priority donation.
- **Priority Donation** - If a thread attempts to acquire a resource (lock) that is currently being held, it donates its effective priority to the holder of that resource. This must be done recursively until a thread holding no locks is found, even if the current thread has a lower priority than the current resource holder. (Think about what would happen if you didn't do this and a third thread with higher priority than either of the two current ones donates to the original donor.) Each thread's effective priority becomes the max of all donated priorities and its original priority.
- **Deadlock** - A case of starvation due to a cycle of waiting. Computer programs sharing the same resource effectively prevent each other from accessing the resource, causing both programs to cease to make progress.
- **Banker's Algorithm** - A resource allocation and deadlock avoidance algorithm that tests for safety by simulating the allocation for predetermined maximum possible amounts of all resources, before deciding whether allocation should be allowed to continue.

2 Scheduling

2.1 Simple Priority Scheduler

We are going to implement a new scheduler in Pintos we will call it SPS. We will just split threads into two priorities "high" and "low". High priority threads should always be scheduled before low priority threads. Turns out we can do this without expensive list operations.

For this question make the following assumptions:

- Priority Scheduling is NOT implemented
- High priority threads will have priority 1
- Low priority threads will have priority 0
- The priorities are set correctly and will never be less than 0 or greater than 1
- The priority of the thread can be accessed in the field `int priority` in `struct thread`
- The scheduler treats the ready queue like a FIFO queue
- Dont worry about pre-emption.

Modify `thread_unblock` so SPS works correctly.

You are not allowed to use any non constant time list operations

```
void
thread_unblock (struct thread *t)
{
    enum intr_level old_level;

    ASSERT (is_thread (t));

    old_level = intr_disable ();
    ASSERT (t->status == THREAD_BLOCKED);
    if (t->priority == 1) {
        list_push_front (&ready_list, &t->elem);
    } else {
        list_push_back (&ready_list, &t->elem);
    }
    t->status = THREAD_READY;
    intr_set_level (old_level);
}
```

2.1.1 Fairness

In order for this scheduler to be "fair" briefly describe when you would make a thread high priority and when you would make a thread low priority.

Downgrade priority when thread uses up its quanta, upgrade priority when it voluntarily yields, or gets blocked.

2.1.2 Better than Priority Scheduler?

If we let the user set the priorities of this scheduler with `set_priority`, why might this scheduler be preferable to the normal pintos priority scheduler?

The insert operations are cheaper, and it provides a good approximation to priority scheduling.

2.1.3 Tradeoff

How can we trade off between the coarse granularity of SPS and the super fine granularity of normal priority scheduling? (Assuming we still want this fast insert)

We can have more than 2 priorities but still a small number of fixed priorities, and have a queue for each priority, and then pop off threads from each queue as necessary.

3 Deadlock

3.1 Introduction

What are the four requirements for Deadlock?

Mutual Exclusion, Hold & Wait, No Preemption, and Circular Wait.

What is starvation and what is deadlock? How are they different?

Starvation occurs when a thread waits indefinitely. An example of starvation is when a low-priority thread waiting for a resource that is constantly in use by high-priority threads.
Deadlock is the circular waiting of resources. Deadlock implies starvation but not vice-versa.

3.2 Banker's Algorithm

Suppose we have the following resources: A, B, C and threads T1, T2, T3 and T4. The total number of each resource as well as the current/max allocations for each thread are as follows:

Total		
A	B	C
7	8	9

T/R	Current			Max		
	A	B	C	A	B	C
T1	0	2	2	4	3	3
T2	2	2	1	3	6	9
T3	3	0	4	3	1	5
T4	1	3	1	3	3	4

Is the system in a safe state? If so, show a non-blocking sequence of thread executions.

Yes, the system is in a safe state.

To find a safe sequence of executions, we need to first calculate the available resources and the needed resources for each thread. To find the available resources, we sum up the currently held resources from each thread and subtract that from the total resources:

Available		
A	B	C
1	1	1

To find the needed resources for each thread, we subtract the resources they currently have from the maximum they need:

Needed			
	A	B	C
T1	4	1	1
T2	1	4	8
T3	0	1	1
T4	2	0	3

From these, we see that we must run T3 first, as that is the only thread for which all needed resources are currently available. After T3 runs, it returns its held resources to the resource pool, so the available resource pool is now as follows:

Available		
A	B	C
4	1	5

We can now run either T1 or T4, and following the same process, we can arrive at a possible execution sequence of either $T3 \rightarrow T1 \rightarrow T4 \rightarrow T2$ or $T3 \rightarrow T4 \rightarrow T1 \rightarrow T2$.

Repeat the previous question if the total number of C instances is 8 instead of 9.

Following the same procedure from the previous question, we see that there are 0 instances of C available at the start of this execution. However, every thread needs at least 1 instance of C to run, so we are unable to run any threads and thus the system is not in a safe state.

4 Fall 2019 Practice Midterm

4.1 Optional Practice: Delivery Service

Assume each numbered line of code takes 1 CPU cycle to run, and that a context switch takes 2 CPU cycles. Hardware preemption occurs every 50 CPU cycles and takes 1 CPU cycle. The scheduler is run after every hardware preemption and takes 0 time. Finally, the currently running thread does not change until the end of a context switch.

Lock lock_a, lock_b; // Assume these locks are already initialized and unlocked.

```
int a = 0;
int b = 1;
bool run = true;
```

```
    Kiki() {
1.        bool cond = run;
2.        while (cond) {
3.            int x = a;
4.            int y = b;
5.            int sum = x + y;
6.            lock_a.acquire();
7.            lock_b.acquire();
8.            a = y;
9.            b = sum;
10.           lock_a.release();
11.           lock_b.release();
12.           cond = run;
        }
    }
    Jiji() {
1.        bool cond = run;
2.        while (cond) {
3.            int x = b;
4.            int sum = a + b;
5.            lock_b.acquire();
6.            lock_a.acquire();
7.            b = sum;
8.            a = x;
9.            lock_b.release();
10.           lock_a.release();
11.           cond = run;
        }
    }
    Tombo() {
1.        while (true) {
2.            lock_a.acquire()
3.            a = 0;
4.            lock_a.release()
5.            lock_b.acquire()
6.            b = 1;
7.            lock_b.release()
        }
    }
```

Thread 1 runs Kiki, Thread 2 runs Jiji, and Thread 3 runs Tombo. Assuming round robin scheduling (threads are initially scheduled in numerical order):

1. What are the values of **a** and **b** after 50 CPU cycles?

The entire first 50 cycles is spent running Kiki.

```
@12 : a = 1, b = 1
@23 : a = 1, b = 2
@34 : a = 2, b = 3
@45 : a = 3, b = 5
```

2. What are the values of **a** and **b** after 200 CPU cycles? What line is the program counter on for each thread?

a = 3, b = 5

There was deadlock! After part (a), the last instruction Thread 1 ran (cycle 50) is line 6, `lock_a.acquire()`. Thread 2 can run until it has acquired lock b, but blocks on `lock_a.acquire()` as Thread 1 is currently holding lock a. Thread 3 can run until `lock_a.acquire()`, then it will block as well. When Thread 1 is switched back in, it cannot run the line `lock_b.acquire()` because Thread 2 is holding lock b.

Now assume we use the same round robin scheduler but we just run 2 instances of Kiki.

3. What are the values of **a** and **b** after 100 cycles?

```
@12 : a = 1, b = 1           @59 : T2 blocked on line 6
@23 : a = 1, b = 2           @61 : T1 context switched on
@34 : a = 2, b = 3           @67 : a = 5, b = 8
@45 : a = 3, b = 5           @79 : a = 8, b = 13
@51 : T1 pre-empted after line 6  @91 : a = 13, b = 21
@53 : T2 context switched on.    @100 : a = 21, b = 34
```

Now we replace our scheduler with a CFS-like scheduler. In particular, this scheduler is invoked on every call to `lock_acquire` or `lock_release`. We still have 2 threads running Kiki, but this time thread 1 runs for 50 cycles before thread 2 starts.

4. What are the values of **a** and **b** at the end of the 73rd cycle?

```
@50 thread1 has acquired lock A
@53 thread 2 begins to run
After 58, context switch back to thread 1
After 64, thread 1 releases lock_a and thread 2 runs
After 67, thread 2 acquires lock_a
@68 thread 2 attempts to acquire lock_b
@71 thread 1 releases lock_b
After 73, lock_b is acquired by thread 2
a = 5, b = 8
```