Chapter 6: CPU Scheduling

adapted from Silberschatz, Galvin, Gagne

Chapter 6: CPU Scheduling

- Basic Concepts
- Scheduling Criteria
- Scheduling Algorithms
- Thread Scheduling
- Multiple-Processor Scheduling
- Operating Systems Examples

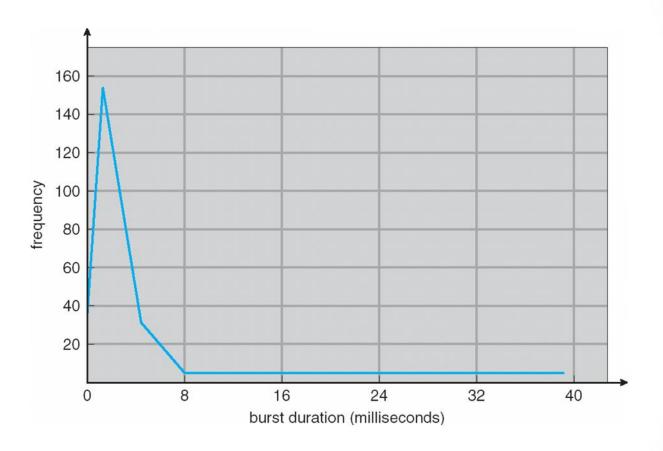
Objectives

- To introduce CPU scheduling, which is the basis for multi-task operating systems
- To describe various CPU-scheduling algorithms
- To discuss evaluation criteria for selecting a CPU-scheduling algorithm for a particular system

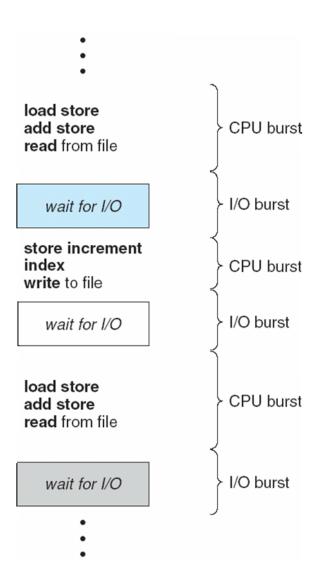
Basic Concepts

- 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** distribution

Histogram of CPU-burst Times



Alternating Sequence of CPU And I/O Bursts



CPU Scheduler

- Selects from among the processes in memory that are ready to execute, and allocates the CPU to one of them
- 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

Dispatcher

- 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

Scheduling Criteria

- **CPU utilization** keep the CPU as busy as possible
- Throughput # of processes that complete their execution per time unit
- Turnaround time the interval from the time of submission of a process to the time of completion. Sum of the time waiting to get into memory, waiting in the ready queue, executing on the CPU and doing I/O.
- Waiting time amount of time a process has been waiting in the ready queue
- Response time amount of time it takes from when a request was submitted until the first response is produced, which excludes the time it takes to output the response (output device dependent).

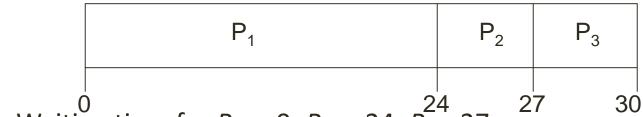
Scheduling Algorithm Optimization Criteria

- Max CPU utilization
- Max throughput
- Min turnaround time
- Min waiting time
- Min response time
- In most cases, optimize the average measure
- In some cases, optimize the minimum or maximum value rather than average
 - Example, to guarantee all users get good service, minimize the maximum response time

First-Come, First-Served (FCFS) Scheduling

<u>Process</u>	Burst Time
P_{1}	24
P_2	3
P_3	3

• Suppose that the processes arrive in the order: P_1 , P_2 , P_3 The **Gantt Chart** for the schedule is:



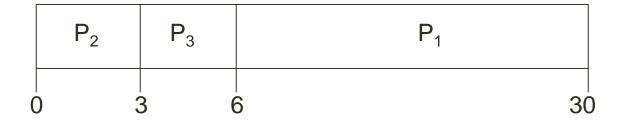
- Waiting time for $P_1 = 0$; $P_2 = 24$; $P_3^{24} = 27$
- Average waiting time: (0 + 24 + 27)/3 = 17
- Gantt Chart: a bar chart that illustrates a particular schedule, include the start and finish times of each of the participating process

FCFS Scheduling (Cont)

Suppose that the processes arrive in the order

$$P_2$$
 , P_3 , P_1

The Gantt chart for the schedule is:



- 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
- Convoy effect short process behind long process

Convoy effect

- Convoy effect is slowing down of the whole operating system because of few slow processes.
- It's usually used in context of vehicle traffics. Basically, a convoy affected region is the one where the slow moving traffic slows down the speed of all the vehicles and makes the whole process lengthier.

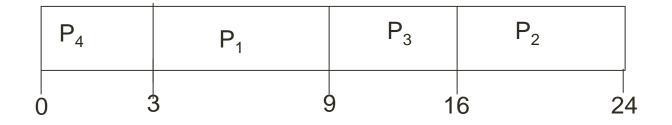
Shortest-Job-First (SJF) Scheduling

- Associate with each process the length of its next CPU burst.
 Use these lengths to schedule the process with the shortest time
- SJF is optimal gives minimum average waiting time for a given set of processes
 - The difficulty is knowing the length of the next CPU request

Example of SJF

Process	Arrival Time	Burst Time
P_1	0.0	6
P_2	2.0	8
P_3	4.0	7
P_4	5.0	3

SJF scheduling chart

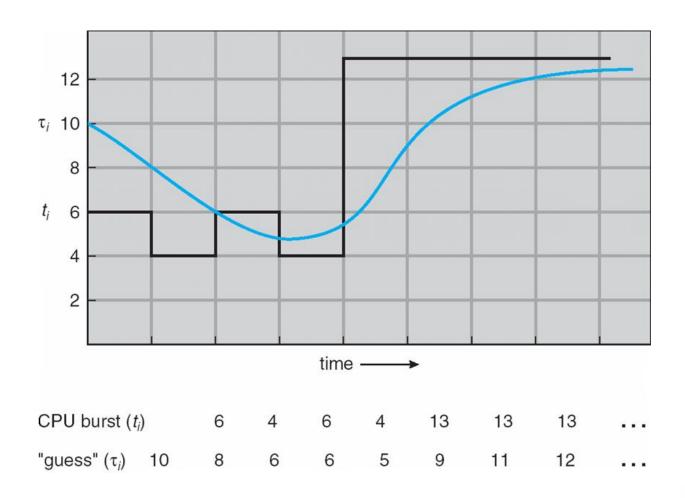


• Average waiting time = (3 + 16 + 9 + 0) / 4 = 7

Determining Length of Next CPU Burst

- Can only estimate the length
- Can be done by using the length of previous CPU bursts, using exponential averaging
 - 1. $t_n = \text{actual length of } n^{th} \text{ CPU burst}$
 - 2. τ_{n+1} = predicted value for the next CPU burst
 - 3. α , $0 \le \alpha \le 1$
 - 4. Define: $t_{n+1} = \partial t_n + (1 \partial) t_n$.

Prediction of the Length of the Next CPU Burst



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
- If we expand the formula, we get:

$$\tau_{n+1} = \alpha t_n + (1 - \alpha)\alpha t_n - 1 + \dots$$

$$+ (1 - \alpha)^j \alpha t_{n-j} + \dots$$

$$+ (1 - \alpha)^{n+1} \tau_0$$

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

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)
 - Nonpreemptive: newly arrived process simply put into the queue
 - Preemptive: if the priority of the newly arrived process is higher than priority of the currently running process---preempt the CPU
- SJF is a priority scheduling where priority is the predicted next CPU burst time

Priority Scheduling (Cont)

- Problem = Starvation low priority processes may never execute
 - Rumors has it that when they shut down the IBM 7094 at MIT in 1973, they found a low priority process that had been submitted in 1967 and had not yet been run.
- Solution ≡ Aging as time progresses increase the priority of the process
 - Example: priority range from 127 (low) to 0 (high)
 - Increase priority of a waiting process by 1 every 15 minutes
 - 32 hours to reach priority 0 from 127

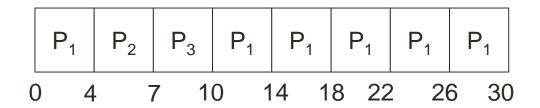
Round Robin (RR)

- Each process gets a small unit of CPU time (time quantum), usually 10-100 milliseconds. After this time has elapsed, the process is preempted and 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.
- Performance
 - $q \text{ large} \Rightarrow \text{FCFS}$
 - q small $\Rightarrow q$ must be large with respect to context switch, otherwise overhead is too high
 - Rule of thumb: 80% CPU bursts should be shorter than quantum

Example of RR with Time Quantum = 4

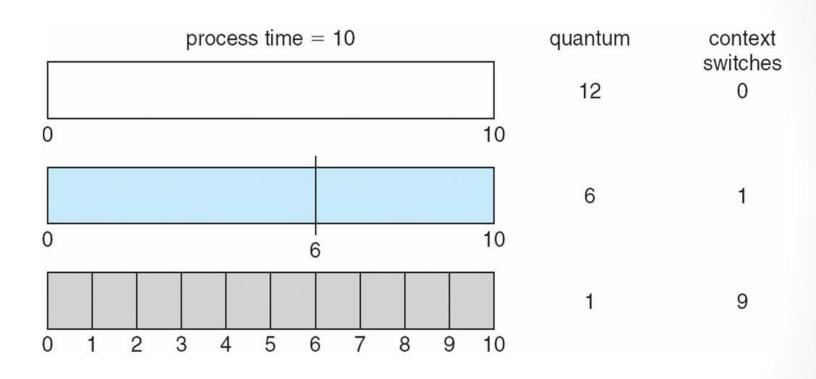
<u>Process</u>	Burst Time
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The Gantt chart is:

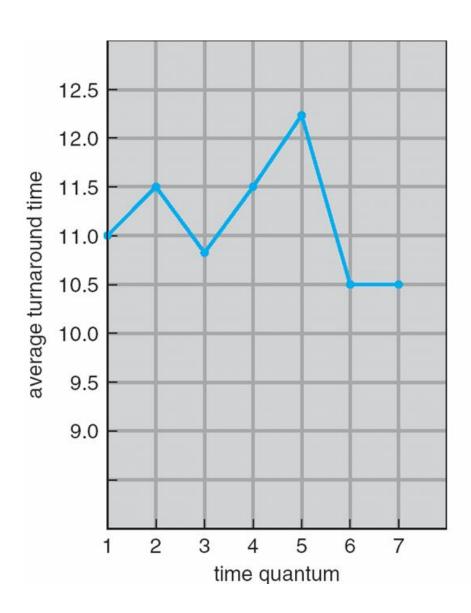


Typically, higher average turnaround than SJF, but better response

Time Quantum and Context Switch Time



Turnaround Time Varies With The Time Quantum

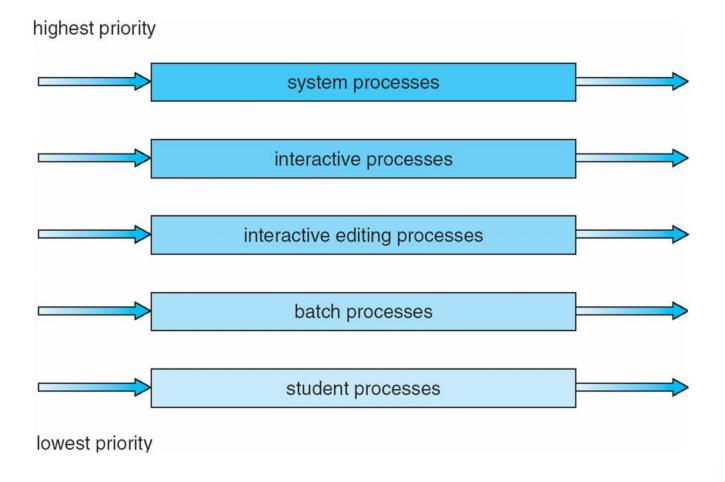


process	time
P_1	6
P_2	3
P_3	1
P_4	7

Multilevel Queue

- Ready queue is partitioned into separate queues: foreground (interactive) background (batch)
- Each queue has its own scheduling algorithm
 - 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.
 - 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



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

Example of Multilevel Feedback Queue

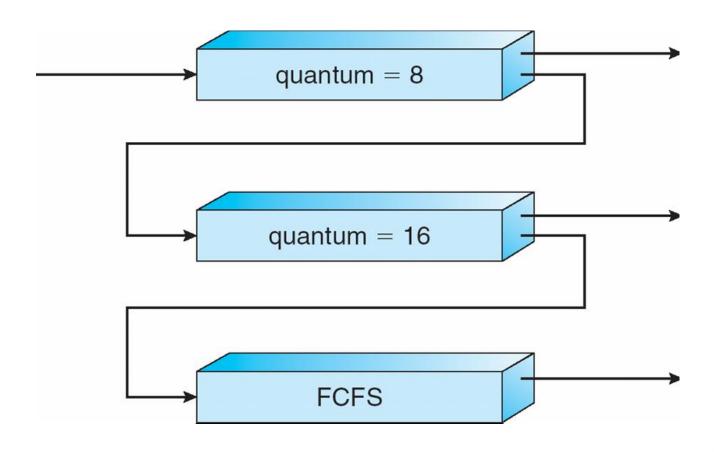
• Three queues:

- Q_0 RR with time quantum 8 milliseconds
- Q_1 RR time quantum 16 milliseconds
- $Q_2 FCFS$

Scheduling

- A new job enters queue Q_0 . 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 receives 16 additional milliseconds. If it still does not complete, it is preempted and moved to queue Q_2 .

Multilevel Feedback Queues



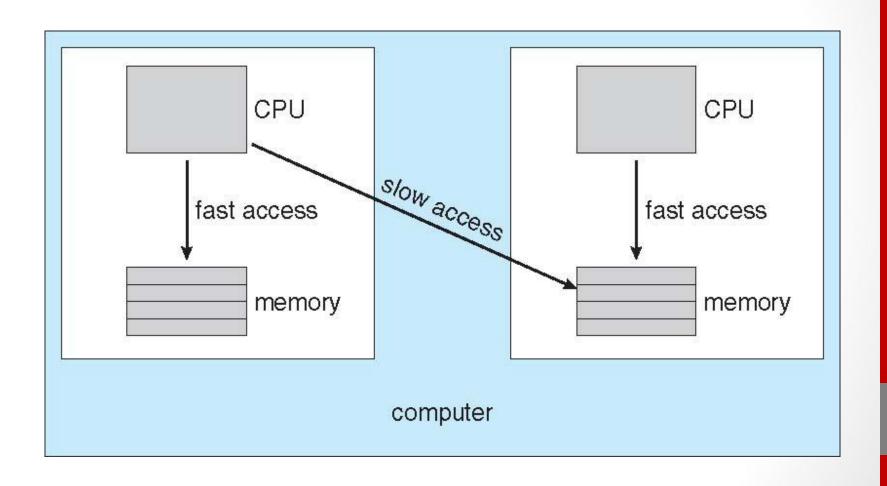
Thread Scheduling

- Distinction between user-level and kernel-level threads
- 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
- Kernel thread scheduled onto available CPU is systemcontention scope (SCS) – competition among all threads in system

Multiple-Processor Scheduling

- CPU scheduling more complex when multiple CPUs are available
- Asymmetric multiprocessing only one processor accesses the system data structures, alleviating the need for data sharing
- Symmetric multiprocessing (SMP) each processor is self-scheduling, all processes in common ready queue, or each has its own private queue of ready processes
- Processor affinity process has affinity for processor on which it is currently running
 - soft affinity
 - hard affinity

NUMA and CPU Scheduling



Multicore Processors

- Recent trend to place multiple processor cores on same physical chip
- Faster and consume less power
- Multiple threads per core also growing
 - Takes advantage of memory stall to make progress on another thread while memory retrieve happens

Linux Scheduling

- Before Linux kernel version 2.5, traditional UNIX scheduling, not adequately support SMP
- Linux kernel version 2.5, O(1) scheduler
 - Constant scheduling time regardless number of tasks
 - Better support for SMP
 - Poor response time for interactive processes
- After Linux kernel version 2.6.23, CFS-completely fair scheduler
 - Default scheduler now

Completely Fair Scheduler

- Scheduling class
 - Standard Linux kernel implements two scheduling classes
 - (1) Default scheduling class: CFS
 - (2) Real-time scheduling class
- Varying length scheduling quantum
 - Traditional UNIX scheduling uses 90ms fixed scheduling quantum
 - CFS assigns a proposition of CPU processing time to each task
- Nice value
 - -20 to +19, default nice is 0
 - Lower nice value indicates a higher relative priority
 - Task with lower nice value receives higher proportion of CPU time

Completely Fair Scheduler (Cont)

- Virtual run time
 - Each task has a per-task variable vruntime
 - Decay factor
 - Lower priority has higher rate of decay
 - Normal priority (nice = 0) virtual run time is identical to actual physical run time
 - A task with lower priority runs for 200 milliseconds, its vruntime will be higher than 200 milliseconds
 - A task with higher priority runs for 200 milliseconds, its vruntime will be lower than 200 milliseconds
- Lower virtual run time, higher priority
 - To decide which task to run next, scheduler chooses the task that has the smallest vruntime value
 - Higher priority can preempt lower priority

Completely Fair Scheduler (Cont)

- Example: Two tasks have the same nice value
- One task is I/O bound and the other is CPU bound
- vruntime of I/O bound will be shorter than vruntime of CPU bound
- I/O bound task will eventually have higher priority and preempt CPU-bound tasks whenever it is ready to run

End Chapter 6