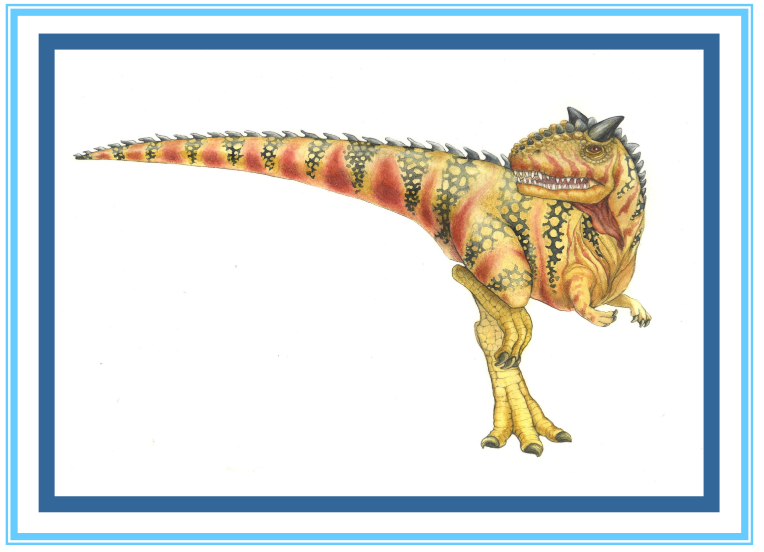
Chapter 5: CPU Scheduling



Chapter 5: CPU Scheduling

- Basic Concepts
- Scheduling Criteria
- Scheduling Algorithms
- Thread Scheduling
- Multiple-Processor Scheduling

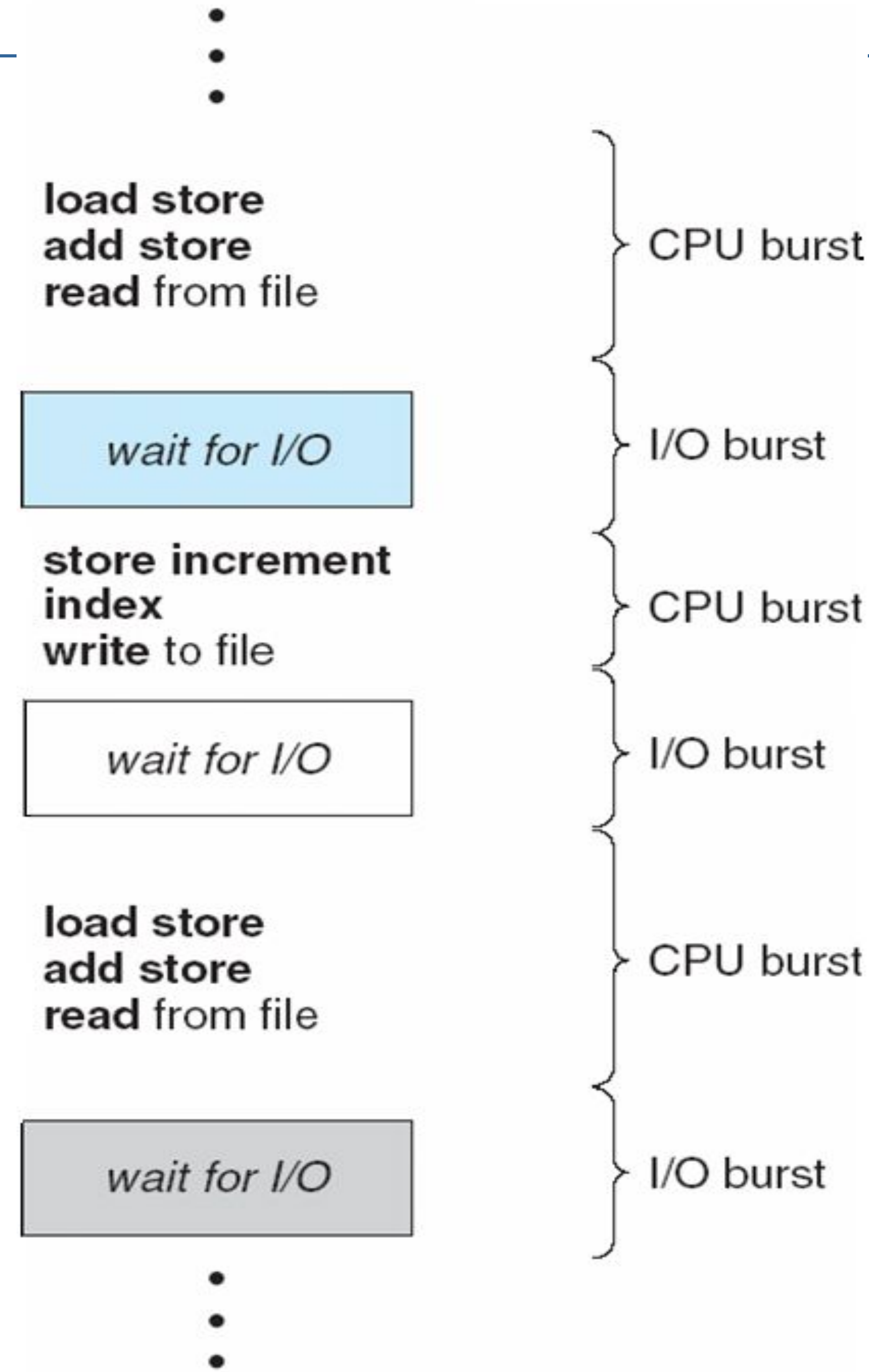
Basic Concepts

- Maximum CPU utilization obtained with multiprogramming

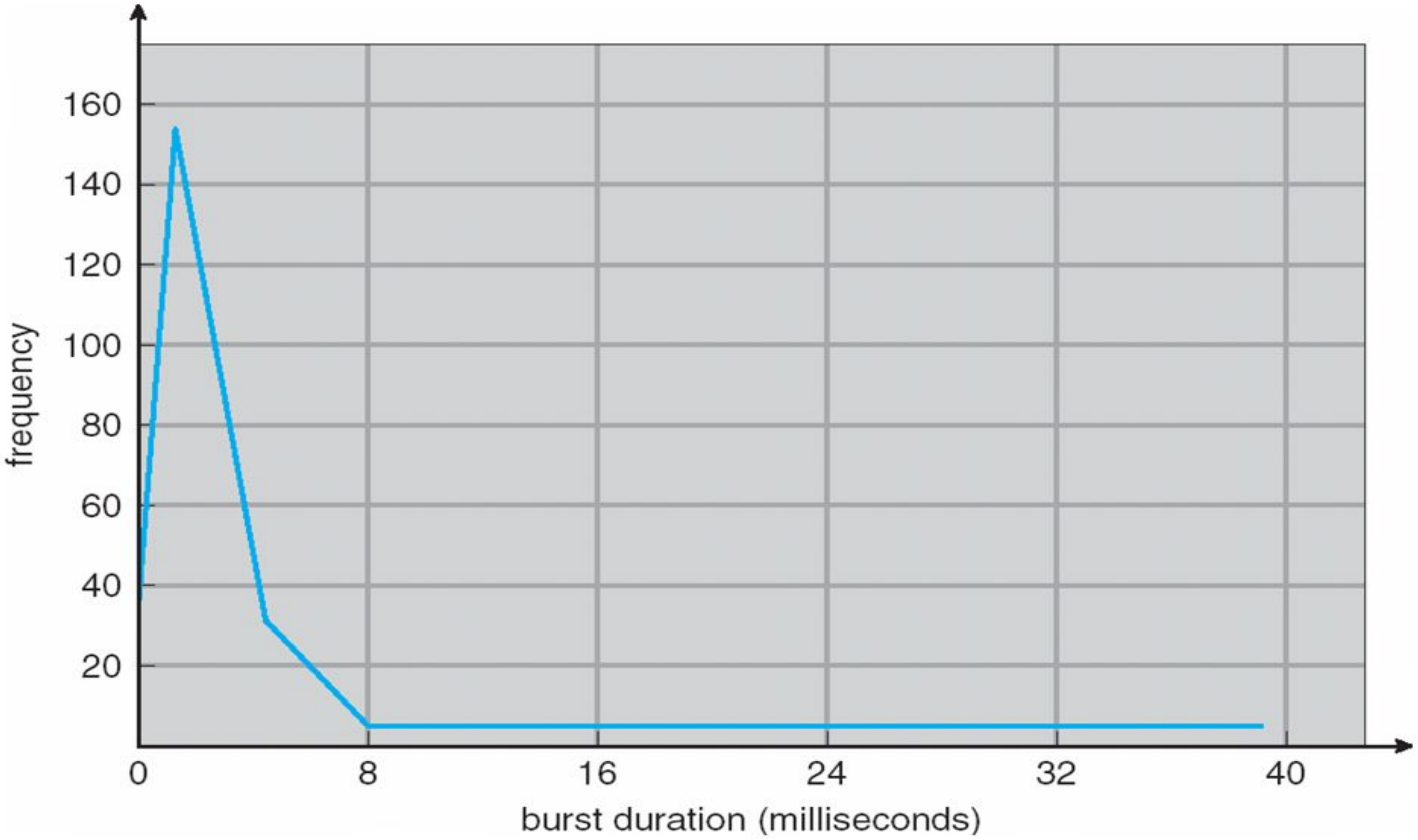
- CPU–I/O Burst Cycle – Process execution consists of a *cycle* of CPU execution and I/O wait

- **CPU burst** distribution

Alternating Sequence of CPU and I/O Bursts



Histogram of CPU-burst Times



CPU 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;** Have to handle situations -
  - Consider access to shared data
  - Consider preemption while in kernel mode
  - Consider interrupts occurring during crucial OS activities

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** – amount of time to execute a particular process
- **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, not output (for time-sharing environment)

Scheduling Algorithm Optimization Criteria

- Max CPU utilization
- Max throughput
- Min turnaround time
- Min waiting time
- Min response time

First-Come, First-Served (FCFS) Scheduling

Process	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 $P_1 = 0$; $P_2 = 24$; $P_3 = 27$
- Average waiting time: $(0 + 24 + 27)/3 = 17$

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
  - Consider one CPU-bound and many I/O-bound processes
- FCFS Scheduling is non preemptive.

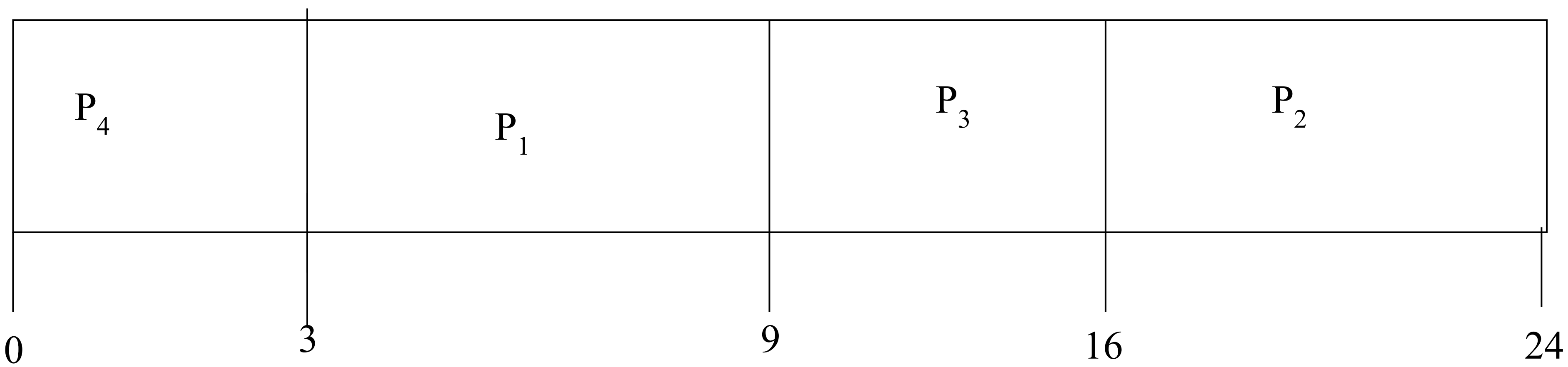
Shortest-Job-First (SJF) Scheduling

- 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
  - Could ask the user

Example of SJF

Process	Burst Time
P_1	6
P_2	8
P_3	7
P_4	3

- SJF scheduling chart



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

Determining Length of Next CPU Burst

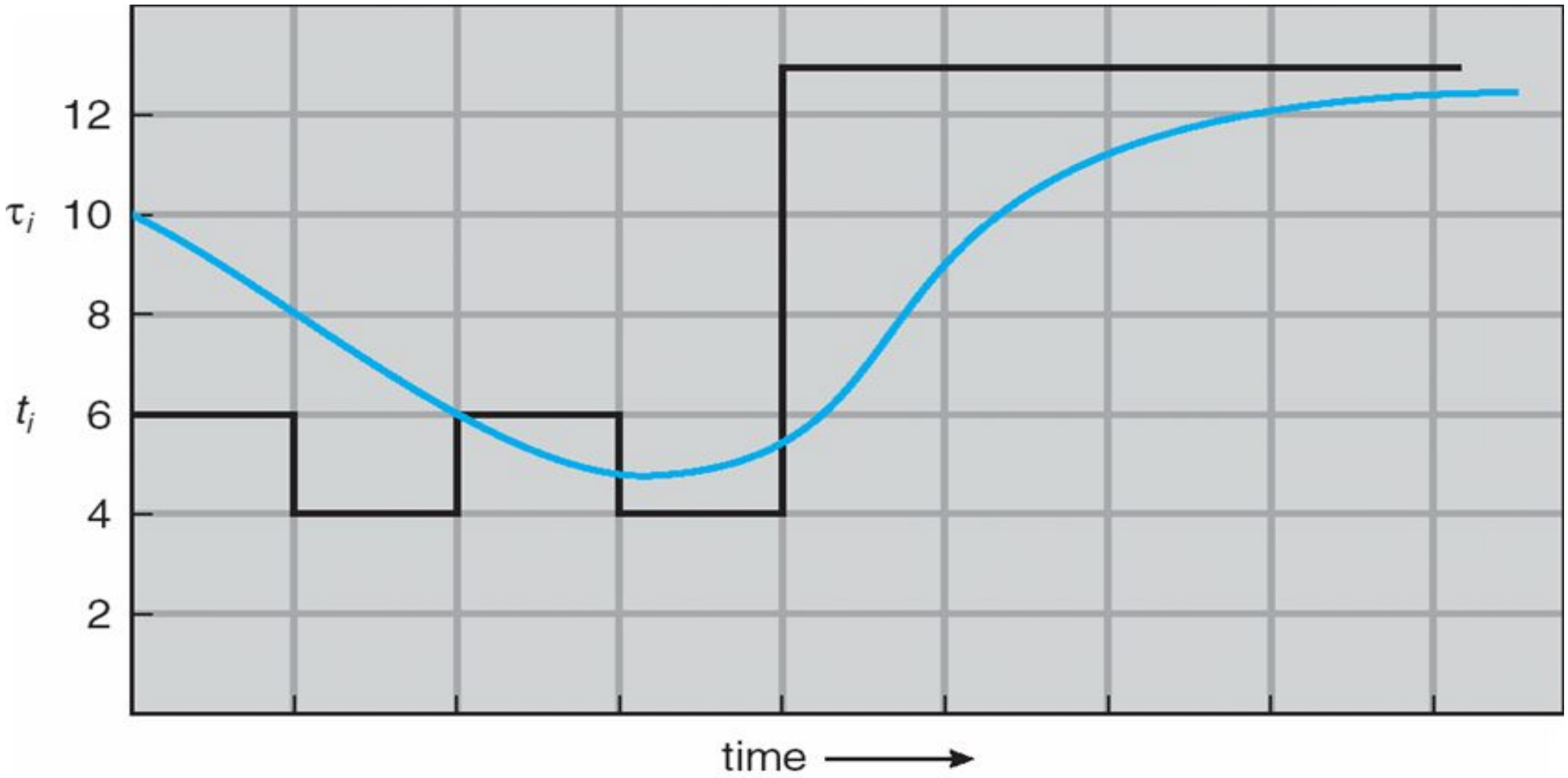
- Can only estimate the length – should be similar to the previous one
  - Then pick process with shortest predicted next CPU burst
- Can be done by using the length of previous CPU bursts, using exponential averaging

1. $t_n =$ actual length of n^{th} CPU burst
2. $\tau_{n+1} =$ predicted value for the next CPU burst
3. $\alpha, 0 \le \alpha \le 1$
4. Define :

$$\tau_{n+1} = \alpha\, t_n + (1-\alpha)\tau_n .$$

- Commonly, α set to ½
- Preemptive version called **shortest-remaining-time-first**

Prediction of the Length of the Next CPU Burst



CPU burst (t_i)		6	4	6	4	13	13	13	...
"guess" (τ_i)	10	8	6	6	5	9	11	12	...

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:

$$\begin{aligned}\tau_{n+1} = {} & \alpha \, t_n + (1 - \alpha)\alpha \, t_{n-1} + \ldots \\ & + (1 - \alpha)^j \alpha \, t_{n-j} + \ldots \\ & + (1 - \alpha)^{n+1} \tau_0\end{aligned}$$

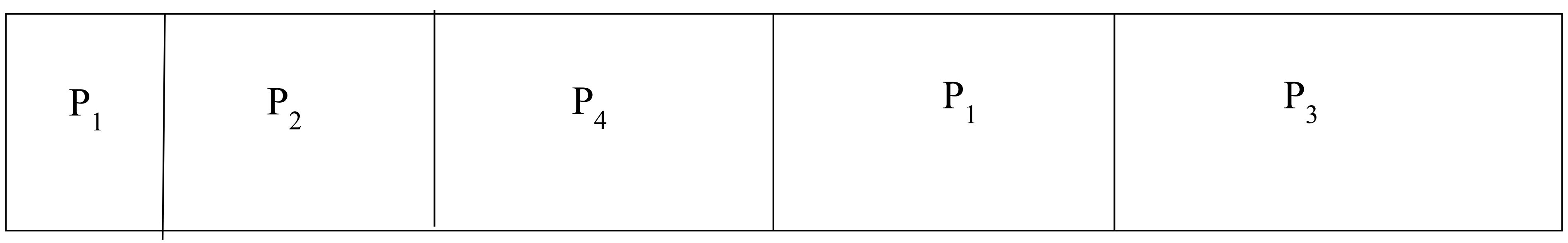
- Since both α and $(1 - \alpha)$ are less than or equal to 1, each successive term has less weight than its predecessor

Example of Shortest-remaining-time-first

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

Process	*Arrival* Time	Burst Time
P_1	0	8
P_2	1	4
P_3	2	9
P_4	3	5

- *Preemptive* SJF Gantt Chart



- Average waiting time = [(10-1)+(1-1)+(17-2)+5-3)]/4 = 26/4 = 6.5 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

Example of Priority Scheduling

Process	Burst Time	Priority
P_1	10	3
P_2	1	1
P_3	2	4
P_4	1	5
P_5	5	2

- Priority scheduling Gantt Chart

P_2	P_5	P_1	P_3	P_4

0 1 6 16 18 19

- Average waiting time = 8.2 msec

Round Robin (RR)

- Each process gets a small unit of CPU time (**time quantum** q), 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.
- 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

Example of RR with Time Quantum = 4

Process	Burst Time
P_1	24
P_2	3
P_3	3

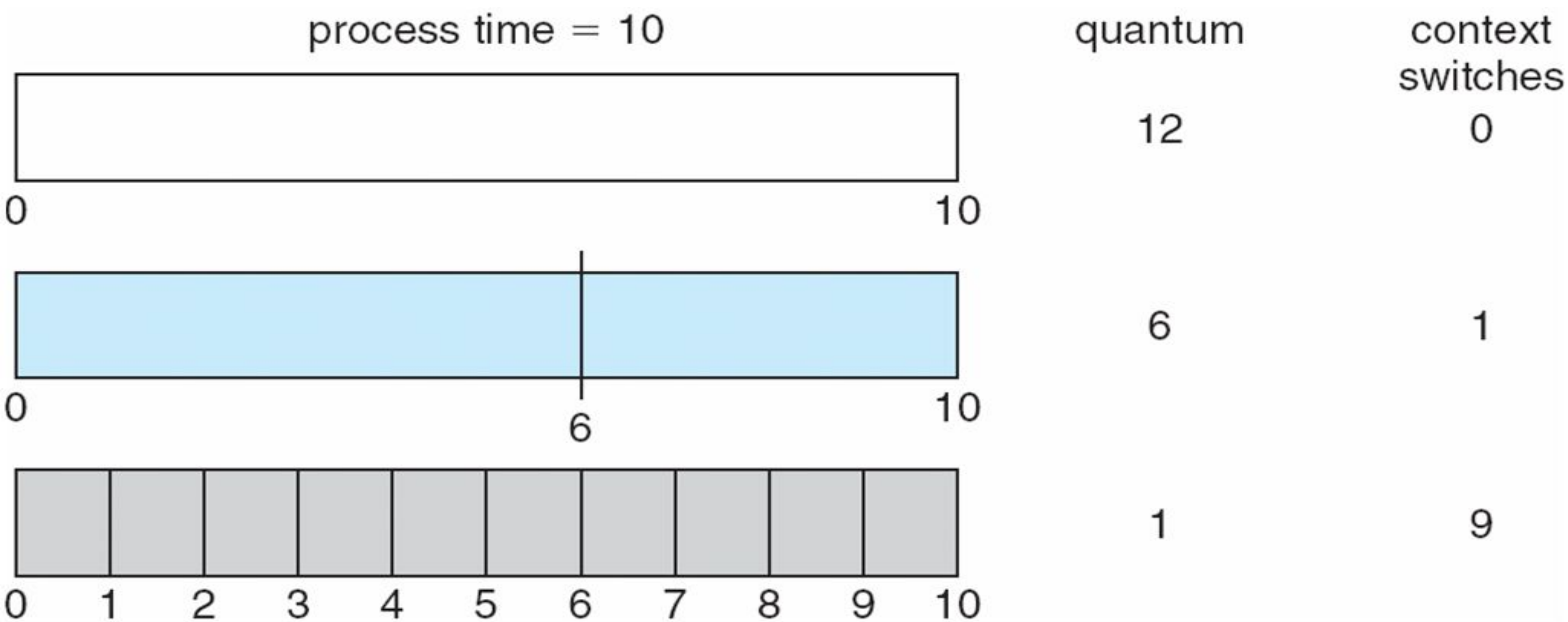
The Gantt chart is:

P_1	P_2	P_3	P_1	P_1	P_1	P_1	P_1

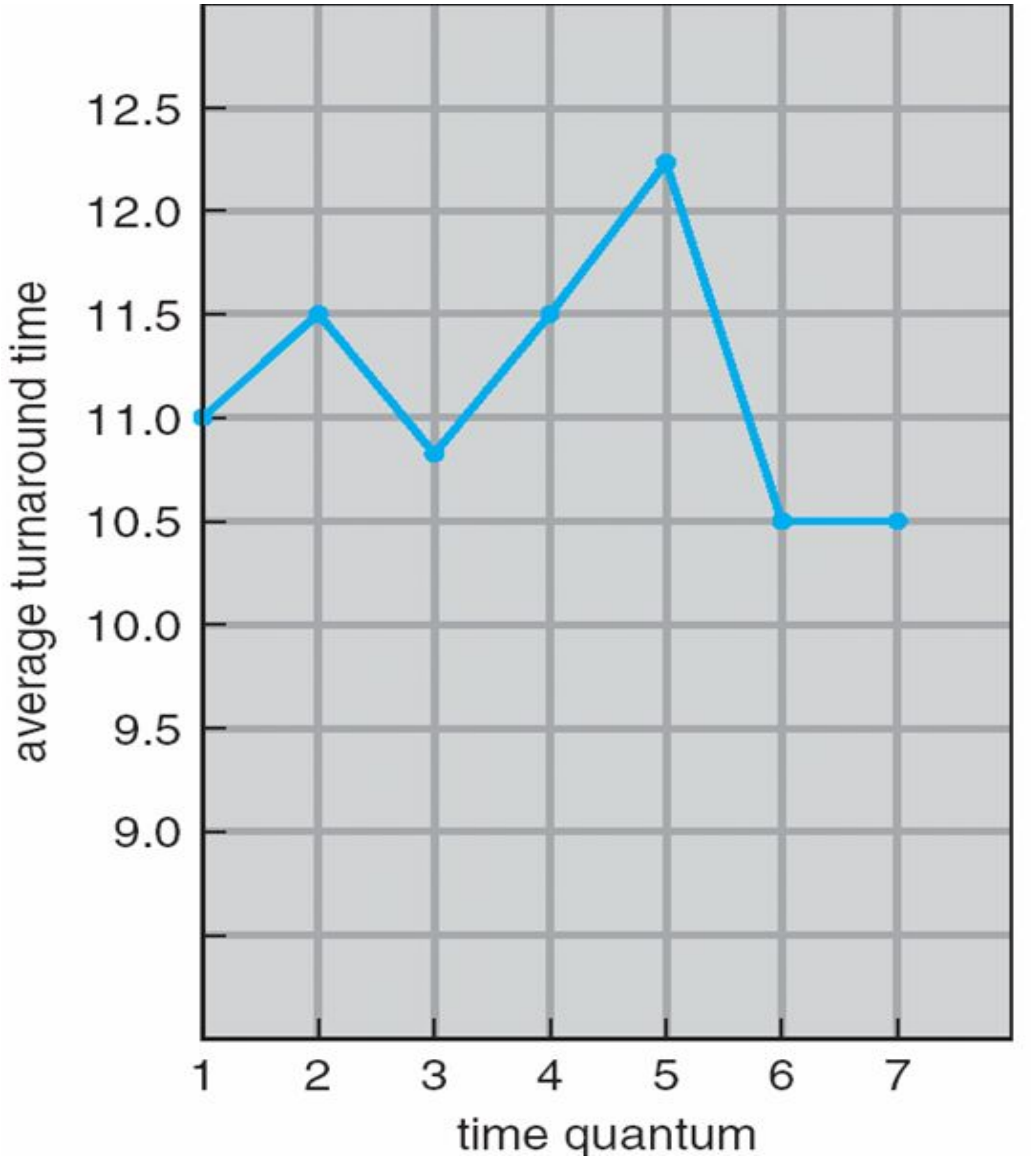
0 4 7 10 14 18 22 26 30

- Typically, higher average turnaround than SJF, but better *response*
- q should be large compared to context switch time
- q usually 10ms to 100ms, context switch < 10 usec

Time Quantum and Context Switch Time



Turnaround Time Varies With The Time Quantum



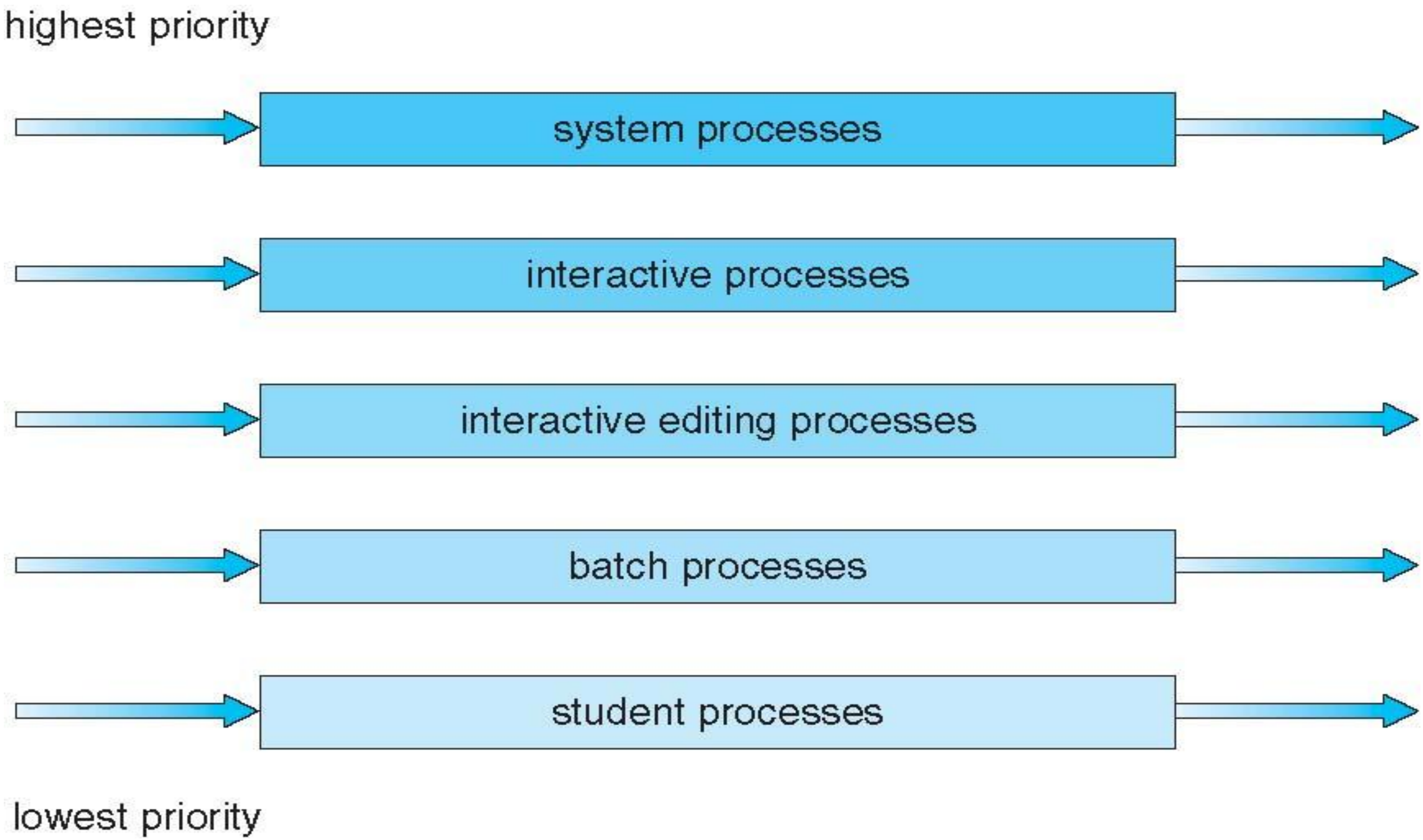
process	time
P_1	6
P_2	3
P_3	1
P_4	7

80% of CPU bursts should be shorter than q

Multilevel Queue

- Ready queue is partitioned into separate queues, eg:
  - foreground (interactive)
  - background (batch)
- Process permanently in a given queue
- 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



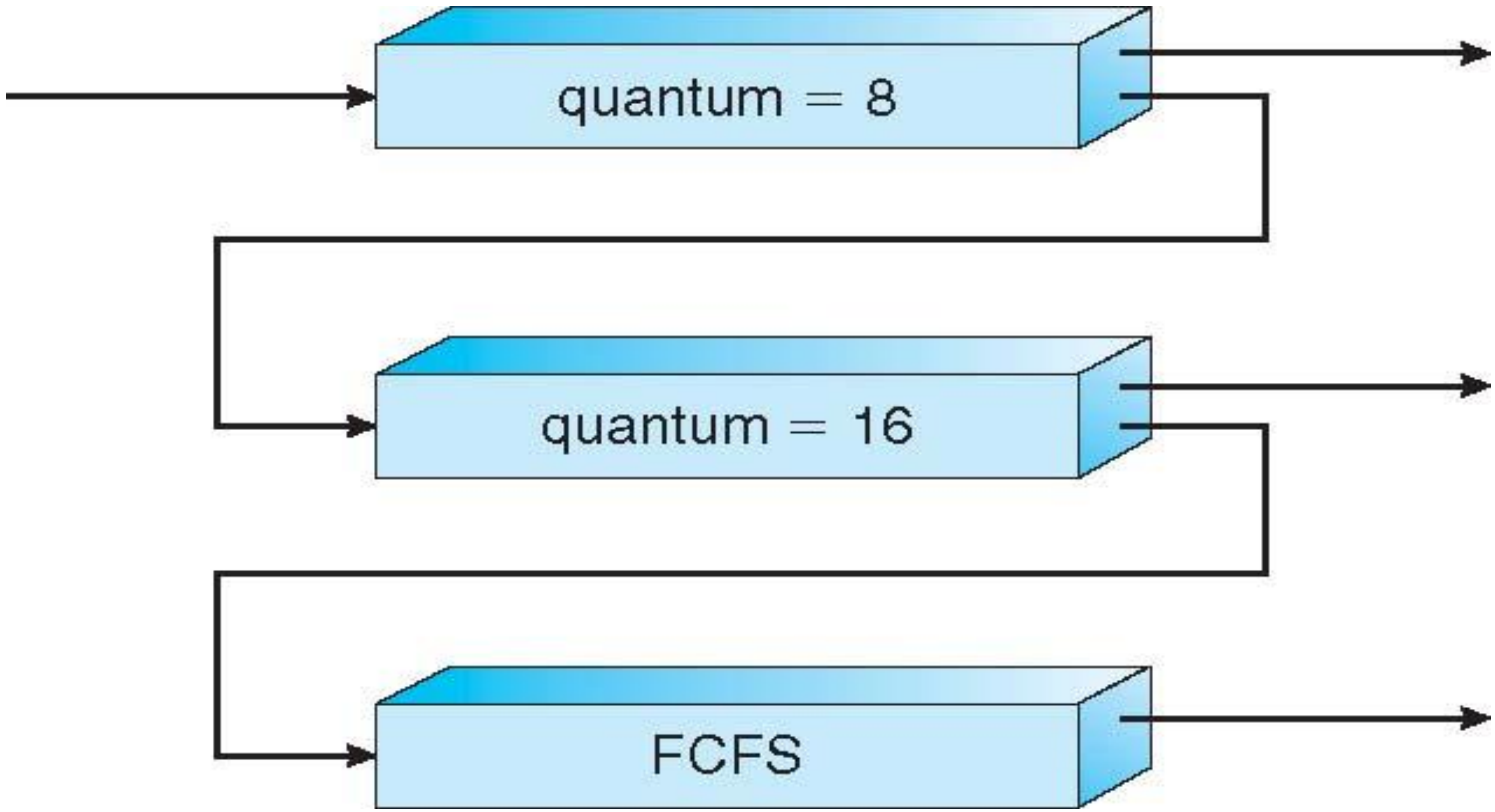
Multilevel Feedback Queue

- 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 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

Multilevel Feedback Queues



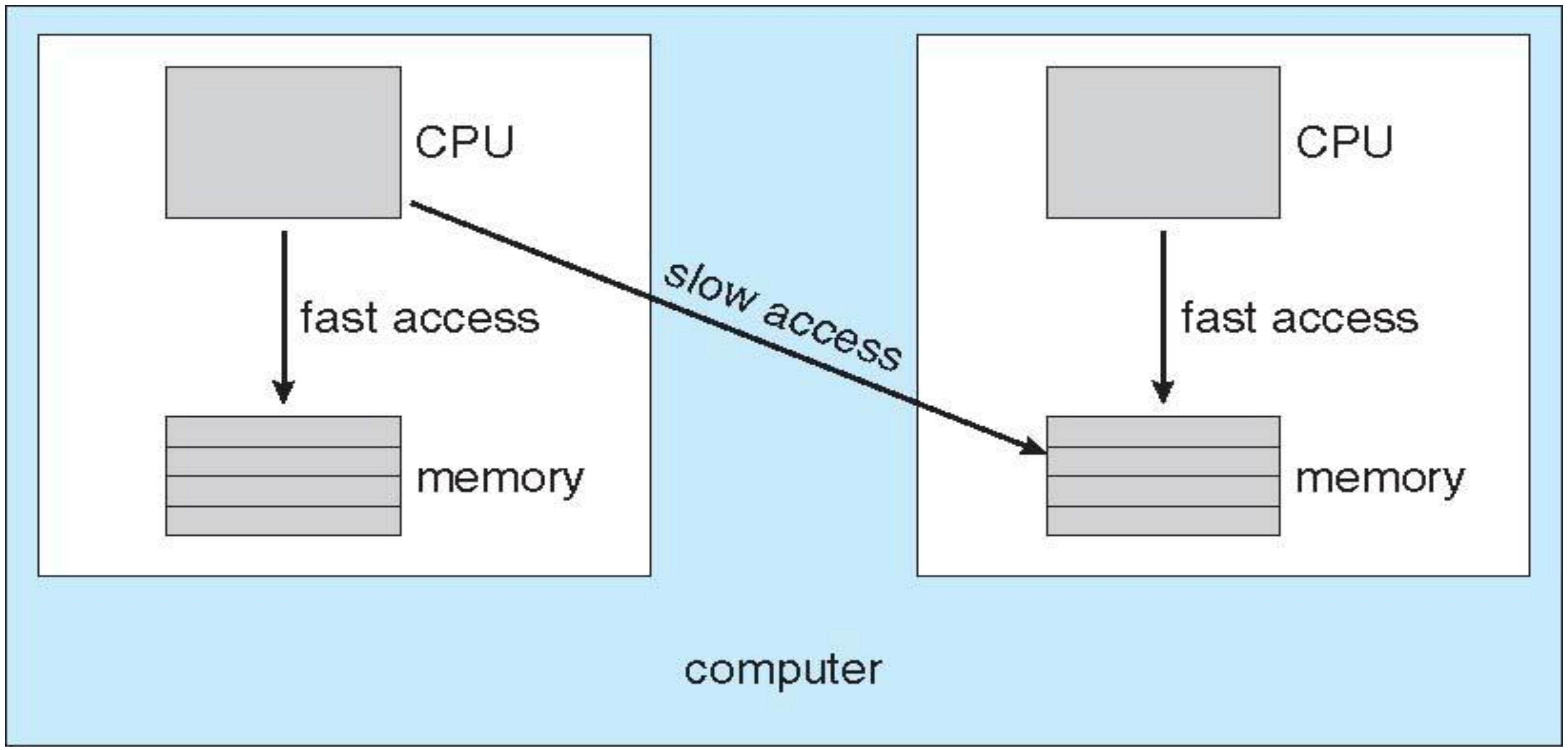
Thread Scheduling

- Distinction between user-level and kernel-level threads
- When threads supported, threads scheduled, not processes
- Many-to-one and many-to-many models, thread library schedules user-level threads to run on LWP
  - Known as **process-contention scope (PCS)** (also called process local scheduling) 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)** (also called system global scheduling) – competition among all threads in system

Multiple-Processor Scheduling

- CPU scheduling more complex when multiple CPUs are available
- **Homogeneous processors** within a multiprocessor
- **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
  - Currently, most common
- **Processor affinity** – process has affinity for processor on which it is currently running
  - **soft affinity :** OS tries to run a process on the same processor where it was previously running.
  - **hard affinity :** Allows a process to specify that the process should not migrate to other processors.
  - Variations including **processor sets**

NUMA and CPU Scheduling

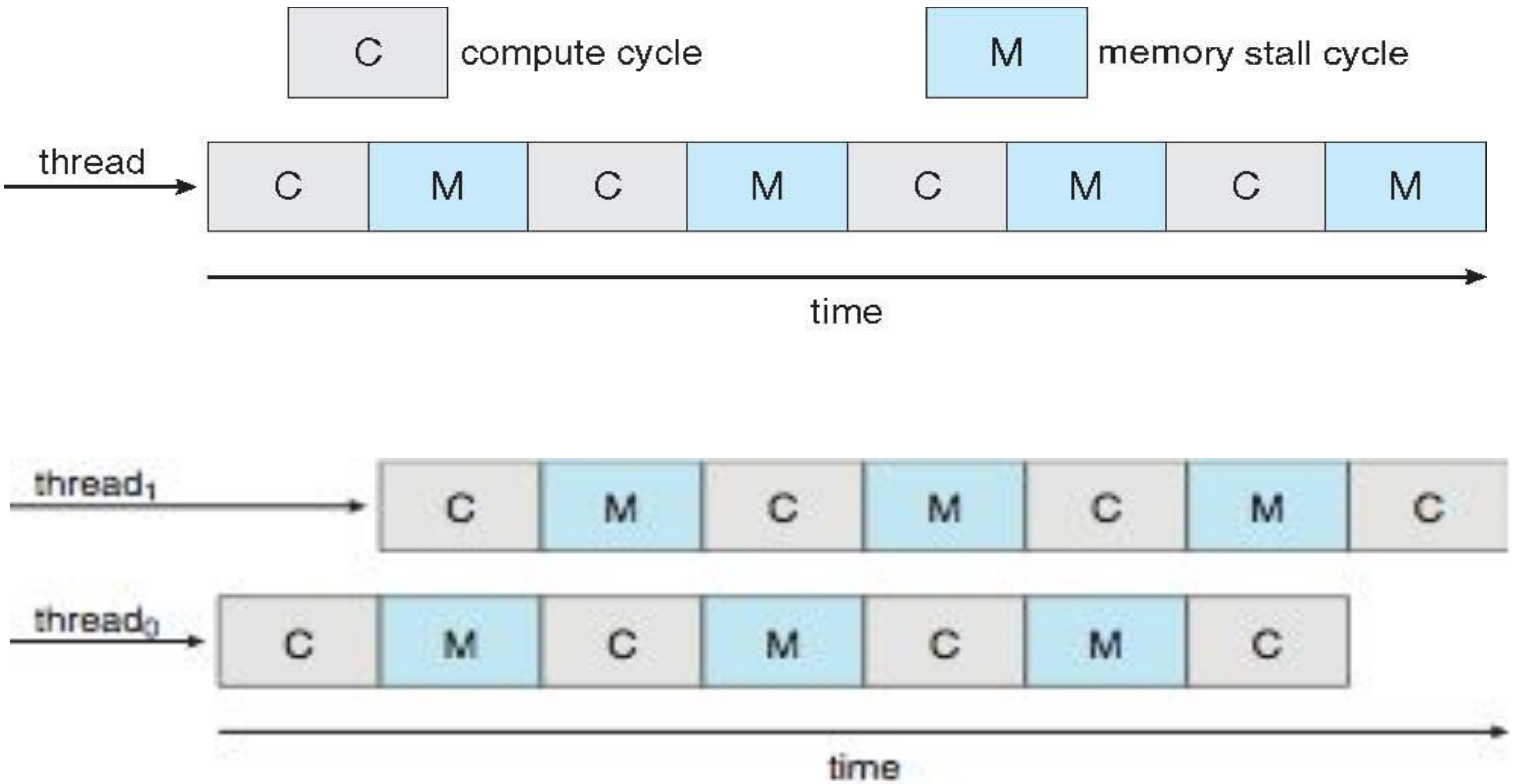


Note that memory-placement algorithms can also consider affinity

Multicore Processors

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

Multithreaded Multicore System



End of Chapter 5