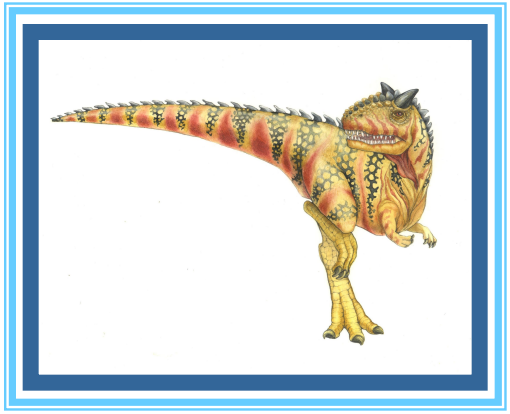
Chapter 5: CPU Scheduling



Chapter 5: CPU Scheduling

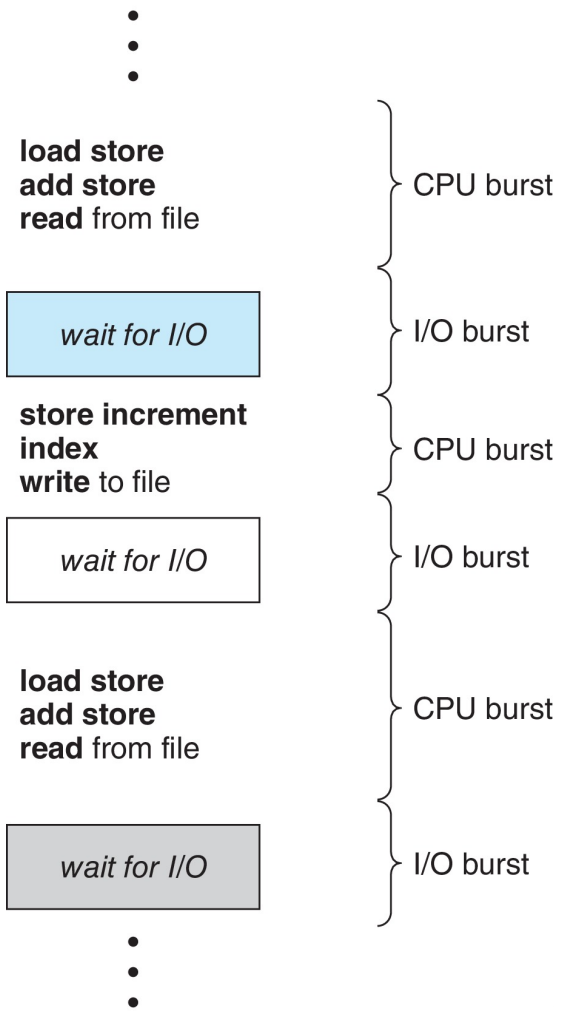
- Basic Concepts
- Scheduling Criteria
- Scheduling Algorithms
- Multi-Processor Scheduling
- Real-Time CPU Scheduling

Objectives

- Describe various CPU scheduling algorithms
- Assess CPU scheduling algorithms based on scheduling criteria
- Explain the issues related to multiprocessor and multicore scheduling
- Describe various real-time scheduling algorithms
- Describe the scheduling algorithms used in the Windows, Linux, and Solaris operating systems
- Apply modeling and simulations to evaluate CPU scheduling algorithms

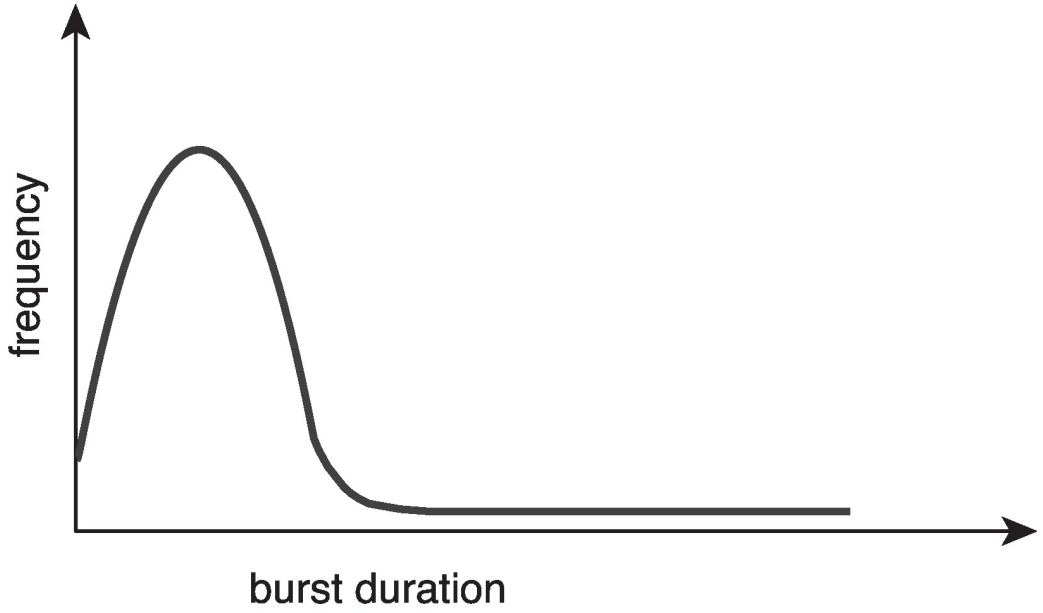
Basic Concepts

- 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



Histogram of CPU-burst Times

- The curve is generally characterized as exponential or hyperexponential, with
  - a large number of short CPU bursts - An I/O-bound program
  - a small number of long CPU bursts.- CPU-bound program



This distribution can be important in the selection of an appropriate CPU scheduling algorithm.

CPU Scheduler

- As CPU becomes idle, the **CPU scheduler** selects among the processes in ready queue(the processes in memory that are ready to execute), and allocates the CPU core to one of them
  - Queue may be ordered in various ways…. not necessarily a first-in, first-out (FIFO) queue.
  - when we consider the various scheduling algorithms, a ready queue can be implemented as a FIFO queue, a priority queue, a tree, or simply an unordered linked list. However, all the processes in the ready queue are lined up waiting for a chance to run on the CPU.
  - Ofcourse, the records in the queues are generally process control blocks (PCBs) of the processes.
- CPU scheduling decisions may take place when a process:
  1. Switches from running to waiting state (as the result of an I/O request or an invocation of wait())
  2. Switches from running to ready state (when an interrupt occurs))
  3. Switches from waiting to ready (at completion of I/O)
  4. Terminates
- Scheduling under 1 and 4 is **nonpreemptive** - A new process (if one exists in the ready queue) must be selected for execution once the CPU has been allocated to a process, the process keeps the CPU until it releases the CPU either by terminating or by switching to the waiting state.
- All other scheduling is preemptive – Windows 95 and MAC OS X
- Older than MAC OS X - Cooperative scheduling is the only method that can be used on certain hardware platforms, because it does not require the special hardware like timer needed for preemptive scheduling.

Issues with Preemptive Scheduling

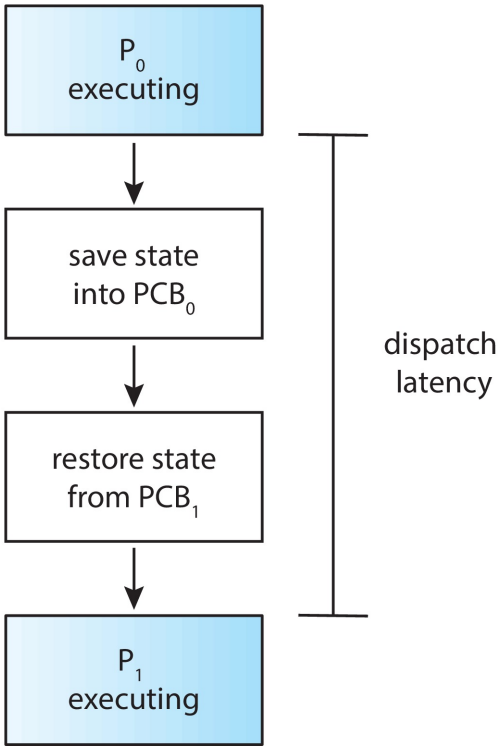
- **Access to shared data -** Consider the case of two processes that share data. While one process is updating the data, it is preempted so that the second process can run. The second process then tries to read the data, which are in an inconsistent state – Race Condition

- **Preemption while in kernel mode –** During the processing of a system call, the kernel maybe busy with an activity on behalf of a process. Such activities may involve changing important kernel data (for instance, I/O queues). What happens if the process is preempted in the middle of these changes and the kernel (or the device driver) needs to read or modify the same structure? Chaos ensues. Certain operating systems, including most versions of UNIX, deal with this problem by waiting either for a system call to complete or for an I/O block to take place before doing a context switch.
  - poor one for supporting real-time computing

- **Interrupts occurring during crucial OS activities** – Interrupts can occur at any time, and cannot always be ignored by the kernel, the sections of code affected by interrupts must be guarded from simultaneous use otherwise, input might be lost or output is overwritten.

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. It should be as fast as possible, since it is invoked during every process switch.



Scheduling Criteria

Different CPU-scheduling algorithms have different properties, and the choice of a particular algorithm may favor one class of processes over another

- **CPU utilization**. We want to keep the CPU as busy as possible. Conceptually, CPU utilization can range from 0 to 100 percent. In a real system, it should range from 40 percent (for a lightly loaded system) to 90 percent (for a heavily loaded system).
- **Throughput**. If the CPU is busy executing processes, then work is being done. One measure of work is the number of processes that are completed per time unit, called **throughput**. For long processes, this rate may be one process per hour; for short transactions, it may be ten processes per second.
- **Turnaround time**. From the point of view of a particular process, the important criterion is how long it takes to execute that process. The interval from the time of submission of a process to the time of completion is the turnaround time. Turnaround time is the sum of the periods spent waiting to get into memory, waiting in the ready queue, executing on the CPU, and doing I/O.
- **Waiting time**. The CPU-scheduling algorithm does not affect the amount of time during which a process executes or does I/O. It affects only the amount of time that a process spends waiting in the ready queue. Waiting time is the sum of the periods spent waiting in the ready queue.
- **Response time**. In an interactive system, turnaround time may not be the best criterion. Often, a process can produce some output fairly early and can continue computing new results while previous results are being output to the user. Thus, another measure is the time from the submission of a request until the first response is produced. This measure, called response time

Scheduling Algorithm Optimization Criteria

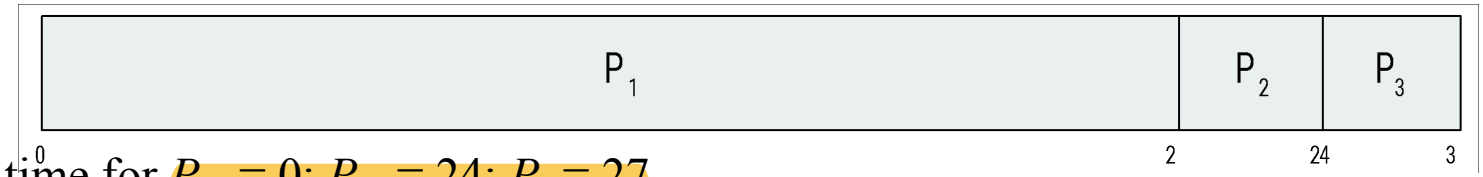
- Max CPU utilization
- Max throughput
- Min turnaround time
- Min waiting time
- Min response time
- In most cases, we optimize the average measures but we may also prefer to optimize the minimum or maximum values rather than the average.
  - to guarantee that all users get good service, we may want to minimize the maximum response time.
  - For interactive systems (such as desktop systems), it is more important to minimize the variance in the response time than to minimize the average response time. A system with reasonable and predictable response time may be considered more desirable than a system that is faster on the average but is highly variable.

First- Come, First-Served (FCFS) Scheduling

With this scheme, the process that requests the CPU first is allocated the CPU first. The implementation of the FCFS policy is easily managed with a FIFO queue.

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: $(0 + 24 + 27)/3 = 17$

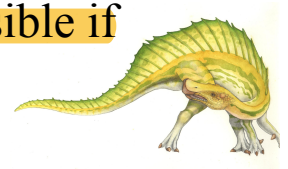
FCFS Scheduling (Cont.)

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
- Non preemptive scheduling
- **Convoy effect** - short process behind long process
  - Consider one CPU-bound and many I/O-bound processes
  - as all the other processes wait for the one big process to get off the CPU.
  - This effect results in lower CPU and device utilization than might be possible if the shorter processes were allowed to go first.



Question!!

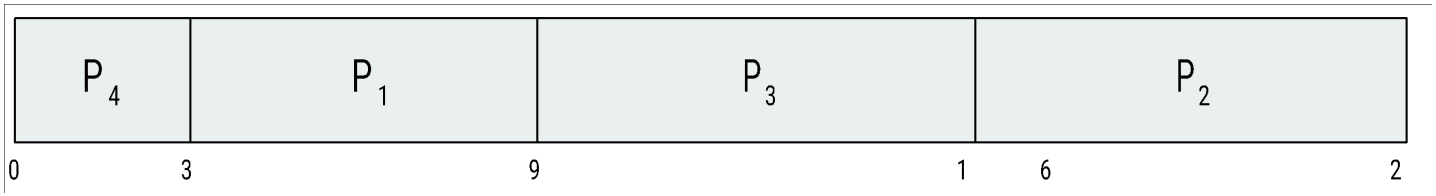
Shortest-Job-First (SJF) Scheduling

- Associate with each process the length of its next CPU burst
  - Use these lengths to schedule the process with the shortest time
- CPU is available, it is assigned to the process that has the smallest next CPU burst.
- the ***shortest-next-CPU-burst*** algorithm
- SJF scheduling is used frequently in long-term scheduling. With short-term scheduling, there is no way to know the length of the next CPU burst.
- SJF is optimal – gives minimum average waiting time for a given set of processes as Moving a short process before a long one decreases the waiting time of the short process more than it increases the waiting time of the long process. Consequently, the average waiting time decreases.
  - The difficulty is knowing the length of the next CPU request
  - Could ask the user - users are motivated to estimate the process time limit accurately, since a lower value may mean faster response but too low a value will cause a time-limit-exceeded error and require resubmission.

Example of SJF

Process	Burst Time
P_1	6
P_2	8
P_3	7
P_4	3

- SJF scheduling chart



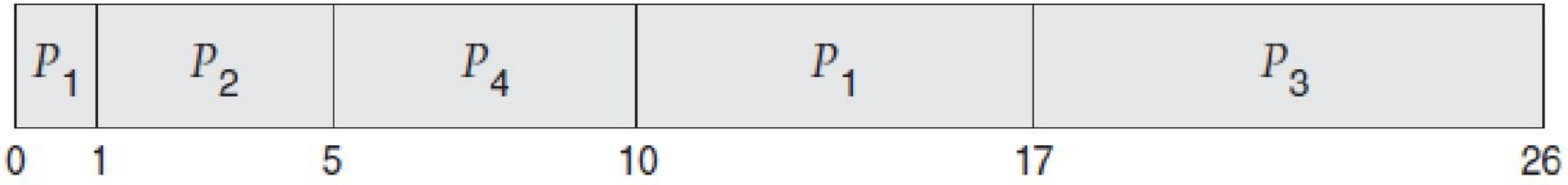
- Average waiting time = (3 + 16 + 9 + 0) / 4 = 7

- Preemptive version called **shortest-remaining-time-first** - The next CPU burst of the newly arrived process may be shorter than what is left of the currently executing process. A preemptive SJF algorithm will preempt the currently executing process.

As an example, consider the following four processes, with the length of the CPU burst given in milliseconds:

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

If the processes arrive at the ready queue at the times shown and need the indicated burst times, then the resulting preemptive SJF schedule is as depicted in the following Gantt chart:



Process P_1 is started at time 0, since it is the only process in the queue. Process P_2 arrives at time 1. The remaining time for process P_1 (7 milliseconds) is larger than the time required by process P_2 (4 milliseconds), so process P_1 is preempted, and process P_2 is scheduled. The average waiting time for this example is $[(10 - 1) + (1 - 1) + (17 - 2) + (5 - 3)]/4 = 26/4 = 6.5$ milliseconds. Nonpreemptive SJF scheduling would result in an average waiting time of 7.75 milliseconds.

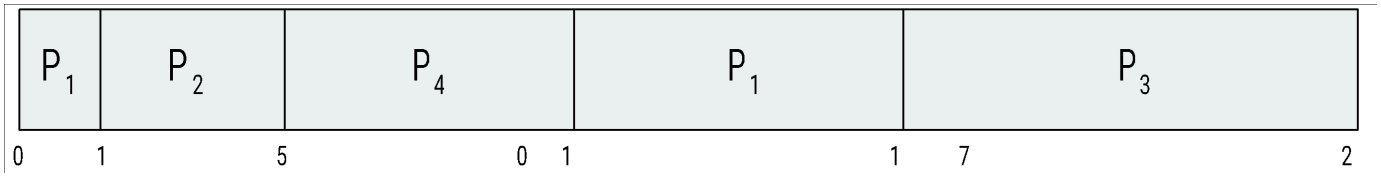
Question..

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

Determining Length of Next CPU Burst – Approximating SJF scheduling

- Can only estimate the length – should be similar to the previous one
  - Then approximation of the length of the next CPU burst is computed abd process with shortest predicted next CPU burst is picked
- Idea: The next CPU burst is generally predicted as an **exponential average** of the measured lengths of previous CPU bursts defined as -
- 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. τ_{n+1} = predicted value for the next CPU burst
3. $\alpha, 0 \le \alpha \le 1$
4. Define : $\tau_{n+1} = \alpha\, t_n + (1 - \alpha)\tau_n.$

- while τ_n stores the past history a nstant or as an overall system average.
- Commonly, α set to ½ - controls the relative weight of recent and past history
- Preemptive version called **shortest-remaining-time-first** - The next CPU burst of the newly arrived process may be shorter than what is left of the currently executing process. A preemptive SJF algorithm will preempt the currently executing process.

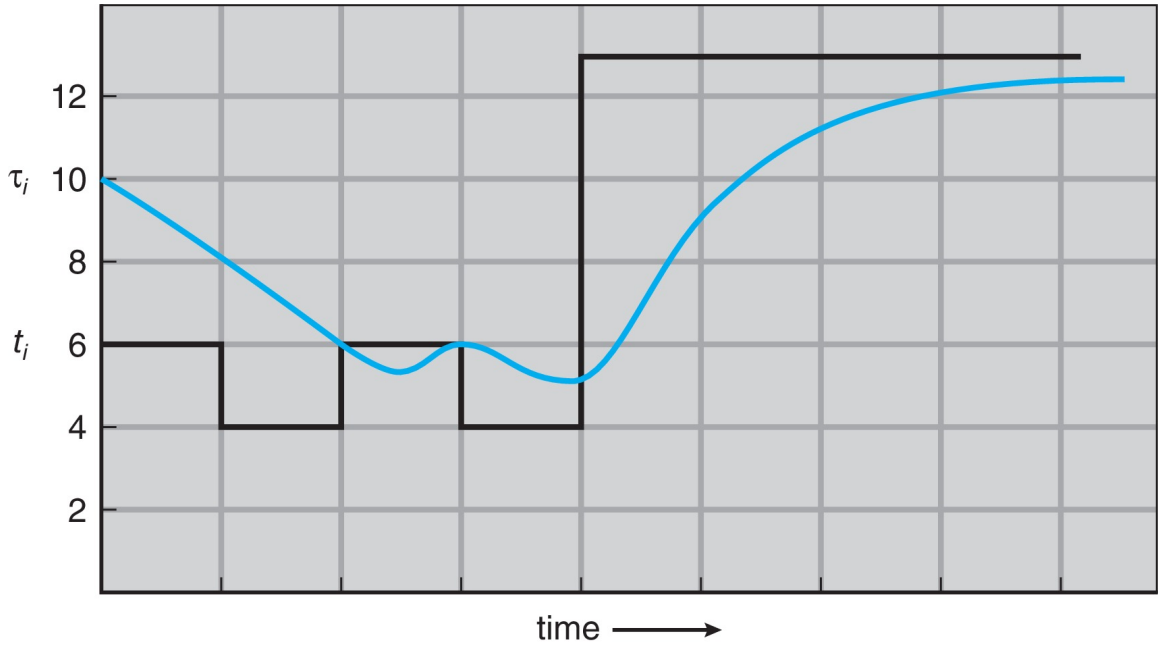
Examples of Exponential Averaging

- $\alpha = 0$
  - $\tau_{n+1} = \tau_n$
  - Recent history does not count - current conditions are assumed to be transient
- $\alpha = 1$
  - $\tau_{n+1} = \alpha\, t_n$
  - Only the actual last CPU burst counts
- If we expand the formula by substituting for τ_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 α and $(1 - \alpha)$ are less than or equal to 1, each successive term has less weight than its predecessor

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	...

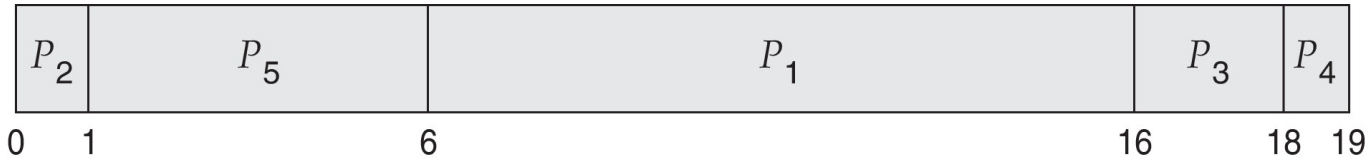
Priority Scheduling

- 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



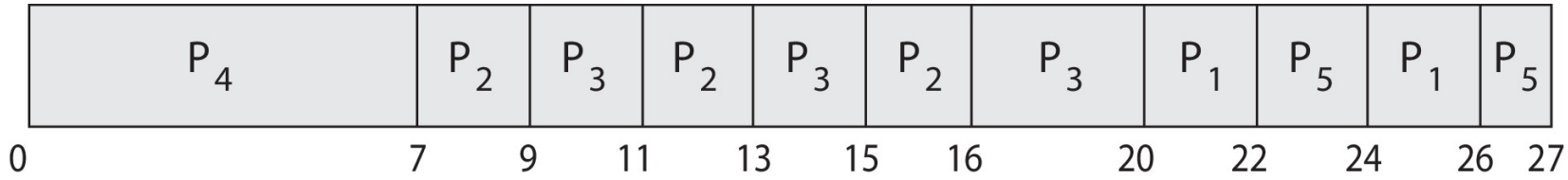
- Average waiting time = 8.2 msec

Priority Scheduling w/ Round-Robin

Process	Burst Time	Priority
P_1	4	3
P_2	5	2
P_3	8	2
P_4	7	1
P_5	3	3

- Run the process with the highest priority. Processes with the same priority run round-robin

- Gantt Chart wit 2 ms time quantum



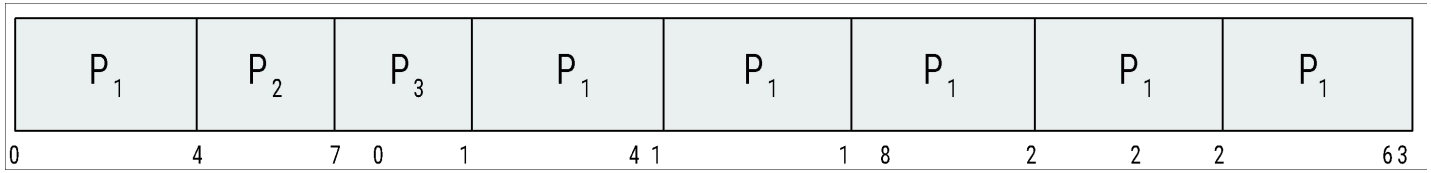
Round Robin (RR)

- 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.
- The ready queue is treated as a circular queue. The CPU scheduler goes around the ready queue, allocating the CPU to each process for a time interval of up to 1 time quantum.
- 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
- One of two things will then happen.
  - The process may have a CPU burst of less than 1 time quantum
  - CPU burst of the currently running process is longer than 1 time quantum
- 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:



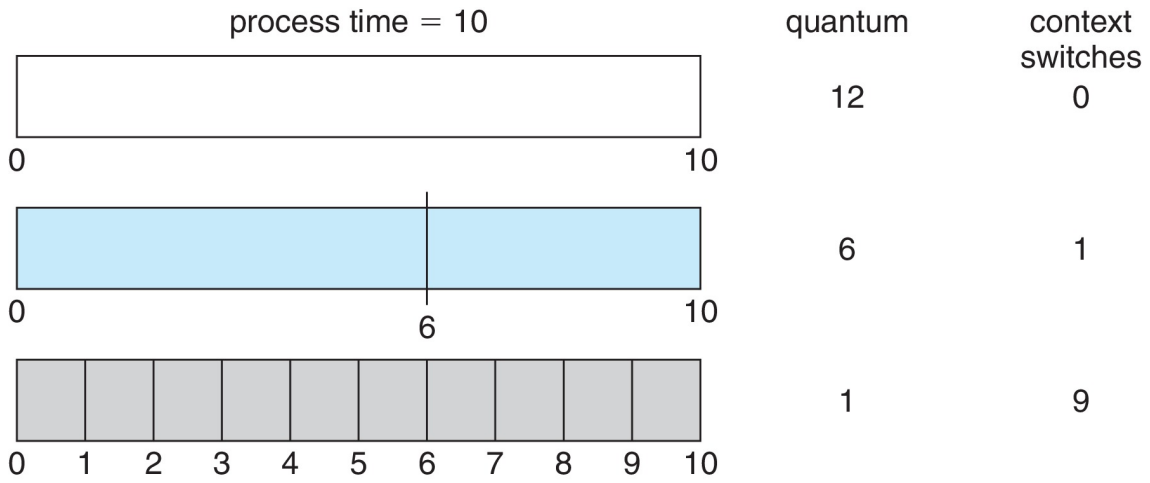
- Typically, higher average turnaround than SJF, but better ***response***
- q should be large compared to context switch time
- q usually 10ms to 100ms, context switch < 10 usec

Time Quantum and Context Switch Time

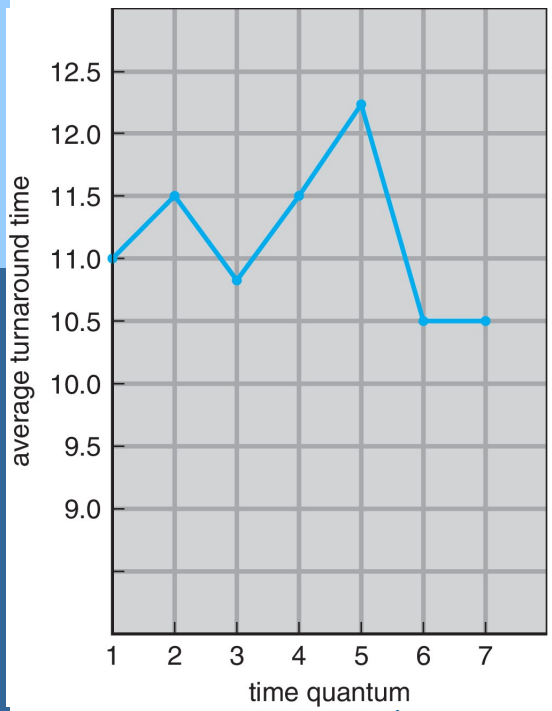
- The performance of the RR algorithm depends heavily on the size of the time
- quantum.
  - If the time quantum is extremely large,
  - If the time quantum is extremely small (say, 1 millisecond),
    - the RR approach can result in a large number of context switches.

If the context-switch time is approximately 10 percent of the time quantum, then about 10 percent of the CPU time will be spent in context switching.

Turnaround Time Varies With The Time Quantum



process	time
P_1	6
P_2	3
P_3	1
P_4	7



Turnaround time also depends on the size of the time quantum. Although the time quantum should be large compared with the context switch time. it should not be too large.

80% of CPU bursts should be shorter than q

Questions…

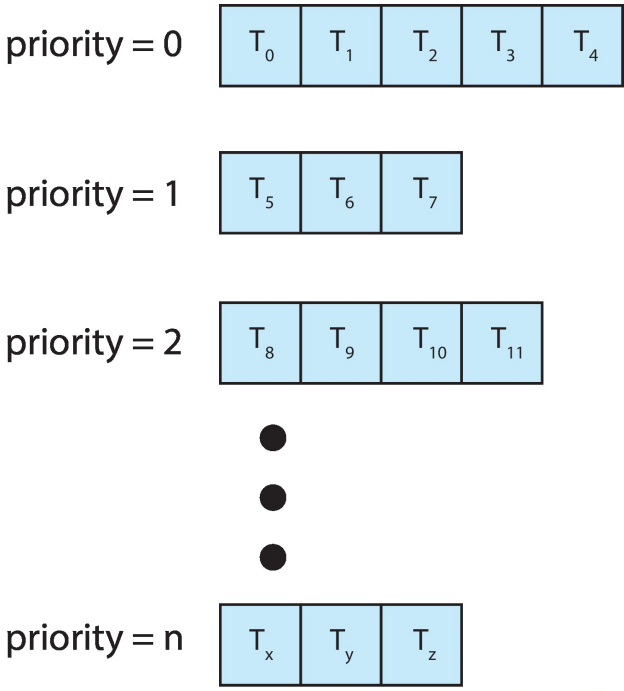
Multilevel Queue

- Another class of scheduling algorithms has been created for situations in which processes are easily classified into different groups
  - for example division is made between **foreground** (interactive -RR) processes and **background** (batch- FCFS) processes. These two types of processes have different response-time requirements and so may have different scheduling needs.

A **multilevel queue** scheduling algorithm partitions the ready queue into several separate queues each having its own scheduling algorithm.

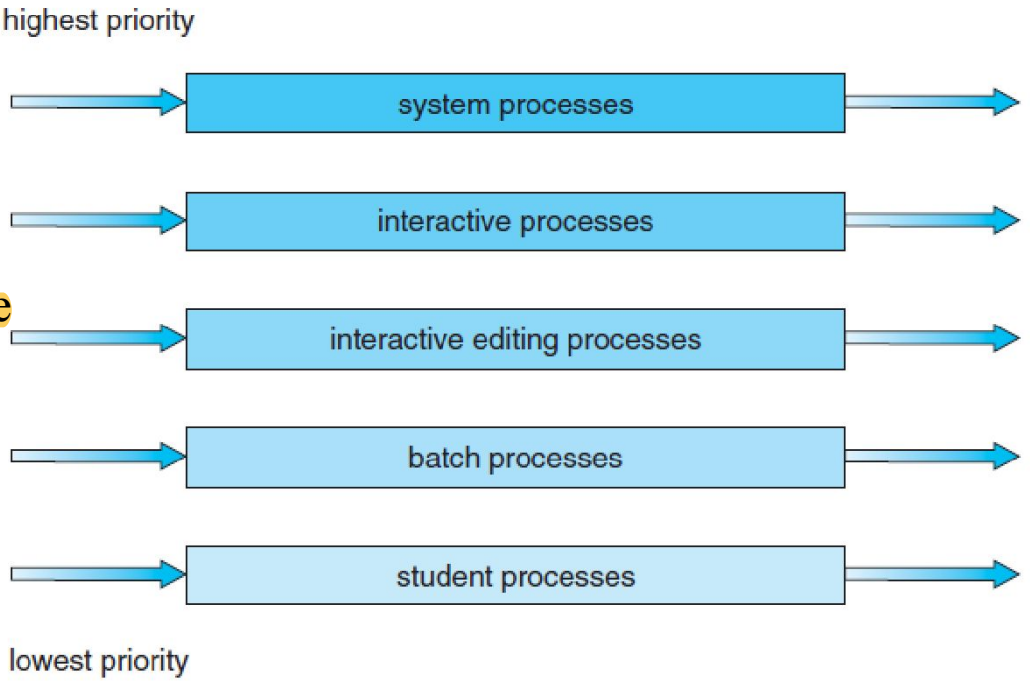
The processes are permanently assigned to one queue based on some property of the process such as memory, size, process priority, or process type.

there must be scheduling among the queues, which is commonly implemented as fixed-priority preemptive scheduling



Multilevel Queue

If each queue has absolute priority over lower-priority queues. No process in the batch queue, could run unless the queues for system processes, interactive processes, and interactive editing processes were all empty. If an interactive editing process entered the ready queue while a batch process was running, the batch process would be preempted.



- Another possibility is to time-slice among the queues. Here, each queue gets a certain portion of the CPU time, which it can then schedule among its various processes. For instance, in the foreground–background queue example, the foreground queue can be given 80 percent of the CPU time for RR scheduling among its processes, while the background queue receives 20 percent of the CPU to give to its processes on an FCFS basis.

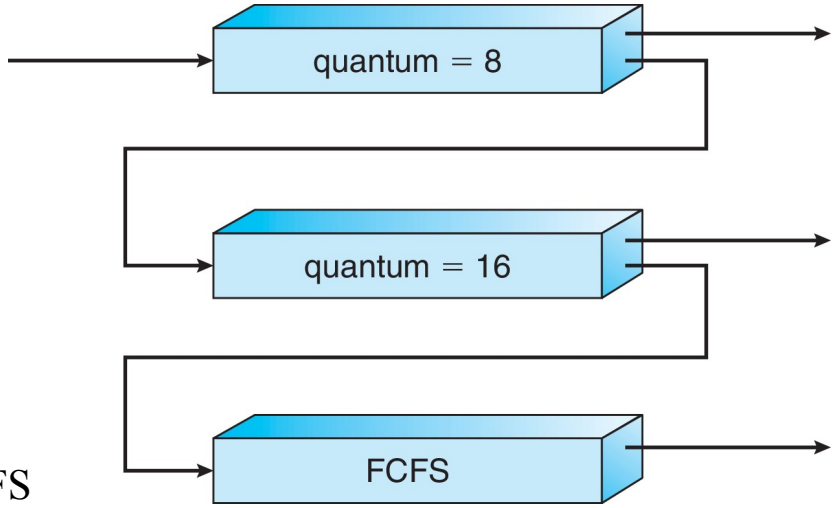
Multilevel Feedback Queue

- Disadv: In multilevel queue scheduling algorithm, processes are permanently assigned to a queue when they enter the system. – Cant move from one queue to the other, since processes do not change their foreground or background nature.
  - advantage of low scheduling overhead, but it is inflexible.
- A process can move between the various queues;
- Idea: To separate processes according to the characteristics of their CPU bursts.
  - If a process uses too much CPU time, it will be moved to a lower-priority queue. This scheme leaves I/O-bound and interactive processes in the higher-priority queues. In addition, a process that waits too long in a lower-priority queue may be moved to a higher-priority queue. This form of aging prevents starvation and 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 Q0 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 Q1
- At Q1 job is again served FCFS and receives 16 additional milliseconds
  - If it still does not complete, it is preempted and moved to queue Q2
- Processes in queue 2 are run on an FCFS basis but are run only when queues 0 and 1 are empty.

Note: gives highest priority to any process with a CPU burst of 8 milliseconds or less. Processes that need more than 8 but less than 24 milliseconds are also served quickly, although with lower priority than shorter processes. Long processes automatically sink to queue 2 and are served in FCFS order with any CPU cycles left over from queues 0 and 1.

Multiple-Processor Scheduling

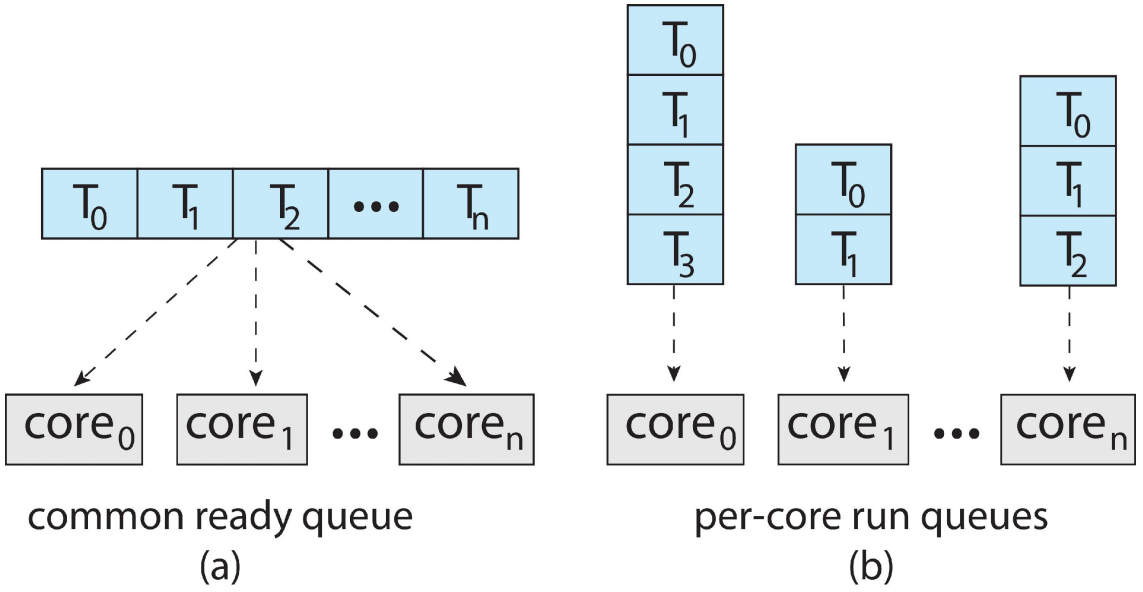
- CPU scheduling more complex when multiple CPUs are available

Approaches

- Asymmetric - system has all scheduling decisions, I/O processing, and other system activities handled by a single processor—the master server. The other processors execute only user code. simple as only one processor accesses the system data structures, reducing the need for data sharing
- SMP
- Multi process may be any one of the following architectures:
  - Multicore CPUs
  - Multithreaded cores
  - NUMA systems
  - Heterogeneous multiprocessing

Multiple-Processor Scheduling

- Symmetric – In **symmetric multiprocessing (SMP)** each processor is self scheduling. All processes may be in a common ready queue (a), or each processor may have its own private queue of ready processes (b).
- Note: Even with homogeneous multiprocessors (SMP), there are sometimes limitations on scheduling. Consider a system with an I/O device attached to a private bus of one processor. Processes that wish to use that device must be scheduled to run on that processor only.



Multiple-Processor Scheduling – Processor Affinity

- Consider what happens to cache memory when a process has been running on a specific processor. The data most recently accessed by the process populate the cache for the processor. As a result, successive memory accesses by the process are often satisfied in cache memory. Now consider what happens if the process migrates to another processor. The contents of cache memory must be invalidated for the first processor, and the cache for the second processor must be repopulated. Because of the high cost of invalidating and repopulating caches, most SMP systems try to avoid migration of processes from one processor to another and instead attempt to keep a process running on the same processor.
- **processor affinity**—that is, a process has an affinity for the processor on which it is currently running
- **Soft affinity** – the operating system attempts to keep a process running on the same processor, but no guarantees.
- **Hard affinity** – allowing a process to specify a subset of processors on which it may / want to run.
- Many systems provide both soft and hard affinity. For example, Linux implements soft affinity, but it also provides the sched setaffinity() system call, which supports hard affinity.

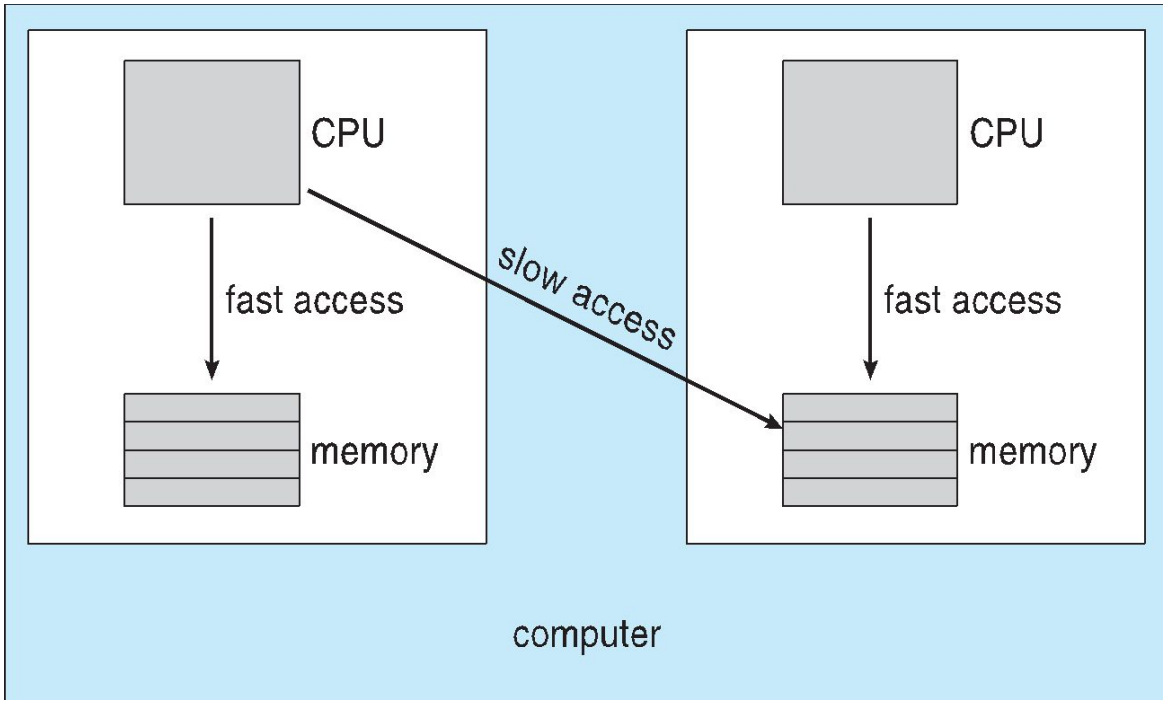
Multiple-Processor Scheduling – Load Balancing

- On SMP systems, it is important to keep the workload balanced among all processors to fully utilize the benefits of having more than one processor.
- Load balancing attempts to keep workload evenly distributed
- It is important to note that load balancing is typically necessary only on systems where each processor has its own private queue of eligible processes to execute.
- On systems with a common run queue, load balancing is often unnecessary, because once a processor becomes idle, it immediately extracts a runnable process from the common run queue.
- GENERALLY operating systems supporting SMP, each processor does have a private queue of eligible processes.
- There are two general approaches to load balancing:
  - push migration - a specific task periodically checks the load on each processor and—if it finds an imbalance—evenly distributes the load by moving (or pushing) processes from overloaded to idle or less-busy processors.
  - pull migration - Pull migration occurs when an idle processor pulls a waiting task from a busy processor.
- Push and pull migration need not be mutually exclusive
- processes are moved only if the imbalance exceeds a certain threshold.
- load balancing often counteracts the benefits of processor affinity

END

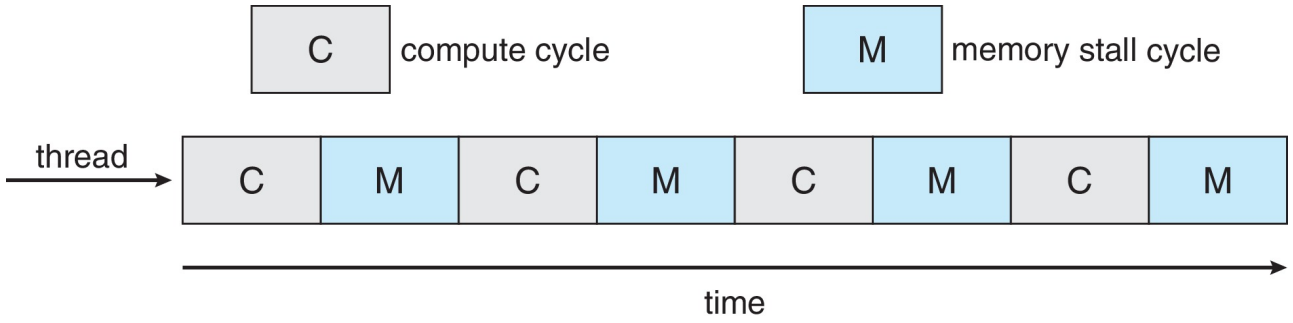
NUMA and CPU Scheduling

- The main-memory architecture of a system can affect processor affinity issues.
- If the operating system is **NUMA-aware….**
- If the operating system's CPU scheduler and memory-placement algorithms work together, then a process that is assigned affinity to a particular CPU can be allocated memory on the board where that CPU resides.



Multicore Processors

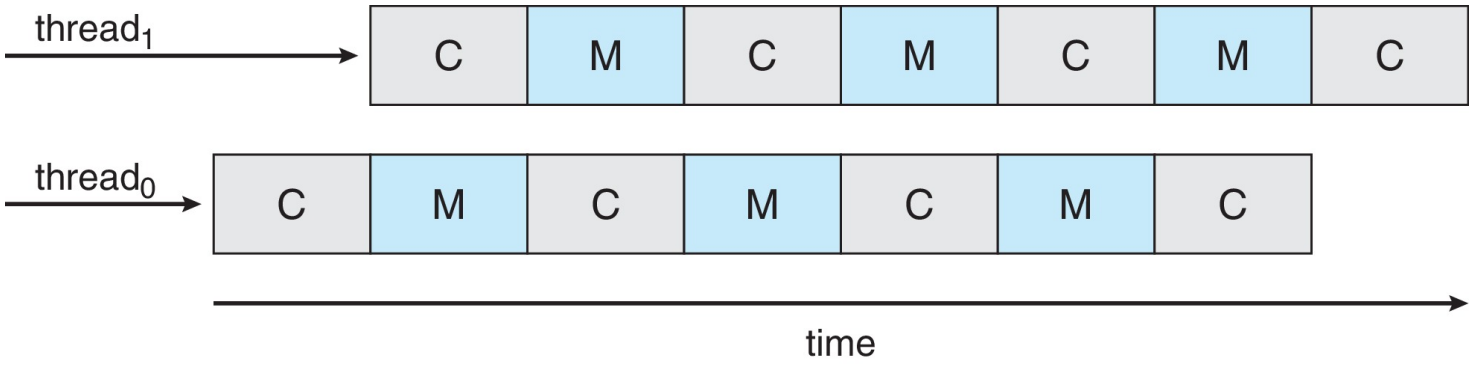
- Recent trend to place multiple processor cores on same physical chip
- Faster and consumes less power
- Multiple threads per core also growing
  - Takes advantage of memory stall to make progress on another thread while memory retrieve happens



Multithreaded Multicore System

Each core has > 1 hardware threads.

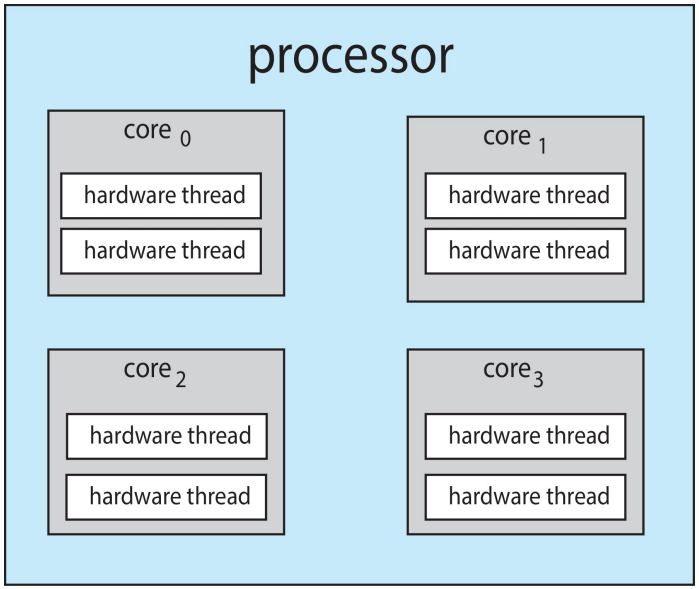
If one thread has a memory stall, switch to another thread!

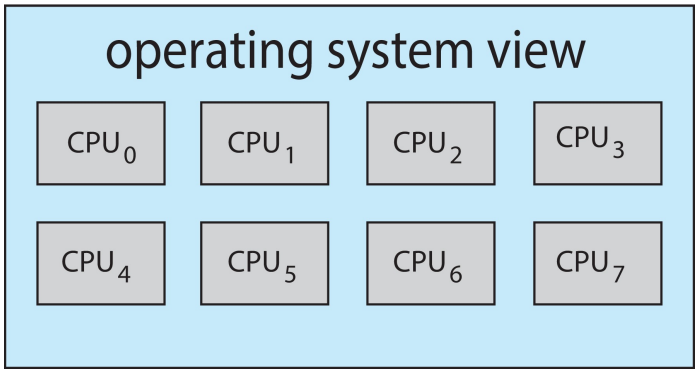


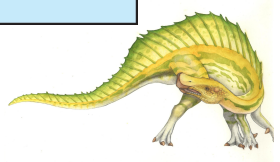
Multithreaded Multicore System

- **Chip-multithreading** (CMT) assigns each core multiple hardware threads. (Intel refers to this as **hyperthreading**.)

- On a quad-core system with 2 hardware threads per core, the operating system sees 8 logical processors.





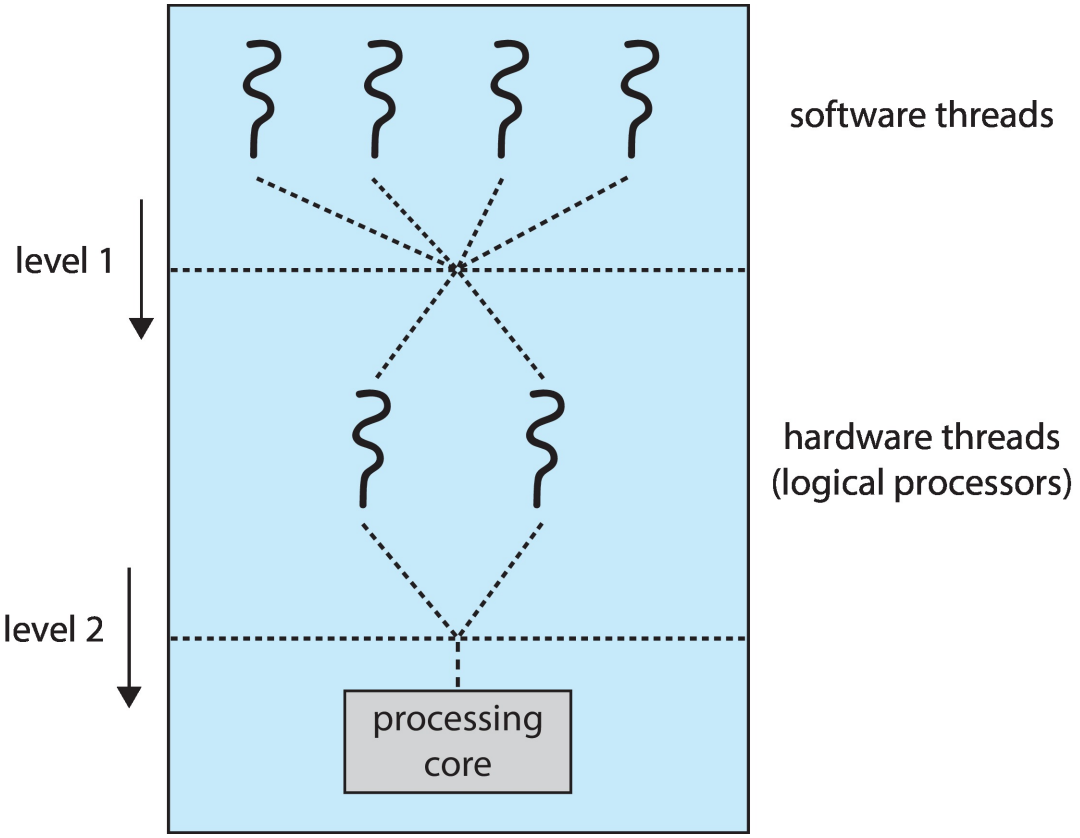


Multithreaded Multicore System

- Two levels of scheduling:

1. The operating system deciding which software thread to run on a logical CPU

2. How each core decides which hardware thread to run on the physical core.

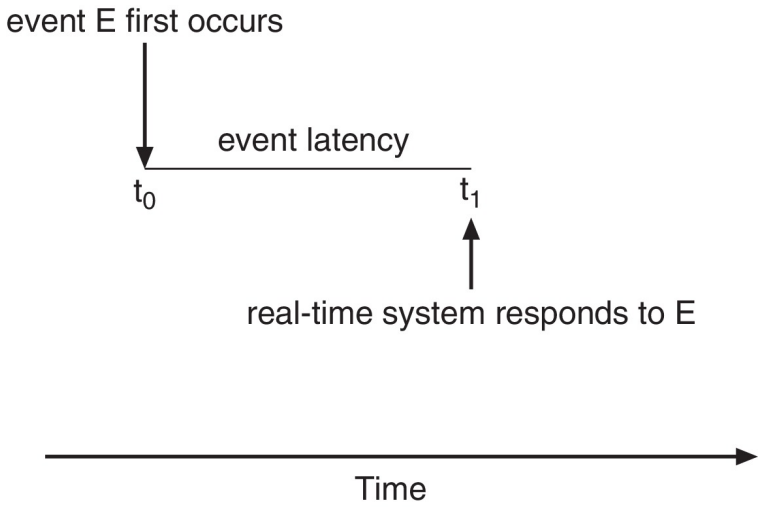


Real-Time CPU Scheduling

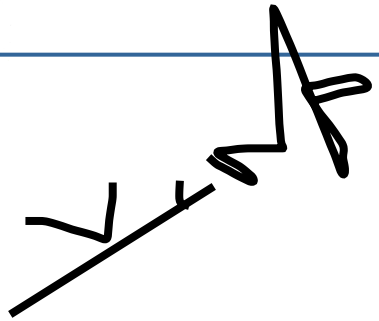
- Can present obvious challenges
- **Soft real-time systems** – Critical real-time tasks have the highest priority, but no guarantee as to when tasks will be scheduled
- **Hard real-time systems** – task must be serviced by its deadline

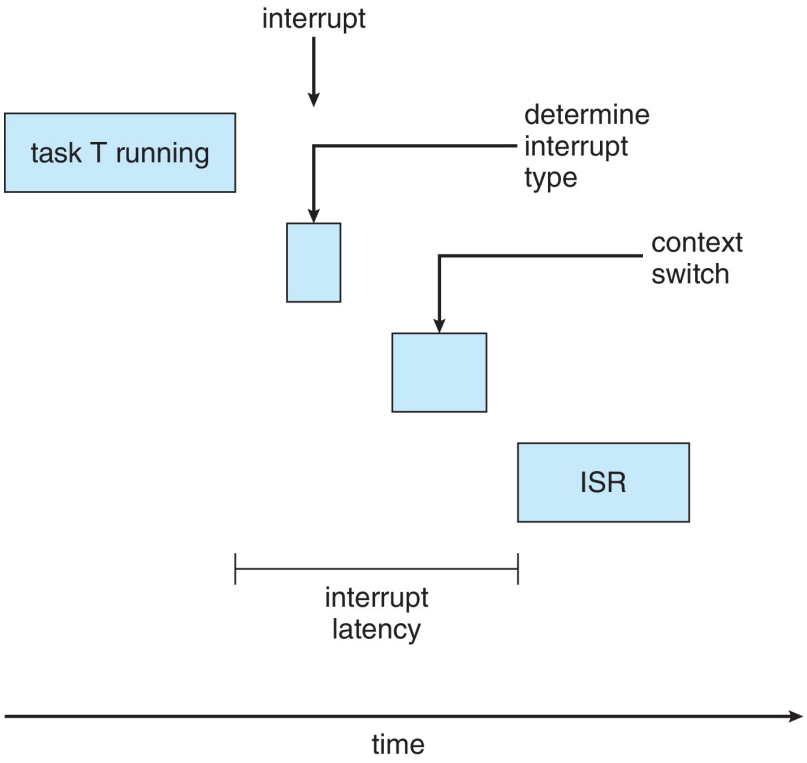
Real-Time CPU Scheduling

- Event latency – the amount of time that elapses from when an event occurs to when it is serviced.
- Two types of latencies affect performance
  1. **Interrupt latency** – time from arrival of interrupt to start of routine that services interrupt
  2. **Dispatch latency** – time for schedule to take current process off CPU and switch to another



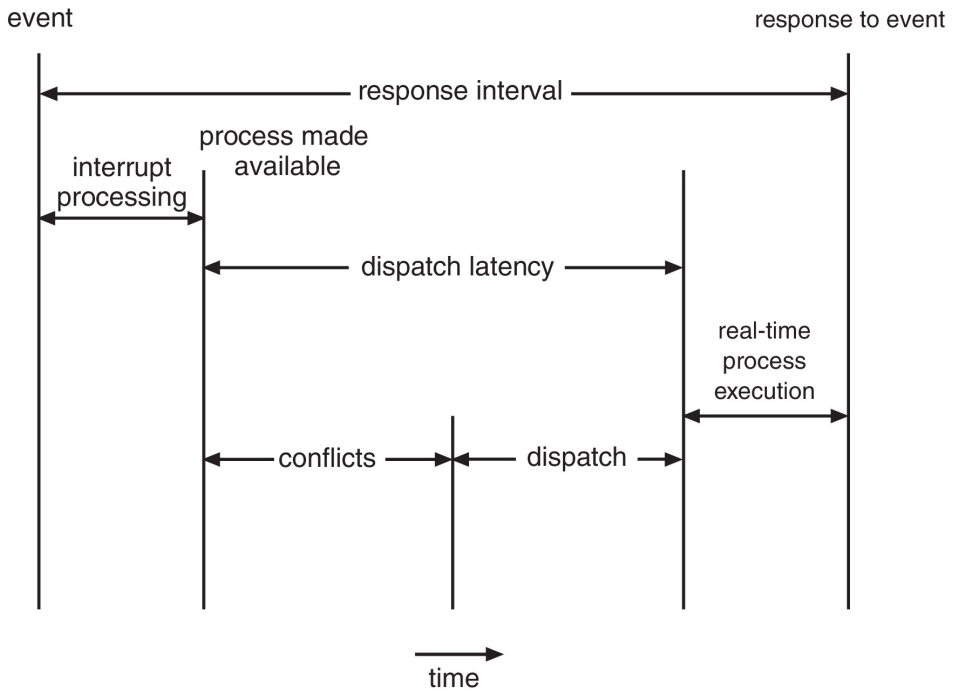
Interrupt Latency





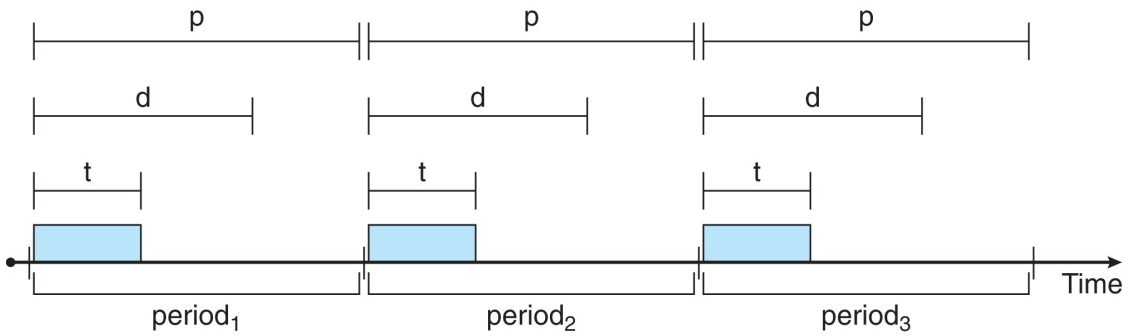
Dispatch Latency

- Conflict phase of dispatch latency:
  1. Preemption of any process running in kernel mode
  2. Release by low-priority process of resources needed by high-priority processes



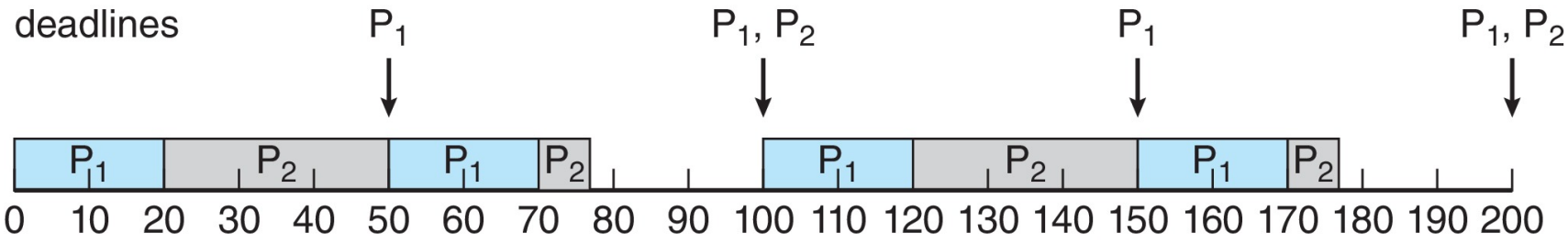
Priority-based Scheduling

- 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
- Processes have new characteristics: **periodic** ones require CPU at constant intervals
  - Has processing time *t*, deadline *d*, period *p*
  - $0 \leq t \leq d \leq p$
  - **Rate** of periodic task is $1/p$



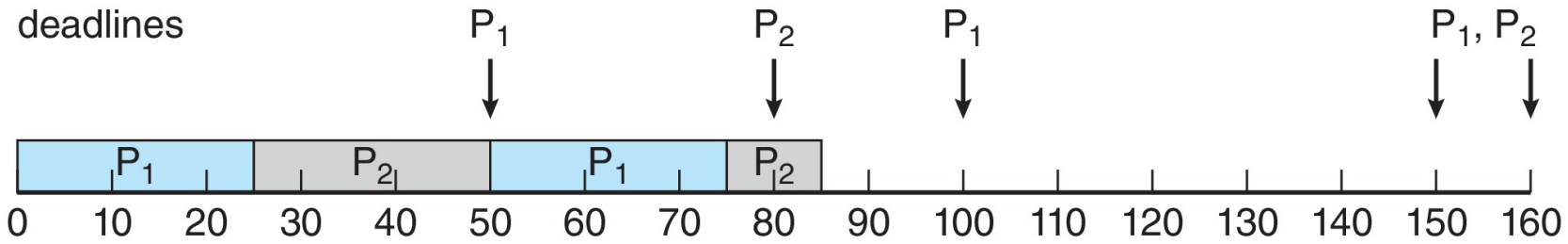
Rate Montonic Scheduling

- A priority is assigned based on the inverse of its period
- Shorter periods = higher priority;
- Longer periods = lower priority
- P_1 is assigned a higher priority than P_2.



Missed Deadlines with Rate Monotonic Scheduling

Process P2 misses finishing its deadline at time 80

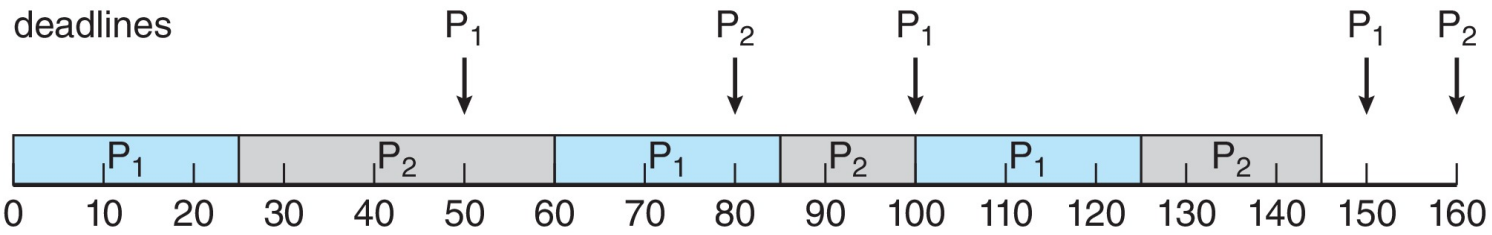


Earliest Deadline First Scheduling (EDF)

- Priorities are assigned according to deadlines:

  the earlier the deadline, the higher the priority;

  the later the deadline, the lower the priority



Proportional Share Scheduling

- T shares are allocated among all processes in the system
- An application receives N shares where $N < T$
- This ensures each application will receive N / T of the total processor time

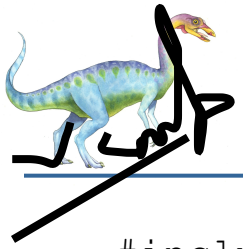
POSIX Real-Time Scheduling

- The POSIX.1b standard
- API provides functions for managing real-time threads
- Defines two scheduling classes for real-time threads:

1. SCHED_FIFO - threads are scheduled using a FCFS strategy with a FIFO queue. There is no time-slicing for threads of equal priority
2. SCHED_RR - similar to SCHED_FIFO except time-slicing occurs for threads of equal priority

- Defines two functions for getting and setting scheduling policy:

1. `pthread_attr_getsched_policy(pthread_attr_t *attr, int *policy)`
2. `pthread_attr_setsched_policy(pthread_attr_t *attr, int policy)`



POSIX Real-Time Scheduling API

```
#include <pthread.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#define NUM_THREADS 5
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
   int i, policy;
   pthread_t tid[NUM_THREADS];
   pthread_attr_t attr;
   /* get the default attributes */
   pthread_attr_init(&attr);
   /* get the current scheduling policy */
   if (pthread_attr_getschedpolicy(&attr, &policy) != 0)
      fprintf(stderr, "Unable to get policy.\n");
   else {
      if (policy == SCHED_OTHER) printf("SCHED_OTHER\n");
      else if (policy == SCHED_RR) printf("SCHED_RR\n");
      else if (policy == SCHED_FIFO) printf("SCHED_FIFO\n");
   }
```

POSIX Real-Time Scheduling API (Cont.)

```
   /* set the scheduling policy - FIFO, RR, or OTHER */
   if (pthread_attr_setschedpolicy(&attr, SCHED_FIFO) != 0)
      fprintf(stderr, "Unable to set policy.\n");
   /* create the threads */
   for (i = 0; i < NUM_THREADS; i++)
      pthread_create(&tid[i],&attr,runner,NULL);
   /* now join on each thread */
   for (i = 0; i < NUM_THREADS; i++)
      pthread_join(tid[i], NULL);
}

/* Each thread will begin control in this function */
void *runner(void *param)
{
   /* do some work ... */
   pthread_exit(0);
}
```

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)** 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 Scheduling

- API allows specifying either PCS or SCS during thread creation
  - PTHREAD_SCOPE_PROCESS schedules threads using PCS scheduling
  - PTHREAD_SCOPE_SYSTEM schedules threads using SCS scheduling
- Can be limited by OS – Linux and macOS only allow PTHREAD_SCOPE_SYSTEM

Pthread Scheduling API

```
#include <pthread.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#define NUM_THREADS 5
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
   int i, scope;
   pthread_t tid[NUM THREADS];
   pthread_attr_t attr;
   /* get the default attributes */
   pthread_attr_init(&attr);
   /* first inquire on the current scope */
   if (pthread_attr_getscope(&attr, &scope) != 0)
      fprintf(stderr, "Unable to get scheduling scope\n");
   else {
      if (scope == PTHREAD_SCOPE_PROCESS)
         printf("PTHREAD_SCOPE_PROCESS");
      else if (scope == PTHREAD_SCOPE_SYSTEM)
         printf("PTHREAD_SCOPE_SYSTEM");
      else
         fprintf(stderr, "Illegal scope value.\n");
   }
```

Pthread Scheduling API

```
   /* set the scheduling algorithm to PCS or SCS */
   pthread_attr_setscope(&attr, PTHREAD_SCOPE_SYSTEM);
   /* create the threads */
   for (i = 0; i < NUM_THREADS; i++)
      pthread_create(&tid[i],&attr,runner,NULL);
   /* now join on each thread */
   for (i = 0; i < NUM_THREADS; i++)
      pthread_join(tid[i], NULL);
}
/* Each thread will begin control in this function */
void *runner(void *param)
{
   /* do some work ... */
   pthread_exit(0);
}
```

Operating System Examples

- Linux scheduling
- Windows scheduling
- Solaris scheduling

Linux Scheduling Through Version 2.5

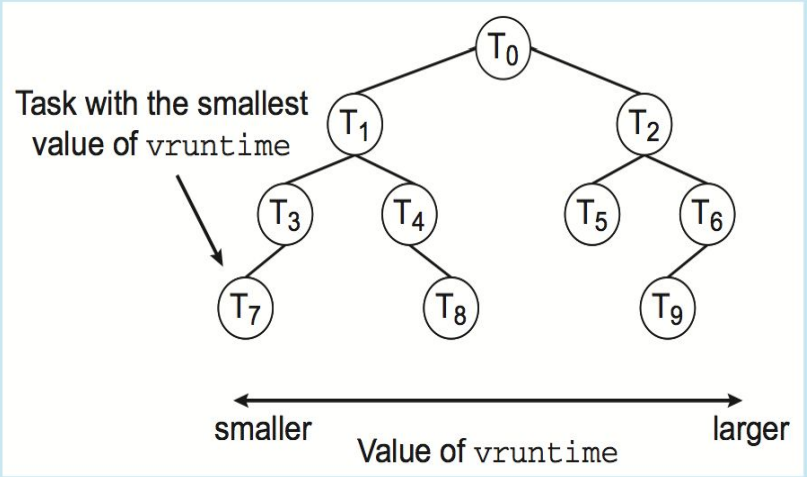
- Prior to kernel version 2.5, ran variation of standard UNIX scheduling algorithm
- Version 2.5 moved to constant order *O*(1) scheduling time
  - Preemptive, priority based
  - Two priority ranges: time-sharing and real-time
  - **Real-time** range from 0 to 99 and **nice** value from 100 to 140
  - Map into global priority with numerically lower values indicating higher priority
  - Higher priority gets larger q
  - Task run-able as long as time left in time slice (**active**)
  - If no time left (**expired**), not run-able until all other tasks use their slices
  - All run-able tasks tracked in per-CPU **runqueue** data structure
    - Two priority arrays (active, expired)
    - Tasks indexed by priority
    - When no more active, arrays are exchanged
  - Worked well, but poor response times for interactive processes

Linux Scheduling in Version 2.6.23 +

- ***Completely Fair Scheduler*** (CFS)
- **Scheduling classes**
  - Each has specific priority
  - Scheduler picks highest priority task in highest scheduling class
  - Rather than quantum based on fixed time allotments, based on proportion of CPU time
  - 2 scheduling classes included, others can be added
    1. default
    2. real-time
- Quantum calculated based on **nice value** from -20 to +19
  - Lower value is higher priority
  - Calculates **target latency** – interval of time during which task should run at least once
  - Target latency can increase if say number of active tasks increases
- CFS scheduler maintains per task **virtual run time** in variable **`vruntime`**
  - Associated with decay factor based on priority of task – lower priority is higher decay rate
  - Normal default priority yields virtual run time = actual run time
- To decide next task to run, scheduler picks task with lowest virtual run time

CFS Performance

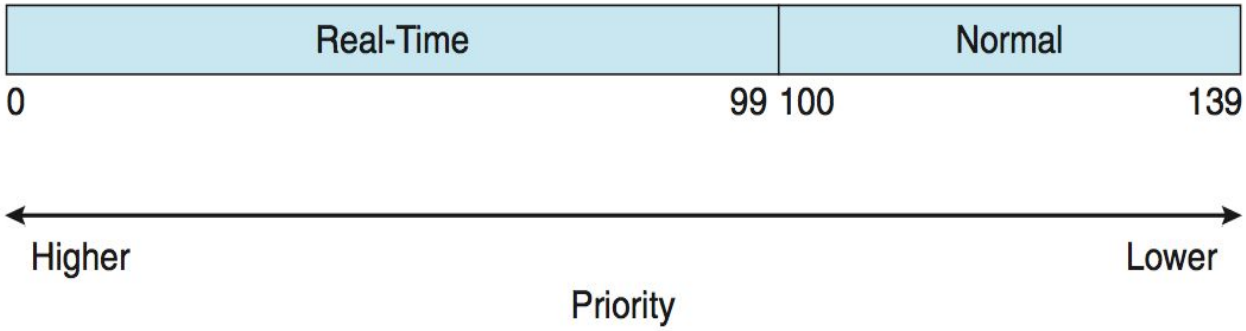
The Linux CFS scheduler provides an efficient algorithm for selecting which task to run next. Each runnable task is placed in a red-black tree—a balanced binary search tree whose key is based on the value of `vruntime`. This tree is shown below:



When a task becomes runnable, it is added to the tree. If a task on the tree is not runnable (for example, if it is blocked while waiting for I/O), it is removed. Generally speaking, tasks that have been given less processing time (smaller values of `vruntime`) are toward the left side of the tree, and tasks that have been given more processing time are on the right side. According to the properties of a binary search tree, the leftmost node has the smallest key value, which for the sake of the CFS scheduler means that it is the task with the highest priority. Because the red-black tree is balanced, navigating it to discover the leftmost node will require $O(\lg N)$ operations (where N is the number of nodes in the tree). However, for efficiency reasons, the Linux scheduler caches this value in the variable `rb_leftmost`, and thus determining which task to run next requires only retrieving the cached value.

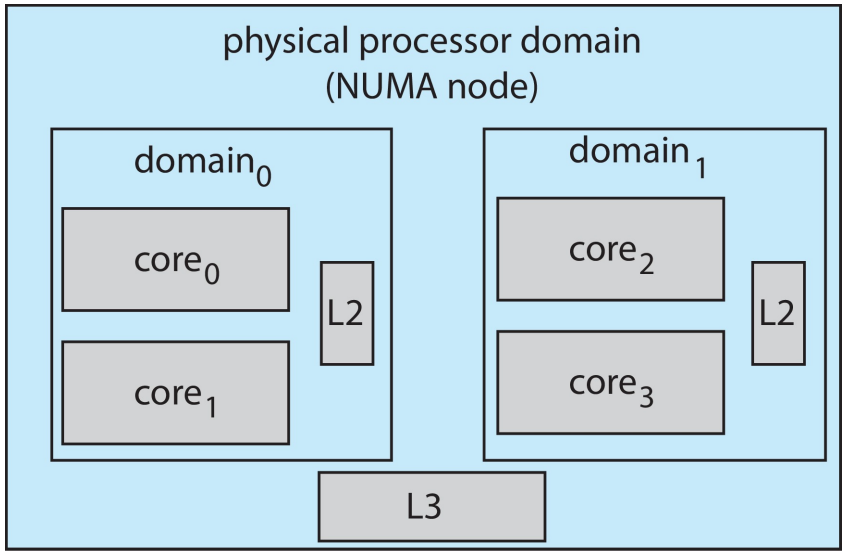
Linux Scheduling (Cont.)

- Real-time scheduling according to POSIX.1b
  - Real-time tasks have static priorities
- Real-time plus normal map into global priority scheme
- Nice value of -20 maps to global priority 100
- Nice value of +19 maps to priority 139



Linux Scheduling (Cont.)

- Linux supports load balancing, but is also NUMA-aware.
- **Scheduling domain** is a set of CPU cores that can be balanced against one another.
- Domains are organized by what they share (i.e. cache memory.) Goal is to keep threads from migrating between domains.



Windows Scheduling

- Windows uses priority-based preemptive scheduling
- Highest-priority thread runs next
- **Dispatcher** is scheduler
- Thread runs until (1) blocks, (2) uses time slice, (3) preempted by higher-priority thread
- Real-time threads can preempt non-real-time
- 32-level priority scheme
- **Variable class** is 1-15, **real-time class** is 16-31
- Priority 0 is memory-management thread
- Queue for each priority
- If no run-able thread, runs **idle thread**

Windows Priority Classes

- Win32 API identifies several priority classes to which a process can belong
  - REALTIME_PRIORITY_CLASS, HIGH_PRIORITY_CLASS, ABOVE_NORMAL_PRIORITY_CLASS,NORMAL_PRIORITY_CLASS, BELOW_NORMAL_PRIORITY_CLASS, IDLE_PRIORITY_CLASS
  - All are variable except REALTIME
- A thread within a given priority class has a relative priority
  - TIME_CRITICAL, HIGHEST, ABOVE_NORMAL, NORMAL, BELOW_NORMAL, LOWEST, IDLE
- Priority class and relative priority combine to give numeric priority
- Base priority is NORMAL within the class
- If quantum expires, priority lowered, but never below base

Windows Priority Classes (Cont.)

- If wait occurs, priority boosted depending on what was waited for
- Foreground window given 3x priority boost
- Windows 7 added **user-mode scheduling** (**UMS**)
  - Applications create and manage threads independent of kernel
  - For large number of threads, much more efficient
  - UMS schedulers come from programming language libraries like C++ **Concurrent Runtime** (ConcRT) framework

Windows Priorities

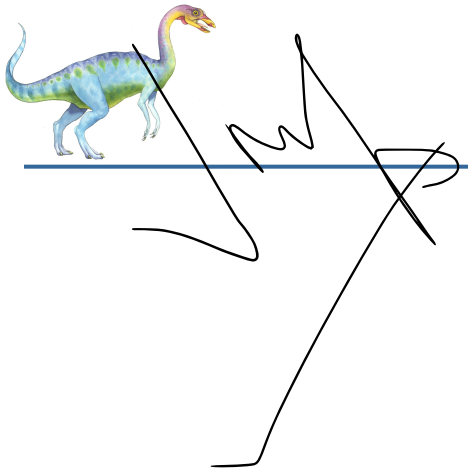
	real-time	high	above normal	normal	below normal	idle priority
time-critical	31	15	15	15	15	15
highest	26	15	12	10	8	6
above normal	25	14	11	9	7	5
normal	24	13	10	8	6	4
below normal	23	12	9	7	5	3
lowest	22	11	8	6	4	2
idle	16	1	1	1	1	1

Solaris

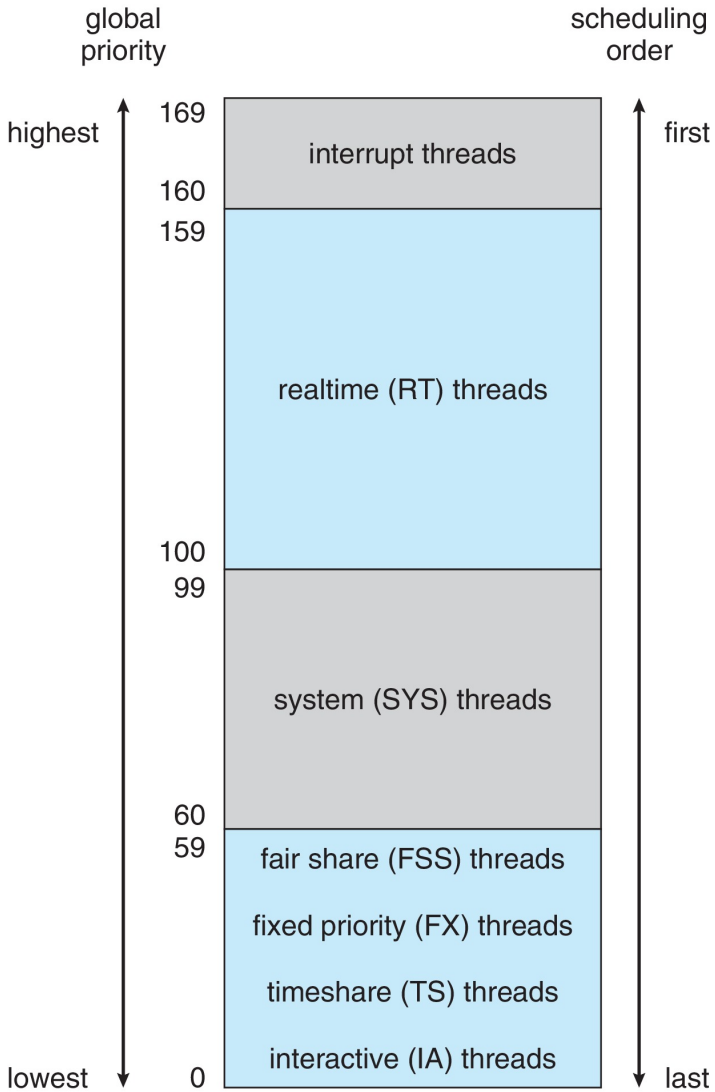
- Priority-based scheduling
- Six classes available
  - Time sharing (default) (TS)
  - Interactive (IA)
  - Real time (RT)
  - System (SYS)
  - Fair Share (FSS)
  - Fixed priority (FP)
- Given thread can be in one class at a time
- Each class has its own scheduling algorithm
- Time sharing is multi-level feedback queue
  - Loadable table configurable by sysadmin

Solaris Dispatch Table

priority	time quantum	time quantum expired	return from sleep
0	200	0	50
5	200	0	50
10	160	0	51
15	160	5	51
20	120	10	52
25	120	15	52
30	80	20	53
35	80	25	54
40	40	30	55
45	40	35	56
50	40	40	58
55	40	45	58
59	20	49	59



Solaris Scheduling



Solaris Scheduling (Cont.)

- Scheduler converts class-specific priorities into a per-thread global priority
  - Thread with highest priority runs next
  - Runs until (1) blocks, (2) uses time slice, (3) preempted by higher-priority thread
  - Multiple threads at same priority selected via RR

Algorithm Evaluation

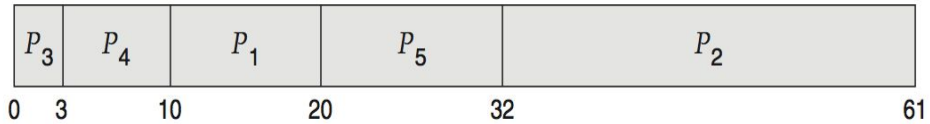
- How to select CPU-scheduling algorithm for an OS?
- Determine criteria, then evaluate algorithms
- **Deterministic modeling**
  - Type of **analytic evaluation**
  - Takes a particular predetermined workload and defines the performance of each algorithm for that workload
- Consider 5 processes arriving at time 0:

Process	Burst Time
P_1	10
P_2	29
P_3	3
P_4	7
P_5	12

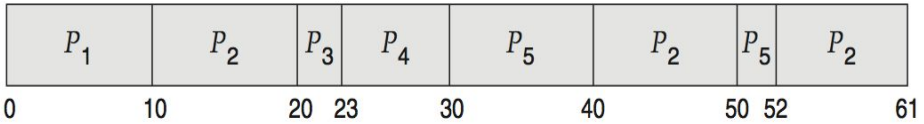
Deterministic Evaluation

- For each algorithm, calculate minimum average waiting time
- Simple and fast, but requires exact numbers for input, applies only to those inputs
  - FCS is 28ms:

  - Non-preemptive SFJ is 13ms:



  - RR is 23ms:



Queueing Models

- Describes the arrival of processes, and CPU and I/O bursts probabilistically
  - Commonly exponential, and described by mean
  - Computes average throughput, utilization, waiting time, etc
- Computer system described as network of servers, each with queue of waiting processes
  - Knowing arrival rates and service rates
  - Computes utilization, average queue length, average wait time, etc

Little's Formula

- n = average queue length
- W = average waiting time in queue
- λ = average arrival rate into queue
- Little's law – in steady state, processes leaving queue must equal processes arriving, thus:

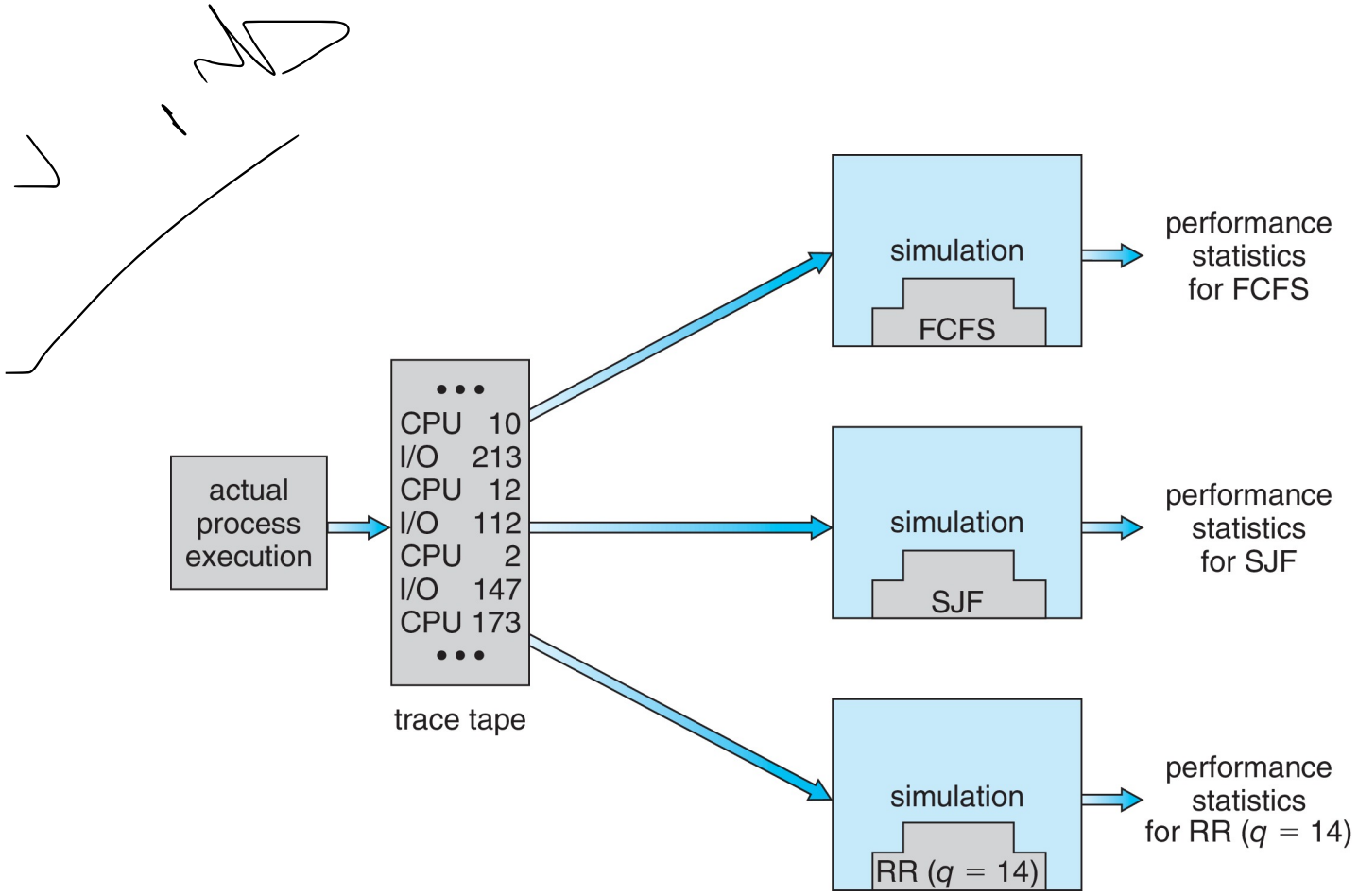
  $n = \lambda \times W$

  - Valid for any scheduling algorithm and arrival distribution
- For example, if on average 7 processes arrive per second, and normally 14 processes in queue, then average wait time per process = 2 seconds

Simulations

- Queueing models limited
- **Simulations** more accurate
  - Programmed model of computer system
  - Clock is a variable
  - Gather statistics indicating algorithm performance
  - Data to drive simulation gathered via
    - Random number generator according to probabilities
    - Distributions defined mathematically or empirically
    - Trace tapes record sequences of real events in real systems

Evaluation of CPU Schedulers by Simulation



Implementation

- Even simulations have limited accuracy
- Just implement new scheduler and test in real systems
  - High cost, high risk
  - Environments vary
- Most flexible schedulers can be modified per-site or per-system
- Or APIs to modify priorities
- But again environments vary

End of Chapter 5