#### Process Scheduling I

**COMS W4118** 

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**References:** Operating Systems Concepts (9e), Linux Kernel Development, previous W4118s **Copyright notice:** care has been taken to use only those web images deemed by the instructor to be in the public domain. If you see a copyrighted image on any slide and are the copyright owner, please contact the instructor. It will be removed.

#### Outline

Introduction to scheduling

Scheduling algorithms

Real time Scheduling

Evaluation

#### Direction within course

- Until now: interrupts, processes, address spaces, threads, synchronization
  - Mostly mechanisms
- From now on: resources
  - Resources: things processes operate upon
    - E.g., CPU time, memory, disk space
  - Policies play a more important role

### Types of resources

- Preemptible
  - OS can take resource away, use it for something else, and give it back later
    - E.g., CPU
- Non-preemptible
  - OS cannot easily take resource away; have to wait after the resource is voluntarily relinquished
    - E.g., disk space
- Type of resource determines how to manage

#### Decisions about resource

- Allocation: which process gets which resources
  - Which resources should each process receive?
  - Space sharing: Controlled access to resource through indirection
  - Implication: resources are not easily preemptible
- Scheduling: how long process keeps resource
  - In which order should requests be serviced?
  - Time sharing: more resources requested than can be granted
  - Implication: resource is preemptible

### Role of Dispatcher vs. Scheduler

#### Dispatcher

- Low-level mechanism
- Responsibility: context switch

#### Scheduler

- High-level policy
- Responsibility: deciding which process to run
- Could have an allocator for CPU as well
  - Early job-based systems (before timesharing)
  - Parallel and distributed systems

#### When to schedule?

- When does scheduler make decisions?
   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
- Minimal: nonpreemptive
  - **—** 3
- Additional circumstances: preemptive
  - ;

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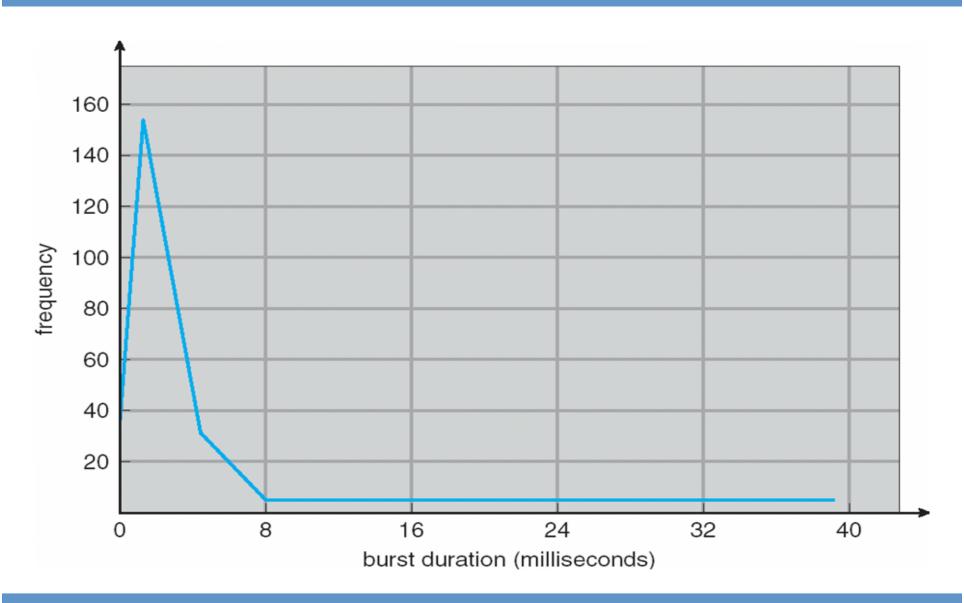
## Overview of scheduling algorithms

Criteria: workload and environment

- Workload
  - Process behavior: alternating sequence of CPU and I/O bursts
  - CPU bound v.s. I/O bound
- Environment
  - Batch v.s. interactive?
  - Specialized v.s. general?

load store **CPU** burst add store read from file I/O burst wait for I/O store increment index **CPU** burst write to file I/O burst wait for I/O load store **CPU** burst add store read from file I/O burst wait for I/O

# **Typical Burst Times**



## Scheduling performance metrics

- Min waiting time: time spent waiting in queue for service
  - don't have process wait long in ready queue
- Max CPU utilization: % of time CPU is busy
  - keep CPU busy
- Max throughput: processes completed/time
  - complete as many processes as possible per unit time
- Min response time: submission to beginning of response
  - respond immediately
- Fairness: give each process/user same percentage of CPU

### First-Come, First-Served (FCFS)

- Simplest CPU scheduling algorithm
  - First job that requests the CPU gets the CPU
  - Nonpreemptive
- Implementation: FIFO queue

## Example of FCFS

<b>Process</b>	<u>Arrival Time</u>	<b>Burst Time</b>
$P_{1}$	0	7
$P_2$	0	4
$P_3$	0	1
$P_4$	0	4

Gantt chart

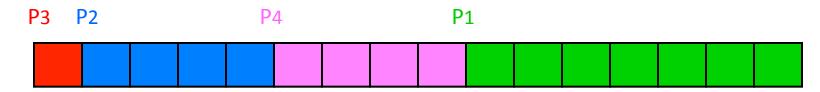


• Average waiting time: (0 + 7 + 11 + 12)/4 = 7.5

#### Example of FCFS: different arrival order

ival Time	<b>Burst Time</b>				
0	7				
0	4				
0	1				
0	4				
	0				

Arrival order: P<sub>3</sub> P<sub>2</sub> P<sub>4</sub> P<sub>1</sub>



• Average waiting time: (9 + 1 + 0 + 5)/4 = 3.75

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## FCFS advantages and disadvantages

- Advantages
  - Simple
  - Fair

- Disadvantages
  - waiting time depends on arrival order
  - Convoy effect: short process stuck waiting for long process
  - Also called head of the line blocking

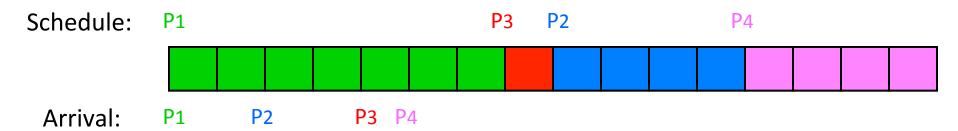
## Shortest Job First (SJF)

- Schedule the process with the shortest time
- FCFS if same time

# Example of SJF (w/o preemption)

<u>Process</u>	<u> Arrival Time</u>	<u>Burst Time</u>				
$P_1$	0	7				
$P_2$	2	4				
$P_3$	4	1				
$P_4$	5	4				

Gantt chart



• Average waiting time: (0 + 6 + 3 + 7)/4 = 4

## Shortest Job First (SJF)

- Schedule the process with the shortest time
  - FCFS if same time
- Advantages
  - Minimizes average wait time. Provably optimal if no preemption allowed
- Disadvantages
  - Not practical: difficult to predict burst time
    - Possible: past predicts future
  - May starve long jobs

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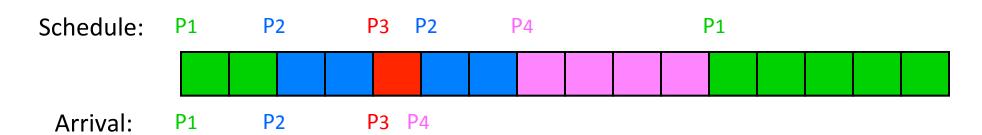
#### Shortest Remaining Time First (SRTF)

- If new process arrives w/ shorter CPU burst than the remaining for current process, schedule new process
  - SJF with preemption
- Advantage: reduces average waiting time
  - Provably optimal

## Example of SRTF

<u>Process</u>	<b>Arrival Time</b>	<b>Burst Time</b>				
$P_1$	0	7				
$P_2$	2	4				
$P_3$	4	1				
$P_4$	5	4				

Gantt chart



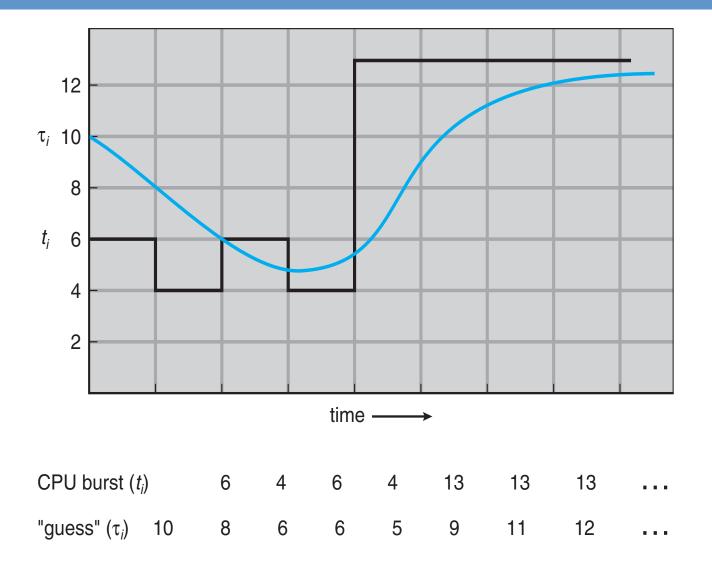
• Average waiting time: (9 + 1 + 0 + 2)/4 = 3

# Length of Next CPU Burst?

- Estimate the length: similar to the previous bursts
  - Pick process with shortest predicted next CPU burst
- Combine predictions and measured bursts using exponential averaging (or smoothing)
  - 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,  $\alpha$  set to  $\frac{1}{2}$
- "Exponential averaging" because expanding recursion gives:

$$\tau_{n+1} = \alpha t_n + (1 - \alpha)\alpha t_n - 1 + \dots + (1 - \alpha)^j \alpha t_{n-j} + \dots + (1 - \alpha)^{n+1} \tau_0$$

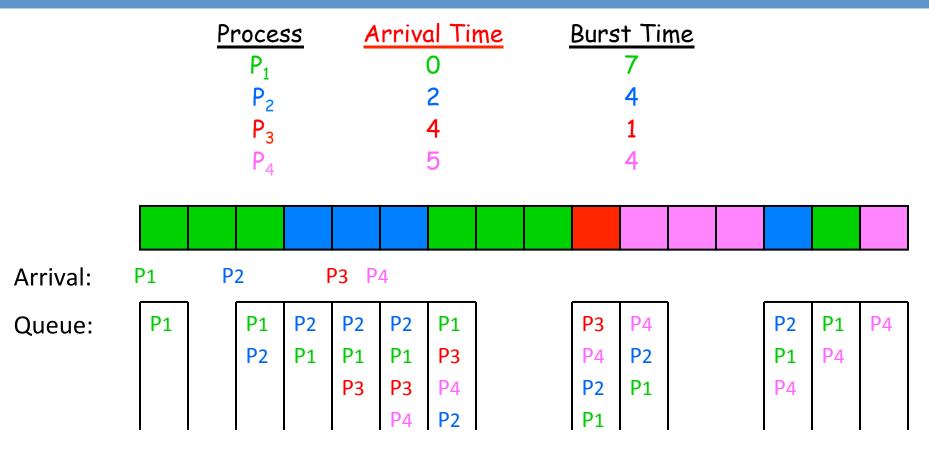
#### Exponential Smoothing



## Round-Robin (RR)

- Practical approach to support time-sharing
- Run process for a time slice, then move to back of FIFO queue
- Preempted if still running at end of time-slice
- How to determine time slice?

#### Example of RR: time slice = 3



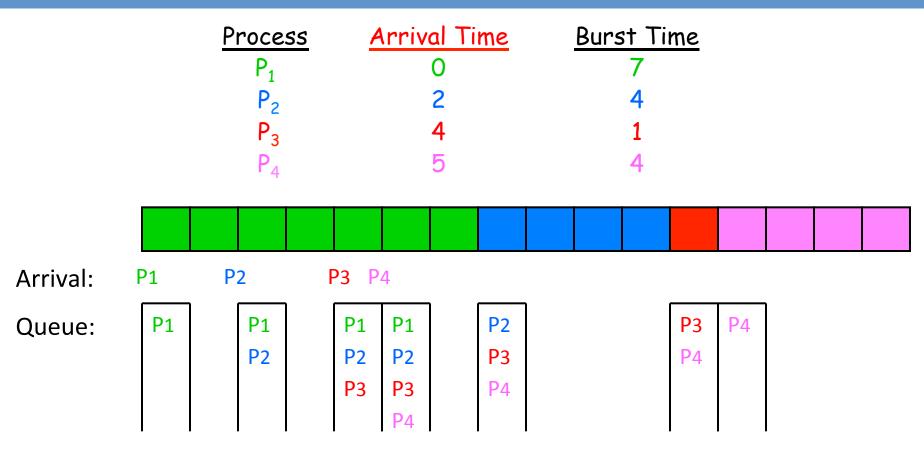
- Average waiting time: (8 + 8 + 5 + 7)/4 = 7
- Average response time: (0 + 1 + 5 + 5)/4 = 2.75
- # of context switches: 7

#### Smaller time slice = 1

			Process			Arrival Time			2	Burst Time							
			$P_1$ $P_2$		0 2			7 4									
			$P_3$		4			1									
	_		l	4		5			4								
Arrival:	P	1	P2		F	P3 P4											
Queue:		P1	P1	P2	P1	P2	Р3	P1	P4	P2	P1	P4	P2	P1	P4	P1	P4
				P1	P2	P3	P1	P4	P2	P1	P4	P2	P1	P4	P1	P4	
						P1	P4	P2	P1	P4	P2	P1	P4				
							P2										

- Average waiting time: (8 + 6 + 1 + 7)/4 = 5.5
- Average response time: (0 + 0 + 1 + 2)/4 = 0.75
- # of context switches: 14

### Larger time slice = 10



- Average waiting time: (0 + 5 + 7 + 7)/4 = 4.75
- Average response time: same
- # of context switches: 3 (minimum)

### RR advantages and disadvantages

- Advantages
  - Low response time, good interactivity
  - Fair allocation of CPU across processes
  - Low average waiting time when job lengths vary widely
- Disadvantages
  - Poor average waiting time when jobs have similar lengths
    - Average waiting time is even worse than FCFS!
  - Performance depends on length of time slice
    - Too high → degenerate to FCFS
    - Too low → too many context switches, costly

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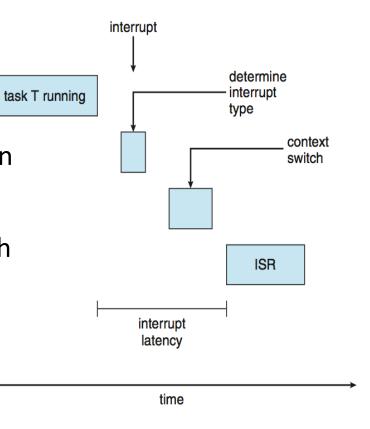
Evaluation

## Real-time scheduling

- Real-time processes have timing constraints
  - Expressed as deadlines or rate requirements
  - E.g. gaming, video/music player, autopilot, medical devices...
- Hard real-time systems required to complete a critical task within a guaranteed amount of time
- Soft real-time computing requires that critical processes receive priority over less fortunate ones
- Linux supports soft real-time

### Real-Time Scheduling

- Mechanism Challenges
  - Latencies can affect guarantees
    - 1.Interrupt latency: time between interrupt arrival to start of ISR (don't disable interrupts!)
    - 2. Dispatch latency: time to switch processes
- Policy Challenges
  - Ensure that soft real-time processes get priority
  - Ensure that hard real-time processes can finish within deadline
    - Admission Control is key



#### Priorities

- A priority is associated with each process
  - Run highest priority ready job (some may be blocked)
  - Round-robin among processes of equal priority
  - Can be preemptive or nonpreemptive
- Representing priorities
  - Typically an integer
  - The larger the higher or the lower?

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#### Setting priorities

- Priority can be statically assigned
  - Some always have higher priority than others
  - Problem: starvation
- Priority can be dynamically changed by OS
  - Aging: increase the priority of processes that wait in the ready queue for a long time

```
for(pp = proc; pp < proc+NPROC; pp++) {
    if (pp->prio != MAX)
        pp->prio++;
    if (pp->prio > curproc->prio)
        reschedule();
}
```

This code is taken almost verbatim from 6<sup>th</sup> Edition Unix, circa 1976.

### **Priority Inversion**

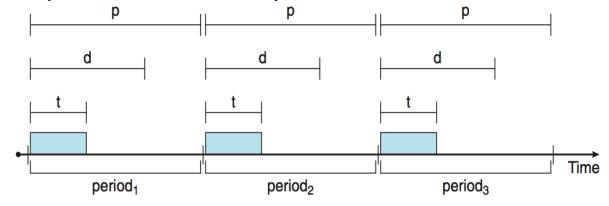
- High priority process depends on low priority process (e.g. to release a lock)
  - Another process with in-between priority arrives?

```
P1 (low): lock(my_lock) (gets my_lock)
P1 (low): lock(my_lock) (gets my_lock)
P2(high): lock(my_lock)
P2 waits, P1 completes, P2 is scheduled
P1 (low): lock(my_lock) (gets my_lock)
P2(high): lock(my_lock)
P3(medium): while (...) {}
P2 waits, P3 runs, P1 waits
P2's effective priority less than P3!
```

- Solution: priority inheritance
  - Inherit highest priority of waiting process
  - Must be able to chain multiple inheritances
  - Must ensure that priority reverts to original value
- Critical for real time systems
  - Example: Mars rover (http://research.microsoft.com/en-us/um/people/mbj/mars\_pathfinder/)

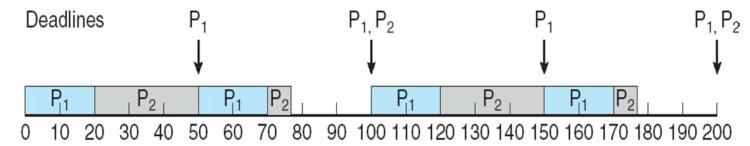
## Hard Real-time Scheduling

- Priority scheduling only guarantees soft real-time
- Hard real-time: must also meet deadlines
- Processes have new characteristics: periodic ones require CPU at constant intervals
  - Has processing time t, deadline d, period p
  - $-0 \le t \le d \le p$
  - Rate of periodic task is 1/p



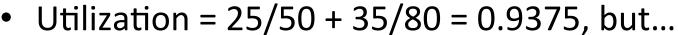
## Rate Montonic Scheduling

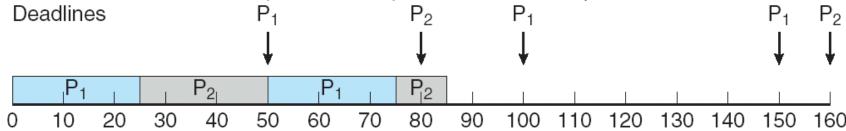
- Applicable only to periodic processes
- Static priority based on period
- Don't need to know burst length
- A priority is assigned based on the inverse of its period
  - Shorter periods = higher priority
  - Longer periods = lower priority
- E.g., P1: p=50, t=20 P2: p=100, t=35
- P1 higher than P2
- CPU Utilization U = 20/50 + 35/100 = 0.75, so good...



#### Optimality of Rate Monotonic Scheduling

- Optimal static scheduling policy
- But not optimal dynamic one
- E.g., P1: p=50, t=25 P2: p=80, t=35

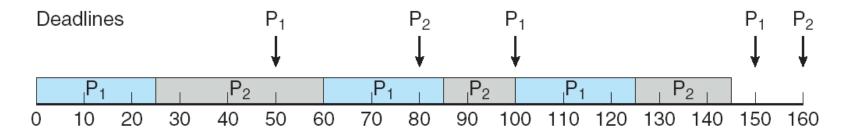




- P2 misses deadline
- In general, Rate monotonic can't guarantee if
  - Utilization >  $N(2^{1/N}-1)$  (or > 83%)
  - Admission control must deny to ensure schedulability

## Earliest Deadline First Scheduling (EDF)

- Priorities are assigned according to deadlines
  - Earlier deadline, higher priority, later deadline, lower the priority
- Dynamic priorities
  - Process can have higher/lower priority at different times
  - Doesn't require periodicity
  - Doesn't require knowledge of burst length
  - Provably optimal, but need to know deadlines
- Earlier ex. P1: t=25, d=50,100,150... P2: t=35 d=80, 160, 240,...



Dynamic EDF order: P1, P2, P1, P1, P2, ...

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## **Evaluating Scheduling Algorithms**

- Difficult: scheduling dependent on complex inputs
  - Workloads are non-deterministic even in tightly controlled environments
  - Timer interrupts can occur asynchronously
  - Hard to reproduce the same environment
- How to test?
  - How the system "feels": responsive? sluggish?
  - Analytical: Gantt charts, queuing models
  - Simulation

# **Analytical Evaluation**

- Deterministic (Gantt charts)
  - Like what we've done in this lecture
  - Construct deterministic workload
  - For each algorithm, calculate minimum average waiting time
  - Simple and fast, but requires exact numbers for input, applies only to those inputs
- Probabilistic (Queuing models)
  - Describe the arrival of processes, CPU, I/O bursts probabilistically
  - Simple distributions (e.g., exponential)
  - Compute average throughput, utilization, waiting time
  - Limited in kinds of policies that can be modeled
  - Generally out of scope of this class, except...

#### Little's Law

- Valid for any scheduling algorithm and arrival distribution
  - n = average queue length
  - -W =average waiting time in queue (sec)
  - $-\lambda$  = average arrival rate into queue (processes/sec)
  - Little's law:  $n = \lambda \times W$
- Why? Complex proof, but intuitively...
  - 1. Let N = total number of jobs over some large time T
  - 2. n = Avg. # of queue length = Sum\_T(# jobs in queue at time T)/T
  - 3. Sum\_T(# jobs in queue at time T) = Sum\_jobs(time of job j in queue)
  - 4.  $n = Sum_jobs(wait time of job j)/T = Sum_jobs(wait time of job j)/N*N/T$
  - 5. n = Avg. wait time \* Arrival rate =  $W * \lambda$
- E.g.: if on average 7 processes arrive per sec, and normally 14 processes in queue, then average wait time per process = 2 sec

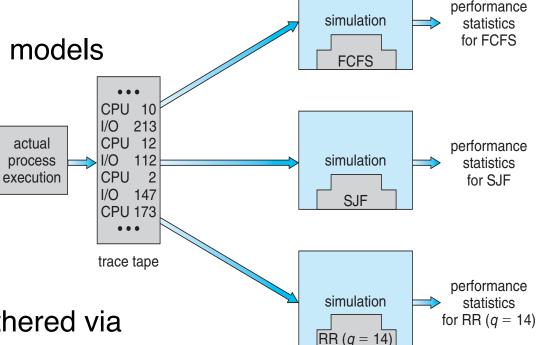
#### Simulation

Programmed model of computer system

Gather statistics indicating algorithm performance

Clock is a variable

More detailed than queuing models



- Data to drive simulation gathered via
  - Random number generator according to probabilities
  - Distributions defined mathematically or empirically
  - Traces: recorded sequences of real events in real systems

#### Time slice and Context Switch Time

