

CSE 3221
Operating System Fundamentals

No.4

CPU scheduling

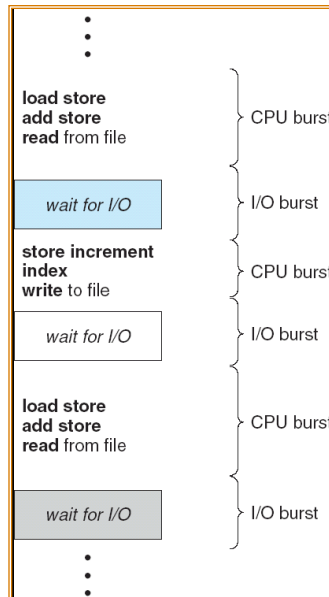
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CPU Scheduling

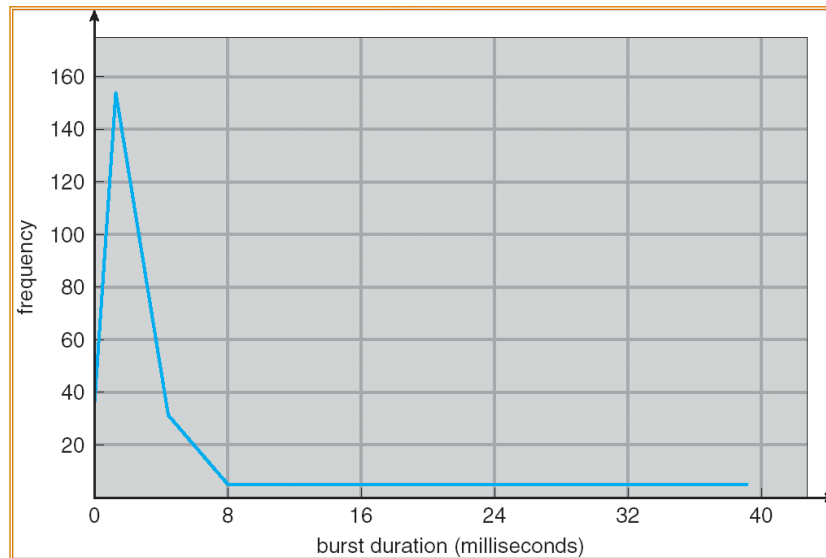
- CPU scheduling is the basis of multiprogramming
- CPU scheduling consists of two components:
 - **CPU scheduler**: when CPU becomes idle, the CPU scheduler must select from among the processes in ready queue.
 - **Dispatcher**: the module which gives control of CPU to the process selected by the CPU scheduler.
 - Switching context
 - Switching to user mode
 - Jumping to the proper location in user program to restart
 - **Dispatch latency**: the time it takes for the dispatcher to stop one process and start another running
 - Dispatcher should be as fast as possible

CPU burst vs. I/O burst

- Process (thread) execution
= CPU burst + I/O burst
- Process (thread) alternates
between these two states.
- Length of these bursts is
very different.



Histogram of CPU-burst Times



Non-preemptive vs. Preemptive scheduling

- 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.
- Non-preemptive scheduling takes place under 1 and 4.
 - Once the CPU has been allocated to a process, the process keeps the CPU until it releases CPU.
- Preemptive scheduling takes place in 1,2,3,4.
 - A running process can be preempted by another process
 - Not easy to make OS kernel to support preemptive scheduling
 - How about if the preempted process is updating some critical data structure?
 - Process synchronization
 - Disable interrupt

Scheduling Criteria

- CPU utilization – keep the CPU as busy as possible.
 - Usage percentage (40% -- 90%)
- Throughput – # of processes that complete their execution per time unit.
- Turnaround time – amount of time to execute a particular process.
 - The interval from the time of submission a process to the time of completion.
- 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* the final output (for time-sharing environment).

Scheduling Algorithms

- First-come, first-served (FCFS) scheduling
- Shortest-Job-First (SJF) Scheduling
- Priority Scheduling
- Round-Robin (RR) scheduling
- Multi-level Queue Scheduling
- Multilevel Feedback Queue Scheduling

First-Come, First-Served (FCFS) Scheduling

<u>Process</u>	<u>Burst Time</u>
P_1	24
P_2	3
P_3	3

- Suppose that the processes arrive at time 0 in the order: P_1, P_2, P_3
The Gantt Chart for the scheduling is:



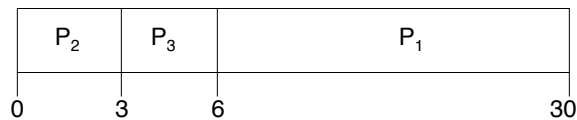
- Waiting time for $P_1 = 0$; $P_2 = 24$; $P_3 = 27$.
- Average waiting time: $(0 + 24 + 27)/3 = 17$.

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: $(6 + 0 + 3)/3 = 3$.
- FCFS is easy to implement (as a FIFO sequence).
- FCFS results in long wait in most cases and suffers convoy effect.
 - *Convoy effect* : all the other processes wait for one big process to get off the CPU.

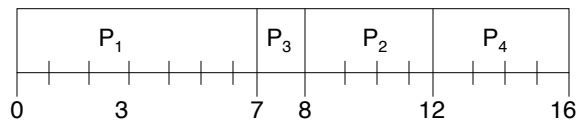
Shortest-Job-First (SJF) Scheduling

- Associate with each process the length of its next CPU burst. Schedule CPU to process with the shortest time.
 - The shortest one is the first.
- Implementation: ready queue → sorted list.
- Two schemes:
 - nonpreemptive – once CPU given to the process it cannot be preempted until it completes its CPU burst.
 - preemptive – if a new process arrives with CPU burst length less than remaining time of current executing process, it preempts. This scheme is known as the Shortest-Remaining-Time-First (SRTF).
- SJF is optimal – gives minimum average waiting time for a given set of processes.

Example of Non-Preemptive SJF

Process	Arrival Time	Burst Time
P_1	0.0	7
P_2	2.0	4
P_3	4.0	1
P_4	5.0	4

- SJF (non-preemptive)

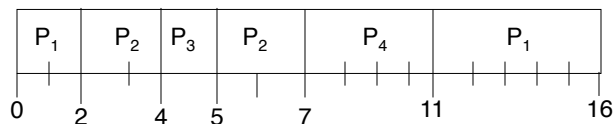


- Average waiting time = $(0 + 6 + 3 + 7)/4 = 4$

Example of Preemptive SJF (shortest-remaining-time-first)

Process	Arrival Time	Burst Time
P_1	0.0	7
P_2	2.0	4
P_3	4.0	1
P_4	5.0	4

- SJF (preemptive)



- Average waiting time = $(9 + 1 + 0 + 2)/4 = 3$

Determining Length of Next CPU Burst

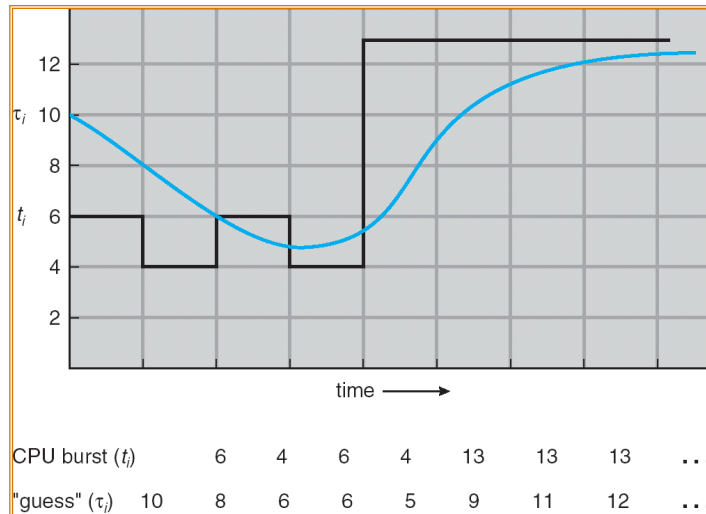
- Length of next CPU burst is unknown.
- Can only estimate the length.
- Can be done by using the length of previous CPU bursts, using exponential averaging, to predict the next one.

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

Examples of Exponential Averaging

- $\alpha=0$
 - $\tau_{n+1} = \tau_n = \dots = \tau_0$
 - Recent history does not count.
- $\alpha=1$
 - $\tau_{n+1} = t_n$
 - Only the actual last CPU burst counts.
- If we expand the formula, we get:
$$\tau_{n+1} = \alpha t_n + (1 - \alpha) t_{n-1} + \dots$$
$$+ (1 - \alpha)^j t_{n-j} + \dots$$
$$+ (1 - \alpha)^{n-1} t_0$$
- 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



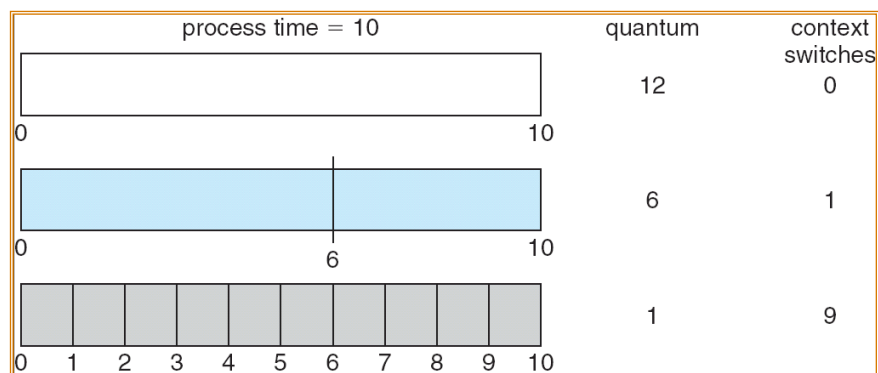
Priority Scheduling

- 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 a priority scheduling where priority is the predicted next CPU burst time.
- Problem → Starvation – low priority processes may never execute.
- Solution → Aging – as time progresses increase the priority of the process.

Round Robin (RR)

- Each process gets a small slice 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.
 - Ready queue is a circular queue or FIFO queue.
- **Fairness:** 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 large \rightarrow FCFS
 - q small \rightarrow too many context switches, so overhead is high.
 - q must be large with respect to most CPU bursts' lengths.

Time Quantum and Context Switch Time



Example of RR with Time Quantum = 20

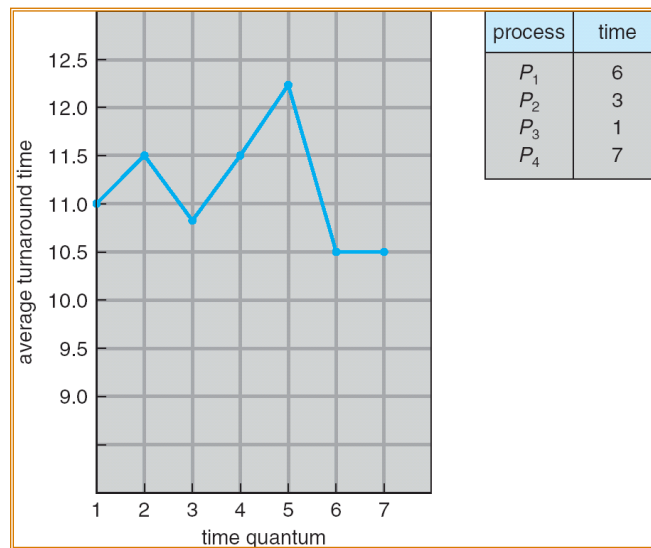
Process	Burst Time
P_1	53
P_2	17
P_3	68
P_4	24

- The Gantt chart is:

P ₁	P ₂	P ₃	P ₄	P ₁	P ₃	P ₄	P ₁	P ₃	P ₃	
0	20	37	57	77	97	117	121	134	154	162

- Typically, higher average waiting time than SJF, but better *response*.

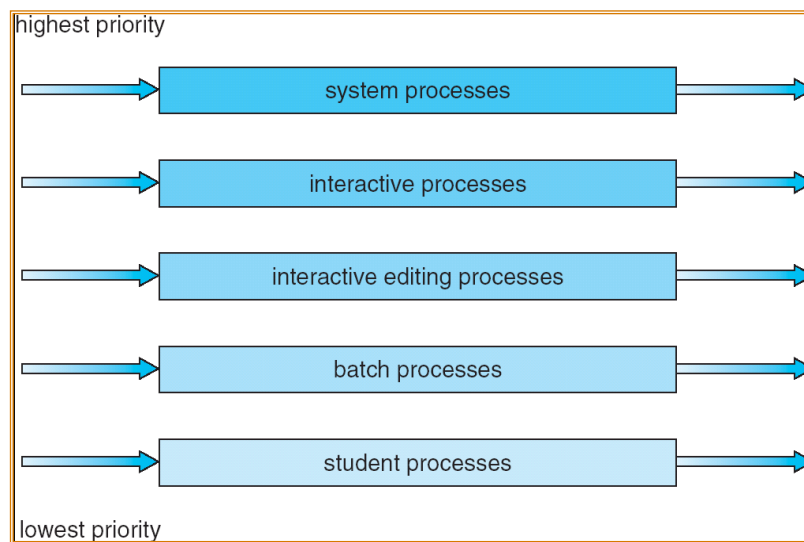
Turnaround Time Varies With The Time Quantum



Multilevel Queue

- Ready queue is partitioned into separate queues:
 - foreground (interactive)
 - background (batch)
- Any process is permanently assigned to one of these queues
- Each queue has its own scheduling algorithm, i.e.,
 - 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

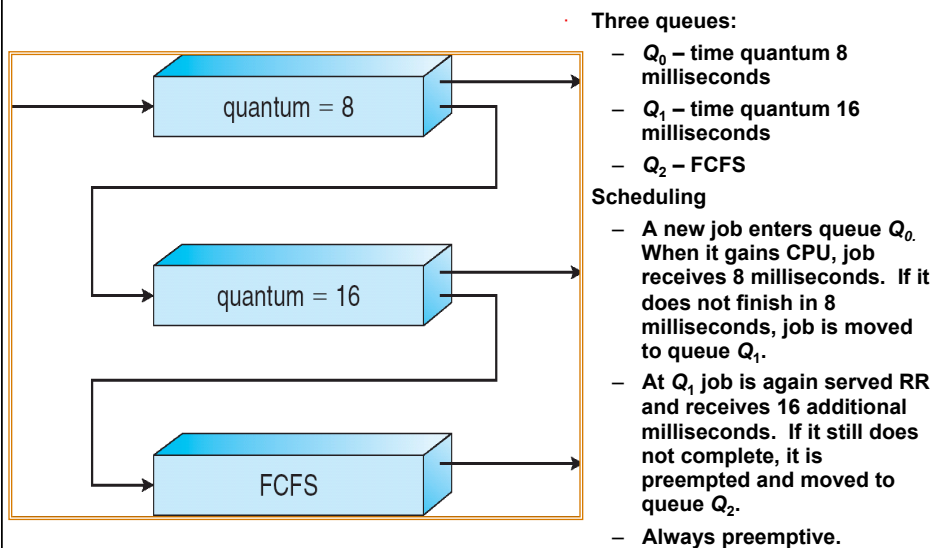
One example of multilevel Queue Scheduling



Multilevel Feedback Queue

- A process can move between the various queues; aging can be implemented this way.
 - If used too much CPU time → lower-priority queue
 - If waited too long → higher-priority queue
- Multilevel-feedback-queue scheduler defined by the following parameters:
 - number of queues
 - scheduling algorithms for each queue
 - method to determine when to upgrade a process
 - method to determine when to demote a process
 - method to determine which queue a process will enter when that process needs service
- It is the most general CPU scheduling algorithm. Can be configured to match a specific system under design.

Example of Multilevel Feedback Queue



Scheduling in multi-CPU Era

- **Multiple-Processor Scheduling**
 - Multi-core scheduling
- **Scheduling for multiple systems**
 - Load balancer (long-term scheduler)
 - Scheduling for distributed systems

Multiple-Processor Scheduling

- CPU scheduling more complex when multiple CPUs are available.
- *Homogeneous processors* within a multiprocessor.
 - Any available processor can then be used to run any process in the queue.
- One common ready queue vs. a separate queue for each CPU.
- *Asymmetric multiprocessing* – one processor (master) schedules for all processors
 - only one processor accesses the system data structures
 - alleviating the need for data sharing.
- *Symmetric multiprocessing* – each processor is self-scheduling
 - Each processor select its processes from the queue
 - Process synchronization when accessing common queues

Real-Time Scheduling

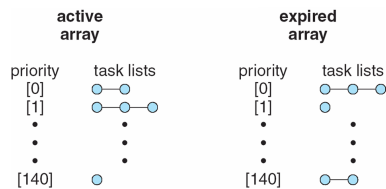
- **Hard real-time systems** – requires to complete a critical task within a guaranteed amount of time.
 - Hard to achieve in a general-purpose computer.
- **Soft real-time computing** – requires that the real-time processes receive priority over others (no aging).
- The dispatch latency must be small → preempt system call (kernel)
 - Adding preemption points (safe points) in system calls
 - Making the entire kernel preemptive by using process synchronization technique to protect all critical region

Linux Scheduling

- Linux scheduling algorithm is preemptive, priority-based, variable-length RR, with complexity $O(1)$.
- Priority values are dynamically adjusted.

numeric priority	relative priority	time quantum
0	highest	200 ms
•		
•	real-time tasks	
•		
99	other tasks	
100		
•	lowest	10 ms
•		
140		

- Use two so-called run-queues for READY queue:



Scheduling Algorithm Evaluation

- **Analytic evaluation: deterministic modeling**
 - Given a pre-determined workload, calculate the performance of each algorithm for that workload.
- **Queuing Models**
 - No static workload available, so use the probabilistic distribution of CPU and I/O bursts.
 - Use queuing-network analysis.
 - The classes of algorithms and distributions that can be handled in this way are fairly limited.
- **Simulation: use a simulator to model a computer system**
 - simulator is driven by random-number generator according to certain distributions.
 - Simulator is driven by a trace file, which records actual events happened in a real system.