Scheduling
What is Scheduling?

– On a multi-programmed system
  • We may have more than one *Ready* process

– On a batch system
  • We may have many jobs waiting to be run

– On a multi-user system
  • We may have many users concurrently using the system

  • The *scheduler* decides who to run next.

    – The process of choosing is called *scheduling*. 
Is scheduling important?

• It is not in certain scenarios
  – If you have no choice
    • Early systems
      – Usually batching
      – Scheduling algorithm simple
        » Run next on tape or next on punch tape
  – Only one thing to run
    • Simple PCs
      – Only ran a word processor, etc....
    • Simple Embedded Systems
      – TV remote control, washing machine, etc....
Is scheduling important?

• It is in most realistic scenarios
  – Multitasking/Multi-user System
    • Example
      – Email daemon takes 2 seconds to process an email
      – User clicks button on application.
    • Scenario 1
      – Run daemon, then application
        » System appears really sluggish to the user
    • Scenario 2
      – Run application, then daemon
        » Application appears really responsive, small email delay is unnoticed

• Scheduling decisions can have a dramatic effect on the perceived performance of the system
  – Can also affect correctness of a system with deadlines
Application Behaviour

- Bursts of CPU usage alternate with periods of I/O wait
Application Behaviour

a) CPU-Bound process
   • Spends most of its computing
   • Time to completion largely determined by received CPU time
b) I/O-Bound process
   - Spend most of its time waiting for I/O to complete
     • Small bursts of CPU to process I/O and request next I/O
   - Time to completion largely determined by I/O request time
Observations

- Generally, technology is increasing CPU speed much faster than I/O speed
  - CPU bursts becoming shorter, I/O waiting is relatively constant
  - Processes are becoming more I/O bound
Observations

- We need a mix of CPU-bound and I/O-bound processes to keep both CPU and I/O systems busy.
- Process can go from CPU- to I/O-bound (or vice versa) in different phases of execution.
Observations

- Choosing to run an I/O-bound process delays a CPU-bound process by very little
- Choosing to run a CPU-bound process prior to an I/O-bound process delays the next I/O request significantly
  - No overlap of I/O waiting with computation
  - Results in device (disk) not as busy as possible

⇒ Generally, favour I/O-bound processes over CPU-bound processes
When is scheduling performed?

– A new process
  • Run the parent or the child?
– A process exits
  • Who runs next?
– A process waits for I/O
  • Who runs next?
– A process blocks on a lock
  • Who runs next? The lock holder?
– An I/O interrupt occurs
  • Who do we resume, the interrupted process or the process that was waiting?
– On a timer interrupt? (See next slide)
  • Generally, a scheduling decision is required when a process (or thread) can no longer continue, or when an activity results in more than one ready process.
Preemptive versus Non-preemptive Scheduling

• **Non-preemptive**
  – Once a thread is in the *running* state, it continues until it completes, blocks on I/O, or voluntarily yields the CPU
  – A single process can monopolise the entire system

• **Preemptive Scheduling**
  – Current thread can be interrupted by OS and moved to *ready* state.
  – Usually after a timer interrupt and process has exceeded its maximum run time
    • Can also be as a result of higher priority process that has become *ready* (after I/O interrupt).
  – Ensures fairer service as single thread can’t monopolise the system
    • Requires a timer interrupt
Categories of Scheduling Algorithms

- The choice of scheduling algorithm depends on the goals of the application (or the operating system)
  - No one algorithm suits all environments
- We can roughly categorise scheduling algorithms as follows
  - Batch Systems
    - No users directly waiting, can optimise for overall machine performance
  - Interactive Systems
    - Users directly waiting for their results, can optimise for users perceived performance
  - Realtime Systems
    - Jobs have deadlines, must schedule such that all jobs (mostly) meet their deadlines.
Goals of Scheduling Algorithms

• All Algorithms
  – Fairness
    • Give each process a *fair* share of the CPU
  – Policy Enforcement
    • What ever policy chosen, the scheduler should ensure it is carried out
  – Balance/Efficiency
    • Try to keep all parts of the system busy
Goals of Scheduling Algorithms

• Interactive Algorithms
  – Minimise *response time*
    • Response time is the time difference between issuing a command and getting the result
      – E.g. selecting a menu, and getting the result of that selection
    • Response time is important to the user’s perception of the performance of the system.
  – Provide *Proportionality*
    • Proportionality is the user expectation that short jobs will have a short response time, and long jobs can have a long response time.
    • Generally, favour short jobs
Goals of Scheduling Algorithms

• Real-time Algorithms
  – Must meet deadlines
    • Each job/task has a deadline.
    • A missed deadline can result in data loss or catastrophic failure
      – Aircraft control system missed deadline to apply brakes
  – Provide Predictability
    • For some apps, an occasional missed deadline is okay
      – E.g. DVD decoder
    • Predictable behaviour allows smooth DVD decoding with only rare skips
Interactive Scheduling
Round Robin Scheduling

- Each process is given a *timeslice* to run in
- When the timeslice expires, the next process preempts the current process, and runs for its timeslice, and so on
  - The preempted process is placed at the end of the queue
- Implemented with
  - A ready queue
  - A regular timer interrupt
Example

- 5 Process
  - Process 1 arrives slightly before process 2, etc…
  - All are immediately runnable
  - Execution times indicated by scale on x-axis
Round Robin Schedule

Timeslice = 1 unit
Round Robin Schedule

Timeslice = 3 units
Round Robin

• Pros
  – Fair, easy to implement

• Con
  – Assumes everybody is equal

• Issue: What should the timeslice be?
  – Too short
    • Waste a lot of time switching between processes
    • Example: timeslice of 4ms with 1 ms context switch = 20% round robin overhead
  – Too long
    • System is not responsive
    • Example: timeslice of 100ms
      – If 10 people hit “enter” key simultaneously, the last guy to run will only see progress after 1 second.
    • Degenerates into FCFS if timeslice longer than burst length
Priorities

• Each Process (or thread) is associated with a priority
• Provides basic mechanism to influence a scheduler decision:
  – Scheduler will always chooses a thread of higher priority over lower priority
• Priorities can be defined internally or externally
  – Internal: e.g. I/O bound or CPU bound
  – External: e.g. based on importance to the user
Example

- 5 Jobs
  - Job number equals priority
  - Priority 1 > priority 5
  - Release and execution times as shown

- Priority-driven preemptively scheduled
Example

\(J_1\)

\(J_2\)

\(J_3\)

\(J_4\)

\(J_5\)
Example
Example
Example
Example
Example
Example

0 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20

J1
J2
J3
J4
J5
Example
Example
Example
Example
Example
Example
Example
Example
Example
Example
Priorities

- Usually implemented by multiple priority queues, with round robin on each queue

- Con
  - Low priorities can starve
    - Need to adapt priorities periodically
      - Based on ageing or execution history
Traditional UNIX Scheduler

- **Two-level scheduler**
  - High-level scheduler schedules processes between memory and disk
  - Low-level scheduler is CPU scheduler
- Based on a multi-level queue structure with round robin at each level
Traditional UNIX Scheduler

• The highest priority (lower number) is scheduled
• Priorities are re-calculated once per second, and re-inserted in appropriate queue
  – Avoid starvation of low priority threads
  – Penalise CPU-bound threads
Traditional UNIX Scheduler

- **Priority** = $CPU_{usage} + nice + base$
  - $CPU_{usage}$ = number of clock ticks
    - Decays over time to avoid permanently penalising the process
  - Nice is a value given to the process by a user to permanently boost or reduce its priority
    - Reduce priority of background jobs
  - Base is a set of hardwired, negative values used to boost priority of I/O bound system activities
    - Swapper, disk I/O, Character I/O

![Priority levels diagram]
Real-time Scheduling
Real Time Scheduling

• Correctness of the system may depend not only on the logical result of the computation but also on the time when these results are produced, e.g.
  – Tasks attempt to control events or to react to events that take place in the outside world
  – These external events occur in real time and processing must be able to keep up
  – Processing must happen in a timely fashion, neither too late, nor too early
Real Time System (RTS)

- RTS accepts an activity $A$ and guarantees its requested (timely) behaviour $B$ if and only if
  - RTS finds a schedule
    - that includes all already accepted activities $A_i$ and the new activity $A$,
    - that guarantees all requested timely behaviour $B_i$ and $B$, and
    - that can be enforced by the RTS.
  - Otherwise, RT system rejects the new activity $A$. 
Typical Real Time Systems

- Control of laboratory experiments
- Robotics
- (Air) Traffic control
- Controlling Cars / Trains / Planes
- Telecommunications
- Medical support (Remote Surgery, Emergency room)
- Multi-Media

• Remark: Some applications may have only **soft-real time** requirements, but some have really **hard real-time** requirements
Hard-Real Time Systems

• Requirements:
  – Must always meet all deadlines (time guarantees)
  – You have to guarantee that in any situation these applications are done in time, otherwise dangerous things may happen

Examples:
  1. If the landing of a fly-by-wire jet cannot react to sudden side-winds within some milliseconds, an accident might occur.
  2. An airbag system or the ABS has to react within milliseconds
Soft-Real Time Systems

Requirements:

Must *mostly* meet all deadlines, e.g. 99.9% of cases

Examples:

1. Multi-media: 100 frames per day might be dropped (late)
2. Car navigation: 5 late announcements per week are acceptable
3. Washing machine: washing 10 sec over time might occur once in 10 runs, 50 sec once in 100 runs.
Predictability, not Speed

- Real time systems are NOT necessarily fast
- Real time systems can be slow, as long as they are predictably so.
  - It does not matter how fast they are, as long as they meet their deadlines.
Properties of Real-Time Tasks

- To schedule a real time task, its properties must be known *a priori*

- The most relevant properties are
  - Arrival time (or release time) $a_i$
  - Maximum execution time (service time)
  - Deadline $d_i$
Categories of Real time tasks

• Periodic
  – Each task is repeated at a regular interval
  – Max execution time is the same each period
  – Arrival time is usually the start of the period
  – Deadline is usually the end

• Aperiodic (and sporadic)
  – Each task can arrive at any time
Real-time scheduling approaches

• Static table-driven scheduling
  – Given a set of tasks and their properties, a schedule (table) is precomputed offline.
    • Used for periodic task set
    • Requires entire schedule to be recomputed if we need to change the task set

• Static priority-driven scheduling
  – Given a set of tasks and their properties, each task is assigned a fixed priority
  – A preemptive priority-driven scheduler used in conjunction with the assigned priorities
    • Used for periodic task sets
Real-time scheduling approaches

- Dynamic scheduling
  - Task arrives prior to execution
  - The scheduler determines whether the new task can be admitted
    - Can all other admitted tasks and the new task meet their deadlines?
      - If no, reject the new task
  - Can handle both periodic and aperiodic tasks
Scheduling in Real-Time Systems

• We will only consider periodic systems

Scheduled real-time system

• Given
  – $m$ periodic events
  – event $i$ occurs within period $P_i$ and requires $C_i$ seconds

• Then the load can only be handled if

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{C_i}{P_i} \leq 1$$
Two Typical Real-time Scheduling Algorithms

• Rate Monotonic Scheduling
  – Static Priority priority-driven scheduling
  – Priorities are assigned based on the period of each task
    • The shorter the period, the higher the priority

• Earliest Deadline First Scheduling
  – The task with the earliest deadline is chosen next
A Scheduling Example

• Three periodic Tasks
Is the Example Schedulable

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{C_i}{P_i} \leq 1 \]

\[ \frac{10}{30} + \frac{15}{40} + \frac{5}{50} = 0.808 \]

- YES
Two Schedules: RMS and EDF
Two Schedules: RMS and EDF
Let’s Modify the Example Slightly

• Increase A’s CPU requirement to 15 msec
• The system is still schedulable

\[
\frac{15}{30} + \frac{15}{40} + \frac{5}{50} = 0.975
\]
RMS and EDF

Time (msec)
RMS and EDF
RMS failed, why?

• It has been proven that RMS is only guaranteed to work if the CPU utilisation is not too high
  – For three tasks, CPU utilisation must be less than 0.780
  • We were lucky with our original example

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{C_i}{P_i} \leq m(2^{1/m} - 1) \]
EDF

• EDF always works for any schedulable set of tasks, i.e. up to 100% CPU utilisation

• Summary
  – If CPU utilisation is low (usual case, due to safety factor in estimating execution times)
    • Can use RMS which is simple and easy to implement
  – If CPU utilisation is high
    • Must use EDF