Processes and Threads

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Operating System Concepts, IX edition

Outline

- Processes
- Threads
- Scheduling algorithms

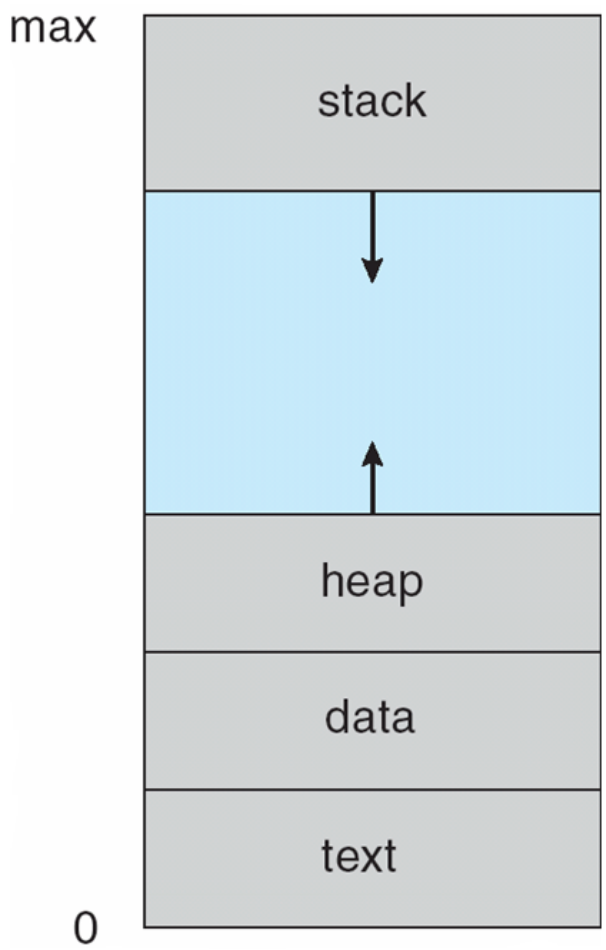
Process Concept

- Program is ***passive*** entity stored on disk (**executable file**), process is ***active***
  - Program becomes originates when executable file loaded into memory and run
- Execution of program started via GUI mouse clicks, command line entry of its name, etc
- One program can be several processes
  - Consider multiple users executing the same program
- **Process** – a program in execution; process execution must progress in sequential fashion

Process Concept

- Multiple parts
  - The program code, also called **text section**
  - Current activity including **program counter**, processor registers
  - **Stack** containing temporary data
    - Function parameters, return addresses, local variables
  - **Data section** containing global variables
  - **Heap** containing memory dynamically allocated during run time

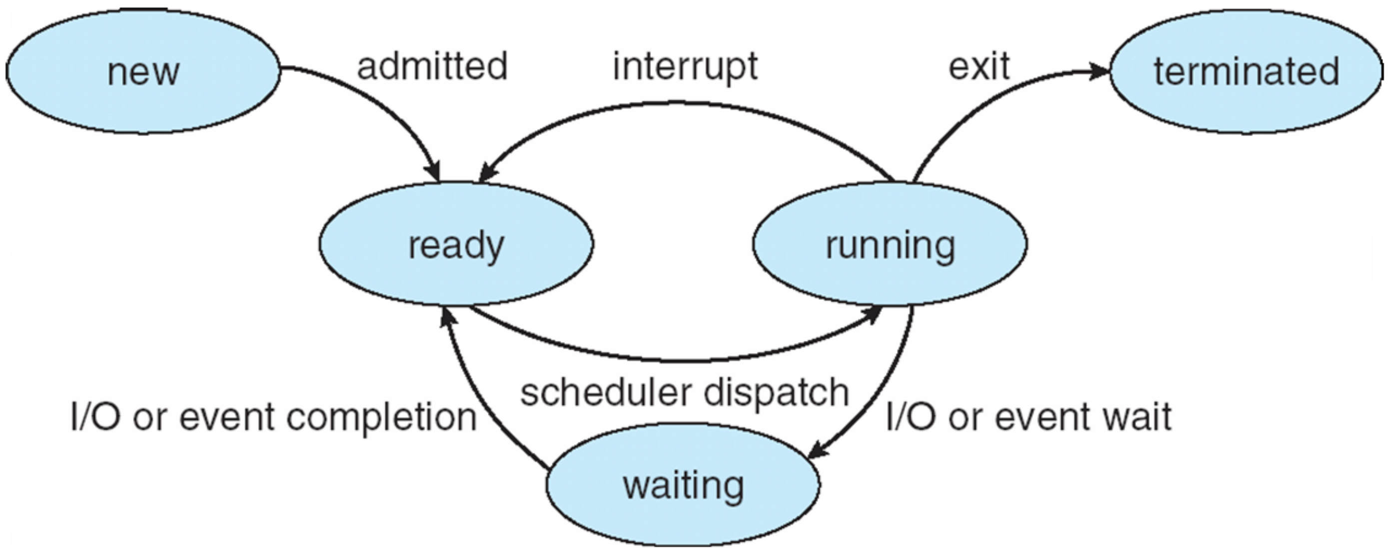
Process in Memory



Process State

- As a process executes, it changes **state**
  - **new**: The process is being created
  - **running**: Instructions are being executed
  - **waiting**: The process is waiting for some event to occur
  - **ready**: The process is waiting to be assigned to a processor
  - **terminated**: The process has finished execution

Diagram of Process State

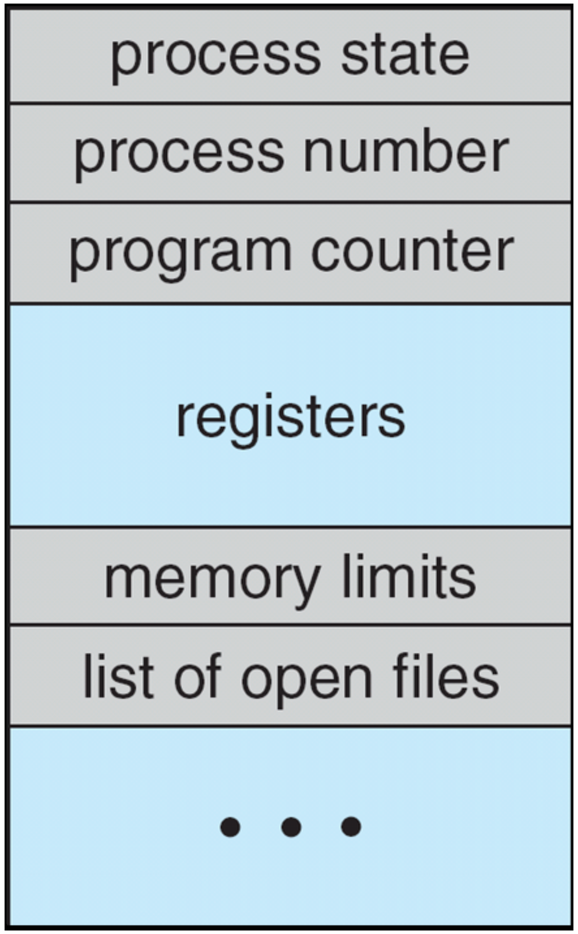


Process Control Block (PCB)

Information associated with each process

(also called **task control block**)

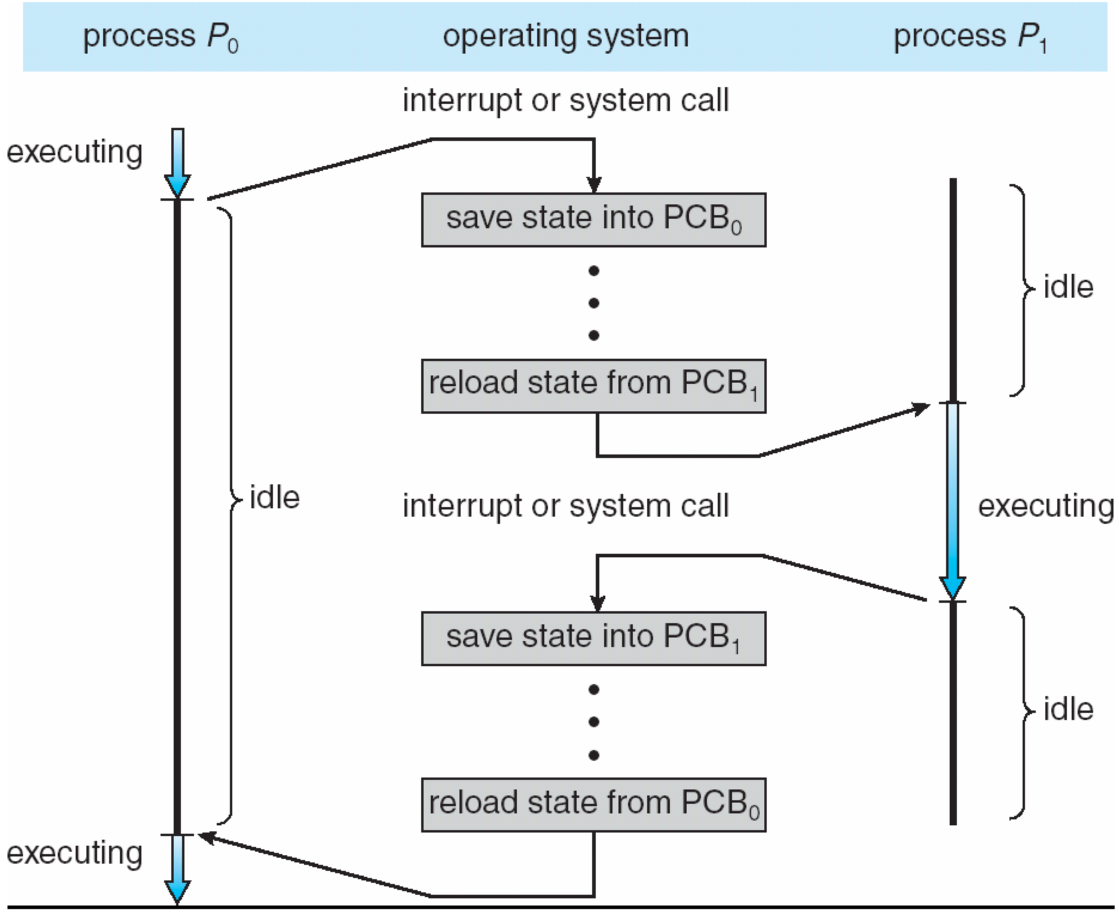
- Process state – running, waiting, etc
- Program counter – location of instruction to next execute
- CPU registers – contents of all process-centric registers
- CPU scheduling information- priorities, scheduling queue pointers
- Memory-management information – memory allocated to the process
- Accounting information – CPU used, clock time elapsed since start, time limits
- I/O status information – I/O devices allocated to process, list of open files



Context Switch

- When CPU switches to another process, the system must **save the state** of the old process and load the **saved state** for the new process via a **context switch**
- **Context** of a process represented in the PCB
- Context-switch time is overhead; the system does no useful work while switching
  - The more complex the OS and the PCB ➔ the longer the context switch
- Time dependent on hardware support
  - Some hardware provides multiple sets of registers per CPU ➔ multiple contexts loaded at once

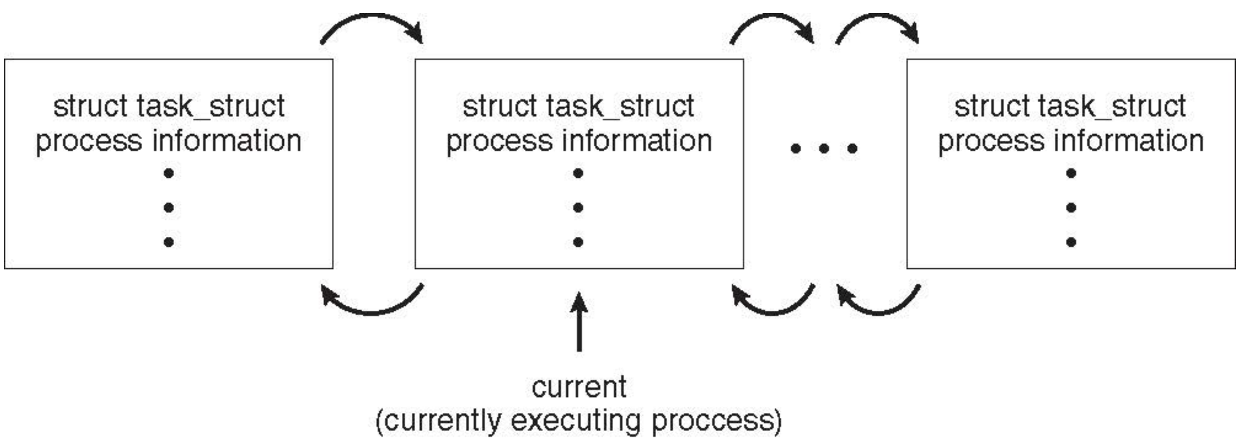
CPU Switch From Process to Process



Process Representation in Linux

Represented by the C structure `task_struct`

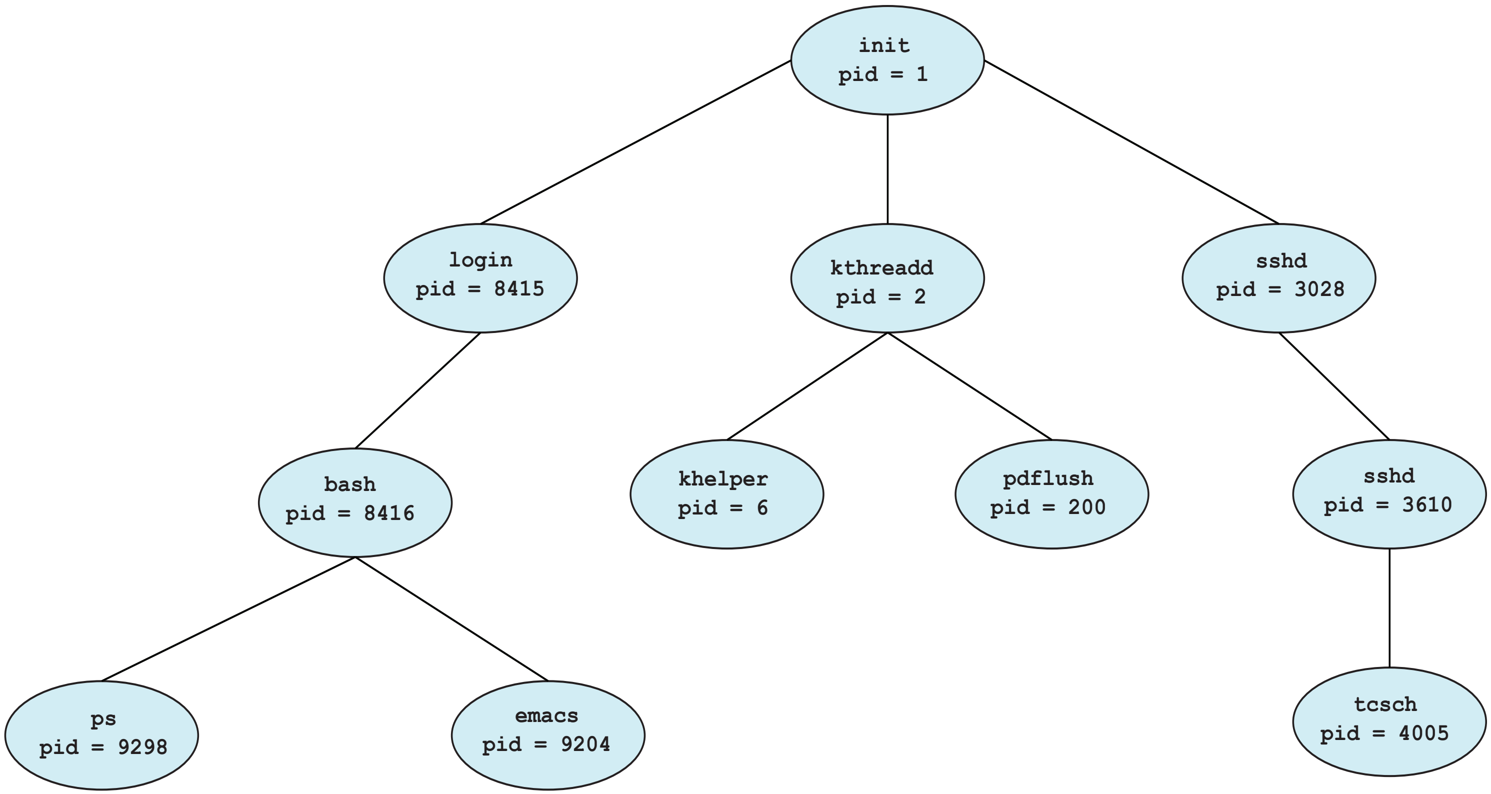
```
pid t_pid; /* process identifier */
long state; /* state of the process */
unsigned int time_slice /* scheduling information */
struct task_struct *parent; /* this process's parent */
struct list_head children; /* this process's children */
struct files_struct *files; /* list of open files */
struct mm_struct *mm; /* address space of this process */
```



Process Creation

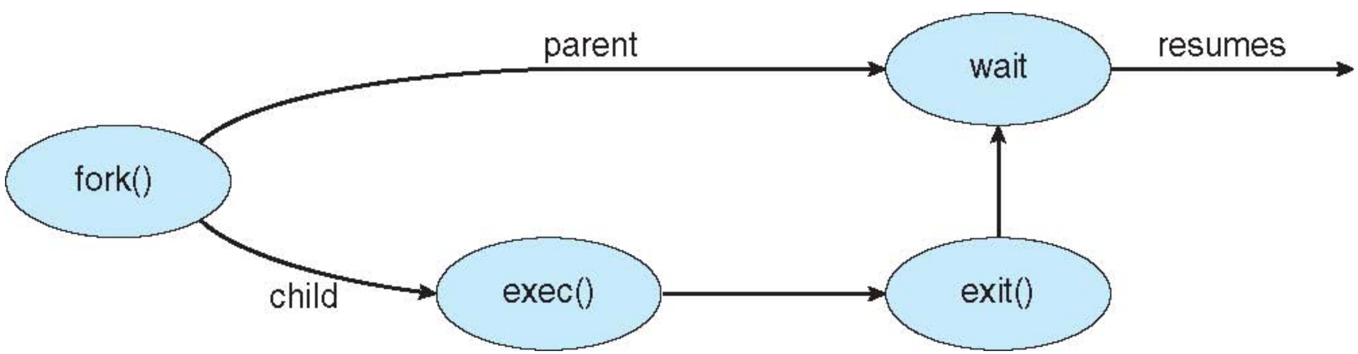
- **Parent** process create **children** processes, which, in turn create other processes, forming a **tree** of processes
- Generally, process identified and managed via a **process identifier** (**pid**)
- Resource sharing options
  - Parent and children share all resources
  - Children share subset of parent's resources
  - Parent and child share no resources
- Execution options
  - Parent and children execute concurrently
  - Parent waits until children terminate

A Tree of Processes in Linux



Process Creation (Cont.)

- Address space
  - Child duplicate of parent
  - Child has a program loaded into it
- UNIX examples
  - **`fork()`** system call creates new process
  - **`exec()`** system call used after a **`fork()`** to replace the process' memory space with a new program



Process Termination

- Process executes last statement and then asks the operating system to delete it using the `exit()` system call.
  - Returns status data from child to parent (via `wait()`)
  - Process' resources are deallocated by operating system
- Parent may terminate the execution of children processes using the `abort()` system call. Some reasons for doing so:
  - Child has exceeded allocated resources
  - Task assigned to child is no longer required
  - The parent is exiting and the operating systems does not allow a child to continue if its parent terminates

Process Termination

- Some operating systems do not allow child to exists if its parent has terminated. If a process terminates, then all its children must also be terminated.
  - **cascading termination.** All children, grandchildren, etc. are terminated.
  - The termination is initiated by the operating system.
- The parent process may wait for termination of a child process by using the **`wait()`** system call. The call returns status information and the pid of the terminated process

```
pid = wait(&status);
```

- If no parent waiting (did not invoke **`wait()`**) process is a **zombie**
- If parent terminated without invoking **`wait`**, process is an **orphan**

Example in UNIX

```
#include <iostream>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/wait.h>
using namespace std;

int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
  pid_t pid;
  pid=fork(); /* genera un nuovo processo */
  if(pid<0) { /* errore */
      cout << "Errore nella creazione del processo\n";
      exit(-1);
  } else if(pid==0) { /* processo figlio */
      execlp("/usr/bin/touch", "touch", "my_new_file", NULL);
  } else { /* processo genitore */
      int status;
      pid = wait(&status);
      cout << "Il processo figlio " << pid << " ha terminato\n";
      exit(0);
  }
}
```

Multiprocess Architecture – Chrome Browser

- Many web browsers ran as single process (some still do)
  - If one web site causes trouble, entire browser can hang or crash
- Google Chrome Browser is multiprocess with 3 different types of processes:
  - **Browser** process manages user interface, disk and network I/O
  - **Renderer** process renders web pages, deals with HTML, Javascript. A new renderer created for each website opened
    - Runs in **sandbox** restricting disk and network I/O, minimizing effect of security exploits
  - **Plug-in** process for each type of plug-in

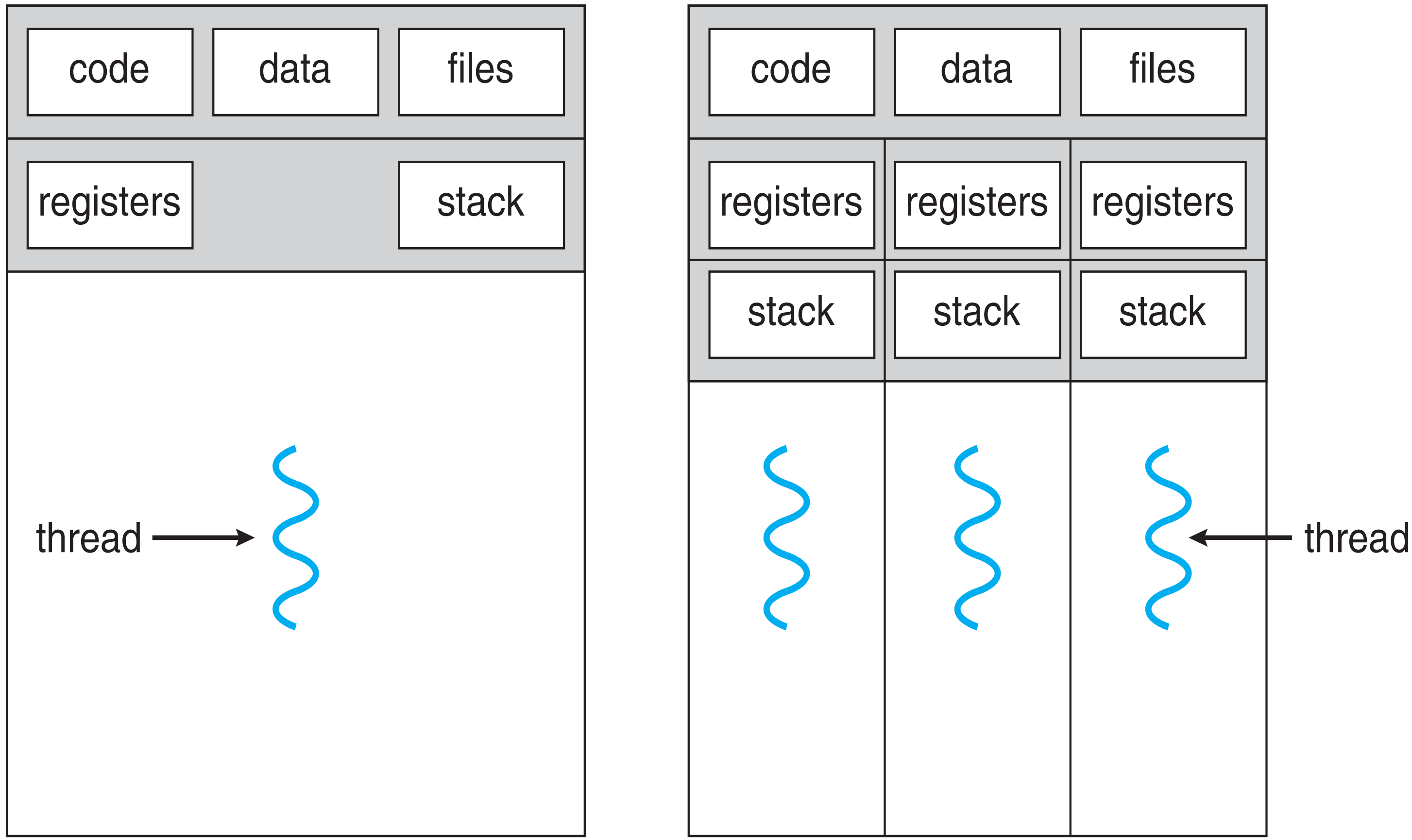
Multitasking in Mobile Systems

- Some mobile systems (e.g., early version of iOS) allow only one process to run, others suspended
- Due to screen real estate, user interface limits iOS provides for a
  - Single **foreground** process- controlled via user interface
  - Multiple **background** processes– in memory, running, but not on the display, and with limits
  - Limits include single, short task, receiving notification of events, specific long-running tasks like audio playback
- Android runs foreground and background, with fewer limits
  - Background process uses a **service** to perform tasks
  - Service can keep running even if background process is suspended
  - Service has no user interface, small memory use

Threads

- Most modern applications are multithreaded
- Threads run within application
- Multiple tasks with the application can be implemented by separate threads
  - Update display
  - Fetch data
  - Spell checking
  - Answer a network request
- Process creation is heavy-weight while thread creation is light-weight
- Can simplify code, increase efficiency
- Kernels are generally multithreaded

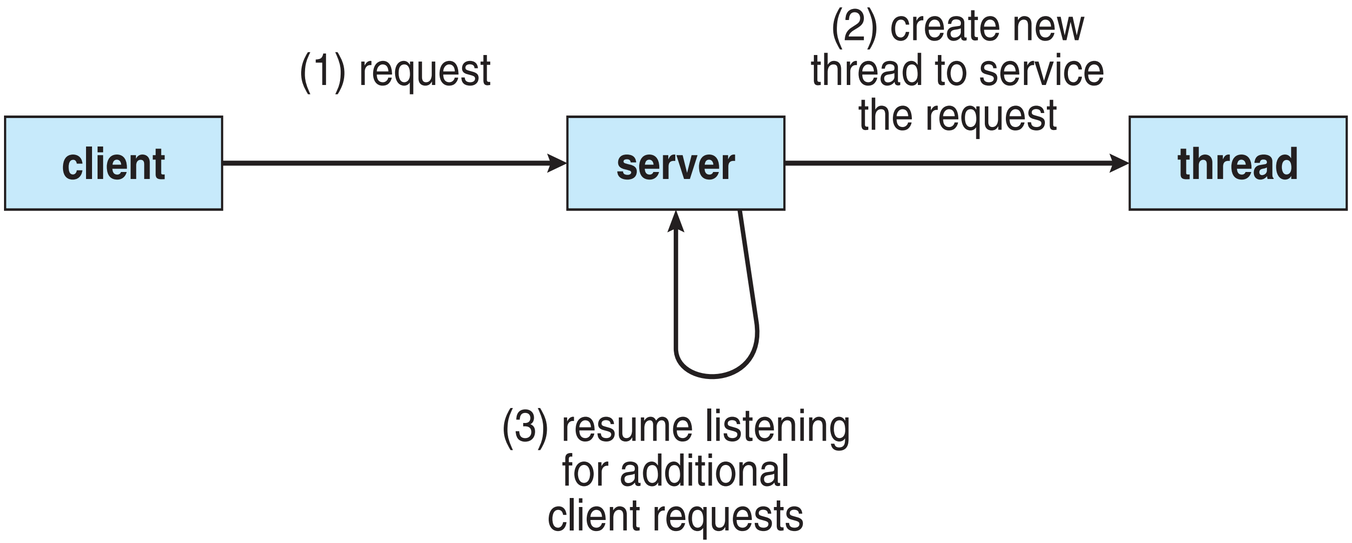
Single and Multithreaded Processes



single-threaded process

multithreaded process

Multithreaded Server Architecture



Benefits

- **Responsiveness –** may allow continued execution if part of process is blocked, especially important for user interfaces
- **Resource Sharing –** threads share resources of process, easier than shared memory or message passing
- **Economy –** cheaper than process creation, thread switching lower overhead than context switching
- **Scalability –** process can take advantage of multiprocessor architectures

Multicore Programming

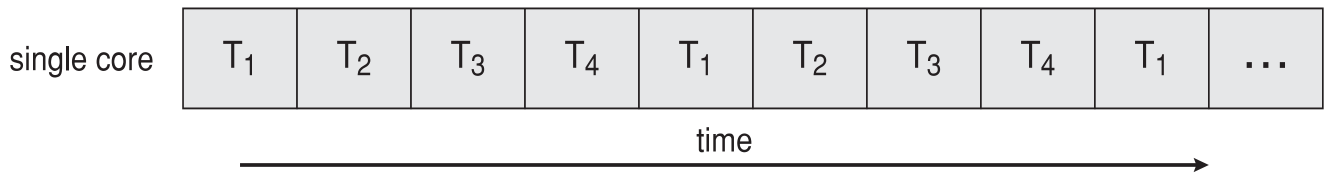
- **Multicore** or **multiprocessor** systems putting pressure on programmers, challenges include:
  - **Dividing activities**
  - **Balance**
  - **Data splitting**
  - **Data dependency**
  - **Testing and debugging**
- ***Parallelism*** implies a system can perform more than one task simultaneously
- ***Concurrency*** supports more than one task making progress
  - Single processor / core, scheduler providing concurrency

Multicore Programming (Cont.)

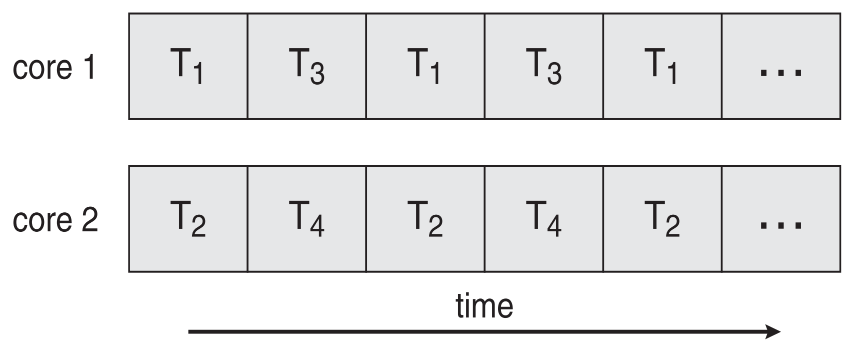
- Types of parallelism
  - **Data parallelism** – distributes subsets of the same data across multiple cores, same operation on each
  - **Task parallelism** – distributing threads across cores, each thread performing unique operation
- As # of threads grows, so does architectural support for threading
  - CPUs have cores as well as ***hardware threads***
  - Consider Oracle SPARC T4 with 8 cores, and 8 hardware threads per core

Concurrency vs. Parallelism

- **Concurrent execution on single-core system:**



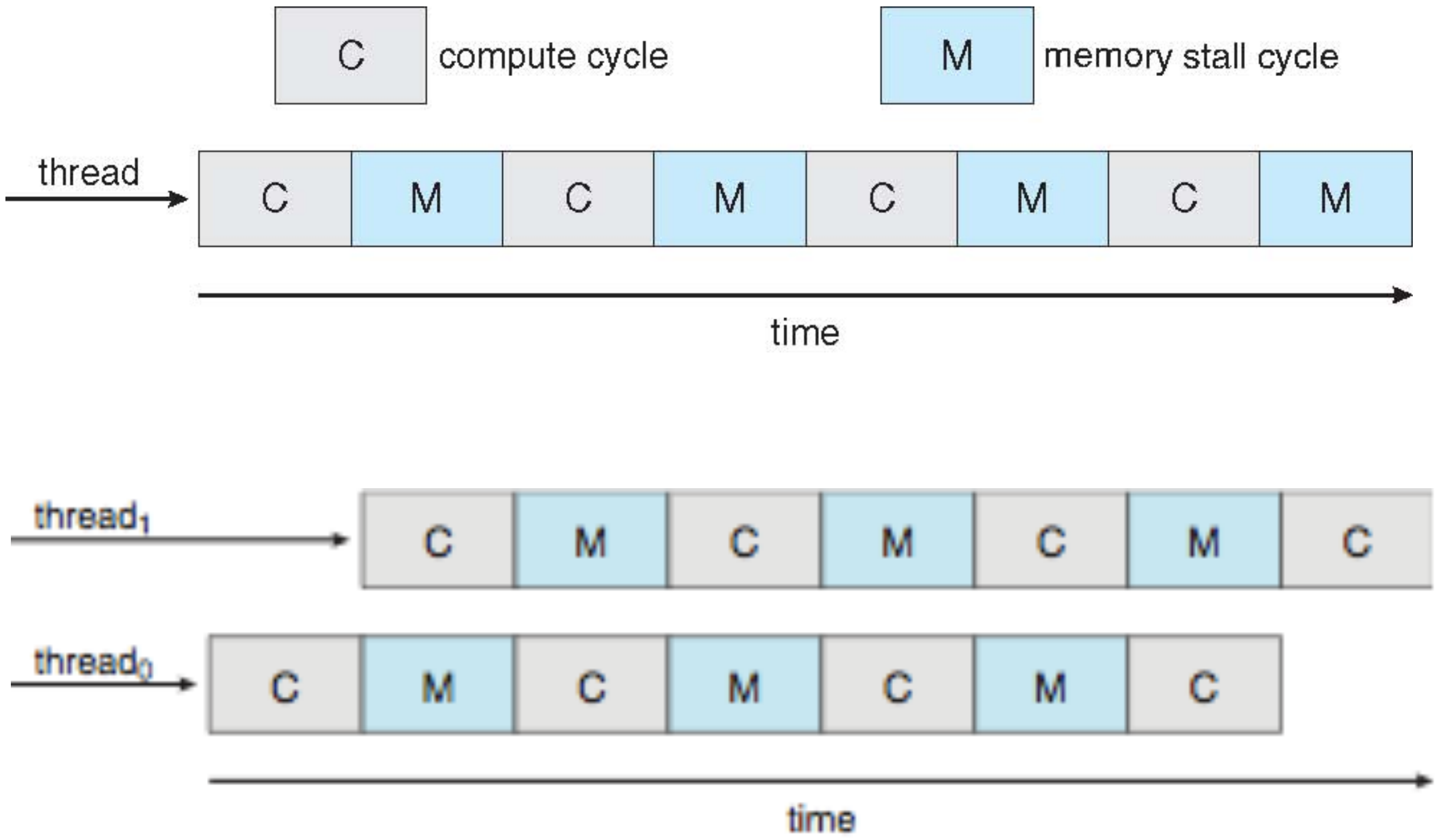
- **Parallelism on a multi-core system:**



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



Amdahl's Law

- Identifies performance gains from adding additional cores to an application that has both serial and parallel components
- *S* is serial portion
- *N* processing cores

$$speedup \leq \frac{1}{S + \frac{(1-S)}{N}}$$

- That is, if application is 75% parallel / 25% serial, moving from 1 to 2 cores results in speedup of 1.6 times
- As *N* approaches infinity, speedup approaches 1 / *S*
- Serial portion of an application has important effect on performance gained by adding additional cores

User Threads and Kernel Threads

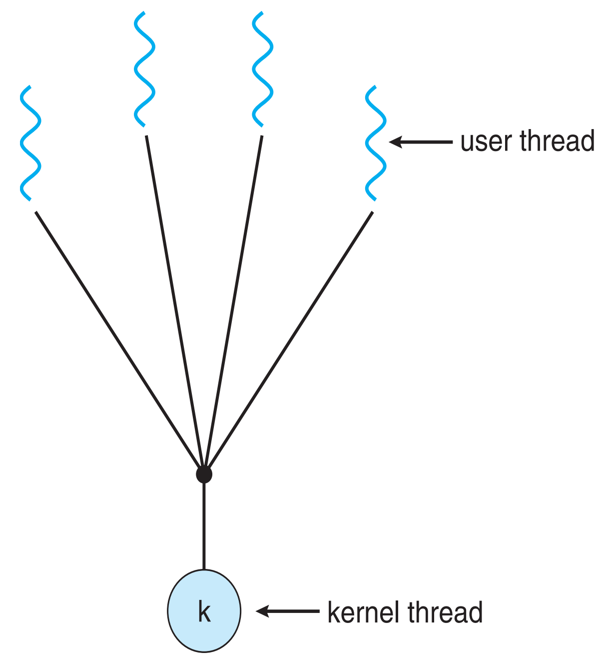
- **User threads** - management done by user-level threads library
- Three primary thread libraries:
  - POSIX **Pthreads**
  - Windows threads
  - Java threads
- **Kernel threads** - Supported by the Kernel
- Examples – virtually all general purpose operating systems, including:
  - Windows
  - Solaris
  - Linux
  - Tru64 UNIX
  - Mac OS X

Multithreading Models

- Many-to-One
- One-to-One
- Many-to-Many

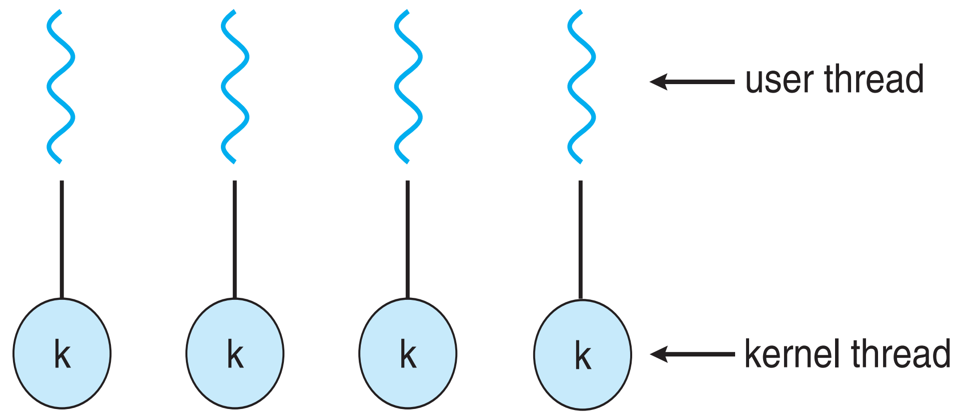
Many-to-One

- Many user-level threads mapped to single kernel thread
- One thread blocking causes all to block
- Multiple threads may not run in parallel on muticore system because only one may be in kernel at a time
- Few systems currently use this model
- Examples:
  - **Solaris Green Threads**
  - **GNU Portable Threads**



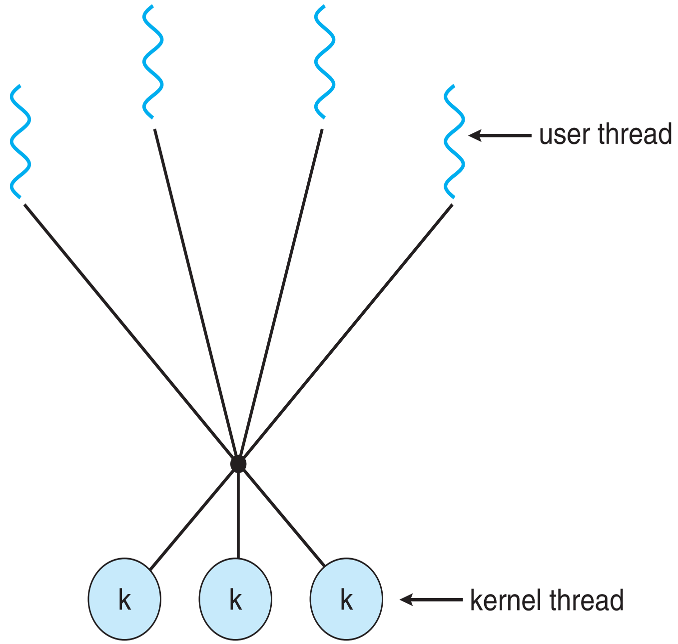
One-to-One

- Each user-level thread maps to kernel thread
- Creating a user-level thread creates a kernel thread
- More concurrency than many-to-one
- Number of threads per process sometimes restricted due to overhead
- Examples
  - Windows
  - Linux
  - Solaris 9 and later



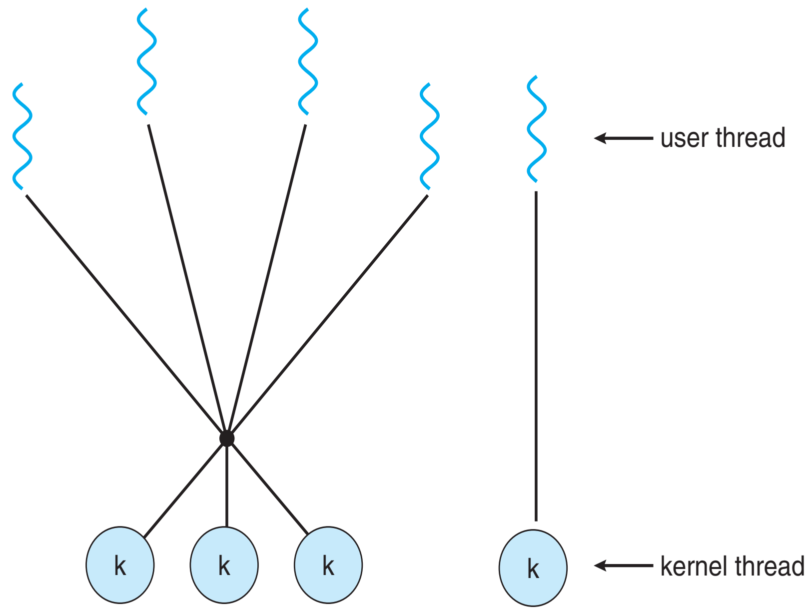
Many-to-Many Model

- Allows many user level threads to be mapped to many kernel threads
- Allows the operating system to create a sufficient number of kernel threads
- Solaris prior to version 9
- Windows with the *ThreadFiber* package



Two-level Model

- Similar to M:M, except that it allows a user thread to be **bound** to kernel thread
- Examples
  - IRIX
  - HP-UX
  - Tru64 UNIX
  - Solaris 8 and earlier



Thread Libraries

- **Thread library** provides programmer with API for creating and managing threads
- Two primary ways of implementing
  - Library entirely in user space
  - Kernel-level library supported by the OS

Pthreads

- May be provided either as user-level or kernel-level
- A POSIX standard (IEEE 1003.1c) API for thread creation and synchronization
- ***Specification***, not ***implementation***
- API specifies behavior of the thread library, implementation is up to development of the library
- Common in UNIX operating systems (Solaris, Linux, Mac OS X)

Threading Issues

- Semantics of **fork()** and **exec()** system calls
- Signal handling
  - Synchronous and asynchronous
- Thread cancellation of target thread
  - Asynchronous or deferred

Semantics of fork() and exec()

- Does **`fork()`** duplicate only the calling thread or all threads?
  - Some UNIXes have two versions of fork
- **`exec()`** usually works as normal – replace the running process including all threads

Signal Handling

- **Signals** are used in UNIX systems to notify a process that a particular event has occurred.
- A **signal handler** is used to process signals
  1. Signal is generated by particular event
  2. Signal is delivered to a process
  3. Signal is handled by one of two signal handlers:
     1. default
     2. user-defined
- Every signal has **default handler** that kernel runs when handling signal
  - **User-defined signal handler** can override default
  - For single-threaded, signal delivered to process

Signal Handling (Cont.)

- Where should a signal be delivered for multi-threaded?
  - Deliver the signal to the thread to which the signal applies
  - Deliver the signal to every thread in the process
  - Deliver the signal to certain threads in the process
  - Assign a specific thread to receive all signals for the process

Thread Cancellation

- Terminating a thread before it has finished
- Thread to be canceled is target thread
- Two general approaches:
  - **Asynchronous cancellation** terminates the target thread immediately
  - **Deferred cancellation** allows the target thread to periodically check if it should be cancelled
- Pthread code to create and cancel a thread:

```
pthread_t tid;

/* create the thread */
pthread_create(&tid, 0, worker, NULL);

. . .

/* cancel the thread */
pthread_cancel(tid);
```

Thread Cancellation (Cont.)

- Invoking thread cancellation requests cancellation, but actual cancellation depends on thread state

Mode	State	Type
Off	Disabled	–
Deferred	Enabled	Deferred
Asynchronous	Enabled	Asynchronous

- If thread has cancellation disabled, cancellation remains pending until thread enables it
- Default type is deferred
  - Cancellation only occurs when thread reaches **cancellation point**
    - I.e. `pthread_testcancel()`
    - Then **cleanup handler** is invoked
- On Linux systems, thread cancellation is handled through signals

Operating System Examples

- Windows Threads
- Linux Threads

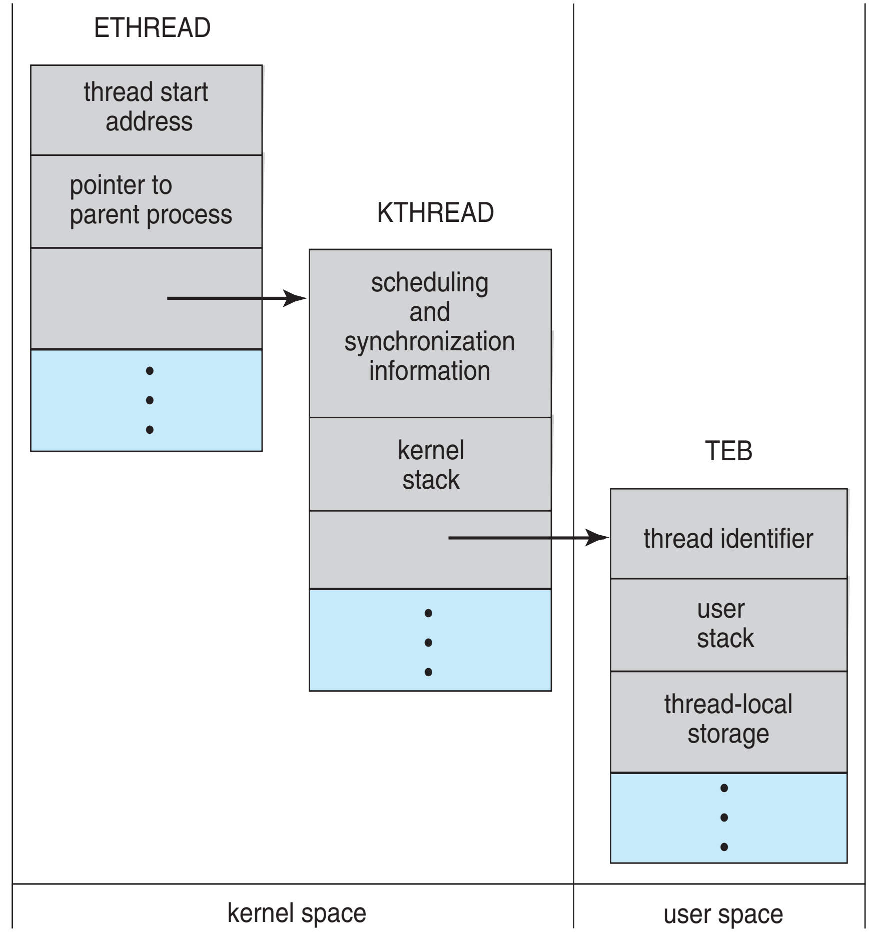
Windows Threads

- Windows implements the Windows API – primary API for Win 98, Win NT, Win 2000, Win XP, and Win 7
- Implements the one-to-one mapping, kernel-level
- Each thread contains
  - A thread id
  - Register set representing state of processor
  - Separate user and kernel stacks for when thread runs in user mode or kernel mode
  - Private data storage area used by run-time libraries and dynamic link libraries (DLLs)
- The register set, stacks, and private storage area are known as the **context** of the thread

Windows Threads Data Structures

The primary data structures of a thread include:

- ETHREAD (executive thread block) – includes pointer to process to which thread belongs and to KTHREAD, in kernel space
- KTHREAD (kernel thread block) – scheduling and synchronization info, kernel-mode stack, pointer to TEB, in kernel space
- TEB (thread environment block) – thread id, user-mode stack, thread-local storage, in user space



Linux Threads

- Linux refers to them as ***tasks*** rather than ***threads***
- Thread creation is done through **`clone()`** system call
- **`clone()`** allows a child task to share the address space of the parent task (process)
  - Flags control behavior

flag	meaning
`CLONE_FS`	File-system information is shared.
`CLONE_VM`	The same memory space is shared.
`CLONE_SIGHAND`	Signal handlers are shared.
`CLONE_FILES`	The set of open files is shared.

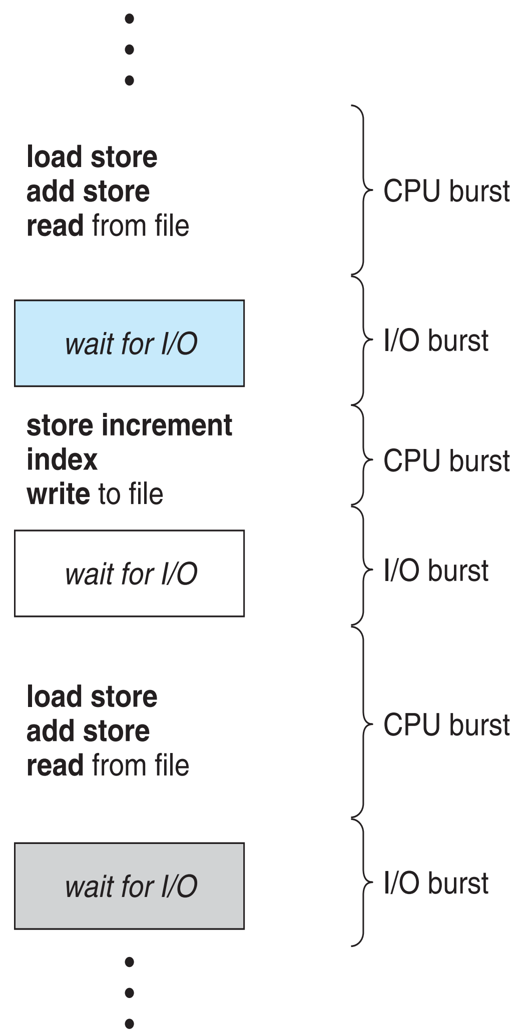
- **`struct task_struct`** points to process data structures (shared or unique)

Process Scheduling

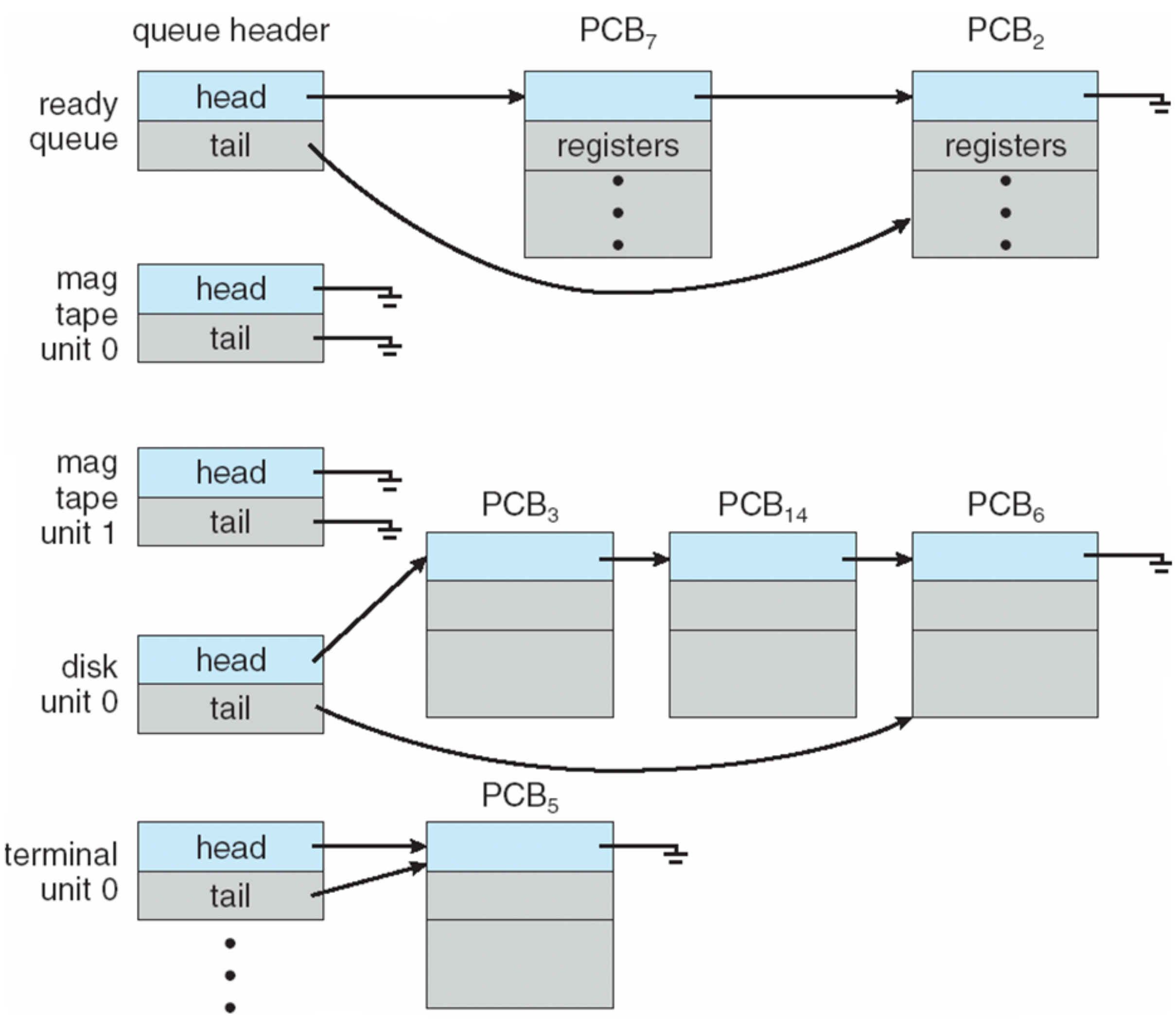
- Maximize CPU use, quickly switch processes onto CPU for time sharing
- **Process scheduler** selects among available processes for next execution on CPU
- Maintains **scheduling queues** of processes
  - **Job queue** – set of all processes in the system
  - **Ready queue** – set of all processes residing in main memory, ready and waiting to execute
  - **Device queues** – set of processes waiting for an I/O device
  - Processes migrate among the various queues

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

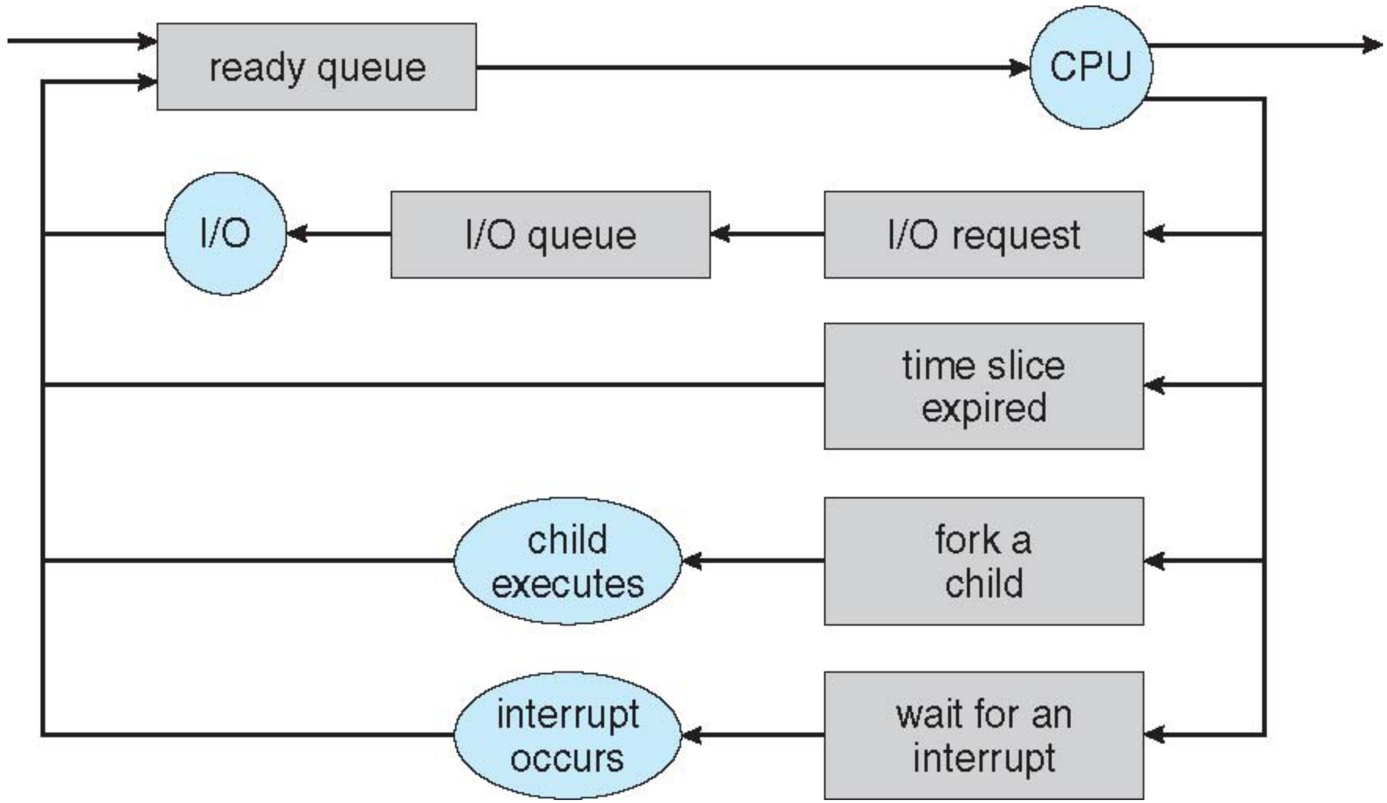


Ready Queue And Various I/O Device Queues



Representation of Process Scheduling

- **Queueing diagram** represents queues, resources, flows

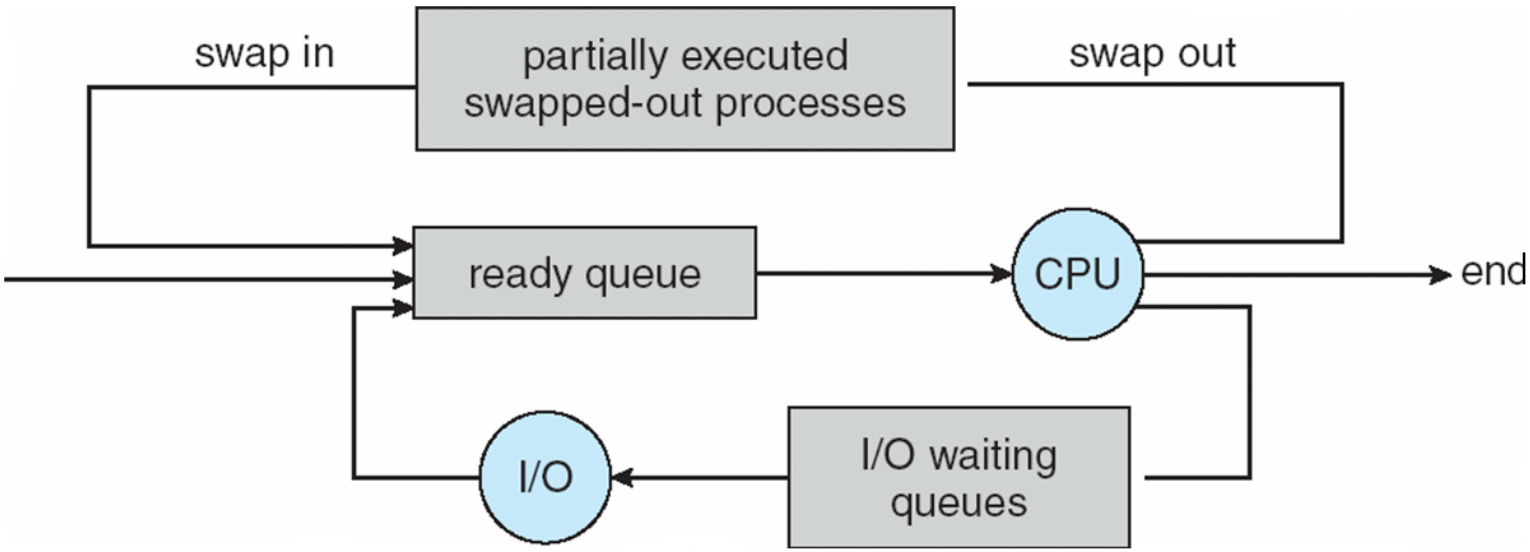


Schedulers

- **Short-term scheduler** (or **CPU scheduler**) – selects which process should be executed next and allocates CPU
  - Sometimes the only scheduler in a system
  - Short-term scheduler is invoked frequently (milliseconds) $\Rightarrow$ (must be fast)
- **Long-term scheduler** (or **job scheduler**) – selects which processes should be brought into the ready queue
  - Long-term scheduler is invoked infrequently (seconds, minutes) $\Rightarrow$ (may be slow)
  - The long-term scheduler controls the **degree of multiprogramming**
- Processes can be described as either:
  - **I/O-bound process** – spends more time doing I/O than computations, many short CPU bursts
  - **CPU-bound process** – spends more time doing computations; few very long CPU bursts
- Long-term scheduler strives for good ***process mix***

Addition of Medium Term Scheduling

- **Medium-term scheduler** can be added if degree of multiple programming needs to decrease
  - Remove process from memory, store on disk, bring back in from disk to continue execution: **swapping**



CPU Scheduler

- **Short-term scheduler** selects from among the processes in ready queue, and allocates the CPU to one of them
  - Queue may be ordered in various ways
- CPU scheduling decisions may take place when a process:
  1. Switches from running to waiting state
  2. Switches from running to ready state
  3. Switches from waiting to ready
  4. Terminates
- Scheduling under 1 and 4 is **nonpreemptive**
- All other scheduling is **preemptive**
  - Consider access to shared data
  - Consider preemption while in kernel mode
  - Consider interrupts occurring during crucial OS activities

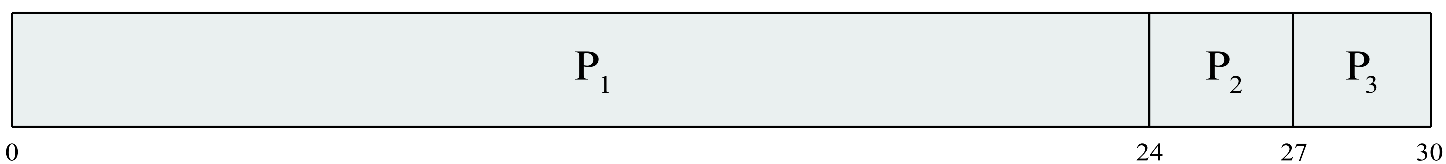
Scheduling Criteria

- **CPU utilization** – keep the CPU as busy as possible
- **Throughput** – # of processes that complete their execution per time unit
- **Turnaround time** – amount of time to execute a particular process
- **Waiting time** – amount of time a process has been waiting in the ready queue
- **Response time** – amount of time it takes from when a request was submitted until the first response is produced, not output (for time-sharing environment)

First- Come, First-Served (FCFS) Scheduling

Process	Burst Time
P_1	24
P_2	3
P_3	3

- Suppose that the processes arrive in the order: P_1 , P_2 , P_3
  The 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 schedule is:

- Waiting time for $P_1 = 6; P_2 = 0; P_3 = 3$
- Average waiting time: (6 + 0 + 3)/3 = 3
- Much better than previous case
- **Convoy effect** - short process behind long process
  - Consider one CPU-bound and many I/O-bound processes

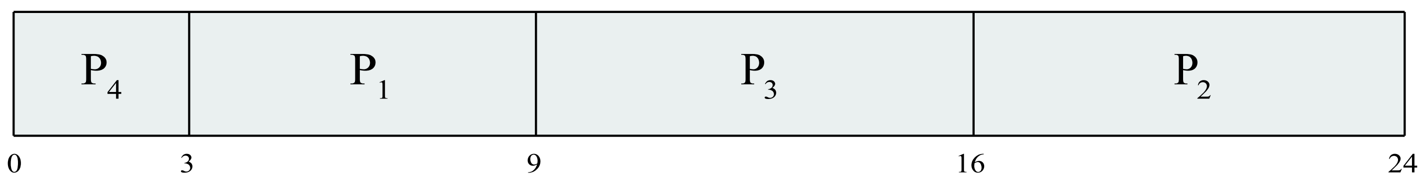
Shortest-Job-First (SJF) Scheduling

- Associate with each process the length of its next CPU burst
  - Use these lengths to schedule the process with the shortest time
- SJF is optimal – gives minimum average waiting time for a given set of processes
  - The difficulty is knowing the length of the next CPU request
  - Could ask the user

Example of SJF

Process	Burst Time
P_1	6
P_2	8
P_3	7
P_4	3

- SJF scheduling chart



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

Determining Length of Next CPU Burst

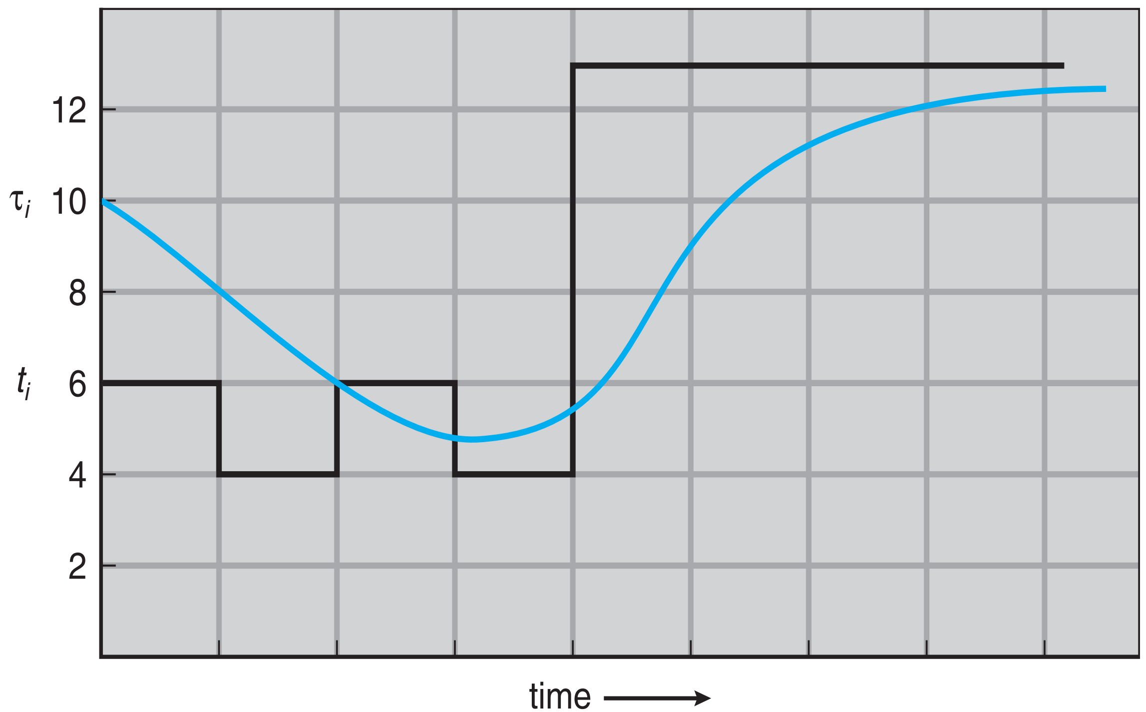
- Can only estimate the length – should be similar to the previous one
  - Then pick process with shortest predicted next CPU burst

- Can be done by using the length of previous CPU bursts, using exponential averaging

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

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

Prediction of the Length of the Next CPU Burst



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

Examples of Exponential Averaging

- $\alpha = 0$
  - $\tau_{n+1} = \tau_n$
  - Recent history does not count
- $\alpha = 1$
  - $\tau_{n+1} = \alpha\, t_n$
  - Only the actual last CPU burst counts
- If we expand the formula, we get:

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

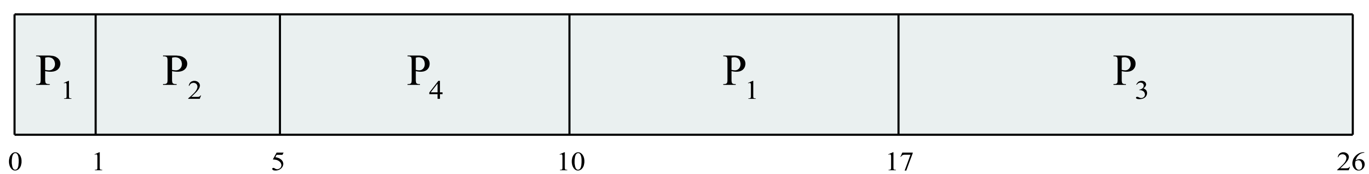
- Since both α and $(1 - \alpha)$ are less than or equal to 1, each successive term has less weight than its predecessor

Example of Shortest-remaining-time-first

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

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

- *Preemptive* SJF



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

Priority Scheduling

- A priority number (integer) is associated with each process
- The CPU is allocated to the process with the highest priority (smallest integer ≡ highest priority)
  - Preemptive
  - Nonpreemptive
- SJF is priority scheduling where priority is the inverse of predicted next CPU burst time
- Problem ≡ **Starvation** – low priority processes may never execute
- Solution ≡ **Aging** – as time progresses increase the priority of the process

Example of Priority Scheduling

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

- Priority scheduling:

- Average waiting time = 8.2 msec

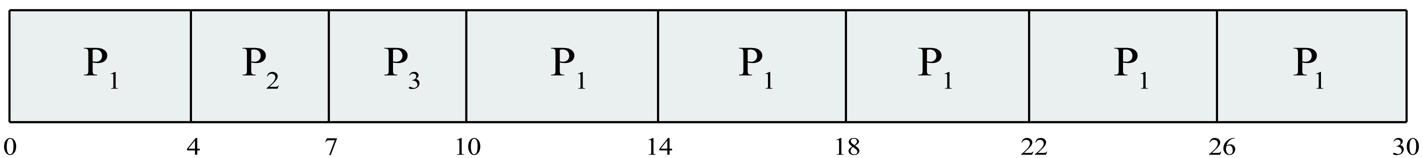
Round Robin (RR)

- Each process gets a small unit of CPU time (**time quantum** q), usually 10-100 milliseconds. After this time has elapsed, the process is preempted and added to the end of the ready queue.
- If there are n processes in the ready queue and the time quantum is q, then each process gets $1/n$ of the CPU time in chunks of at most q time units at once. No process waits more than $(n-1)q$ time units.
- Timer interrupts every quantum to schedule next process
- Performance
  - q large $\Rightarrow$ FIFO
  - q small $\Rightarrow$ q must be large with respect to context switch, otherwise overhead is too high

Example of RR with Time Quantum = 4

Process	Burst Time
P_1	24
P_2	3
P_3	3

- The execution is:

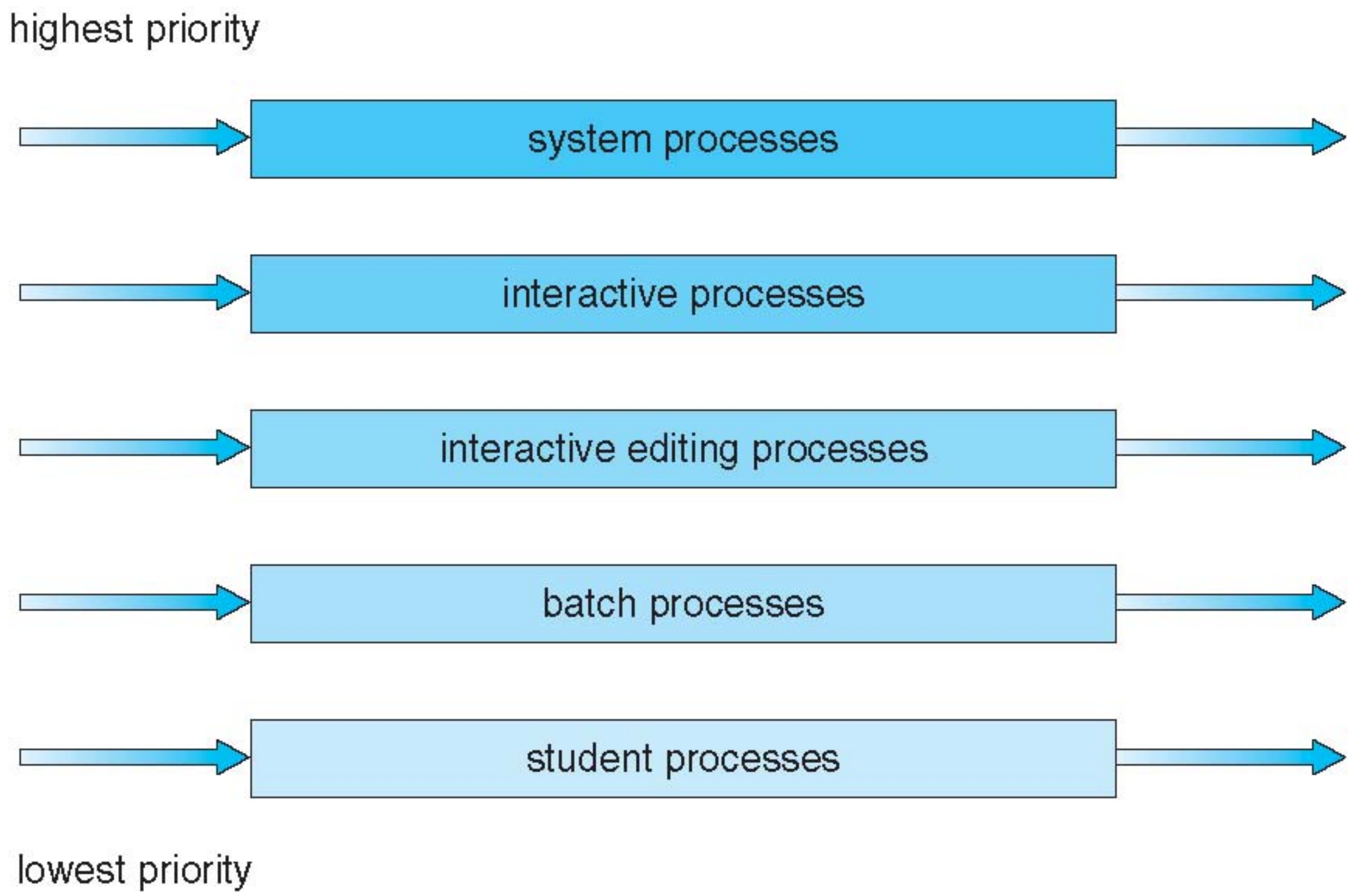


- Typically, higher average turnaround than SJF, but better ***response***
- q should be large compared to context switch time
- q usually 10ms to 100ms, context switch < 10 usec

Multilevel Queue

- Ready queue is partitioned into separate queues, eg:
  - **foreground** (interactive)
  - **background** (batch)
- Process permanently in a given queue
- Each queue has its own scheduling algorithm:
  - foreground – RR
  - background – FCFS
- Scheduling must be done between the queues:
  - Fixed priority scheduling; (i.e., serve all from foreground then from background). Possibility of starvation.
  - Time slice – each queue gets a certain amount of CPU time which it can schedule amongst its processes; i.e., 80% to foreground in RR, 20% to background in FCFS

Multilevel Queue Scheduling

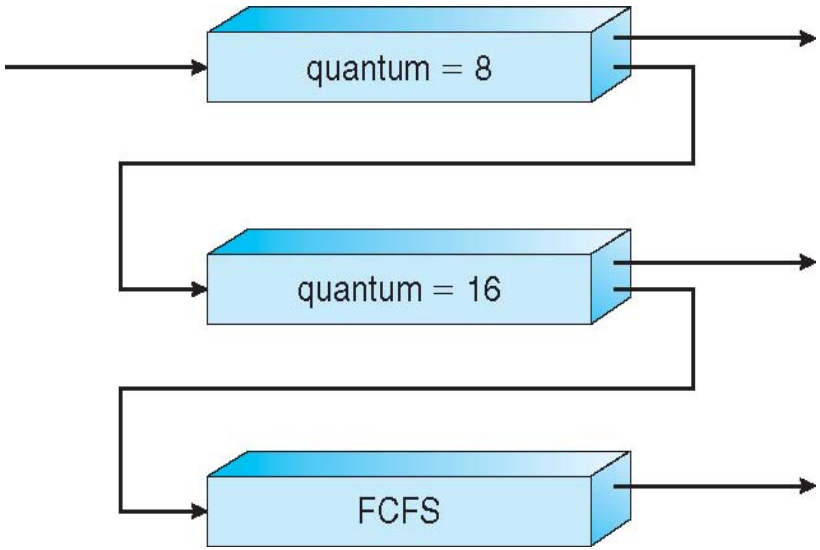


Multilevel Feedback Queue

- A process can move between the various queues; aging can be implemented this way
- Multilevel-feedback-queue scheduler defined by the following parameters:
  - number of queues
  - scheduling algorithms for each queue
  - method used to determine when to upgrade a process
  - method used to determine when to demote a process
  - method used to determine which queue a process will enter when that process needs service

Example of Multilevel Feedback Queue

- Three queues:
  - Q_0 – RR with time quantum 8 milliseconds
  - Q_1 – RR time quantum 16 milliseconds
  - Q_2 – FCFS
- Scheduling
  - A new job enters queue Q_0 which is served FCFS
    - When it gains CPU, job receives 8 milliseconds
    - If it does not finish in 8 milliseconds, job is moved to queue Q_1
  - At Q_1 job is again served FCFS and receives 16 additional milliseconds
    - If it still does not complete, it is preempted and moved to queue Q_2



Operating System Examples

- Windows XP scheduling
- Linux scheduling

Windows XP Scheduling

- Thread scheduling based on
  - Priority
  - Preemption
  - Time slice
- A thread is executed until one of the following event occurs
  - The thread has terminated its execution
  - The thread has exhausted its assigned time slice
  - The has executed a blocking system call
  - A higher-priority thread has entered the ready queue

Kernel Priorities

- Kernel priority scheme: 32 priority levels
  - Real-time class (16-31)
  - Variable class (1-15)
  - Memory management thread (0)

- A different queue for each priority level
  - Queues are scanned from higher levels to lower levels
  - When no thread is found a special thread (idle thread) is executed

Win32 API priorities

- API Priority classes
  - REALTIME_PRIORITY_CLASS -> Real-time Class
  - HIGH_PRIORITY_CLASS -> Variable Class
  - ABOVE_NORMAL_PRIORITY_CLASS -> Variable Class
  - NORMAL_PRIORITY_CLASS -> Variable Class
  - BELOW_NORMAL_PRIORITY_CLASS -> Variable Class
  - IDLE_PRIORITY_CLASS -> Variable Class

- Relative Priority
  - TIME_CRITICAL
  - HIGHEST
  - ABOVE_NORMAL
  - NORMAL
  - BELOW_NORMAL
  - LOWEST
  - IDLE

Windows XP 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

Default Base Priority

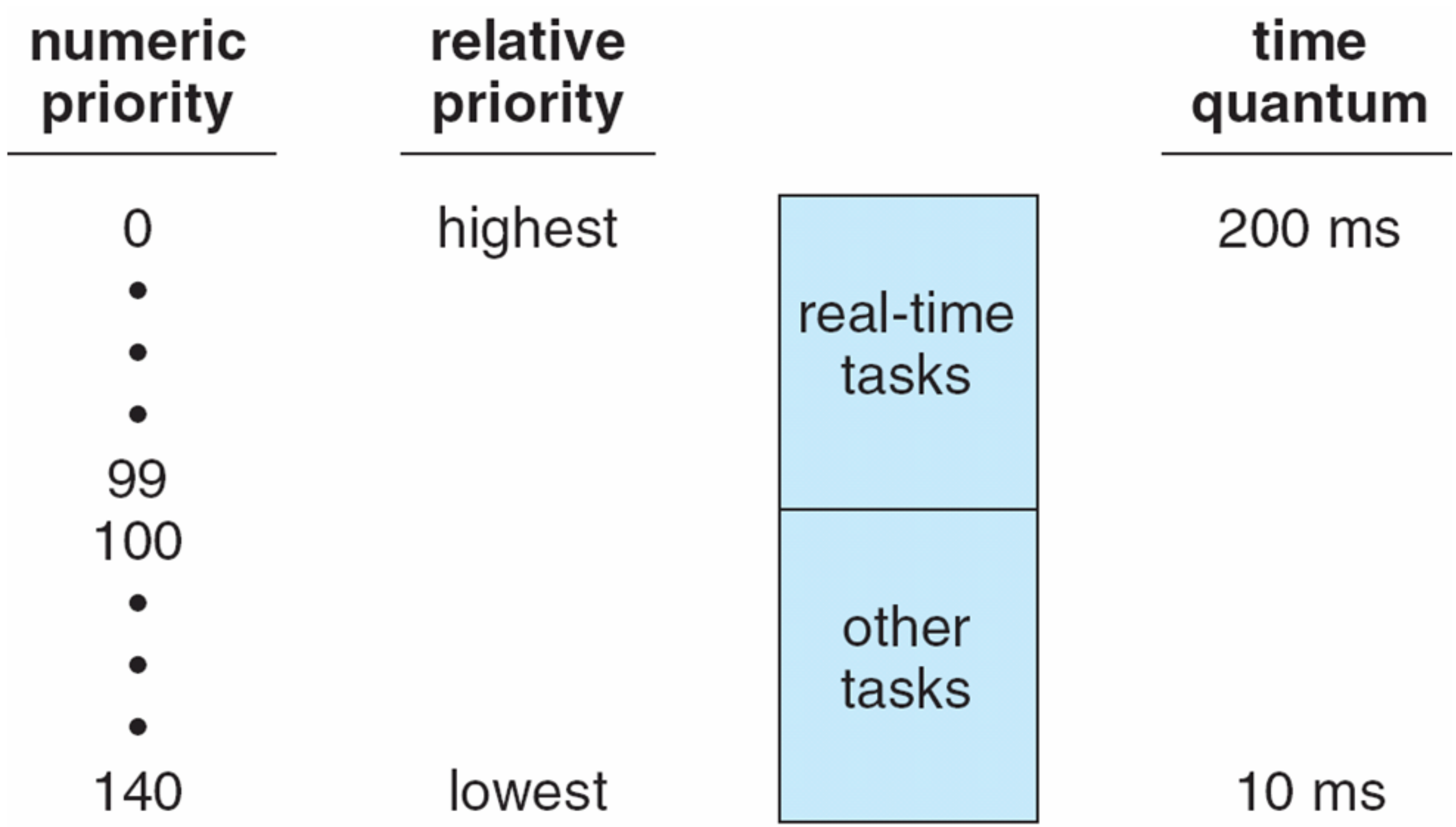
Class Priority Management

- A thread is stopped as soon as its time slice is exhausted
- Variable Class
  - If a thread stops because time slice is exhausted, its priority level is decreased
  - If a thread exits a waiting operation, its priority level is increased
    - waiting for data from keyboard, mouse -> significant increase
    - waiting for disk operations -> moderate increase
- Background/Foreground processes
  - The time slice of the foreground window is increased (typically by a factor 3)

Linux Scheduling Through Version 2.5

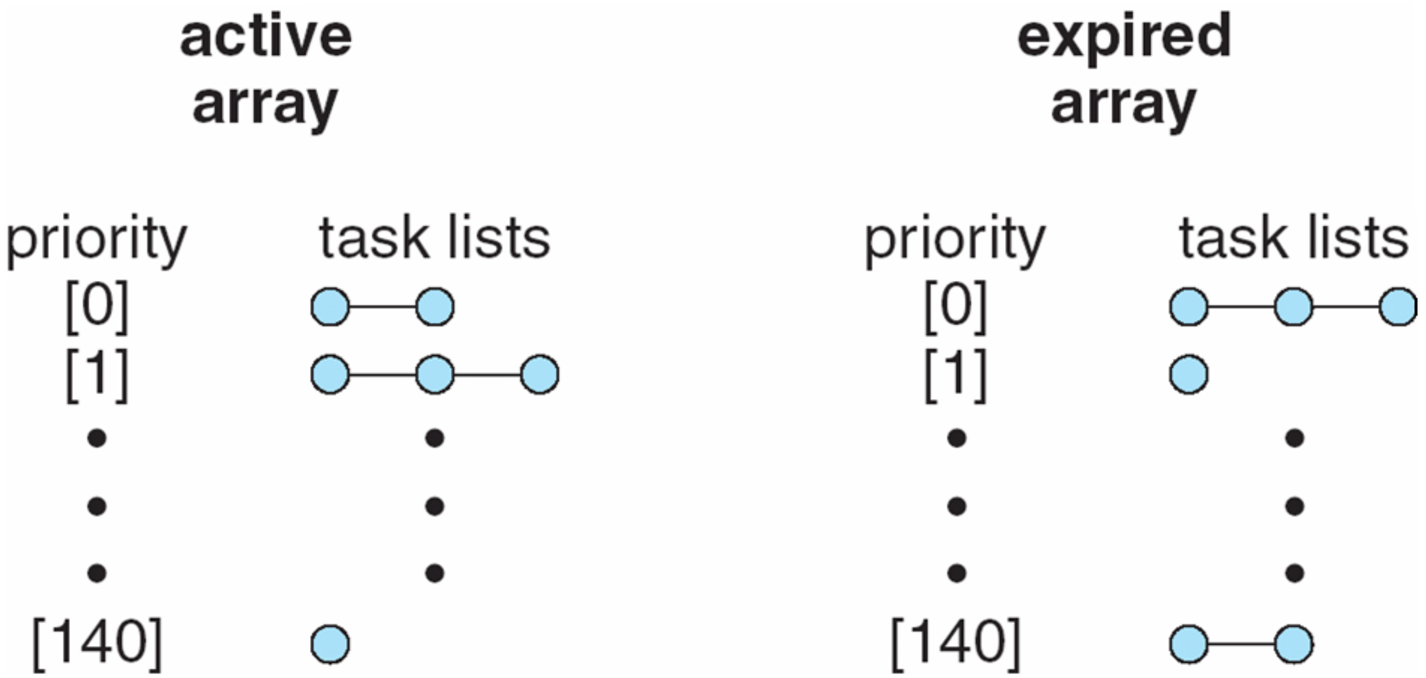
- Prior to kernel version 2.5, ran variation of standard UNIX scheduling algorithm
- Version 2.5 moved to constant order *O*(1) scheduling time
  - Preemptive, priority based
  - Two priority ranges: time-sharing and real-time
  - **Real-time** range from 0 to 99 and **nice** value from 100 to 140
  - 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

Priorities and Time-slice length



RunQueue

- The runqueue consists of two different arrays
  - Active array
  - Expired array



Priority Calculation

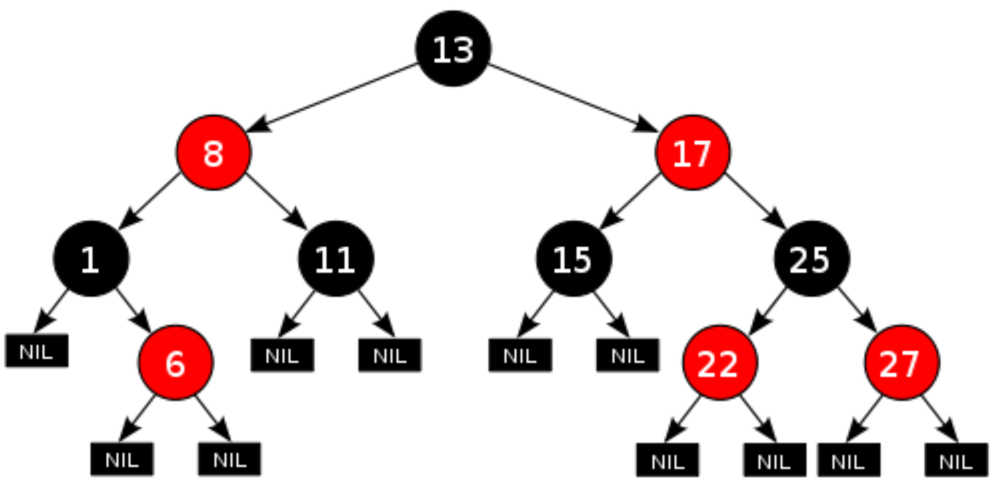
- Real time tasks have static priority
- Time-sharing tasks have dynamic priority
  - Based on nice value +/- 5
  - +/- 5 depends on how much the task is interactive
    - Tasks with low waiting times are assumed to be scarcely interactive
    - Tasks with large waiting times are assumed to be highly interactive
- Priority re-computation is carried out every time a task has exhausted its time slice

Linux 2.6+ Scheduling

- Recent versions of Linux include a new scheduler: Completely Fair Scheduler (CFS)
  - Idea: when the time for tasks is not balanced (one or more tasks are not given a fair amount of time relative to others), then these tasks should be given time to execute.
- CFS registers the amount of time provided to a given task (the virtual runtime)
- The smaller a task's virtual runtime—meaning the smaller amount of time a task has been granted the CPU—the higher its need for the processor.

Linux 2.6+ Scheduling

- Tasks are stored in a red-black tree (not a queue) ordered in terms of virtual time
  - A red-black tree is roughly balanced: any path in the tree will never be more than twice as long as any other path.
  - Insert and deletion are O(log n)



Linux 2.6+ Scheduling

- The scheduler picks the left-most node of the red-black tree. The task accounts for its time with the CPU by adding its execution time to the virtual runtime and is then inserted back into the tree if runnable.
- CFS doesn't use priorities directly but instead uses them as a decay factor for the time a task is permitted to execute.
  - Lower-priority tasks have higher factors of decay, where higher-priority tasks have lower factors of delay.
  - This means that the time a task is permitted to execute dissipates more quickly for a lower-priority task than for a higher-priority task.
  - This avoids maintaining run queues per priority.