# Classifying Scheduling Policies with Respect to Unfairness in an M/GI/1 \*

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#### **ABSTRACT**

It is common to evaluate scheduling policies based on their mean response times. Another important, but sometimes opposing, performance metric is a scheduling policy's fairness. For example, a policy that biases towards small job sizes so as to minimize mean response time may end up being unfair to large job sizes. In this paper we define three types of unfairness and demonstrate large classes of scheduling policies that fall into each type. We end with a discussion on which jobs are the ones being treated unfairly.

# **Categories and Subject Descriptors**

F.2.2 [Nonnumerical Algorithms and Problems]: Sequencing and Scheduling; G.3 [Probability and Statistics]: Queueing Theory; C.4 [Performance of Systems]: Performance Attributes—*Unfairness* 

# **General Terms**

Performance, Algorithms

# **Keywords**

Scheduling; unfairness; M/G/1; FB; LAS; SET; feedback; least attained service; shortest elapsed time; PS; processor sharing; SRPT; shortest remaining processing time; slowdown

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Traditionally the performance of scheduling policies has been measured using mean response time (a.k.a. sojourn time, time in system) [8, 11, 13, 16], and more recently mean slowdown [1, 5, 7]. Under these measures, size based policies that give priority to small job sizes (a.k.a. service requirements) at the expense of larger job sizes perform quite well [15]. However, these policies tend not to be used in practice due to a fear of unfairness. For example, a

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policy that always biases towards jobs with small sizes seems likely to treat jobs with large sizes unfairly [4, 17, 18, 19].

This tradeoff between minimizing mean response time while maintaining fairness is an important design constraint in many applications. For example, in the case of Web servers, it has been shown that by giving priority to requests for small files, a Web server can significantly reduce response times; however it is important that this improvement not come at the cost of unfairness to requests for large files [8]. The same tradeoff applies to other application areas; for example, scheduling in supercomputing centers. Here too it is desirable to get small jobs out quickly, while not penalizing the large jobs, which are typically associated with the important customers. The tradeoff also occurs for age based policies. For example, UNIX processes are assigned decreasing priority based on their current age – CPU usage so far. This can create unfairness for old processes. To address the tension between minimizing mean response time and maintaining fairness, hybrid scheduling policies have also been proposed; for example, policies that primarily bias towards young jobs, but give sufficiently old jobs high priority as well.

Recently, the topic of unfairness has been looked at formally by Bansal and Harchol-Balter, who study the unfairness properties of the Shortest-Remaining-Processing-Time (SRPT) policy under an M/GI/1 system [2]; and by Harchol-Balter, Sigman, and Wierman, who address unfairness under all scheduling policies asymptotically as the job size grows to infinity [9]. In this paper, these results are extended to characterize the existence of unfairness under all priority based scheduling policies, for all job sizes.

In order to begin to understand unfairness however, we must first formalize what is meant by fair performance. In this definition, and throughout this paper we will be using the following notation. We will consider only an M/GI/1 system with a continuous service distribution having finite mean and finite variance. We let T(x) be the steady-state response time for a job of size x, and  $\rho < 1$  be the system load. That is  $\rho \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda E[X]$ , where  $\lambda$  is the average arrival rate of the system and X is a random variable distributed according to the service (a.k.a. job size) distribution F(x) with density function f(x). The slowdown seen by a job of size x is  $S(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} T(x)/x$ , and the expected slowdown for a job of size x under scheduling policy P is  $E[S(x)]^P$ .

DEFINITION 1.1. Jobs of size x are treated fairly under policy P iff  $E[S(x)]^P \leq 1/(1-\rho)$ . Further, a scheduling policy is fair iff it treats every job size fairly.

DEFINITION 1.2. Jobs of size x are treated unfairly under policy P iff  $E[S(x)]^P > 1/(1-\rho)$ . Further, a scheduling policy is unfair iff there exists a job size x that is treated unfairly.

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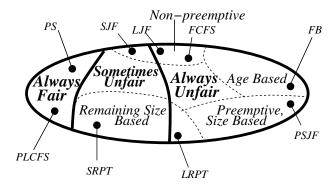


Figure 1: Classification of unfairness showing a few examples of both individual policies and groups of policies within each class.

Definition 1.1 is a natural extension of the notion of fairness used in [2, 9]. Notice that the definition of fairness has two parts. First, the expected slowdown seen by a job of size x must be no greater than a constant (i.e. independent of x). Processor-Sharing (PS) is a common scheduling policy that achieves this. Under PS the processor is shared evenly among all jobs in the system at every point in time. It is well known that  $E[S(x)]^{PS} = 1/(1-\rho)$  [21], independent of the job size x. The second condition of the definition of fairness is that the particular constant must be  $1/(1-\rho)$ . Although this constant may seem arbitrary, in Section 2 we will show that  $1/(1-\rho)$  is the lowest possible constant obtainable under any policy with constant expected slowdown. This fact is a formal verification that  $1/(1-\rho)$  is the appropriate constant for defining fairness.

With these definitions, it is now possible to classify scheduling policies based on whether they (i) treat all job sizes fairly or (ii) treat some job sizes unfairly. Curiously, we find that some policies may fall into either type (i) or type (ii) depending on the system load. We therefore define *three classes of unfairness*:

**Always Fair:** Policies that are fair under all loads and all service distributions.

**Sometimes Unfair:** Policies that are unfair for some loads and some service distributions; but are fair under other loads and service distributions. For most policies in this class we show that there exists a cutoff load  $\rho_{crit}$ , below which the policy is fair for all service distributions, and above which the policy is unfair for at least some service distributions.

**Always Unfair:** Policies that are unfair under all loads and all service distributions.

The goal of this paper is to classify scheduling policies into the above three types (see Figure 1). Scheduling policies are typically divided into non-preemptive policies and preemptive policies. We find that non-preemptive policies can either be Sometimes Unfair or Always Unfair, however preemptive policies may fall into any of the three types. In this paper, we concentrate on preemptive priority based policies. These include policies for which (i) a fixed priority is associated with each possible job size (a.k.a. size based policies), (ii) a fixed priority is associated with each possible job age (a.k.a. age based policies), and (iii) a fixed priority is associated with each possible remaining size (a.k.a. remaining size based policies). Observe that (i) includes policies like Preemptive-Shortest-Job-First where small jobs have higher priority, but also includes perverse policies like Preemptive-Longest-Job-First and

others. Observe that (ii) includes policies like Feedback (FB)<sup>1</sup> scheduling where young jobs are given priority, yet also includes other practical policies that primarily bias towards young jobs and also give high priority to sufficiently old jobs. Observe that (iii) includes policies like Shortest-Remaining-Processing-Time-First and Longest-Remaining-Processing-Time-First that bias towards jobs with small and large remaining times respectively, as well as practical hybrids. We show that all policies in (i) and (ii) are Always Unfair; whereas policies in (iii) can be Sometimes Unfair or Always Unfair.

Lastly, for the case where jobs are being treated unfairly, we investigate *which job sizes* are treated unfairly, and find that these are not necessarily the jobs one would expect. Furthermore, we find that the answer to this question depends on the system load.

#### 2. ALWAYS FAIR

Two well known Always Fair policies are Processor-Sharing (PS) and Preemptive-Last-Come-First-Served (PLCFS). Recall that PLCFS always devotes the full processor to the most recent arrival. Both of these policies have the same expected performance:  $E[S(x)]^{PS} = E[S(x)]^{PLCFS} = 1/(1-\rho)$  for all x. An important open problem not answered in this paper is the question of what other policies are in the Always Fair class. This question has received attention recently in the work of Friedman and Henderson [6], where the authors introduce a new preemptive policy, FSP that falls into this class. Although no queueing analysis of FSP is known, a simulation study suggests that it achieves performance similar to that of Shortest-Remaining-Processing-Time while guaranteeing fairness.

We now address why the value of  $1/(1-\rho)$  appears in the definition of Always Fair. It seems plausible that there exists a policy that is both *strictly fair* in the sense that all job sizes have the same expected slowdown, and has slowdown strictly less than  $1/(1-\rho)$ . We show below that there is no such policy.

THEOREM 2.1. There is no policy P such that  $E[S(x)]^P$  is independent of x and  $E[S(x)]^P < 1/(1-\rho)$ .

This theorem follows from the lemma below, which provides a necessary condition for a policy to be Always Fair. We will appeal to this result in the proof of Theorem 4.1.

Lemma 2.1. If scheduling policy P is Always Fair, then  $\lim_{x\to\infty} E[S(x)]^P = 1/(1-\rho)$ 

PROOF. First, because P is Always Fair,  $E[S(x)]^P \leq 1/(1-\rho)$  for all x, and therefore  $\lim_{x \to \infty} E[S(x)]^P \leq 1/(1-\rho)$ . Thus, we need only show that  $\lim_{x \to \infty} E[S(x)]^P \geq 1/(1-\rho)$ . We accomplish this by bounding the expected slowdown for a job of size x from below, and then showing that the lower bound converges to  $1/(1-\rho)$  as we let  $x \to \infty$ .

To lower bound the expected slowdown, we consider a modified policy  $Q_{x,a}$  that throws away all arrivals whose response time under P is greater than or equal to a and also throws away arrivals with size greater than x. Further,  $Q_{x,a}$  works on the remaining jobs at the exact moments that P works on these jobs. We will begin by calculating the load made up of jobs of size less than y (where y < a < x) under  $Q_{x,a}$ ,  $\rho(y)^{Q_{x,a}}$ . By Markov's Inequality we

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Note that FB is sometimes referred to by two other names: Least-Attained-Service (LAS) and Shortest-Elapsed-Time (SET).

obtain  $P(T(y)^P < a) \ge 1 - \frac{y}{a(1-\rho)}$ . Thus, we see that

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \rho(y)^{Q_{x,a}} & \geq & \lambda \int_0^y \left(1 - \frac{t}{a(1-\rho)}\right) t f(t) dt \\ & = & \rho(y)^P - \frac{\lambda m_2(y)}{a(1-\rho)} \end{array}$$

where  $\rho(y)^P \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda \int_0^y t f(t) dt$  is the load made up by jobs of size less than or equal to y in P and  $m_2(y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_0^y t^2 f(t) dt$ . The intuition behind the remainder of the proof is that as a, y, and x get very large,  $\rho(y)^{Q_{x,a}}$  approaches  $\rho$  which tells us that the load of jobs that must complete before x under P goes to  $\rho$ .

We now derive a lower bound on the response time of a job of size x under policy P. We will be interested in large x, with a < x. We divide  $T(x)^P$  into two parts  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  where  $T_1$  represents the time from when x starts service until it has remaining size a and  $T_2$  represents the time from when x has remaining size a until it completes service. We first note that  $T_2 \geq a$ . To lower bound  $T_1$  consider the set of jobs,  $S_y$ , with size less than y and whose response time under P is less than a. The jobs in  $S_y$  are worked on at the same moments under  $Q_{x,a}$  and P, and they comprise load  $\rho(y)^{Q_{x,a}}$ . During time  $T_1$ , job x receives service under P at most during the time the system is idle of jobs in  $S_y$ , which is  $1-\rho(y)^{Q_{x,a}}$  fraction of the time. Thus

$$E[T_1] \ge \frac{x - a}{1 - \rho(y)^{Q_{x,a}}}.$$

It follows that

$$E[T(x)]^{P} = E[T_{1}] + E[T_{2}] \ge \frac{x - a}{1 - \rho(y)^{Q_{x,a}}} + a$$

$$E[S(x)]^{P} \ge \frac{x - a}{x \left(1 - \rho(y)^{P} + \frac{\lambda m_{2}(y)}{a(1 - \rho)}\right)} + \frac{a}{x}$$

Now, we must set y and a as functions of x such that, as we let  $x \to \infty$ , we converge as desired. Notice that as  $x \to \infty$ , we would like  $\rho(y)^P \to \rho$ ,  $\frac{\lambda m_2(y)}{a(1-\rho)} \to 0$ , and  $\frac{a}{x} \to 0$ . Thus, we must have  $a \ll x$  such that  $y \to \infty$  and  $a \to \infty$ . We can accomplish this by setting  $a = 4\sqrt{x}$  and  $y = \sqrt{x}$ . Notice that  $m_2(\sqrt{x}) \to E[X^2] < \infty$  as  $x \to \infty$ . Now, looking at expected slowdown we see that as  $x \to \infty$ :

$$\begin{split} E[S(x)]^P & \geq & \frac{x - 4\sqrt{x}}{x\left(1 - \rho(\sqrt{x}) + \frac{\lambda m_2(\sqrt{x})}{4\sqrt{x}(1 - \rho)}\right)} + \frac{4\sqrt{x}}{x} \\ & = & \frac{1 - 4/\sqrt{x}}{1 - \rho(\sqrt{x}) + \frac{\lambda m_2(\sqrt{x})}{4\sqrt{x}(1 - \rho)}} + \frac{4}{\sqrt{x}} \\ & \rightarrow & \frac{1}{1 - \rho} \end{split}$$

#### 3. ALWAYS UNFAIR

In this section we will show that a large number of common policies are Always Unfair. That is, many common policies are guaranteed to treat some job size unfairly under all system loads. In each subsection we will investigate a class of common policies, proving that the class is Always Unfair. Figure 2 summarizes the policies that will be looked at in this section.

Section 3.1 illustrates that all non-preemptive policies are unfair for all loads when the service distribution is defined on some neighborhood of zero. However, if the service distribution has a non-zero lower bound then only non-preemptive policies that do not make

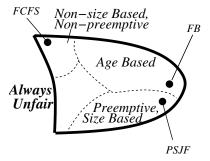


Figure 2: A detail of the Always Unfair classification.

use of job sizes (non-size based) are guaranteed to be unfair for all loads. (Note that among non-preemptive policies it is not possible to prioritize based on age or remaining size.) Section 3.2 shows that any preemptive, size based policy is Always Unfair. In fact, we show that any job size that is assigned a fixed, low priority upon arrival will be treated unfairly. We next discuss policies where a job's priority is a function of its current age. We first investigate a common policy of this type in Section 3.3 and then in Section 3.4 extend the results to show that every age based policy is Always Unfair

# 3.1 Non-size based, non-preemptive policies

The analysis in this section is based on the simple observation that any policy where a small job cannot preempt the job in service will likely be unfair to small jobs. For example, let us begin with the class of non-preemptive policies.

LEMMA 3.1. Any non-preemptive policy P is unfair for all loads under any service distribution defined on a neighborhood of zero.

PROOF. We can bound the performance of P by noticing that, at a minimum, an arriving job of size x must take x time plus the excess of the job that is serving. Thus,  $E[T(x)]^P \geq x + \frac{\rho E[X^2]}{2E[X]}$ . Notice that  $\lim_{x \to 0} E[S(x)]^P = \infty$ . Thus, there exists some job size y such that  $E[S(y)]^P > 1/(1-\rho)$ , for all  $\rho < 1$ .  $\square$ 

The above theorem says that any non-preemptive policy where some fraction of the arriving jobs are tagged as high priority, others are tagged as low priority, and low priority jobs cannot preempt high priority jobs will be unfair to small jobs. Specifically, the small jobs in the neighborhood of zero, regardless of their priority, will have to wait behind the excess of the service distribution. Furthermore, even under policies which do allow some preemption, for example a policy P which allows small jobs to preempt large ones some fraction of the time, there is still unfairness to the small jobs since  $E[S(x)]^P$  will have a term dependent on  $E[X^2]$  which will cause  $E[S(x)] \to \infty$  as  $x \to 0$ . Such policies are unfair for all loads when the service distribution is defined on a neighborhood of zero.

However, under service distributions with non zero lower bounds on the smallest job size a much smaller set of policies can be classified as Always Unfair. These are the non-size based, non-preemptive policies. (Note that the remainder of the possible non-preemptive policies are explored in Section 4.1.)

Theorem 3.1. All non-size based, non-preemptive policies P are Always Unfair.

PROOF. Assume that the service time distribution has lower bound C>0 (we have already dealt with the case of C=0). We

will show that jobs of size C are treated unfairly. Recall that all non-preemptive, non-size based policies have the same expected response time for a job of size x [10].

$$\begin{split} E[T(C)]^P &= C + \frac{\lambda E[X^2]}{2(1-\rho)} \\ &= \frac{C(1-\rho) + \lambda \int_0^\infty (t+C)\overline{F}(t+C)dt}{1-\rho} \\ &= \frac{C - C\rho + C\rho + \lambda \int_0^\infty t\overline{F}(t+C)dt}{1-\rho} \\ &> \frac{C}{1-\rho} \end{split}$$

where the last inequality follows since the service distribution is required to be non-deterministic.

#### 3.2 Preemptive, size based policies

In this section we analyze size based policies (i.e. policies where a job receives a priority based on a bijection of its original size), where higher priority jobs always preempt lower priority jobs. An example of such a policy is Preemptive-Shortest-Job-First (PSJF), which improves overall time in system with respect to PS by biasing towards jobs with small sizes. We seek to understand the unfairness properties caused by this bias. Further, every policy in this class will bias against a particular job size, so it is important to understand if unfairness results from this bias.

THEOREM 3.2. Any preemptive, size based policy is Always Unfair.

The remainder of this section will prove this result. We will break the analysis into two cases: (1) when there exists a finite sized job that has the lowest priority and (2) when there is no finite sized job with the lowest priority. Case (2) will be broken into two subcases: (2.1) when priorities decrease monotonically (i.e., the PSJF policy), and (2.2) when priorities are non-monotonic, but no finite sized job receives the lowest priority. This method of proof will be used again in Section 3.4 and Section 4.3.

It will be helpful in the proofs below if we first analyze the Longest-Remaining-Processing-Time (LRPT) policy. At any given point, the LRPT policy shares the processor evenly among all the jobs in the system with the longest remaining processing time. LRPT has the following expected slowdown [9]:

$$E[S(x)]^{LRPT} = \frac{1}{1-\rho} + \frac{\lambda E[X^2]}{2x(1-\rho)^2}$$

$$= \frac{E[B(x)]}{r} + \frac{E[B(V)]}{r}$$
(1)

where V is the work in the system seen by an arrival and B(x) is the length of a busy period started by a job of size x.

LEMMA 3.2. Under LRPT, for all finite job sizes y,  $E[S(y)]^{LRPT} > 1/(1-\rho)$  under any bounded or unbounded service distribution, for all  $\rho$ . Further,  $E[S(y)]^{LRPT}$  is monotonically decreasing with y to  $1/(1-\rho)$ .

PROOF. The proof is immediate from Equation 1.  $\Box$ 

We are now ready to prove case (1).

LEMMA 3.3. Any preemptive, size based policy P that gives some finite job size y the lowest possible priority is Always Unfair.

PROOF. We will derive the time a job of size y spends in the system. Let T(y) = W(y) + R(y) where W(y) is the time until y first receives service (waiting time) and R(y) is the time from when y first receives service until it completes (residence time). Notice that y must wait behind all jobs that are already in the system. So, its waiting time is W(y) = B(V). Further, since an arriving job will preempt the job with probability one, we know that the residence time R(y) = B(y).

Thus, for jobs of the lowest priority  $E[S(y)]^P = E[S(y)]^{LRPT}$ . Because LRPT has a monotonically decreasing expected slowdown curve that converges to  $1/(1-\rho)$ , we can conclude that no matter what job size has the lowest priority, the expected slowdown of that job size will be strictly greater than  $1/(1-\rho)$ .  $\square$ 

We now move to case (2.1).

LEMMA 3.4. Under PSJF there is some job size y such that for all x>y and for all  $\rho$ ,  $E[S(x)]^{PSJF}>1/(1-\rho)$  under any unbounded service distribution.

PROOF. It is well known that [10]:

$$E[T(x)]^{PSJF} = \frac{\lambda \int_0^x t^2 f(t) dt}{2(1 - \rho(x))^2} + \frac{x}{1 - \rho(x)}$$

where  $\rho(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda \int_0^x t f(t) dt$ . Thus,  $\lim_{x \to \infty} E[S(x)]^{PSJF} = 1/(1-\rho)$  since the service distribution is assumed to have finite variance. To prove the lemma it is sufficient to show that  $\frac{d}{dx}E[S(x)]$  converges to zero from below as  $x \to \infty$ .

By observing that

$$\begin{split} \frac{d}{dx}E[S(x)]^{PSJF} &= \frac{d}{dx}\frac{E[T(x)]^{PSJF}}{x} \\ &= \frac{x\frac{d}{dx}E[T(x)]^{PSJF} - E[T(x)]^{PSJF}}{x^2}, \end{split}$$

our goal reduces to showing that as  $x \to 0$ 

$$x\frac{d}{dx}E[T(x)]^{PSJF} - E[T(x)]^{PSJF} < 0$$
 (2)

Let us begin by calculating

$$\begin{array}{lcl} x \frac{d}{dx} E[T(x)]^{PSJF} & = & \frac{\lambda^2 x^2 f(x) \int_0^x t^2 f(t) dt}{(1 - \rho(x))^3} \\ & + & \frac{3\lambda x^3 f(x)}{2(1 - \rho(x))^2} + \frac{x}{1 - \rho(x)} \end{array}$$

which gives us

$$\begin{aligned} & x \frac{d}{dx} E[T(x)]^{PSJF} - E[T(x)]^{PSJF} \\ &= & \frac{\lambda^2 x^2 f(x) \int_0^x t^2 f(t) dt}{(1 - \rho(x))^3} \\ & + \left( \frac{3\lambda x^3 f(x)}{2(1 - \rho(x))^2} - \frac{\lambda \int_0^x t^2 f(t) dt}{2(1 - \rho(x))^2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Observe that distributions with finite second moments must have  $f(x) = o(x^{-3})$ , where  $g(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} o(h(x))$  if  $\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{g(x)}{h(x)} = 0$ . Using this observation, we see that

$$\lim_{x\to\infty} x \frac{d}{dx} E[T(x)]^{PSJF} - E[T(x)]^{PSJF} = \frac{-\lambda E[X^2]}{2(1-\rho)^2} < 0$$

Recalling Equation 2, we can conclude that as  $x \to \infty$ ,  $E[S(x)] \to$  $1/(1-\rho)$  from above.  $\square$ 

We are now left with only case (2.2).

LEMMA 3.5. Any preemptive, size based policy P where there is no finite job size that receives the lowest priority is Always Un-

PROOF. Note that Lemma 3.4 leaves only the case where for every job size x there is a job size y > x such that the priority of y is less than the priority of x, but the priorities are not decreasing monotonically.

We will complete the proof by taking advantage of our knowledge of PSJF. Choose some job size y such that PSJF treats all job sizes larger than y unfairly. We know that for some size z greater than y, z has a lower priority than all jobs of smaller size. Thus, zis treated, with respect to these smaller jobs, as if it were in PSJF. Further, if jobs larger than z have higher priority than z, they will simply raise  $E[S(z)]^P$ . Thus, z is treated at least as badly as it would have been under PSJF. Since any such z is treated unfairly under PSJF (by Lemma 3.3), this completes the proof.

Notice that under the policies in this section, the job sizes that are treated unfairly depend on how priorities are assigned. When there is a finite job size y that receives the lowest priority, then y is treated unfairly. However, in the case when no job size was given the lowest priority, we see that it is not the largest job that is treated the most unfairly. This follows from the fact that  $\frac{d}{dx}E[S(x)]^{PSJF}$ is decreasing as  $x \to \infty$ . Thus, some other class of large, but not the largest, jobs is receiving the most unfair treatment. This observation is discussed in more detail in Section 3.3.2.

#### 3.3 FB

We now turn to a specific policy, Feedback (FB) scheduling. Under FB, the job with the least attained service gets the processor to itself. If several jobs all have the least attained service, they time-share the processor via PS. This is a practical policy, since a job's age is always known, although its size may not be known. This policy improves upon PS with respect to mean response time and mean slowdown when the job size distribution has decreasing failure rate [20] and closely approximates the optimal policy, Shortest-Remaining-Processing-Time, under distributions with regularly varying tails [3]. We have [10]:

$$E[T(x)]^{FB} = \frac{\lambda \int_0^x t\overline{F}(t)dt}{(1-\rho_x)^2} + \frac{x}{1-\rho_x}$$

where  $\rho_x \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda \int_0^x \overline{F}(t) dt$ .

Given the bias that FB provides for small jobs (since they are always young), it is natural to ask about the performance of the large jobs. Thus, understanding the growth of slowdown as a function of the job size x is important. The following Lemma will be useful in evaluating FB's performance.

LEMMA 3.6. For all x and  $\rho$ ,  $E[T(x)]^{PSJF} \leq E[T(x)]^{FB}$ . PROOF. The proof is simply algebraic

$$E[T(x)]^{PSJF} = \frac{\lambda \int_0^x t^2 f(t) dt}{2(1 - \rho(x))^2} + \frac{x}{1 - \rho(x)}$$

$$\leq \frac{\lambda E[X_x^2]}{2(1 - \rho(x))^2} + \frac{x}{1 - \rho(x)}$$

$$\leq \frac{\frac{1}{2}\lambda E[X_x^2] + x(1 - \rho_x)}{(1 - \rho_x)^2}$$

$$= E[T(x)]^{FB}$$

Theorem 3.3. Under FB scheduling there is some job size y such that for all x > y,  $E[S(x)]^{FB} > 1/(1-\rho)$  under any service distribution, for all  $\rho$ . Furthermore,  $E[S(x)]^{FB}$  is not monotonic

PROOF. The first part of the theorem follows immediately from combining Lemma 3.4 and Lemma 3.6.

For the second part, we show that  $E[S(x)]^{FB}$  is monotonically increasing for small x, but decreasing as  $x \to \infty$ . We start by differentiating response time:

$$x\frac{d}{dx}E[T(x)]^{FB} = \frac{2\lambda^2\overline{F}(x)x\int_0^x t\overline{F}(t)dt}{(1-\rho_x)^3} + \frac{2\lambda x^2\overline{F}(x)}{(1-\rho_x)^2} + \frac{x}{1-\rho_x}$$

which gives us

$$x\frac{d}{dx}E[T(x)]^{FB} - E[T(x)]^{FB}$$

$$= \left(\frac{2\lambda^2\overline{F}(x)x\int_0^x t\overline{F}(t)dt}{(1-\rho_x)^3}\right)$$

$$+ \left(\frac{2\lambda x^2\overline{F}(x)}{(1-\rho_x)^2} - \frac{\lambda\int_0^x t\overline{F}(t)dt}{(1-\rho_x)^2}\right)$$
(3)

Recall from Equation 2 that the above gives us the sign of

 $\frac{d}{dx}E[S(x)]^{FB}$ . There are two terms in Equation 3. The first term is clearly positive. Notice that for x such that  $\overline{F}(x) \ge \frac{1}{4}$  we have:

$$\begin{split} & x \frac{d}{dx} E[T(x)]^{FB} - E[T(x)]^{FB} \\ \geq & \frac{\lambda}{(1 - \rho_x)^2} \left( 2x^2 \overline{F}(x) - \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right) \geq 0 \end{split}$$

which shows that  $E[S(x)]^{FB}$  is monotonically increasing for xsuch that  $F(x) \leq \frac{3}{4}$ .

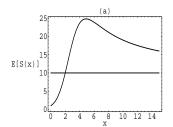
We now prove that the expected slowdown converges to 1/(1 ho) from above as  $x \to \infty$ . First, we know that  $\lim_{x \to \infty} E[S(x)]^{FB} = 1/(1-\rho)$  [9]. Next, Equation 3 gives us the sign of  $\frac{d}{dx} E[S(x)]^{FB}$ . As in the proof of Lemma 3.4, for any distribution with finite second moment, we know that  $\overline{F}(x) =$  $o(x^{-2})$ . Using this observation and the fact that  $\rho_x \to \rho$  as  $x \to 0$ 

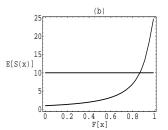
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} x \frac{d}{dx} E[T(x)]^{FB} - E[T(x)]^{FB} = \frac{-\lambda E[X^2]}{2(1-\rho)^2} < 0$$

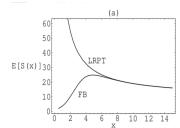
Thus, there exists some job size  $x_0$  such that for all  $x > x_0$ ,  $E[S(x)]^{FB}$  is monotonically decreasing in x.  $\square$ 

The proof of this theorem shows us that all job sizes greater than a certain size have higher mean response time under FB than under PS. Counter-intuitively however, the job that performs the worst is not the largest job. Thus, the intuition that by helping the small jobs FB must hurt the biggest jobs is not entirely true.

Interestingly, this theorem is counter to the common portrayal of FB in the literature. When investigating  $E[S(x)]^{FB}$ , previous literature has used percentile plots such as Figure 3(b), which hide the behavior of the largest one percent of the jobs [12]. When we look at the same plots as a function of job size, such as Figure 3(a), the presence of a hump becomes evident. In fact, even under bounded distributions, this hump seems to exist regardless of the bound placed on x.







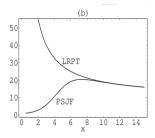


Figure 3: Plots (a) and (b) show the growth of  $E[S(x)]^{FB}$  for  $\rho=.9$ . In both cases the service distribution is taken to be Exponential with mean 1. The horizontal line shows fair performance, thus when  $E[S(x)]^{FB}$  is above this line FB is treating a job size unfairly. Note that job sizes as low as x=5 are already in the 99.9 percentile of the job size distribution.

3.3.1 Who is treated unfairly?

Having shown that some job sizes are treated unfairly under FB scheduling, it is next interesting to understand exactly which job sizes are seeing poor performance. The following theorem places a lower bound on the size of jobs that can be treated unfairly.

Theorem 3.4. For 
$$x$$
 such that  $\rho_x \leq 1 - \sqrt{1-\rho}$ ,  $E[T(x)]^{FB} \leq 1/(1-\rho)$ 

PROOF. The proof will proceed by simply manipulating  $E[T(x)]^{FB}$  .

$$E[T(x)]^{FB} = \frac{\lambda \int_0^x t\overline{F}(t)dt}{(1-\rho_x)^2} + \frac{x}{1-\rho_x}$$

$$\leq \frac{\lambda x \int_0^x \overline{F}(t)dt}{(1-\rho_x)^2} + \frac{x}{1-\rho_x}$$

$$= \frac{\rho_x x}{(1-\rho_x)^2} + \frac{x(1-\rho_x)}{(1-\rho_x)^2} = \frac{x}{(1-\rho_x)^2}$$

Letting  $\rho_x \leq 1 - \sqrt{1-\rho}$  we complete the proof of the theorem.  $\square$ 

It is important to notice that as  $\rho$  increases, so does the lower bound  $1-\sqrt{1-\rho}$  on  $\rho_x$ . In fact, this bound converges to 1 as  $\rho\to 1$ , which signifies that the size of the smallest job that might be treated unfairly is increasing unboundedly as  $\rho$  increases. Interestingly, this work also provides bounds on the job sizes that might be treated unfairly under PSJF due to Lemma 3.6.

#### 3.3.2 Intuition for non-monotonicity

The fact that FB and PSJF have non-monotonic slowdown is somewhat surprising. Below we provide an intuitive explanation for this phenomenon.

For small jobs, it is clear that FB and PSJF provide preferential treatment. Thus it is believable that the slowdown should increase monotonically as job size increases.

Next consider a somewhat large job x, of size x, where this job is large enough that with high probability it is the largest job in any busy period in which it appears. Under FB and PSJF, job x will complete only at the end of the busy period, since it is the largest job in the busy period. Observe that job x will also only complete at the end of its busy period under LRPT, since all jobs complete at the end of the busy period under LRPT. Thus the performance of job x under FB and PSJF may be approximated by the performance of job x under LRPT. Next recall from Lemma 3.2, that the

Figure 4: Plot (a) shows  $E[S(x)]^{LRPT}$  (above) and  $E[S(x)]^{FB}$  (below). Plot (b) shows  $E[S(x)]^{LRPT}$  (above) and  $E[S(x)]^{PSJF}$  (below). In both cases  $\rho=.9$  and the service distribution is taken to be Exponential with mean 1. Notice that the expected slowdown for a job of size x under both FB and PSJF quickly converges to the expected slowdown of x under LRPT.

expected slowdown of job x under LRPT converges monotonically from above to  $1/(1-\rho)$  as  $x\to\infty$ . Thus it follows that the expected slowdown of job x under FB and PSJF also converges monotonically from above to  $1/(1-\rho)$  as  $x\to\infty$ . Further, it is natural that LRPT has a monotonically decreasing tail since the asymptotic behavior of LRPT is the same as the asymptotic behavior of a busy period.

Figure 4(a) shows that FB does in fact converge in performance to LRPT for large job sizes. Figure 4(b) shows the same for PSJF.

## 3.4 Age based policies

FB scheduling is one example of an age based policy (i.e. policies where a job's priority is some bijection of its current age). Age based policies are interesting because they include many hybrid policies where, in order to minimize mean response time and curb the unfairness seen by large jobs, both sufficiently old jobs and very young jobs receive preferential treatment.

Observe that under FB, priority is *strictly decreasing* with age. Thus, a new arrival will run alone until it achieves the age, a, of the youngest job in the system; and then those jobs of age a will timeshare. This timesharing is caused by the fact that if one job starts to run, its priority will drop, causing a different job to immediately run, and so on. In the case of a policy where priority is *strictly increasing* with age, a new arrival always has the lowest priority and can't run until the system is idle.

More generally one can imagine a set of ages whose priorities are the lowest in their neighborhood. Suppose age  ${\cal C}$  represents such a local minimum. Jobs with age  ${\cal C}$  will accumulate, and once one such job begins to run that job will continue running until it hits a lower priority age. Thus, the behavior of age-based policies can be quite varied. In our analyses below we will assume that ties between two jobs of the same age are broken in favor of the job that arrived first.

THEOREM 3.5. Age based policies are Always Unfair.

The remainder of this section will prove this theorem using a method similar to the method used in Section 3.2. We break the analysis into two cases: (1) the case when there exists a finite sized job that has the lowest priority and (2) when there is no finite sized job with the lowest priority. We begin with case (1).

LEMMA 3.7. Any age based policy P where there is a finite age C that receives the lowest priority is Always Unfair.

PROOF. We will show that P must be unfair to a job of size  $C^+$ , where  $C^+$  is infinitesimally larger than C.

First notice that when a job of size  $C^+$  arrives, all the work in the system can be guaranteed to be completed before  $C^+$  leaves. Further, all arriving jobs of size x will have  $\min\{x,C\}$  work completed on them before  $C^+$  leaves the system. Thus we can view this as a busy period and derive:

$$E[T(C^{+})]^{P} = \frac{\frac{\lambda E[X^{2}]}{2(1-\rho)} + C^{+}}{1-\rho_{C}}$$
$$= \frac{\lambda E[X^{2}]}{2(1-\rho)(1-\rho_{C})} + \frac{C^{+}}{1-\rho_{C}}$$

Now, notice that  $E[T(C^+)]^P > C^+/(1-\rho)$  when

$$\frac{\lambda}{2}E[X^2] > C^+ \left(\rho - \rho_C\right)$$

or equivalently

$$(1 - \rho) + \frac{\lambda E[X^2]}{2C^+} > 1 - \rho_C$$

Since  $(1-\rho) \ge (1-\rho_C)$ , the above condition is met for all finite C.  $\square$ 

We now move to case (2).

LEMMA 3.8. Any age based policy where no finite job size has the lowest priority is Always Unfair.

The proof of this final lemma follows from Theorem 3.3 and an argument symmetric to the proof of Lemma 3.5.

#### 4. SOMETIMES UNFAIR

We now move to the class of Sometimes Unfair policies – policies that for some  $\rho$  treat all job sizes fairly, but for other  $\rho$  treat some job size unfairly. In Section 4.1 we return to non-preemptive policies and illustrate that when the service distribution sets a nonzero lower bound on the smallest job size, non-preemptive policies can avoid being Always Unfair by making use of job sizes, but cannot attain the Always Fair class. In Section 4.2 we build on previous work in [2] to show that the Shortest-Remaining-Processing-Time (SRPT) policy is Sometimes Unfair (under both bounded and unbounded distributions). Specifically we show that: for  $\rho \leq \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT}$  is monotonically increasing in x for all x and is always less than or equal to  $1/(1-\rho)$ . However, for  $\rho > \rho_{crit}$ , we see non-monotonic behavior:  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT}$  is monotonically increasing in x for all x such that  $\rho(x) \leq \frac{1}{2}$  but is monotonically decreasing in x for all x greater than some  $x_0$ . We also contrast the behavior of SRPT under bounded versus unbounded service distributions. More generally, in Section 4.3 we analyze the full class of remaining size based policies and show that any remaining size based policy is either Sometimes Unfair or Always Unfair.

#### 4.1 Non-preemptive, size-Based Policies

This section completes the analysis of non-preemptive policies begun in Section 3.1. It is based on the observation that if there is a lower bound on the smallest job size in the service distribution, then it is possible for a non-preemptive policy to avoid being Always Unfair.

THEOREM 4.1. Any non-preemptive, size-based policy P is either Sometimes Unfair or Always Unfair.

PROOF. Recall that  $\lim_{x\to\infty} E[S(x)]^Q = 1$  for all non-preemptive policies Q, by Theorem 4 from [9]. Thus, we can

apply Lemma 2.1 to conclude that a non-preemptive policy Q cannot attain Always Fair. Thus, P (being a non-preemptive policy) must be either Always Unfair or Sometimes Unfair.

Observe there are examples of size based, non-preemptive policies in each of the two classes. For instance, it can easily be shown that the Longest-Job-First (LJF) policy is Always Unfair. However, Shortest-Job-First (SJF) is only Sometimes Unfair – that is, there exist service distributions and loads such that  $E[S(x)]^{SJF} \leq 1/(1-\rho)$  for all x. One example of such a distribution and load is  $(X-2) \sim Exp(1)$  with  $\rho=0.2$ .  $\square$ 

#### **4.2 SRPT**

Under the SRPT policy, at every moment of time, the server is processing the job with the shortest remaining processing time. The SRPT policy is well-known to be optimal for minimizing mean response time [14]. The mean response time for a job of size x is as follows [15]:

$$E[T(x)]^{SRPT} = \frac{\frac{\lambda}{2} \int_{0}^{x} t^{2} f(t) dt + \frac{\lambda}{2} x^{2} \overline{F}(x)}{(1 - \rho(x))^{2}} + \int_{0}^{x} \frac{dt}{1 - \rho(t)} = \frac{\lambda \int_{0}^{x} t \overline{F}(t) dt}{(1 - \rho(x))^{2}} + \int_{0}^{x} \frac{dt}{1 - \rho(t)}$$

where  $\rho(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda \int_0^x t f(t) dt$ .

THEOREM 4.2. For x such that  $\rho(x) \leq \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT}$  is monotonically increasing in x.

PROOF. Begin by defining

$$m_2(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_0^x t^2 f(t) = 2 \int_0^x t \overline{F}(t) dt - 2x^2 \overline{F}(x)$$

Then we can derive

$$\begin{aligned} & x \cdot \frac{d}{dx} E[T(x)]^{SRPT} \\ &= & \frac{2\lambda^2 f(x) x^2 \int_0^x t \overline{F}(t) dt}{(1 - \rho(x))^3} + \frac{\lambda x^2 \overline{F}(x)}{(1 - \rho(x))^2} + \frac{x}{1 - \rho(x)} \end{aligned}$$

which gives us

$$x \cdot \frac{d}{dx} E[T(x)]^{SRPT} - E[T(x)]^{SRPT}$$

$$= \left(\frac{2\lambda^2 f(x) x^2 \int_0^x t \overline{F}(t) dt}{(1 - \rho(x))^3}\right)$$

$$+ \left(\frac{\lambda x^2 \overline{F}(x)}{(1 - \rho(x))^2} - \frac{\lambda \int_0^x t \overline{F}(t) dt}{(1 - \rho(x))^2}\right)$$

$$+ \left(\frac{x}{1 - \rho(x)} - \int_0^x \frac{dt}{1 - \rho(t)}\right)$$

$$= \left(\frac{2\lambda^2 f(x) x^2 \int_0^x t \overline{F}(t) dt}{(1 - \rho(x))^3}\right)$$

$$- \left(\frac{\lambda m_2(x)}{2(1 - \rho(x))^2}\right)$$

$$+ \left(\frac{x}{1 - \rho(x)} - \int_0^x \frac{dt}{1 - \rho(t)}\right)$$

Recall that this expression provides us with the sign of the derivative of slowdown. There are 3 terms in the above expression. The first of these terms is clearly positive. The third of these terms is

also clearly positive. We will complete the proof by showing that the third term is of larger magnitude than the second term.

To obtain a bound on the third term, we can quickly show that

$$\frac{x}{1-\rho(x)} - \int_0^x \frac{dt}{1-\rho(t)} \\
= \int_0^x \frac{(1-\rho(t)) - (1-\rho(x))}{(1-\rho(t))(1-\rho(x))} dt \\
\ge \frac{1}{1-\rho(x)} \int_0^x \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt$$
(4)

To further specify this bound we can compute

$$\int_{0}^{x} \rho(t)dt = \lambda \int_{0}^{x} \int_{0}^{t} sf(s)dsdt$$

$$= \lambda \int_{0}^{x} \int_{s}^{x} sf(s)dtds$$

$$= \lambda \int_{0}^{x} sf(s)(x-s)ds$$

$$= \rho(x)x - \lambda m_{2}(x)$$
 (5)

Finally, putting all three terms back together we see that when  $\rho(x) \leq \frac{1}{2}$ ,

$$x \cdot \frac{d}{dx} E[T(x)]^{SRPT} - E[T(x)]^{SRPT}$$

$$= \left(\frac{2\lambda^2 f(x) x^2 \int_0^x t\overline{F}(t) dt}{(1 - \rho(x))^3}\right)$$

$$-\left(\frac{\lambda m_2(x)}{2(1 - \rho(x))^2}\right)$$

$$+\left(\frac{x}{1 - \rho(x)} - \int_0^x \frac{dt}{1 - \rho(t)}\right)$$

$$\geq -\left(\frac{\lambda m_2(x)}{2(1 - \rho(x))^2}\right) + \left(\frac{\lambda m_2(x)}{1 - \rho(x)}\right)$$

$$\geq 0$$
(6)

COROLLARY 4.1. If  $\rho \leq \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT}$  is monotonically increasing for all x. Furthermore  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT} \leq 1/(1-\rho)$  for all x

PROOF. This follows immediately from the above theorem and by recalling the following result: for any work conserving scheduling policy P,  $\lim_{x\to\infty} E[S(x)]^P \le 1/(1-\rho)$  [9].  $\square$ 

The fact that  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT} \leq 1/(1-\rho)$  for all x when  $\rho < \frac{1}{2}$  was first proven in [2] using a different technique that did not describe the behavior of  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT}$  as a function of increasing x.

The previous theorem showed monotonically increasing slowdown for SRPT under low load. We now show that if load is sufficiently high, a very different behavior occurs.

Theorem 4.3. There exists a  $\rho_{crit} < 1$  such that for all  $\rho > \rho_{crit}$ ,  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT}$  has monotonically decreasing slowdown for  $x \geq x_o$ , for some  $x_o$ . Further, for  $\rho > \rho_{crit}$ , for all  $x > x_o$ ,  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT} > 1/(1-\rho)$  under any unbounded service distribution.

Earlier work (see Theorem 8 of [2]) showed that for a *bounded* job size distribution, the largest job size p has the property that

 $E[S(p)]^{SRPT} > 1/(1-\rho)$ . The above theorem extends this result to unbounded job size distributions by utilizing monotonicity. The monotonicity result above is somewhat surprising. One might assume that the largest jobs are the ones receiving the most unfair treatment under SRPT. This is in fact the case for *bounded* job size distributions, however it is not true for *unbounded* job size distributions

PROOF. The proof for the unbounded case is somewhat technical, but will follow a similar method to the previous proof. We will show that as  $x\to\infty$  the derivative of expected slowdown approaches zero from below.

As in Equation 2, the main section of the proof will again look at  $x \cdot \frac{d}{dx} E[T(x)]^{SRPT} - E[T(x)]^{SRPT}$ . To evaluate the above expression, we need to evaluate Equation 4. Because evaluating the integral in this expression is difficult, we apply the Mean Value Theorem, which tells us that there exists a  $c_x \in [0, x]$  such that

$$\begin{split} &\frac{1}{1-\rho(x)}\int_{0}^{x}\frac{\rho(x)-\rho(t)}{1-\rho(t)}dt\\ =&\ \frac{1}{(1-\rho(x))(1-\rho(c_{x}))}\int_{0}^{x}\rho(x)-\rho(t)dt\\ =&\ \frac{\lambda m_{2}(x)}{(1-\rho(x))(1-\rho(c_{x}))} \end{split}$$

Thus, as  $x \to \infty$ , we apply Equation 6 and the above to obtain:

$$\begin{split} x \cdot \frac{d}{dx} E[T(x)]^{SRPT} - E[T(x)]^{SRPT} \\ = & \left( \frac{2\lambda^2 f(x) x^2 \int_0^x t\overline{F}(t) dt}{(1 - \rho(x))^3} \right) - \left( \frac{\frac{\lambda}{2} m_2(x)}{(1 - \rho(x))^2} \right) \\ + & \frac{\lambda m_2(x)}{(1 - \rho(x))(1 - \rho(c_x))} \\ \rightarrow & - \frac{\frac{\lambda}{2} E[X^2]}{(1 - \rho)^2} + \frac{\lambda E[X^2]}{(1 - \rho)(1 - \rho(c_\infty))} \end{split}$$

So, the derivative of slowdown converges from below when this is less than zero, which occurs when

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 1-\rho(c_{\infty}) &>& 2-2\rho \\ \text{or equivalently, } \rho &>& \frac{1+\rho(c_{\infty})}{2} \end{array}$$

To complete the proof, we need to bound  $\rho(c_\infty)$ . By showing that  $\rho(c_\infty)<1$  we illustrate a  $\rho_{crit}$  such that when  $\rho>\rho_{crit}$ ,  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT}$  will have a monotonically decreasing tail.

To characterize  $\rho(c_x)$  for x > 0 observe that

$$\int_0^x \rho(x) - \rho(t)dt \leq \int_0^x \frac{\rho(x) - \rho(t)}{1 - \rho(t)} dt$$
$$\leq \frac{1}{1 - \rho(x)} \int_0^x \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt$$

and, equivalently,

$$1 \le \frac{\int_0^x \frac{\rho(x) - \rho(t)}{1 - \rho(t)} dt}{\int_0^x \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt} \le \frac{1}{1 - \rho(x)}$$

So,  $c_x$  satisfies

$$\frac{1}{1 - \rho(c_x)} = \frac{\int_0^x \frac{\rho(x) - \rho(t)}{1 - \rho(t)} dt}{\int_0^x \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt}$$

$$\rho(c_x) = 1 - \frac{\int_0^x \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt}{\int_0^x \frac{\rho(x) - \rho(t)}{1 - \rho(t)} dt}$$

$$\rho(c_\infty) = 1 - \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\int_0^x \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt}{\int_0^x \frac{\rho(x) - \rho(t)}{1 - \rho(t)} dt}$$

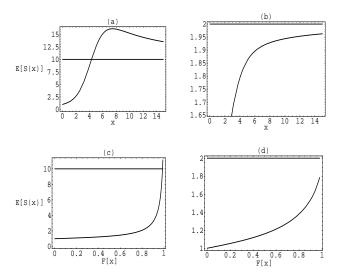


Figure 5: Plots (a) and (c) show the growth of  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT}$  for  $\rho=.9$ , while (b) and (d) show  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT}$  when  $\rho=.5$ . In both cases the service distribution is taken to be Exponential with mean 1. The horizontal line shows fair performance, thus when  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT}$  is above this line SRPT is treating a job size unfairly.

Thus,  $\rho(c_{\infty}) < 1$  when  $\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\int_0^x \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt}{\int_0^x \frac{\rho(x) - \rho(t)}{1 - \rho(t)} dt} > 0$ . The remainder of the proof bounds this value away from zero, which proves the existence of a  $\rho_{crit}$ . Because the remainder of the proof is algebraic, we leave it in Appendix A.  $\square$ 

The existence of this  $x_0$  size beyond which  $E[S(x)]^{SRPT}$  is monotonically decreasing has gone unnoticed by previous research. The reason is that percentile plots are typically used when viewing expected slowdown. As seen in Figure 5, because the hump occurs around the 99th percentile it is hidden when looking at the percentile plots in Figure 5 (c) and (d). Viewing those same plots as a function of job size, such as in Figure 5 (a) and (b), reveals the existence of a hump under high load. Note that the peak of the hump occurs far from the largest job size.

#### 4.2.1 Who is treated unfairly?

Having seen that SRPT is Sometimes Unfair, it is interesting to consider which job sizes are being treated fairly/unfairly. The following theorem shows that as  $\rho$  increases, the number of jobs being treated fairly also increases.

Theorem 4.4. For x such that  $\rho(x) \leq \max\{1-\sqrt{1-\rho},\frac{1}{2}\}$ ,  $E[T(x)]^{SRPT} \leq 1/(1-\rho)$ .

The proof of Theorem 4.4 follows immediately from Theorem 3.4, Theorem 4.2, and the following lemma, which allows us to bound the performance of SRPT by that under FB.

LEMMA 4.1. For all x and  $\rho$ ,  $E[T(x)]^{SRPT} \leq E[T(x)]^{FB}$ .

PROOF. The proof is simply algebraic

$$\begin{split} E[T(x)]^{FB} &= \frac{x(1-\rho_x) + \frac{1}{2}\lambda E[X_x^2]}{(1-\rho_x)^2} \\ &= \frac{x}{1-\rho_x} + \frac{\frac{1}{2}\lambda \left(\int_0^x y^2 f(y) dy + x^2 \overline{F}(x)\right)}{(1-\rho_x)^2} \\ &\geq \frac{x}{1-\rho(x)} + \frac{\frac{1}{2}\lambda \left(\int_0^x y^2 f(y) dy + x^2 \overline{F}(x)\right)}{(1-\rho(x))^2} \\ &= \frac{x}{1-\rho(x)} + \frac{\frac{1}{2}\lambda \int_0^x y^2 f(y) dy + \frac{1}{2}\lambda x^2 \overline{F}(x)}{(1-\rho(x))^2} \\ &> E[T(x)]^{SRPT} \end{split}$$

### 4.2.2 Intuition for dependence on load

Similarly to FB, notice that SRPT exhibits non-monotonicity under high load. Unlike FB however, SRPT does not have this non-monotonicity at all loads. Intuitively, the existence of a *hump* can be explained in the same way as it was for FB and PSJF in Section 3.3.2. Under high load, the large jobs in an SRPT system do not have the opportunity to increase their priority by reducing their remaining size. Thus, the largest job to arrive in a busy period will likely be the last to leave. This leads to unfairness.

However, SRPT does not always treat large jobs unfairly because during *low load*, the large job is often alone in its busy period, which provides it the opportunity to increase its priority as it receives service. Consequently, the large job will sometimes not be the last job to finish in the busy period.

## 4.3 Remaining size based policies

SRPT is one example of a remaining size based policy. In this section we will examine the entire class of remaining size based policies (i.e. policies where a job's priority is some bijection of its remaining size). The class of remaining size based policies includes many hybrid policies; for example policies where, in order to minimize mean response time and curb the unfairness seen by large jobs, both jobs with very small and sufficiently large response times are given preferential treatment.

The class of all remaining size based policies is quite broad. In the same way as for age based policies, there are many possible mappings between priority and remaining size, allowing for multiple local minima in priorities and many interesting behaviors. We will again choose to break ties among jobs in the system with the same priority in favor of the job that arrived first.

Although SRPT is in this class and is Sometimes Unfair, not all such policies are Sometimes Unfair. For instance, the LRPT policy is Always Unfair as shown in Lemma 3.2.

THEOREM 4.5. All remaining size based policies are either Sometimes Unfair or Always Unfair.

The remainder of this section will prove this theorem using the same method that was used in Section 3.4 and Section 3.2. We break the analysis into two cases: (1) the case when there exists a finite sized job that has the lowest priority and (2) when there is no finite sized job with the lowest priority.

LEMMA 4.2. Any remaining size based policy P with a finite remaining size C having the lowest priority is either Always Unfair or Sometimes Unfair.

PROOF. We will begin by deriving the expected performance seen by a job of original size C, entering the system under P. Notice that all work initially in the system will be completed before

C begins to be worked on. In addition, all arrivals during this time that have size less than C will be completed before C leaves the system. However, once C starts being worked on and has remaining size t, the only arrivals that are guaranteed to finish before C leaves the system are those arrivals of size less than t. Thus, we can view this as a busy period and derive

$$E[T(C)]^{P} \ge \frac{\lambda E[X^{2}]}{2(1-\rho)(1-\rho(C))} + \int_{0}^{C} \frac{dt}{1-\rho(t)}$$

We will now show that C will be treated unfairly under high enough load. Using a similar derivation to that shown in Equations 4 and 5, we can see that  $E[T(C)]^P > 1/(1-\rho)$  when

$$\frac{\lambda E[X^2]}{2(1-\rho)(1-\rho(C))} > \frac{C(\rho - \rho(C)) + \lambda m_2(x)}{1-\rho}$$

or, equivalently,

$$\frac{\lambda E[X^2]}{2(1-\rho(C))} - \lambda m_2(C) > C(\rho - \rho(C))$$

or, equivalently

$$(1 - \rho) + \left(\frac{\lambda E[X^2]}{2C(1 - \rho(C))} - \frac{\lambda m_2(C)}{C}\right) > (1 - \rho(C)).$$

Since  $(1-\rho)\geq (1-\rho(C))$ , we immediately see that P cannot be fair if  $\rho(C)>\frac{1}{2}$ . However, when C is the upper bound of a bounded distribution and  $\rho=\frac{1}{2}$ , the bound does not hold. In this case, we need to look at the system under a higher load. We can raise  $\lambda$  so that  $\rho=\rho(C)>\frac{1}{2}$ , in which case the bound holds.

When  $\rho(C)<\frac{1}{2}$  we need to do a more detailed analysis. Since  $\rho(C)<\frac{1}{2}$  we can raise  $\lambda$  so that  $\rho=2\rho(C)$ . Notice that if this is not possible, it means that by raising  $\lambda$  we made  $\rho(C)\geq\frac{1}{2}$ , which we have already dealt with.

When  $\rho=2\rho(C)$ ,  $E[X]=2m_1(C)\stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=}2\int_0^C tf(t)dt$ . Further, this tells us that  $E[X]-m_1(C)=m_1(C)$ , but also  $E[X]-m_1(C)=\int_C^\infty tf(t)dt$ . Thus,  $\int_0^C tf(t)dt=\int_C^\infty tf(t)dt$ . Using this fact, we can notice that

$$E[X^{2}] = \int_{0}^{\infty} t^{2} f(t) dt = \int_{0}^{C} t^{2} f(t) dt + \int_{C}^{\infty} t^{2} f(t) dt$$
  
 
$$\geq m_{2}(C) + C m_{1}(C) \geq 2m_{2}(C)$$

Thus, we can see that

$$\begin{split} &(1-\rho) + \left(\frac{\lambda E[X^2]}{2C(1-\rho(C))} - \frac{\lambda m_2(C)}{C}\right) \\ \geq & (1-\rho) + \left(\frac{\lambda m_2(C)}{C(1-\rho(C))} - \frac{\lambda m_2(C)}{C}\right) \\ > & (1-\rho(C)) \end{split}$$

holds for all finite C.  $\square$ 

LEMMA 4.3. Any remaining size based policy P where an infinitely sized job has the lowest priority is either Sometimes Unfair or Always Unfair.

The proof of this final lemma follows from Theorem 4.3 and an argument symmetric to the proof of Lemma 3.5.

# 5. CONCLUSION

The goal of this paper is to classify scheduling policies in an M/GI/1 in terms of their unfairness. Very little analytical prior work exists on understanding the unfairness of scheduling policies,

and what does exist is isolated to a couple particular policies. This paper is the first to approach the question of unfairness across all scheduling policies. Our aim in providing this taxonomy is, first, to allow researchers to judge the unfairness of existing policies and, second, to provide heuristics for the design of new scheduling policies.

In our attempt to understand unfairness, we find many surprises. Perhaps the biggest surprise is that for quite a few common policies, unfairness is a function of load. That is, at moderate or low loads, these policies are fair to all jobs. Yet at higher loads, these policies become unfair. This leads us to create three classifications of scheduling policies: Always Unfair, Sometimes Unfair, and Always Fair (shown in Figure 1). Rather than classifying individual policies, we group policies into different types: size based, age based, remaining size based, and others. We prove that all preemptive size based and age based policies are Always Unfair, but that remaining size based policies and non-preemptive policies are divided between two classifications. The result that all preemptive size based policies are Always Unfair may seem surprising in light of the fact that one could choose to assign high priority to both small jobs and sufficiently large jobs in an attempt to curb unfairness.

With respect to designing scheduling policies, we find that under high load, almost all scheduling policies are unfair. However under low load one has the opportunity to make a policy fair by sometimes increasing the priority of large jobs. For example, PSJF and SRPT have very similar behavior and delay characteristics, but result in completely different unfairness classifications because SRPT allows large jobs to increase their priority, whereas PSJF does not.

A variety of techniques are used in order to classify policies with respect to fairness. For classifying individual policies it is useful to try to prove monotonicity properties for the policy over an interval of job sizes. It then suffices to consider the performance of the policy on just one endpoint of the interval. In classifying a group of policies, it helps to decompose the group into two cases: the case where the lowest priority job has a finite size/age, and the case where the lowest priority job has infinite size/age. In the latter case, we find that the fairness properties for the entire group of policies reduces to looking at one individual policy.

Since so many policies are Always Unfair, and so many others are Sometimes Unfair, it is interesting to ask *who* is being treated unfairly. Initially it seems that unfairness is an increasing function of job size, with the largest job being treated the most unfairly. This is in fact the case for most bounded job size distributions. However, for unbounded job size distributions, we find this usually not to be the case. Instead, unfairness is monotonically increasing with job size up to a particular job size; and later is monotonically decreasing with job size. Thus the job being treated most unfairly ("top of the hump") is far from the largest. Interestingly, this "hump" changes as a function of load.

The above findings show that we are just beginning to understand unfairness in scheduling policies. This is a fertile area with many more properties yet to be uncovered.

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# **APPENDIX**

#### A. SRPT IS SOMETIMES UNFAIR

We now complete the proof of Theorem 4.3 by showing that  $\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{\int_0^x \rho(x)-\rho(t)\,dt}{\int_0^x \frac{\rho(x)-\rho(t)}{t}\,dt} > 0.$ 

PROOF. We continue by separating the integral in the denominator into three parts using r and s such that  $\rho(r)=f\rho(x)$  and  $\rho(s)=g\rho(x)$  for  $f< g\in (0,1)$ . Note that this is possible under any non-constant service distribution.

$$\int_{0}^{x} \frac{\rho(x) - \rho(t)}{1 - \rho(t)} dt 
= \int_{0}^{r} \frac{\rho(x) - \rho(t)}{1 - \rho(t)} dt + \int_{r}^{s} \frac{\rho(x) - \rho(t)}{1 - \rho(t)} dt 
+ \int_{s}^{x} \frac{\rho(x) - \rho(t)}{1 - \rho(t)} dt 
\leq \frac{1}{1 - \rho(r)} \int_{0}^{r} \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt 
+ \frac{1}{1 - \rho(s)} \int_{r}^{s} \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt 
+ \frac{1}{1 - \rho(x)} \int_{s}^{x} \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt 
def = \frac{1}{1 - \rho(r)} A_{x} + \frac{1}{1 - \rho(s)} B_{x} + \frac{1}{1 - \rho(x)} C_{x}$$

Working with each of the pieces, we can derive

$$\begin{array}{lll} A_x & = & \int_0^r \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt \\ & = & r \rho(x) - r \rho(s) + \lambda m_2(r) \\ & = & r(1-f) \rho(x) + \lambda m_2(r) \\ & \to & r(1-f) \rho + \lambda m_2(r) \text{ as } x \to \infty \\ \\ B_x & = & \int_r^s \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt \\ & = & (s-r) \rho(x) - [s \rho(s) - \lambda m_2(s) - r \rho(r) + \lambda m_2(r)] \\ & = & s(1-g) \rho(x) - r(1-f) \rho(x) + \lambda m_2(s) - \lambda m_2(r) \\ & \to & s(1-g) \rho - r(1-f) \rho + \lambda m_2(s) - \lambda m_2(r) \text{ as } x \to \infty \\ \\ C_x & = & \int_s^x \rho(x) - \rho(t) dt \\ & = & (x-s) \rho(x) - x \rho(x) + \lambda m_2(x) + s \rho(s) - \lambda m_2(s) \\ & = & -s(1-g) \rho(x) + \lambda m_2(x) - \lambda m_2(s) \\ & \to & -s(1-g) \rho + \lambda E[X^2] - \lambda m_2(s) \text{ as } x \to \infty \\ \end{array}$$

Further, we can notice that

$$\lambda m_2(s) = \lambda \int_0^r t^2 f(t) dt + \lambda \int_r^s t^2 f(t) dt$$

$$\geq \lambda m_2(s) + r(\rho(s) - \rho(r))$$

$$= \lambda m_2(s) + r(g - f) \rho(x)$$

$$= \lambda m_2(s) + r(1 - f) \rho(x) - r(1 - g) \rho(x)$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda m_2(s) + r(1 - f) \rho - r(1 - g) \rho \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty$$

Using this calculation in the formula for  $B_x$ , we see that as  $x \to \infty$ 

$$B_x \geq (s-r)(1-g)\rho(x)$$
  
  $\rightarrow (s-r)(1-g)\rho \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \varepsilon$ 

and

$$B_x \leq s(1-g)\rho(x) + \lambda m_2(s)$$
 
$$\to s(1-g)\rho + \lambda m_2(s) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \gamma$$
 Thus, for  $N(A_x) \geq \frac{A_x}{\varepsilon}$  and  $N(C_x) \geq \frac{C_x}{\varepsilon}$ 

$$N(A_x)B \geq A_x$$
  
 $N(C_x)B > C_x$ 

Calculating  $N(A_{\infty}) = \lim_{x \to \infty} N(A_x)$  we see

$$\begin{array}{lcl} N(A_{\infty}) & \geq & \frac{r(1-f)\rho + \lambda m_2(r)}{(s-r)(1-g)\rho} \\ \\ & = & \frac{r(1-f)}{(s-r)(1-g)} + \frac{\lambda m_2(r)}{(s-r)(1-g)\rho} \end{array}$$

and similarly for  $N(C_{\infty}) = \lim_{x \to \infty} N(C_x)$  we obtain

$$N(C_{\infty}) \geq \frac{-s(1-g)\rho + \lambda E[X^2] - \lambda m_2(s)}{(s-r)(1-q)\rho}$$

So, it is sufficient to have

$$N(A_{\infty}) \ge \frac{r(1-f)}{(s-r)(1-g)} + \frac{\lambda E[X^2]}{(s-r)(1-g)\rho}$$
  
 $N(C_{\infty}) \ge \frac{\lambda E[X^2]}{(s-r)(1-g)\rho} - \frac{s}{s-r}$ 

We now have bounds on the pieces of the integral. So, putting everything together we see that

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \frac{\int_{0}^{\infty}\rho-\rho(t)dt}{\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{\rho-\rho(t)}{1-\rho(t)}dt} & \geq & \frac{A+B+C}{\frac{1}{1-\rho(r)}A+\frac{1}{1-\rho(s)}B+\frac{1}{1-\rho}C} \\ & \geq & \frac{A+B+C}{\frac{1}{1-\rho(r)}N_{\infty}(A)B+\frac{1}{1-\rho(s)}B+\frac{1}{1-\rho}N_{\infty}(C)B} \\ & \geq & \frac{B}{\frac{1}{1-\rho(r)}N_{\infty}(A)B+\frac{1}{1-\rho(s)}B+\frac{1}{1-\rho}N_{\infty}(C)B} \\ & = & \frac{1}{\frac{1}{1-f\rho}N_{\infty}(A)+\frac{1}{1-g\rho}+\frac{1}{1-\rho}N_{\infty}(C)} \\ & \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} & \frac{1}{I} \end{array}$$

The quantity  $\frac{1}{l} > 0$  so long as  $s \neq r$ .

To better understand Theorem 4.3 it is interesting to look at the special case where  $X \sim Exp(1)$ . In this case,  $f = \frac{1}{3}$ ,  $g = \frac{2}{3}$ ,  $E[X^2] = 2$ ,  $s \approx \frac{2}{3}$ , and  $r \approx \frac{1}{3}$  (s and r are very approximate). So, we can calculate

$$N(A_{\infty}) \geq \frac{2r}{(s-r)} + \frac{6\lambda E[X^2]}{(s-r)} \approx 38$$
  
 $N(C_{\infty}) \geq \frac{6\lambda E[X^2]}{(s-r)} - \frac{s}{s-r} \approx 35$ 

and

$$l \geq \frac{6}{5}N(A_{\infty}) + \frac{3}{2} + 2N(C_{\infty}) \approx 117.1$$

Theorem 4.3 then tells us that for  $\rho > .99573$ , SRPT will not have slowdown monotonicity under an Exp(1) service distribution. Further, for these  $\rho$ , SRPT is guaranteed to treat some job size unfairly. It is important to point out the looseness of this bound. By plotting the actual equation for expected time in system under an Exp(1) distribution we find that the true critical value for  $\rho$  in this case is just under .7, much lower than the value obtained using the method in the previous proof.