Scheduling Lecture 1: Introduction

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<u>Welcome</u>

- Who am I ?: CNRS researcher at LIP, used to be a student of ENS Lyon, and a PhD student at LIP.
- Any information about the class: loris.marchal@ens-lyon.fr + website (google me)
- Mosty on the board, but slides will be available on the website
- Outline of the class:
 - today: introduction to scheduling
 - after: study of particular scheduling problems
 - focus on scheduling for large-scale platforms
 - at the end: more on-going research stuff
 - evaluations: research papers
- Slides and documentation source:
 - myself (a little bit)
 - Frédéric Vivien http://graal.ens-lyon.fr/~fvivien/
 - EPIT school http:

//graal.ens-lyon.fr/~fvivien/EPIT2007.html,
forthcoming book

<u>Outline</u>

Vocabulary Basic complex scheduling problem Processor scheduling

Graham classification

Types of results: easy and hard problems

Some scheduling problems

$$\begin{split} &1||\sum w_iC_i, \text{ polynomial (Smith-ratio)}\\ &P|prec|C_{\max}, \text{ NP-hard, Graham 2-approx}\\ &1||\sum U_i, \text{ Moore-Hodgson algorithm} \end{split}$$

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- allocation of limited resources to activities over time
- activities: tasks in computer environment, steps of a construction project, operations in a production process, lectures at the University, etc.
- resources: processors, workers, machines, lecturers, rooms, etc.

Many variations on the model, on the resource/activity interaction and on the objective.

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Basic complex scheduling problem

Resource-constrained project scheduling problem:

Schedule activities over time on scarce resources, such that some constraints are satisfied and some objective function is optimized

• n activities (jobs) $j = 1, \ldots n$,

• r renewable resources $i = 1, \ldots, r$

- ▶ *R_k*: amounts of resource *k* available at any time
- ► activity j processed for p_j time units, using an amount r_{j,k} of resource k
- Integer numbers
- $R_k = 1 \Leftrightarrow$ resource disjunctive (0 \Leftrightarrow resource cumulative)
- Precedence constraints: $i \rightarrow j$
 - j cannot start before i is completed
- Precedence constraint graph: DAG (directed acyclic graph)

Basic complex scheduling problem

Objective: find starting time S_j for each activity, such that

- At each time, the total resource demand is less than (or equal to) the resource availability for each resource
- Precedence constraints are satisfied: $S_i + p_i \leq S_j$ if $i \rightarrow j$
- ► conceptMakespan $C_{\max} = \max C_j$ is minimized, with $C_j = S_j + p_j$
- $C_j = S_j + p_j$ implies no preemption (activity splitting).
- ▶ Dummy starting activity 0 + dummy termination activity n + 1, with $S_0 = 0$ and $C_{\max} = C_{n+1}$
- Without preemption, vector S defines a schedule
- ► S is called feasible if all resource and precedence constraints are fulfilled

Basic complex scheduling problem – Example





Generalization of precedence relations

- Generalize precedence relation: $S_i + d_{i,j} \leq S_j$
 - different cases + models all relations between start/finish times
- ► Release times r_j and deadlines d_j : $S_0 + r_j \le S_j$, $S_j - (d_j - p_j) \le S_0$

Communication delays c_{i,j}



Other objectives

• Total flow time: $\sum_{j=1}^{n} C_j$

- Weighted (total) flow time: $\sum_{j=1}^{n} w_j C_j$
- ► With due dates d_j:
 - lateness: $L_j = C_j d_j$
 - tardiness: $T_j = \max\{0, C_j d_j\}$
 - unit penalty: $U_j = 0$ if $C_j \le d_j$, 1 otherwise
- maximum lateness: $L_{mathrmmax} = \max L_j$
- total tardiness $\sum T_j$
- total weighted tardiness $\sum w_j T_j$
- number of late activities $\sum U_j$
- weighted number of late activities $\sum w_j U_j$

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Single processor scheduling

- $n \text{ jobs } J_1, \ldots, J_n \text{ with processing times } p_j$
- 1 processor
- precedence constraint

Example:

- \blacktriangleright 5 jobs, with processing times 3,2,4,2,5
- precedence constraints: $1 \rightarrow 3, 2 \rightarrow 4, 4 \rightarrow 5$



Parellel processor scheduling

- m identical processors P_1, \ldots, P_m
- ▶ all tasks have the same processing time P_j on all processors
- ▶ \Leftrightarrow RCPSP with one machine, $R_1 = m$



Variants:

- unrelated processors: $p_{j,k}$ depends on P_k and J_j
- \blacktriangleright uniform processors: $p_{j,k}=P_j/s_k,\ s_k$ is the speed of processor P_k

Multi-processor task scheduling

- jobs $J_1, \ldots J_n$
- processors P_1, \ldots, P_m
- ▶ each job J_j has processing time p_j , and makes use of a subset of processor $\mu_j \subseteq \{P_1, \ldots, P_m\}$
- + precedence constraints

another variant: identical processors, and each job J_j makes us of any subset of $size_j$ processors

Shop scheduling

Jobs consist in several operations, to be processed on different resources.

General shop scheduling problem:

- ▶ jobs $J_1, \ldots J_n$
- processors P_1, \ldots, P_m
- ▶ J_j consists in n_j operation $O_{1,j}, \ldots, O_{n_j,j}$
- two operations of the same job cannot be processed at the same time
- a processor can process one operation at a time
- ▶ operations O_{i,j} has processing time p_{i,j} and makes use of processor µ_{i,j}
- arbitrary precedence pattern

Shop scheduling

job-shop scheduling problem:

chain of precedence constraints:

$$O_{1,j} \to O_{2,j} \to \dots \to O_{n_j,j}$$

flow-shop scheduling problem:

- special job-shop scheduling problem
- ▶ n_j = m for all j, and µ_{i,j} = P_i for all i, j: operation O_{i,j} must be processed by P_i

open-shop scheduling problem

like a flow-shop, but no precedence constraints

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Classes of scheduling problems can be specified in terms of the three-field classification $\alpha|\beta|\gamma$ where

- α specifies the machine environment,
- β specifies the job characteristics,
- γ and describes the objective function(s).

Graham notation – machines

To describe the machine environment the following symbols are used:

- 1 single machine
- P parallel identical
- Q uniform machines
- R unrelated machines
- MPM multi-purpose machines
- J job-shop
- F flow-shop
- O open-shop

The above symbols are used if the number of machines is part of the input. If the number of machines is fixed to m we write Pm, Qm, Rm, MPMm, Jm, Fm, Om.

Graham notation – Job characteristics

- pmtn preemption
- ▶ r_j release times
- ► d_j deadlines
- ▶ $p_j = 1$ or $p_j = p$ or $p_j \in 1, 2$: restricted processing times
- prec : arbitrary precedence constraints
- intree: (outtree) intree (or outtree) precedences
- chains: chain precedences
- series-parallel: a series- parallel precedence graph

Graham notation – Objectives

- makespan C_{\max}
- ▶ maximum lateness: L_{max}
- mean flow-time $\sum C_i$
- mean weighted flow-time $\sum w_i C_i$
- sum of tardiness $\sum T_j$
- sum of weighted tardiness $\sum w_j T_j$
- number of late jobs $\sum U_j$
- weighted number of late activities $\sum w_j U_j$

(lateness: $L_j = C_j - d_j$, tardiness: $T_j = \max\{0, C_j - d_j\}$, unit penalty: $U_j = 0$ if $C_j \le d_j$, 1 otherwise)

Graham notation – Examples

 $1|r_j; pmtn|L_{\max}$

 $P2|p_j = p; r_j; tree|C_{\max}$

$$Jm|p_{i,j}=1|\sum w_j U_j$$

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Polynomial problems

 \blacktriangleright a solution to a scheduling problem is a function h:

- x is the input (parameters)
- ▶ h(x) is the solution (starting times, etc.)
- |x| defined as the length of some encoding of x
 - usually, binary encoding: integer a encoded in $\log_2 a$ bits
- ► Complexity of an algorithm computing h(x) for all x: running time
- An algorithm is called polynomial, if it computes h(x) for all x it at most O(p(|x|) steps, where P is a polynomial
- A problem is called polynomial if it can be solved by a polynomial algorithm

If we replace the binary encoding by an unary encoding (integer a encoded with size a): we can solve more difficult problems in time polynomial with |x|.

► An algorithm is pseudo-polynomial if it solves the problem for all x with a number of steps at most O(p(|x|) steps, where P is a polynomial and |x| the size of of an unary encoding of x.

Example:

An algorithm for a scheduling problem, whose running time is $O(p_j)$ is pseudo-polynomial.

P and NP

- Decision problems
- To each optimization problem, we can define a decision problem
- ► P: class of polynomially solvable decision problems
- NP: class of polynomially *checkable* decision problems for each "yes"-answer, a certificate exists which can be used to check the answer in polynomial time
- Decisions problems of scheduling problems belongs to NP

▶
$$P \subseteq NP$$
. $P \stackrel{?}{=} NP$ still open

NP-complete problems

- a decision problem Q is NP-complete if all problems in NP can be polynomially reduced to Q
- if any single NP-complete decision problem Q could be solved in polynomial time then we would have P = NP.
- To prove that a problem is NP-complete: reduction to a well-known NP-complete problem
- Weakly NP-complete (or binary NP-complete): strongly depends on the binary coding of the input. If unary coding is used, the problem might become polynomial (pseudo-polynomial).
 - 2-Partition vs 3-Partition

How to solve NP-complete problems ?

Exact methods:

- Mixed integer linear programming
- Dynamic programming
- Branch and bound methods

(usually limited to small instances)

Approximate methods:

- Heuristics (no guarantee)
- Approximation algorithms

Approximation algorithms

Consider a minimization problem. On a given instance x, f(x): value of the objective in the solution given by the algorithm $f^*(x)$: optimal value of the objective

An algorithm is a $\rho\text{-approximation}$ if for any instance x , $f(x) \leq \rho \times f^*(x)$

APX class: problems for which there exists a polynomial-time $\rho\text{-approximation algorithm, for some }\rho>0$

An algorithm is a PTAS (Polynomial Time Approximation Scheme) if for any instance x and any $\epsilon > 0$, the algorithm computes a solution f(x) with $f(x) \le (1 + \epsilon) \times f^*(x)$ in time polynomial in the problem size.

An algorithm is a FPTAS (Fully Polynomial Time Approximation Scheme) if for any instance and any $\epsilon > 0$, it produces a solution f(x) such that $f(x) \leq (1 + \epsilon) \times f^*(x)$, in time polynomial in the problem size and in 1ϵ .

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$1||\sum w_iC_i$, or the Smith-ratio

- Objective: weighted sum of completion times
- Intuitions:
 - put high weight first
 - put longer tasks last
- \blacktriangleright \Rightarrow Order task by non-increasing Smith ratio:

 $w_1/p_1 \ge w_2/p_2 \ge \cdots \ge w_n/p_n$

Proof:

- Consider a different optimal schedule S
- ▶ Let i and j be two consecutive tasks in this schedule such that w_i/p_i < w_j/p_j
- contribution of these tasks in S:

$$S_i = (w_i + w_j)(t + p_i) + w_j p_j$$

contribution of these tasks if switched:

$$S_j = (w_i + w_j)(t + p_j) + w_i p_i$$

we have

$$\frac{S_i - S_j}{2} = \frac{p_i}{2} - \frac{p_j}{2}$$

$$w_i w_j = w_i = w_j$$

Thus we decrease the objective by switching these tasks. 33/43

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$P|prec|C_{max}$, Graham 2-approx

- NP-complete
- reduction to 2-partition (or 3-partition, → unary NP-complete)

Graham list scheduling approximation

- ► Theorem: Any list scheduling heuristic gives a schedule, whose makespan is at most 2 - 1/p times the optimal.
- ▶ Lemma: there exists a precedence path Ψ such that Idle $\leq (p-1) \times w(\Psi)$
 - Consider the task with maximum termination time T_1
 - Let t_1 be the last moment (strictly) before $\sigma(T_1)$ when a processor is not active
 - ► Since a processor is inactive at time t₁, there exists a task T₂, finishing at time t₁, which is an ancestor of T₁ (unless T₁ would be free and scheduled at time t₁ or before)
 - Iterate the process
 - \blacktriangleright All idle times occur during the processing of these tasks, at most on p-1 processors
- Notice that $pC_{\max} = \text{Idle} + \text{Seq}$, with $\text{Seq} = \sum w(T_i)$
- ► We also have Seq $\leq pC_{\max}^{\text{opt}}$, thus $C_{\max} \leq ((p-1) \times w(\Psi)) + (pC_{\max}^{\text{opt}})$
- We also have $w(\Psi) \leq C_{\max}^{opt}$, qed.

The approximation bound is tight



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$1 || \sum U_i$, Moore-Hodgson algorithm

One machine, minimize the number of late jobs

job
 1
 2
 3
 4
 5

 Example:

$$d_j$$
 6
 7
 8
 9
 11

 p_j
 4
 3
 2
 5
 6

Tasks are sorted by non-decreasing d_i : $d_1 \leq \cdots \leq d_n$

- $\blacktriangleright A := \emptyset$
- For $i = 1 \dots n$
 - $Ifp(A) + p_i \leq d_i$, then $A := A \cup \{i\}$
 - Otherwise,
 - Let j be the longest task in $A \cup \{i\}$

•
$$A := A \cup \{i\} - \{j\}$$

Optimal solution : $A = \{2, 3, 5\}$

We first prove that the algorithm produces a feasible schedule:

- By induction: if not task is rejected, ok
- \blacktriangleright Assume that A is feasible, prove that $A \cup \{i\} \{j\}$ is feasible too
 - all tasks in A before j: no change
 - all tasks in A after j: shorter completion
 - ► task i: let k be the last task in A: p(A) ≤ d_k since task j is the longest: p_i ≤ p_j, thus p ∪ {i} - {j} ≤ p(A) ≤ d_k ≤ d_i (because tasks are sorted)

Optimality

Assume that there exist an optimal set ${\cal O}$ different from the set A_f output by the Moore-Hodgson algorithm

- Let j be the first task rejected by the algorithm
- \blacktriangleright We prove that there exists an optimal solution without j
- We consider the set $A = \{1, \ldots, i-1\}$ at the moment when task j is rejected from A, and i the task being added at this moment
- A + i is not feasible, thus O does not contain $\{1, \ldots, i\}$
- ▶ Let k be a task of {1,...,i} which is not in O
- Since the algorithm rejects the longest task, p(O ∪ {k} - {j}) ≤ p(O), and by the same arguments than before, O ∪ {k} - {j} is feasible
- We can suppress j from the problem instance, without modifying the behavior of the algorithm or the objective

We can repeat this process, until we get the set of tasks scheduled by the algorithm.

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Other types of scheduling problems

Online problems

- contrarily to offline, information about future jobs is not known in advance
- competitive ratio: ratio to the optimal offline algorithm
- Distributed scheduling
 - use only local information
- Multi-criteria scheduling
 - several objectives to optimize simultaneously
 - and/or several users, link with game theory
- Cyclic scheduling
 - infinite but regular pattern of tasks