

An Optimal Fully Distributed Algorithm to Minimize the Resource Consumption of Cloud Applications

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Abstract— According to the pay-per-use model adopted in clouds, the more the resources consumed by an application running in a cloud computing environment, the greater the amount of money the owner of the corresponding application will be charged. Therefore, applying intelligent solutions to minimize the resource consumption is of great importance. Because centralized solutions are deemed unsuitable for large-distributed systems or large-scale applications, we propose a fully distributed algorithm (called DRA) to overcome the scalability issues. The aforementioned problem can be solved by identifying an assignment scheme between the interacting components of an application, such as processes and virtual machines, and the computing nodes of a cloud system, such that the total amount of resources consumed by the respective application is minimized. The decisions for the transition from one assignment scheme to another one are made in a dynamic way and based only on local information. It should be stressed that DRA achieves convergence and always results in the optimal solution. We also show, through an experimental evaluation, that DRA achieves up to 55% network cost reduction when compared to the most recent algorithm in the literature.

Keywords- placement; cloud computing; network flow

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last few years, there has been a great effort from the cloud providers to offer user friendly environments that can be used by clients to execute applications. The services are delivered to the cloud users through a pay-per-use-model, which means that the owner of an application is required to pay an amount of money that is (approximately) proportional to the amount of resources the respective application consumes during its execution on the cloud. Therefore, applying intelligent techniques to minimize the resource consumption is of paramount importance.

The aforementioned problem can be solved by identifying an assignment scheme between the interacting components of an application, such as processes and virtual machines, and the computing nodes of a cloud system, such that the total amount of resources consumed by the respective application is minimized. However, the problem is NP-complete for general network graphs, even in the case of unbounded capacity ([1], [8]). Therefore, many researchers have focused on some variations of the network graph, such as homogeneous arrays [5] or trees [6], which facilitates in solving the problem in polynomial time.

The above mentioned problem becomes even more interesting when considering applications that are prone to

load changes. This is due to the fact that in such kinds of problems, an assignment scheme may be optimal for some time interval, while sub-optimal for some other time interval. Therefore, it is meaningful to dynamically reassign the processes to nodes taking into account the new communication demands of the application components. However, extra care must be taken to not make redundant calculations for processes that are already optimally located within the system. Therefore, approaches that build on the min-cut max-flow technique, such as reported in [5] and [6] become inapplicable when considering large-scale applications, because of their extraneous demands of both memory and execution time.

In this work, we aim to solve the following problem: *Assuming that an application is already hosted in a cloud, reassign the application components to nodes of the system so as to minimize the total communication and computational resources consumed by the components of the respective application.*

We approach this problem by proposing a fully distributed algorithm that leverages on the min-cut max-flow technique. It should be stressed that the min-cut algorithm is invoked only for very small portions of the application graph. The main idea behind our algorithm is that each node must identify, based only on local information, which processes or group of processes (hosted by the respective node) must migrate to other locations to minimize the resources consumed by an application. Because the studied problem is intractable for networks that are modeled as general graphs, we restrict the optimality proof of our algorithm to tree-structured networks. However, we extend the functionality of our proposed algorithm to run also on hierarchical networks. Because of the limited space, the complete proof of optimality and convergence of our algorithm is not included in this paper. However, the proofs are made available to the readers as a technical report [15]. The innovation of our work lies in the fact that this is the first time a problem of such nature has been solved in a distributed fashion, leading at the same time to the optimal solution.

This paper is structured as follows: Section II reports the related work; in Section III we describe the system model and rigorously formulate the optimization problem; the proposed algorithm is detailed in Section IV; in Section V we provide an experimental evaluation for the performance of our algorithm; while Section VI concludes the work.

II. RELATED WORK

As discussed in the preceding section, numerous works have been proposed to tackle the aforementioned problem in a centralized way. The most recent ones are discussed in the following text. Initially the problem was tackled for a dual processor system [2], [14]. A great deal of works focused on extending the above solutions to address the case of a fully-connected network of n -processors [1], [8], [19]. Researchers focused also on various structures of graphs, such as tree, linear array, and bipartite graphs to solve the problem optimally [5], [6], [18].

Recently, the above problem has also been tackled as a scheduling problem, with the target function being the minimization of both the makespan and either energy consumption [20] or communication overhead [4], [10]. Other recent works target bi-criteria problems for the MultiProcessor System-on-Chip (MPSoC) architectures [12], [21], [22], [23]. The problem tackled in this paper is also of interest in the field of data engineering; with the goal being to minimize the total communication overhead while executing a large number of queries simultaneously in a distributed environment [7], [11].

Over the last few years, large-scale distributed systems (e.g., clouds, grids, sensor networks etc) gained a lot of attention. Centralized solutions were rendered useless to these systems due to scalability issues, which finally were superseded by distributed solutions. In the following paragraphs we discuss the most recent distributed algorithms related to this problem.

In [9], the authors propose a decentralized algorithm to minimize the communication overhead produced by query operators located in large-distributed systems. Their algorithm takes advantage of the spring relaxation technique to place the query operators in such a way so as to minimize the total network traffic produced by them. The application and the network are modeled as general graphs. Ref. [16] and ref. [17] propose fully distributed algorithms that migrate agents in wireless sensor networks to minimize the total communication cost. The algorithms migrate agents towards the center of gravity of their communication load. Both the application and the network of these works are restricted to tree-structured graphs.

Another work that is closer to our topic is that of Sonnek *et al* [13] that considers virtual machine migrations for minimizing the total communication overhead. They propose a *distributed bartering algorithm* that allows virtual machines (VMs) to negotiate placement on a physical server that is closer to the data they require. They consider general application graph and hierarchical network topologies. The drawback of the aforementioned work is that their algorithm considers migrating the application components as single entities without taking into account groups of mutually dependent components (communicating heavily with each other).

III. SYSTEM MODEL AND PROBLEM FORMULATION

A. System Model

Initially, we assume that our network comprises of N computing nodes structured as a tree, while in the sequel we expand the scope to capture hierarchical topologies (with each node representing a cluster of connected servers). Let n_x be the x^{th} node in the network, while h_{xy} captures the path length between n_x and n_y ($h_{xx} = 0$). Let P be the number of the processes comprising an application to be executed, and p_i define the i^{th} such process. The communication dependencies between processes are encoded by an $P \times P$ matrix denoted by C , with c_{ik} representing the amount of data (in bytes) sent by p_i towards p_k , while “ $c_{ik} + c_{ki}$ ” reflecting the amount of data exchanged between p_i and p_k ($c_{ik} \neq c_{ki}$). Let the execution cost of p_i be known *a priori* and captured by the expression $u_i > 0$. The above are fully compatible with the models adopted in [5], [6], [13], and Amazon EC2 [24].

To capture the communication dependencies between processes (or Virtual Machines (VMs)) and nodes, we extend the number of processes by N virtual ones, with each of them representing a node. Therefore, the data exchanged between a virtual process and a real process represents the communicational demands between the real process and the node represented by the virtual process. Specifically, p_i is a real process iff $0 < i \leq P$, and a virtual one iff $P < i \leq P + N$. By doing so, we are able to extend the matrix encoding the communicational dependencies between processes to an $(P+N) \times (P+N)$ matrix that includes the communication dependencies between processes and nodes (besides the ones between processes). For simplicity, let the virtual process representing n_x be denoted by p_{n_x} .

Figure 1 depicts an example of an application graph, capturing the communication and computational demands of the processes. Specifically, a white rectangle represents a real process, while a black one a virtual process. An edge reflects the communication dependencies between its incident processes, while the number pictured besides an edge signifies the amount of data exchanged between these processes (called weight of the respective edge). Note that in our example, p_1 communicates with two virtual processes (p_{n_1} and p_{n_2}), with that meaning that p_1 has communication dependencies with both n_1 and n_2 . Moreover, the number depicted next to a real process represents the cost of executing the respective process on a node.

B. Problem Formulation

The problem is formally stated as: *given a network of N nodes that host an application of P processes, reassign the processes to nodes such that the application resource utilization is minimized.*

As discussed earlier, the application resource usage depends on both the execution and communication costs incurred by the processes belonging to the respective applications. According to the previous notations, the execution cost of an application can be directly calculated by summing the computational demands of each process.

However, we cannot directly add the data exchanged between the processes to calculate the communication cost. This is because the communication resource usage is directly connected to the links involved for the communication between processes. Therefore, two cases arise for the communication between any pair of processes: **(a)** The processes are located on the same node. Because the inter-process communication is performed by accessing the local memory, the resource usage is negligible; and **(b)** The processes are located on different nodes. In this case, the resource usage is proportional to both the amount of data exchanged and the number of links involved for establishing the communications. The aforementioned model is used by many cloud providers, such as Amazon EC2 to charge the total communication resource usage of an application, which is proportional to the amount of data travelled over the network [24]. By way of example, the communication resource usage between p_i and p_k is equal to $D \times h_{xy}$, given that p_i and p_k exchange D data and they are located on nodes n_x and n_y , respectively. In the case of local communication we have $h_{xx}=0$, which entails that the communication cost is zero.

To express the problem through a rigorous mathematical formulation, we must define the following. Let F be an $P \times N$ matrix capturing the assigned node for each process, with $f_{ix} = 1$ if n_x is assigned to p_i , otherwise $f_{ix} = 0$. Therefore, given an assignment F , the total execution resource usage is given by $execRs(F)$, as described in Eq. 1, while the total communication resource usage (also called the *communication* or *network cost/overhead*) is denoted by $commRs(F)$, as described in Eq. 2. From the above, we can deduce that the total resource usage can be represented by the function $totalRs(F)$, which is expressed by Eq. 3. Therefore, the total resource usage can be minimized by finding an assignment F^* such that Eq. 3 is minimized.

$$execRs(F) = \sum_{i=1}^P \sum_{x=1}^N u_i f_{ix} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

$$commRs(F) = \sum_{i=1}^{P+N} \sum_{k=1}^{P+N} \sum_{x=1}^N \sum_{y=1}^N c_{ik} f_{ix} f_{ky} h_{xy} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

$$totalRs(F) = execRs(F) + commRs(F) \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

It can be seen that the execution cost represented by Eq. 1 does not depend on F (constant). This means that the minimization of Eq. 2 must result in the optimal solution. Therefore, the execution cost is decoupled from our algorithmic design.

IV. DISTRIBUTED REASSIGNMENT ALGORITHM (DRA)

By designing an algorithm that emphasizes on performing light-weight calculations, we do not put the solvability of our problem at risk. This is based on our central idea that we must avoid running into feasibility issues, such as trying to find the min-cut of a graph that does not even fit into the main memory. Therefore, we focus on mechanisms that migrate a process or a small group of processes from one node to another, aiming at the total communication cost reduction. In the first section, we describe the single process migration mechanism. A

significant drawback of the abovementioned mechanism is identified in the second section, leading that mechanism to make sub-optimal decisions. As a remedy to that drawback, we introduce the super-process migration mechanism. In the last section, we provide some implementation details.

A. Single Process Migration Mechanism

Our objective is to perform migrations in such a way that further reduces the current network cost. In this section, we consider migrating processes as singular entities. Therefore, we need a metric to consider whether such a migration contributes negatively or positively to the minimization of the total network cost. To define such a metric, we first need to introduce some extra but necessary notations.

The variable $q_{ik}^z = 1$ iff n_z is used for communication between p_i and p_k , else $q_{ik}^z = 0$. In the special case where p_i and p_k are co-located, then we have $q_{ik}^z = 0$, irrespective of whether n_z is used for their communication or not. Let M_{sd}^i define a migration of process p_i (called *target process*) from the hosting node n_s (called *local node*) towards a 1-hop neighbor n_d (called *destination node*). For any such migration, we need to identify the following:

Positive load pl_{sd}^i : This load represents the gain (in terms of the total communication overhead) when migrating p_i from n_s towards its 1-hop neighbor n_d . Specifically, this migration will bring p_i nearer by 1 hop to the set of processes (hereafter referred as A) that use the destination node n_d (as either a hosting or routing node) to communicate with p_i when the latter is located on n_s . Therefore, the total communication overhead will decrease by an amount that is equal to the volume of data exchanged between p_i and the processes belonging to A (see Eq. 4).

Negative load nl_{sd}^i : This load represents the cost (in terms of the total communication overhead) when migrating a process p_i from n_s towards its 1-hop neighbor n_d . Specifically, when migrating process p_i from n_s towards n_d , p_i will distance itself by 1 hop from the set of processes (hereafter referred as B) that do not use the destination node n_d to communicate with p_i when the latter is located on n_s . Therefore, the total communication overhead will increase by an amount that is equal to the volume of data exchanged between p_i and the processes belonging to B (see Eq. 5).

Migration benefit b_{sd}^i : This represents the metric that assesses whether a migration is beneficial or otherwise. Specifically, the migration of process p_i from n_s to n_d is considered *beneficial* if the positive load pl_{sd}^i is greater than the negative load nl_{sd}^i , otherwise it is considered *non-beneficial*. The benefit b_{sd}^i is expressed by Eq. 6 that states that the migration M_{sd}^i will incur a decrease or an increase in the overall system communication overhead by an amount that is equal to the subtraction of nl_{sd}^i from pl_{sd}^i . If the resultant of the subtraction is zero, then M_{sd}^i will not affect the overall communication overhead. In case the result is a

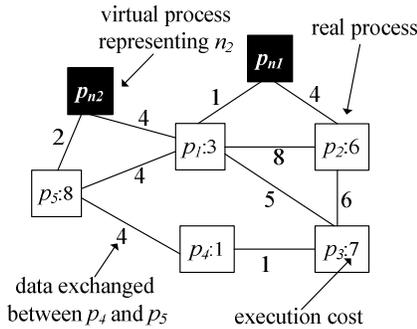


Figure 1. Application graph.

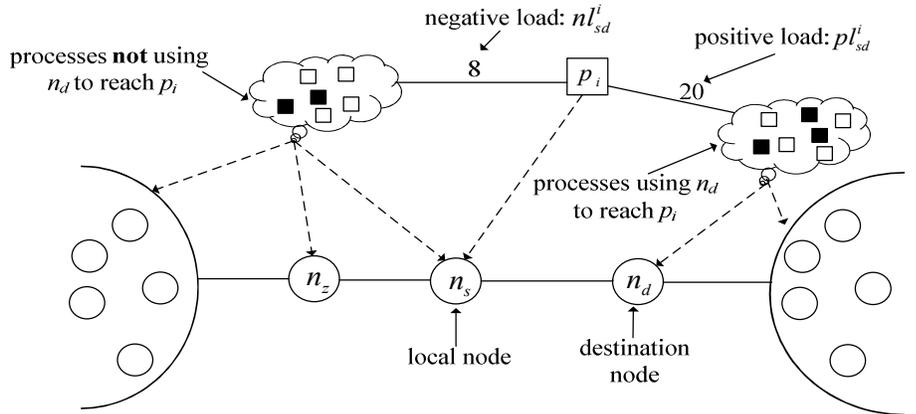


Figure 2. Tentative migration M_{sd}^i along with its positive and negative loads.

positive value, then the overall communication overhead will decrease by an amount equal to that value, otherwise it will be increased.

$$p_{sd}^i = \sum_{k=1}^{P+N} (c_{ik} + c_{ki}) q_{ik}^d \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

$$n_{sd}^i = \sum_{k=1}^{P+N} (c_{ik} + c_{ki}) (1 - q_{ik}^d) \quad \text{Eq. 5}$$

$$b_{sd}^i = p_{sd}^i - n_{sd}^i \quad \text{Eq. 6}$$

Center of gravity: A process is said to be at the center of gravity of its communication load iff there is no possible migration of that process to any 1-hop neighbor (against the current hosting node) that leads to network cost reduction. Otherwise, the process is considered *unbalanced*.

We set out an example to illustrate the aforementioned definitions (see Figure 2). Consider a tentative migration of p_i from n_s to n_d , where according to the preceding text, p_i plays the role of the target process; while n_s and n_d the role of local and destination node, respectively.

- Positive load p_{sd}^i : The cloud at the right side of Figure 2 represents a group of processes that use the destination node n_d as either a hosting or routing node to reach p_i . The amount of data exchanged between p_i and the aforementioned processes represents the positive load p_{sd}^i that is equal to 20.
- Negative load n_{sd}^i : The cloud at the left side of Figure 2 represents a group of processes that do not use the destination node n_d to reach p_i . The amount of data exchanged between p_i and the above mentioned processes represents the negative load n_{sd}^i that is equal to 8.
- Migration benefit b_{sd}^i : According to the definition of migration benefit and Eq. 6, the migration M_{sd}^i will decrease the total communication cost by $12 = 20 - 8 = b_{sd}^i$.

B. Super-process Migration Mechanism

Performing only single process migrations may lead to sub-optimal solutions. Consider the example shown in Figure 3, where the processes p_1 and p_2 are hosted by n_1 . As we can see, the current network cost is equal to 6, the benefit of migrating p_2 towards n_1 is equal to -2 , while the benefit of migrating p_1 to n_2 is equal to -9 . Moreover, it also can be observed that each process is at the center of gravity of its communication load. However, if both processes p_1 and p_2 migrate towards n_2 , then the total network cost will be equal to 1, which is the optimal solution. Therefore, we need to find a methodology to identify groups of processes that their migrations lead into further network cost reduction. Before proceeding with the identification of such groups of processes, we first need to redefine Eq. 4, Eq. 5, and Eq. 6 to express a group of processes instead of a single process. To keep the analysis simple, below we detail a technique that transforms a group of processes into a super-process.

Super-process: According to the following procedure, a group of co-located *real* processes can be transformed into a super-process. The transformation starts by removing all of the edges that connect processes belonging to the targeted group. The above edges are also called *internal edges*, while the edges that connect processes of the targeted group with processes not belonging to that group are called *external edges*. All the external edges of the targeted group become edges of the super-process to be formed. In case the super-process, in question, acquires more than one edge towards an external process, then we merge all of these edges into one, with its weight being equal to the sum of the weights of the merged edges (see Figure 4 for further details).

In the sequel, we give the mathematical equations capturing the positive load, negative load, and migration benefit for a tentative migration M_{sd}^G of a super process P_G .

Positive load PL_{sd}^G : This represents the volume of data exchanged between P_G and the processes using n_d as either a hosting or routing node to reach one of the processes represented by P_G (expressed by Eq. 7).

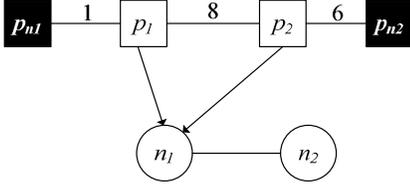


Figure 3. A sub-optimal case when considering only single process migrations.

Negative load NL_{sd}^G : As expressed by Eq. 8, represents the volume of data exchanged between a process belonging to P_G and the processes *not* using n_d to reach one of the processes represented by P_G . Because the processes belonging to P_G will migrate to the same node, the communication between these processes will take place locally. Therefore, the internal load of P_G cannot affect the migration benefit. For that reason, we factor out from NL_{sd}^G the load between any pair of processes that both belong to P_G (see the negative part of Eq. 8).

Migration benefit B_{sd}^G : Represents the benefit of migrating a super-process P_G from n_s towards n_d , which is given by Eq. 9.

$$PL_{sd}^G = \sum_{\forall i: p_i \in P_G} pl_{sd}^i \quad \text{Eq. 7}$$

$$NL_{sd}^G = \sum_{\forall i: p_i \in P_G} nl_{sd}^i - \sum_{\forall i: p_i \in P_G} \sum_{\forall k: p_k \in P_G} c_{ik} \quad \text{Eq. 8}$$

$$B_{sd}^G = PL_{sd}^G - NL_{sd}^G \quad \text{Eq. 9}$$

Center of gravity: Following the respective definition for a single process, we can predicate whether a super-process is at the center of gravity of its communication load or otherwise. However, it is not simple to identify the set of processes that form a super-process that is not at the center of gravity of its communication load. To achieve the above identification, we follow the steps described below.

Identifying a group of processes forming an unbalanced super-process: Assuming a pair of nodes ($n_s, n_d, h_{sd} = 1$). We follow the below mentioned steps to find which super-process must migrate from n_s towards n_d to further reduce the total network cost.

Step 1: Construct a graph (called *min-cut graph*) where the nodes represent the *real* processes hosted by n_s , while the edges represent the communication dependencies between the processes in question.

Step2: Add n_d to the graph and for each process p_i depicted in the graph draw an edge between n_d and p_i , with the weight of such an edge being equal to the positive load pl_{sd}^i . The aforementioned weight represents the partial benefit of migrating p_i towards n_d .

Step 3: Add n_s to the graph and for each process p_i pictured in the graph draw an edge between n_s and p_i , with the weight of that edge being equal to the negative load nl_{sd}^i minus the load between p_i and its *real* co-located processes.

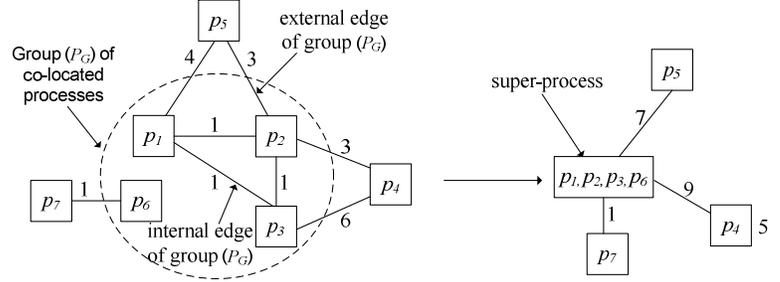


Figure 4. Transforming a group of co-located processes into a super-process.

The above mentioned weight represents the partial cost incurred in case p_i migrates towards n_d . The reason we do not take into account the load between p_i and its real co-located processes is that we are not yet ready to identify whether it is beneficial to migrate p_i 's co-located processes when considering the migration of p_i . However, the above identification takes place when finding the min-cut in the resulting graph (step 5).

Step 4: Remove the edges having weight equal to zero. In case the procedure results in a partitioned graph, then the processes belonging to the same partition as n_d are migrated towards n_d , and we do not proceed to the next step.

Step 5: A min-cut algorithm is applied to the resulting graph, with n_s and n_d playing the role of source and destination, respectively. By doing so, we identify the group of processes (called super-process) that must migrate from n_s towards n_d to maximize the migration benefit. Specifically, the most beneficial super-process is formed by the processes belonging to the same partition as n_d . Note that we always perform the migration of P_G towards n_d , except for the case where the migration benefit is equal to zero. We also must note that the benefit cannot be less than zero as per the definition of min-cut.

Min-cut graph example: Consider the network depicted in Figure 5, which consists of 4 nodes that host an application of 6 real processes. Specifically, n_2 hosts $\{p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4\}$, while n_3 and n_4 host the processes p_4 and p_6 , respectively. To identify the super-process that maximizes the migration benefit from n_2 to n_3 , we apply the following steps:

S1: Construct a graph with the real processes $\{p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4\}$ hosted by n_2 and their in-between edges (left side of Figure 6).

S2: Draw an edge between n_3 (destination node) and each process p_i depicted in the min-cut graph. At the right side of Figure 6, we can see the weight of the edge between p_2 and n_3 , which is equal to $pl_{23}^2 = 7 + 10 = 17$. Note that the processes $\{p_4, p_6\}$ use n_3 to reach p_2 .

S3: Add n_2 (local node) to the graph and draw an edge between n_2 and each process p_i depicted in the min-cut graph. On the right side of Figure 6, we can see the weight of the edge between p_1 and n_2 that is equal to $nl_{23}^1 - (5 + 1) = (6 + 2 + 5 + 1) - (5 + 1) = 8$. Note that "5+1" represents the load between p_1 and its *real* co-located processes $\{p_2, p_3\}$.

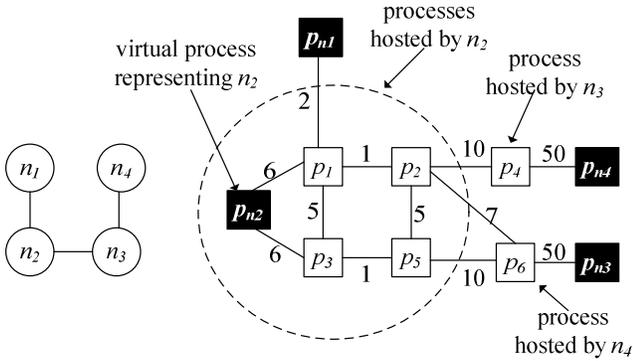


Figure 5. Application example

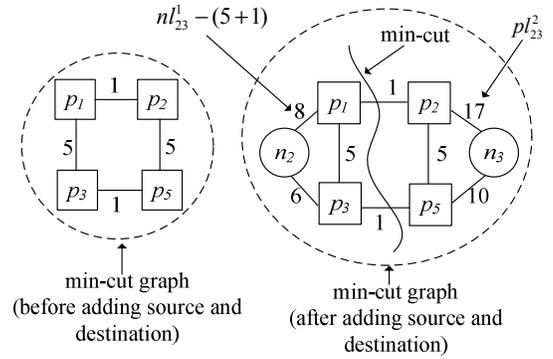


Figure 6. Min-cut graph

S4: Remove any zero-weighted edge that appears in the min-cut graph. The resulting graph is shown on the right side of Figure 6. As we can see, there is no partition in the graph. Therefore we proceed to Step 5.

S5: Applying a min-cut algorithm on the resulting graph reveals that the super-process $P_G = \{p_2, p_5\}$ maximizes the migration benefit from n_2 to n_3 , with $B_{23}^G = 17 + 10 - 2 = 25$. Therefore, by migrating P_G from n_2 to n_3 we reduce the total network cost by 25.

C. Super-process Migration Mechanism

Each node in the system is responsible for migrating or otherwise its hosted processes by invoking the single or super-process migration mechanisms. The single migration mechanism is invoked only in the case where the calling node hosts processes that are not adjacent to each other. Otherwise, the super-process migration mechanism is called to avoid sub-optimal cases, as reported in Figure 3.

Beneficial migrations. For a node to predicate whether a single process or super-process migration is beneficial or not, it needs only the knowledge of: **(a)** the volume of data exchanged for the external communication of the processes it hosts, **(b)** the volume of data exchanged for the internal (local) communication of the processes it hosts, and **(c)** the 1-hop neighbors involved for the aforementioned external communication. Because all of the above mentioned information is already known to the nodes within the system, the execution of DRA is based only on local information.

Dynamic changes. To capture the dynamic changes within the traffic volume between two processes, we adopt the averaging technique used in [13]. Specifically, we maintain the volume of data exchanged between two processes (called p_i and p_j) as an exponential average over its past values:

$$volume_{ij}[t] = a * volume_{ij}[t-1] + (1-a) * c_{ij}[t],$$

where a is the averaging constant with a value between 0 and 1, $volume_{ij}[t]$ and $volume_{ij}[t-1]$ represent the volume computed for the monitoring windows at time t and $t-1$ respectively, while $c_{ij}[t]$ is the traffic measured at time t .

Oscillations. Useless migrations may happen when having frequent transitions from one communication pattern to another one. To avoid such oscillations, we adopt the

technique of *inertia factor* $\gamma > 1$ used in [13]. Each time a node considers whether a migration is beneficial or not, it multiplies the negative load (in Eq. 6 and Eq. 9) with the inertia factor γ .

Hierarchical networks. DRA has been designed to run in tree-structured networks. However, DRA can be easily extended to run in hierarchical networks. Assume a system of N clusters networked as a tree, with each cluster consisting of M fully connected servers. A server belonging to a cluster (hereafter referred as C_s) is allowed to perform an inter-cluster process (or super-process) migration towards an 1-hop neighboring cluster (hereafter, called C_d). Such a migration reduces the network cost iff Eq. 6 (or Eq. 9) gives a benefit greater than zero. Note that s and d in Eq. 6 and Eq. 9 play now the role of C_s and C_d , respectively. If a server cannot perform any inter-cluster migration, then it considers performing beneficial intra-cluster migrations. However, due to the fact that the servers within a cluster are assumed fully connected, we must change the way we calculate the positive and negative load. Specifically, Eq. 4 becomes

$$pl_{sd}^i = \sum_{k=1}^{P+N} (c_{ik} + c_{ki}) f_{dk},$$

which captures the fact that when migrating p_i from server s to server d , the positive load is equal to the sum of the communication load between p_i and any process hosted by the destination server d . While Eq. 5

$$becomes \quad nl_{sd}^i = \sum_{k=1}^{P+N} (c_{ik} + c_{ki}) f_{sk},$$

which states that when migrating p_i from server s to server d the negative load is equal to the sum of the communication load between p_i and any process hosted by the source server s .

Capacity constraints. We extend the functionality of DRA to consider capacity constraints on servers. Specifically, if a node has no sufficient storage or CPU capacity to host a process (super-process), then the migration is cancelled until new resources become available.

V. EVALUATION

A. Experimental Setup

We conducted a series of experiments (using NS-2 [25]) for both tree-structured and hierarchical network graphs. For the experiments of tree-structured network graphs, we

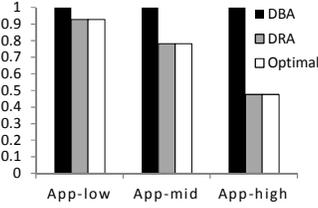


Fig. 7. Normalized communication cost for tree-structured networks (static communication patterns)

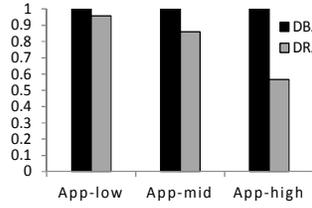


Fig. 8. Normalized communication cost for hierarchical networks (static communication patterns)

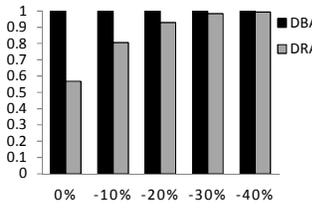


Fig. 9. Normalized comm. cost for hierarchical networks (capacity constraints, static comm. patterns)

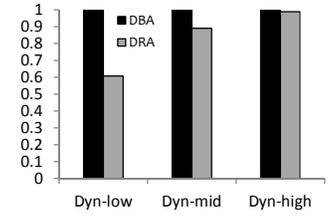


Fig. 10. Normalized communication cost for hierarchical networks (dynamic communication patterns)

generated 5 types of network topologies, with each of them consisting of 100 servers. For the experiments of hierarchical network graphs, we generated 5 types of network topologies, with each of them consisting of 30 clusters (the inter-cluster network was modeled as a tree). Each cluster was assigned a random number (ranging from 5 to 10, uniform distribution) of fully connected servers. Three types of application graphs were generated (App-low, App-mid, and App-high). In an App-low graph, the amount of data exchanged between a pair of processes followed a uniform distribution between 1 and 10 data units per time unit. In an App-mid graph, 50% of the processes are distinguishable as follows: There is an edge (called heavy edge) incident to each such distinguishable process. The weight of such an edge is at least equal to the total weight of the rest edges incident to the respective process. In terms of an App-high graph, the percentage of distinguishable processes becomes 100%. We generated application graphs consisting of 1000 processes. We also generated edges (uniform distribution between 1 and 10 data units per time unit) between processes and servers to capture the data that a process may require from a server to perform its calculations.

The most closely related work to ours is that of [13], with their proposed algorithm being named Distributed Bartering Algorithm (DBA). Recall that both our algorithm (DRA) and that of [13] (DBA): (a) performs migrations of processes (or VMs) to minimize the total communication overhead and (b) use the same system model. Therefore, we chose DBA as a candidate methodology to benchmark the performance of our proposed DRA algorithm. Recall that the difference between DBA and DRA is that the former performs only single process (or VM) migrations, while the latter is able to identify heavy communication dependencies between co-located processes (or VMs) and migrate them as a whole.

As a metric to compare the performance of DBA and DRA we use the *communication cost* (or *network cost*), which is captured by Eq. 2. We must note that in case of hierarchical networks, if the server x and server y belong to the same cluster (intra-cluster cost), then $h_{xv} = 1$; otherwise h_{xv} is equal to the distance (measured in hops) between the corresponding clusters multiplied by the factor 5 (inter-cluster cost). The exponential averaging cost a was fixed to 0.125. We chose the inertia factor γ to be equal to 1 for the static communication pattern cases, while in dynamic communication pattern case we fixed γ to be equal to 1.2. We chose also the monitoring window W to be equal to 20

simulation units. All of the above parameters and the ranges of the parameters are identical to the ones reported in [13].

B. Results

We should note that the first three experiments were conducted with static communication patterns, while the last one with dynamic communication patterns. We report for each experiment the average results for the 5 different network topologies and application graphs, a total of 25 runs for each plot.

In the first experiment, we compared the placements obtained by DBA and DRA, given that there are no capacity constraints on the servers. Specifically, Figure 7 shows the communication cost results normalized by those of DBA, with each plot representing a different application type (App-low, App-mid, and App-high). As we can see, our proposed algorithm achieves up to 55% reduction in the communication cost against DBA. Specifically, in the case of App-low the average network cost reduction is about 5%, in the case of App-mid the reduction increased to 20%, while in the case of App-high the reduction increased to 55%. The above differences in the network cost reduction are due to the fact that more *heavy edges* appear in the application graph. Specifically, the more the heavy edges the greater the probability of sub-optimal cases that arise when considering only single process migrations (see the example in Figure 3). We must stress that we ran the optimal centralized algorithm (called optimal in Figure 7) proposed in [6] to corroborate our proofs about the optimality of DRA.

We repeated the same experiment as that of Figure 7 for hierarchical network topologies (see Figure 8). As it can be observed, DRA achieved lesser network cost reductions compared to the previous case. This observation can be attributed to the fact that DRA is not optimal in hierarchical networks. In terms of hierarchical network topologies, we did not provide any comparison between DRA and the optimal algorithm. The above is justified by the fact that the problem is NP-complete for general hierarchical networks [3] and the execution time of an optimal algorithm would be prohibitive for such large-scale setups.

In the following text, we discuss the results of an experiment for hierarchical graphs (Figure 9) to show the performance of our algorithm compared to the DBA approach when the capacity of the servers decreases. Specifically, we fixed the application model to App-high and run DRA without the capacity constraints on the servers. During this run, we recorded the minimum capacity that each

server needs for making feasible the transition of the initial placement into the final one. Initially, we assigned the corresponding minimum capacity to each server (case 0%), while in the sequel we repeated the experiment by decreasing the corresponding minimum capacity of each server by 10%, 20%, 30% and 40%. As it can be observed, DRA performs better against DBA in all cases. However, in the cases where the capacity of the servers is limited to 30% and 40%, DRA is marginally better than DBA.

In the last experiment (Figure 10), we show the performance of DRA when the communication patterns change over time (dynamic communication patterns). We fixed the application model to App-high, the inertia factor γ to 1.2, and ran DRA for three different scenarios. The aforementioned three scenarios (Dyn-low, Dyn-mid, and Dyn-high) concern the cases where 10%, 40%, and 80% of the heavy edges exchange their communication patterns with light edges. As we can see, DRA outperforms DBA in all cases, with DRA being marginally better in Dyn-high scenario. Specifically, when the number of exchanges increases the discrepancy between the performance of DRA and DBA decreases. The above is attributed to the fact that the bigger the number of exchanges, the less the chances of migrating VMs (or processes), and as a result the less the room for further improvements.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we studied the problem of minimizing the resources consumed by an application during its execution on tree-structured and hierarchical networks. The problem was solved in an optimal way (tree-structured networks) by proposing a fully distributed algorithm guaranteeing convergence. We also conducted an experimental evaluation showing that DRA achieves network cost reduction reaching up to 55% against DBA. Our plans include enhancing the functionality of DRA to take into consideration other network structures besides tree and hierarchical networks.

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