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scientifiques sur le cloud avec
optimisation de l'énergie**

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General introduction

Cloud computing is a distributed heterogeneous computing model providing many services through the Internet without the violation of Service level agreement (SLA). The Cloud services are provided as Infrastructure as a Service (IaaS), Platform as a Service (PaaS) and Software as a Service (SaaS). Cloud computing power is supplied by a collection of data centers (DCs) that are typically installed with massive hosts (physical servers). These hosts are transparently managed by the virtualization services that allow sharing of their capacities among virtual instances of servers (VMS)[52].

In addition, the advent of Cloud computing has another advantage over the massive spread of scientific work. Scientific workflow refers to a series of computations that enable data analysis in a distributed and systematic way; because this workflow has a large number of works, energy consumption is a major problem[13]. However, the execution of scientific workflows needs a huge amount of data or allocates enormous computing resources and big scalability.

The energy consumption of Cloud data centers is an important challenge. Energy consumption is increasing day by day due to a non-energy-aware strategy in resource management. About 0.5% of energy consumption worldwide is related to Cloud data centers, while this is envisaged to be fourfold in 2020[32].

In general, workflow application-oriented energy-aware scheduling in Clouds involves mapping tasks to resources, arranging tasks' execution order and assigning appropriate task execution time, such as optimizing energy consumption and satisfying complex constraints. It is an NP-complete problem and has been researched extensively in the literature[10].

Our objective consists of developing a tool for scheduling workflows on the Cloud using the technique of multiple partitioning of scientific workflows for multi-criteria optimization of planning execution while reducing the energy consumption of this solution.

The structure of this thesis is as follows: In Chapter 1, we provide an overview of the Cloud computing infrastructure that we use for our project. In Chapter 2, we

describe the workflow technology and the scientific workflow. In Chapter 3, we formulate the problem of scheduling the scientific workflows with energy optimization as our main criterion. In Chapter 4, we propose and design our novel approach to solving the problem: MOCS-OViC(Multi-Objective Cloud Scheduler with Optimized Virtual Machines Consolidation for Scientific Workflows). In Chapter 5, we implement, simulate and evaluate our approach and discuss the results and findings.

CHAPTER 1

The Cloud Computing

1.1 Introduction

Nowadays, cloud computing is an emerging technology due to virtualization and providing low price services on pay-as per-use basis and also it is the most popular computing system paradigm in the academic research and industry and it provides cloud services on-demand anywhere and anytime[32].

In this chapter, we will present the most convivial execution infrastructure which is the cloud computing model, its characteristics, its service and deployment models and finally its advantages and obstacles.

1.2 Definition of Cloud Computing

The modern literature provides several definitions of Cloud Computing. Some definitions of Cloud Computing refer to services provided by datacenter, while others define it as a service provided by the Internet. Still, the most quoted definition of Cloud Computing is the NIST definition.

The National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) which is an agency of the United States Department of Commerce whose mission is to promote American innovation and industrial competitiveness, defines cloud computing as follows:

“Cloud computing is a model for enabling ubiquitous, convenient, on-demand network access to a shared pool of configurable computing resources (e.g., networks, servers, storage, applications and services) that can be rapidly provisioned and released with minimal management effort or service provider interaction”[34].

1.3 Characteristics of Cloud Computing

The National Institute of Standards and Technology’s definition[34] of cloud computing identifies "five essential characteristics":

On-demand self-service Consumers of cloud computing services, such as server time and network storage, as needed automatically nearly instant access to resources. To support this expectation, clouds must allow self-service access so that customers can request, customize, pay and use services without the intervention of human operators.

Broad network access Capabilities are available over the network and accessed through standard mechanisms that promote use by heterogeneous thin or thick client platforms (e.g., mobile phones, tablets, laptops and workstations).

Resource pooling The provider’s computing resources are pooled to serve multiple consumers using a multi-tenant model, with different physical and virtual resources dynamically assigned and reassigned according to consumer demand. There is a sense of location independence in that the customer generally has no control or knowledge over

the exact location of the provided resources but may be able to specify location at a higher level of abstraction (e.g., country, state, or datacenter). Examples of resources include storage, processing, memory and network bandwidth.

Rapid elasticity Cloud computing gives the illusion of unlimited computing resources available on demand in any quantity at any time. Therefore, users expect clouds to rapidly provide resources in any quantity at any time. In particular, it is expected that the additional resources can be (a) provisioned, possibly automatically, when an application load increases and (b) released when the load decreases (scale up and down).

Measured service Services must be priced on a short term basis (e.g., by the hour), allowing users to release (and not pay for) resources as soon as they are not needed. For these reasons, clouds must implement features to allow efficient trading of services such as pricing, accounting and billing.

Cloud systems automatically control and optimize resource use by leveraging a metering capability at some level of abstraction appropriate to the type of service (e.g., storage, processing, bandwidth and active user accounts). Resource usage can be monitored, controlled and reported, providing transparency for both the provider and consumer of the utilized service.

Cloud computing has a lot of other characteristics[2]:

1. Performances are being monitored by IT experts from the service provider end.
2. Resources are abstracted or virtualized.
3. Availability improves with the use of multiple redundant sites
4. Customizable: resources rented from the cloud must be highly customizable.
5. Device and location independence which means no maintenance is required.

1.4 Service Models

The National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) has defined 3 services models in their definition[34]:

1.4.1 Software as a Service (SaaS)

The capability provided to the consumer is to use the provider's applications running on a cloud infrastructure. The applications are accessible from various client devices through either a thin client interface, such as a web browser (e.g., web-based email), or a program interface. The consumer does not manage or control the underlying cloud infrastructure including network, servers, operating systems, storage, or even individual application capabilities, with the possible exception of limited user-specific application configuration settings.

1.4.2 Platform as a Service (PaaS)

The capability provided to the consumer is to deploy onto the cloud infrastructure consumer-created or acquired applications created using programming languages, libraries, services and tools supported by the provider. The consumer does not manage or control the underlying cloud infrastructure including network, servers, operating systems, or storage, but has control over the deployed applications and possibly configuration settings for the application-hosting environment.

1.4.3 Infrastructure as a Service (IaaS)

The capability provided to the consumer is to provision processing, storage, networks and other fundamental computing resources where the consumer is able to deploy and run arbitrary software, which can include operating systems and applications. The consumer does not manage or control the underlying cloud infrastructure but has control over operating systems, storage and deployed applications; and possibly limited control of select networking components (e.g., host firewalls).

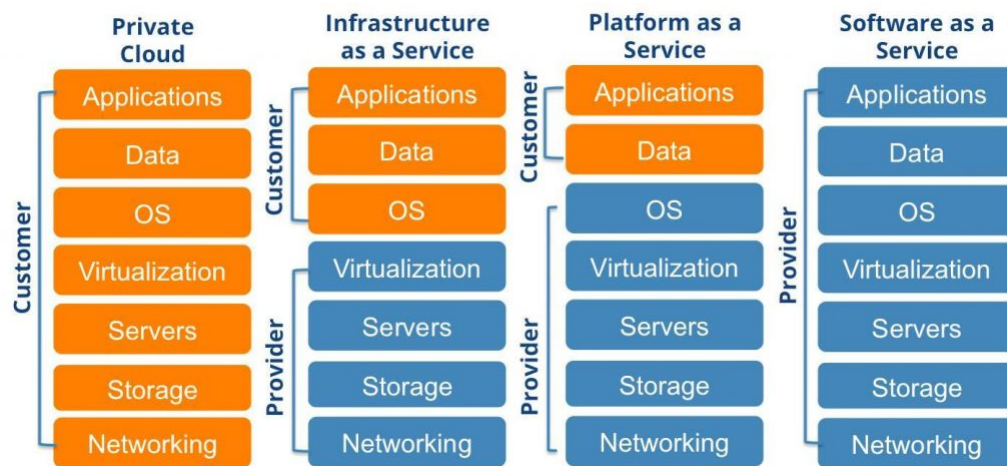


Figure 1.1: Cloud service models from quisted.net

1.5 Deployment Models

There are 5 deployment models of Cloud Computing[34][1]:

1.5.1 Private cloud

The cloud infrastructure is provisioned for exclusive use by a single organization comprising multiple consumers (e.g., business units). It may be owned, managed and operated by the organization, a third party, or some combination of them and it may exist on or off premises.

1.5.2 Community cloud

The cloud infrastructure is provisioned for exclusive use by a specific community of consumers from organizations that have shared concerns (e.g., mission, security requirements, policy and compliance considerations). It may be owned, managed and operated by one or more of the organizations in the community, a third party, or some combination of them and it may exist on or off premises.

1.5.3 Public cloud

The cloud infrastructure is provisioned for open use by the general public. It may be owned, managed and operated by a business, academic, or government organization, or some combination of them. It exists on the premises of the cloud provider.

1.5.4 Hybrid cloud

The cloud infrastructure is a composition of two or more distinct cloud infrastructures (private, community, or public) that remain unique entities, but are bound together by standardized or proprietary technology that enables data and application portability (e.g., cloud bursting for load balancing between clouds).

1.5.5 Multi-Cloud Computing

Multi-Cloud = Any Combination of Native Public Clouds and Private Clouds

Some companies can't use a single public cloud. Their developers may like Google Cloud, while IT operates in Azure both on-premise and in the cloud. Meanwhile, a startup they just acquired runs their killer app in Amazon Web Services (AWS).

This is the multi-cloud model. It's the ultimate flexibility to choose the cloud that best fits the application or business need. It's no wonder organizations overwhelming go the multi-cloud route, often with the inclusion of a hybrid cloud.

The main advantage of this model compared to the public model is avoiding vendor lock-in which will be defined later.

1.6 Benefits of cloud computing

Cloud Computing is fueled in part by its perceived benefits[30][2]. The ideal Cloud Computing infrastructure would possess the following desirable characteristics:

- **Reliability:** Backup and recovery of data are less expensive and extremely fast for business continuity.
- **Scalability:** We can increase or decrease the requirement of resources according to the business requirements.

- **Cost:** Cloud Computing requires significantly lesser capital expenditures to get up and running, it reduces the huge capital costs of buying hardware and software.
- **Speed:** resources can be accessed in minutes, typically within a few clicks, so no more waiting months or years and spending millions of dollars before anyone gets to log into your new solution.
- **Productivity:** Cloud computing technology allows on-the-fly, point-and-click customization and report generation for business users, so IT doesn't spend significant time on such tasks.
- **SLA-driven:** The system is dynamically managed by service-level agreements that define policies such as how quickly responses to requests need to be delivered.
- **Multi-tenancy:** The system is built in a way that allows several customers to share infrastructure with mutual opacity and without compromising privacy and security.
- **Service-oriented:** The system allows composing applications out of discrete, reusable, loosely-coupled services. Changes to, or failure of, a service will not disrupt other services.
- **Virtualized:** Applications are decoupled from the underlying hardware. An application may rely on Grid Computing and multiple applications could run on a single computer.
- **Data, Data, Data:** The key to many of the above desirable characteristics is the management of data: its distribution, partitioning, security and synchronization using technologies like Amazon's SimpleDB (large-scale relational databases) and in-memory data grids. According to premier Cloud Computing vendor, Salesforce.com, given a properly-implemented Cloud Computing solution, a client should experience some or all of the following benefits:
- **Proven Web-services integration:** Cloud Computing technology is much easier and quicker to integrate with other enterprise applications.
- **Support for deep customizations:** The Cloud Computing infrastructure not only allows deep customization and application configuration, but it also preserves all those customizations even during upgrades and with evolving needs, thus freeing up organizational IT resources.
- **Pre-built, pre-integrated apps:** Hundreds of prebuilt applications and application exchange capabilities are either preintegrated into larger, off-the-shelf applications or available for quick integration to form new applications.
- **Security** can improve due to the centralization of data.

1.7 Cloud Computing's obstacles

There are many disadvantages of Cloud Computing. The document [43] list many disadvantages:

1.7.1 Cloud Vulnerability

The primary challenge posed to data management in the cloud is content security. Due to the ease of access to content over the internet, concerns have been raised due to data vulnerability. In a review of cloud security issues, funded by IBM, 382 organizations disclosed cloud security issues in 2016 across 16 different industries. The security issues faced by cloud environments include; the misuse of cloud content, malicious hacking, failure of vendor security and shared technology vulnerabilities. While improve cloud security is an area currently undergoing considerable research and it was observed that the security of cloud content is vulnerable on several levels. On a "communications level" risk arises from the sharing of sensitive information (e.g. access passwords). On a "security level" the cloud is vulnerable to password cracking, cookie poisoning and CAPTCHA breaking among other threats. Moreover, cloud content is subject to Service Level Agreements (SLAs) such as legal or confidentiality requirements which may compromise data security. Due to the multi-tiered vulnerability of cloud architecture, current innovations aiming to improve cloud security are unlikely to remove all levels of threat.

1.7.2 Technical Issues

Although Cloud Computing offers improved efficiency by means of "on-demand" content access, the cloud can also be prone to technical malfunctions such as outages. Even the most established cloud vendors do encounter unexpected technical problems despite generally having high standards of maintenance. It is estimated that cloud services are unavailable for 7.5 hours per year (99.9% reliability). While, at a glance, this figure may seem impressive, it does not reach the expected reliability quotient of 99.999% for sensitive data management.

1.7.3 Cost Creep

At first glance migrating to a "pay-as-you-go" pricing model as employed by many cloud providers may seem financially attractive. However, it has been well documented that organizations that migrate to a cloud environment are often charged with additional hidden usage charges. Additional usage charges can accumulate to be a deterrent to cloud adoption, particularly for smaller enterprises.

1.7.4 Financial Risk in Disaster Scenarios

Cloud users can incur significant costs in cases of a cloud outage, security breach or vendor lock-in (see below). According to the Penomen Institute, for example, in 2016, the average distributed cost incurred by a datacenter outage was almost \$750, 000. In the same year data breaches, depending on their nature, are estimated to have cost between around 130\$ and 170\$ to resolve per record. The cost in these scenarios may fall on either the cloud utilize or the cloud vendor, depending on the predefined contract between the two parties.

1.7.5 Vendor Lock-In

Vendor lock-in problem in cloud computing is characterized by expensive and time-consuming migration of applications and data to alternative providers. Cloud software vendors lock in customers in several ways:

- by designing a system incompatible with software developed by other vendors
- by using proprietary standards or closed architectures that lack interoperability with other applications
- by licensing the software under exclusive conditions.

1.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have presented Cloud Computing and its characteristics, then we have listed the most commonly used services models IaaS, PaaS and SaaS. Also, we have presented several deployment models. Finally, the benefits and obstacles of this computing model were listed.

Cloud computing provides virtualized cloud resources as a service, on demand and a pay-per-use basis. The characteristics of cloud computing such as elasticity and flexibility make this environment a major trend for computation and storage services. These characteristics motivate to execution of scientific applications in the cloud environment[21].

However, processing large scientific applications in the cloud computing environment generates a huge amount of data and hence is very expensive and energy-consuming. Since such complexity in processing these applications can affect the quality of service delivery, scientists have designed a step-by-step sequence (workflow) through which large-scale applications can be executed. A workflow is a sequence of scientific activities that are performed or should be performed to achieve a scientific goal[28]. In the next chapter, we will present workflow and scientific workflows.

CHAPTER 2

Workflow and scientific workflow

2.1 Introduction

Workflows are a systematic way for describing and executing a series of computational and data manipulation steps, or tasks, in a specific application domain.

In this chapter, we present workflow and the Workflow Management System (WfMS) with its architecture. We will also talk about scientific workflows, their life cycle and their types.

2.2 Workflow definition

The WfMC is a consortium formed to define standards for the interoperability of workflow management systems. WfMC define workflow as following:

“Workflow is the sequence of tasks, steps and decisions that need to be followed to complete a specific process. It can be thought of as a set of instructions that describe how a process should be performed, including the order in which tasks are to be completed, who is responsible for performing each task and what should happen next based on the outcome of each task.

Workflows can be used to automate a wide range of business processes, such as invoicing, order fulfillment, human resources and project management. The goal of a workflow is to make sure that tasks are completed in the correct order and by the right people and to ensure that the process is efficient and accurate.”[47].

2.3 Workflow Management System

Every workflow is executed on a workflow management system (WfMS)[24].

2.3.1 Definition

Workflow Management System is defined by WfMC [47] as following:

“A software application that is designed to help organizations automate and manage their business processes. A WfMS allows an organization to define and implement a workflow – a series of tasks, steps and decisions – that need to be followed to complete a specific process. The system can then be used to track the progress of the workflow, manage the flow of information and documents and ensure that tasks are completed in the correct order and by the right people.

A WfMS can be used to automate a wide range of business processes, such as invoicing, order fulfillment, human resources and project management. It can also be used to integrate different systems, such as email, calendar and customer relationship management (CRM) software. WfMS allows you to streamline the process and make it more efficient, reduce errors and delays and give you real-time visibility into the status of your processes, also it’s common to have a built-in reporting and analytics tools to measure the performance of the process”.

2.3.2 Workflow engine architecture

Workflows are compositions of tasks (also referred to as activities) by means of causal or data dependencies that are carried out on a computer. They are executed on a workflow management system (WfMS). A workflow that utilizes Web services (WSs) as implementations of tasks is usually called service composition. Web services are the most prominent implementation of the service oriented architecture (SOA). Web Service technology is an approach to provide and request services in distributed environments independent of programming languages, platforms and operating systems. It is applied in a very wide range of applications where integration of heterogeneous systems is a must[24].

The WfMC has published an architectural Reference Model which provides the general architectural framework for the work of the WfMC. It identifies “interfaces” covering, broadly, five areas of functionality between a workflow management system and its environment[47].

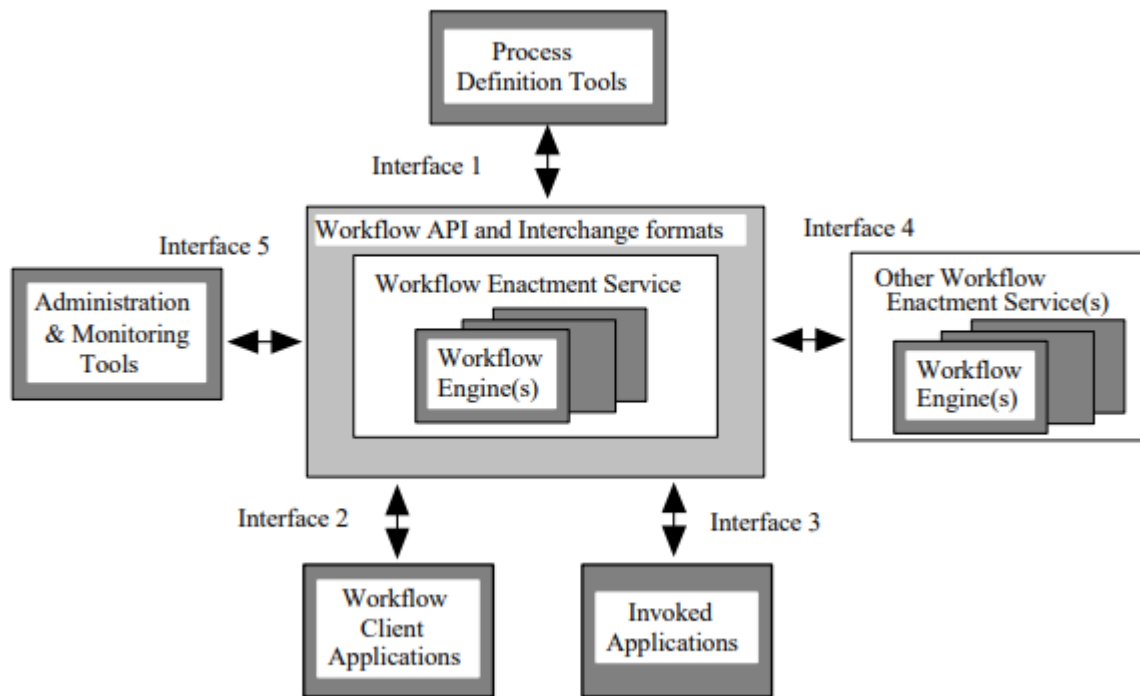


Figure 2.1: Workflow engine architecture[47]

There are 5 interfaces[51] which are:

Interface 1 Web Service (process definition tools) The 1st interface service provides the link between the tools designed for creating and modifying workflow definitions and the workflow enactment service. It controls the system connection. In addition, it inquiries the workflow for process definitions and resource classifications.

Interface 2 (workflow client applications) Through the 2nd interface service, users have access to a work list handler service and enactment services. In addition, the service produces states of cases and work items. The states are also controlled through this service (i.e. start, interruption, hang-up, executing, etc).

Interface 3 (invoked applications) When some tasks of a process need to invoke an application outside of the workflow engine, they directly activate the workflow enactment service through the 3rd interface service and open interactive applications with the current work item of the work list handler.

Interface 4 (other workflow enactment services) The interoperability and communication between workflows become the bottleneck to solve with the recommendations and standards of WfMC. The 4th interface service handles the basic operations to exchange between autonomous workflow systems. Through this interface, workflows transfer cases, resources and work items.

Interface 5 (administration and monitoring tools) The 5th interface manages the administration and the monitoring tools of the workflow system. Through this service, the executing process should be managed, well-supervised and the events should be recorded in log files.

2.4 Scientific workflow

Workflow technology is established in the business domain for several years. This fact suggests the need for detailed investigations in the qualification of conventional workflow technology for the evolving application domain of e-Science[24].

Scientific workflows are specialized forms of workflows that are designed for data-intensive or knowledge-discovery applications in various scientific disciplines. Scientific workflows enable researchers to formulate, share, reuse and validate complex methods that involve different data sources and computational platforms.

2.4.1 Definition

Scientific workflows are data-intensive applications representing distributed data sources and complex computations in various domains, i.e. astronomy, engineering sciences and bioinformatics. In distributed environments various sensors and experimental processes generate a large volume of data that need collection and processing within specific time constraints[27].

2.4.2 Scientific workflow's life cycle[24]

The life cycle of scientific workflows heavily distinguishes from its business counterpart (see Figure 2.2). We inferred the life cycle from observations about the way scientists

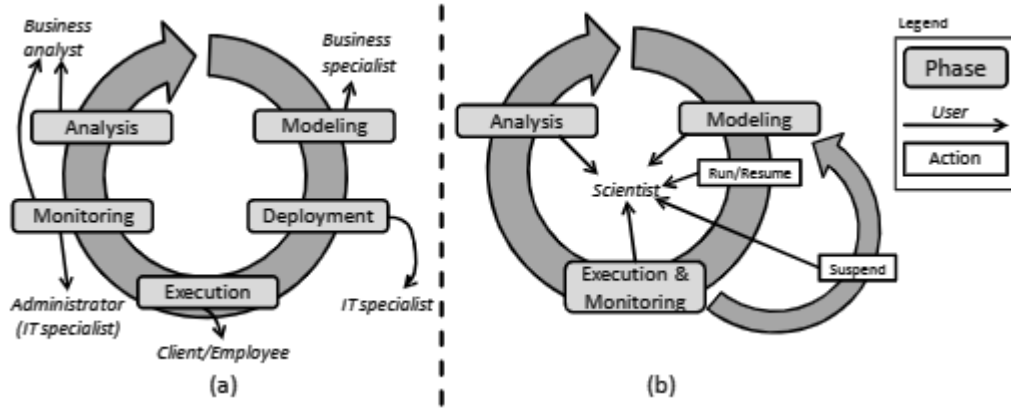


Figure 2.2: Scientific and Business workflow's life cycle [24]

create and conduct experiments and from known properties of scientific simulations and computations.

Typically, there is only one user group, the scientists, playing the roles of a modeler, user, administrator and analyst. The focus of their work is usually on single workflow instances.

To be precise, scientists do not distinguish between workflow models and instances or are not aware of the difference between models and instances, respectively. They set up a simulation and execute it once at a time. Because scientists typically develop their workflow in a trial-and-error manner, modeling and execution phases are not arranged in a strict sequence.

In fact, they can be carried out alternately. An additional cycle, therefore, leads from execution back to the modeling phase with the help of a “suspend” operation on the workflow instance, which remains hidden from the scientists. Technical details are transparent for scientists altogether.

For instance, conventional workflow adaptation is experienced as scientific workflow modeling; the deployment (of parts of a workflow) is part of the “run/resume” operation, which is also hidden for the scientist. Workflow execution starts immediately after modeling.

The traditional execution and monitoring phases are merged into a single phase in the scientific workflow life cycle because from a scientist's point of view monitoring only visualizes a running workflow (instance).

After the execution, a scientist can analyze the computed results and may re-model and re-execute the workflow possibly with different parameters.

2.4.3 Benefits of workflow for the science

Workflows in science provide different benefits[24]:

- they contribute to sharing knowledge by being available as services for collaborating scientists.

- with the help of workflows a community-based analysis of results is supported.
- workflows are able to deal with huge amounts of data, e.g. collected by sensors or calculated by scientific algorithms.
- workflows are capable of running in distributed and highly heterogeneous environments—a common scenario in scientific computations where a great variety of platforms and programming languages is usually employed.
- the automation of steps during workflow design and execution allows scientists to concentrate on solving their main scientific problems.
- workflows can be utilized to conduct scientific simulations in a parallel and automated manner.

2.4.4 Business VS scientific workflows

There are significant differences between business workflows and scientific workflows, which prevent the direct application of the developed adaptation methods[53]:

- Business workflows aim at automating organizational processes that are mainly executed by humans, while scientific workflows aim at validating the hypotheses of a researcher based on available data.
- Business workflows have a predetermined goal, while scientific workflows have experimental and exploratory goals that vary more frequently.
- Business workflows are executed under human control, while scientific workflows are executed fully automatically by a computer.
- Business workflows depend on certain resources including application programs, while scientific workflows depend more strongly on proper parameter settings.

2.5 Main Requirements on scientific WfMS

Workflows in the scientific area make use of a data-centric approach. Typically, huge amounts of data have to be processed, e.g. 5 GB data per day is transmitted by the Hubble telescope and probably need to be processed by a workflow. The modeling language for scientific workflows is primarily data-driven, sometimes with support of a few control structures (e.g. in Taverna, Triana). That means, for accommodating the scientists' needs the main focus of the modeling language should be on data flow while the control flow is considered secondary[24].

There are many requirements listed in [24]:

- **usability:** since the majority of users of WfMS are not computer scientists. A scientist needs the support of easy-to-use tools, automation as far as possible and maximal flexibility in the usage of the WfMS. This means that scientists want to:

1. model their workflows in a convenient.
 2. run their workflows and store their data on resources that are specified by the user himself or automatically chosen by the WfMS.
 3. same support for services used in traditional workflows.
- **flexible**: it means the ability of a system to react to changes in its environment. Approaches to the flexibility of workflows can be divided into two groups:
 1. workflow can be modified according to the changed situation (known as adaptation). Such modifications can address different workflow dimensions (logical, functional and organizational dimension and may be applied to workflow models or single workflow instances.
 2. workflow can be modeled in a way that avoids its modification even in the presence of a changing environment (known as avoid change).
 - **monitoring**: WfMS should support the ability to monitor the status of the workflow execution. For example, the scientist is interested in knowledge about running, finished or faulted activities, allocated resources and the dynamical choice of a service implementation. Inspecting the produced data is also a need.
 - **reproducibility**: is of utmost importance for different reasons. Scientists who are not involved in the execution of the workflow need to be able to retrace the simulation, have to review the findings, or need to use the results. The operating scientist may want to repeat a workflow or parts of it to draw conclusions and to prove statements and assumptions. Additionally, the scientist may share the results with people he collaborates with. While following and reproducing workflow runs and their (intermediate) results scientists use provenance information. Finally, provenance information should be displayed in a way that (non-computer) scientists understand the execution of workflows including the derivation of data.
 - **robustness**: this is an important issue since scientific workflows are long-running. The term robustness denotes the ability to be error-resistant. The needed flexibility mechanisms mentioned above are a way to improve the robustness of a system. But additional approaches are needed to protect the execution progress from being lost in case of unforeseeable failures, to reach a consistent system state even in the presence of failures and to proceed with a simulation/experiment after a failure.
 - **scalability**: scientific workflows should scale with the number of users, number of utilized services, data or calculation resources and involved participants. Today, typical scientific workflows are mostly executed in a central manner on a single machine. A decentralized workflow enactment can help to scale via distributed process execution. It can be achieved, for example, by parallel execution in distributed and heterogeneous execution environments using provisioning techniques.

- **specific requirements:** there are specific requirements for each specific scientific domain, e.g. life science, medical science, chemistry or mechanical engineering. Specific domain-related requirements and the fact that it is hard to cover all scientific domains in one WfMS create the need to extend WfMS and the workflow models and possibly adapt these models and their instances. This includes, for example, domain-specific services, result displays or meta-models for semantic annotations.

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have presented workflow and scientific workflows, their lifecycle, their benefits and the differences between them and business workflows. We have also presented a workflow management system (WfMS) and its architecture and explained how the foreseen system meets the general requirements of scientists and scientific workflows.

Reducing the energy consumption and execution makespan of scientific workflows while keeping the execution cost of workflow tasks within budget is an effective way to address the workflow scheduling problem[28].

In the next chapter, we will introduce the problem of scheduling the scientific workflow on a cloud platform with energy optimization.

CHAPTER 3

Scheduling the scientific workflow on a cloud platform

3.1 Introduction

Large-scale complex scientific applications/workflow are executed and analyzed in multi-disciplinary areas of research such as astronomy and physics. The workflow contains a large number of mutually dependent tasks which are executed according to their dependency constraint. Due to dependency constraints, the child task can start its execution only when the parent task finishes its execution. A directed acyclic graph (DAG) is used to represent workflows. These workflows often have disparate requirements (such as storage and CPU) and constraints (dependency) that need to be accounted for during their execution[21].

In this chapter, we will introduce the scientific workflow scheduling problem, firstly, we model it, then we list some related works that optimize the energy consumption and we finish this chapter with a comparative table.

3.2 Workflow scheduling

In the cloud environment, effective management of scientific workflows is the main challenge since there are numerous virtual machines and many user tasks that should be scheduled by considering dependencies and various objectives[32].

3.2.1 Definition of Task scheduling of scientific workflows

Task scheduling of scientific workflow is extremely important. Task scheduling algorithms are based on appropriate policies to deploy scientific workflow to the physical nodes in the cloud computing system. Because various physical nodes are heterogeneous and their running status is dynamically changed over time, at the same time, the system resources required by users and the request types of users are different, so the design of the scheduling algorithms of scientific workflow is complex in the cloud computing system. A bad scheduling policy can lead to a decline in system performance, a long time span of request feedback, a decrease in user satisfaction and a decrease in system throughput. In general, the goal of task scheduling of scientific workflow in the cloud environment is to optimize the allocation of scientific workflow, maximize user satisfaction and maximize the economic benefits of operators and minimize operating costs[23].

3.2.2 Scientific workflow scheduling

Workflow scheduling calls for high computation and communication costs, especially scientific workflows that have to do with areas such as astronomy and biology are among the most commonly used cloud applications. In cloud computing, a service provider provides users with various capacities at various costs. Usually, faster resources are more expensive than slower ones. Thus, the scheduler with varied resources for workflow will have different runtimes and costs; therefore, there will be various restrictions by the user. The time restriction guarantees that the workflow is done within the time specified by the user. The cost constraint guarantees that the cost does not exceed the budget

established by the user. The optimal response will create a balance between these two criteria[36].

3.2.3 Task scheduling types

Task scheduling can be categorized, as offline scheduling and online scheduling[36].

- Offline scheduling which means the execution time is calculated and mapping tasks shall be examined at pre-scheduled times. This scheduling approach is static. This strategy helps us prepare a supply plan for tasks, allocate resources to them and then execute the tasks according to this supply plan[36]. Static scheduling generates a scheduling plan (SP) that allocates all executable tasks to compute nodes before execution and the WMS strictly adheres to the scheduling plan throughout the duration of the scientific workflow execution. Since it is prior to execution, static scheduling generates little overhead during execution. It is efficient if the WMS can accurately predict the execution time of each task, when the execution environment varies little during workflow execution and when the WMS has sufficient information about the computing and storage capabilities of the corresponding computers. However, when the execution environment undergoes dynamic changes, it is very difficult to achieve load balance. Static task scheduling algorithms have two types of processor selection methods: **heuristic-based** and **guided random search-based**. The heuristic-based method schedules tasks according to a predefined rule while the random search-based method schedules tasks randomly[8].
- The second approach is online task scheduling, which means dynamic scheduling tasks, where one needs to use and consider available resources rather than operating time. The tasks will be performed without delay, using the available resources[36]. Dynamic scheduling produces scheduling plans that distribute and allocate executable tasks to compute nodes during workflow execution. This type of scheduling is suitable for scientific workflows, in which the workload of tasks is difficult to estimate, or for environments where computer capabilities vary greatly during execution. It should be noted that dynamic scheduling requires time to dynamically generate scheduling plans during execution. Dynamic scheduling algorithms can be based on queueing techniques in a publish/subscribe model with different strategies such as First In First Out (FIFO), adaptive, etc[8].

3.2.4 Scheduling objectives

There are many scheduling objectives[37]:

3.2.4.1 Cost

The minimization of the execution cost or the respect of user-defined budget: for the user, reducing execution cost is of capital importance. Users sometimes have a cap on the amount of money spent on resources (i.e. budget). Minimizing execution costs and taking into account user-defined budgets in a scheduling strategy is crucial.

3.2.4.2 Makespan

The minimization of the execution time or the respect of user-defined deadline as in the case of the execution cost, execution time and deadline are of capital importance for cloud users. Therefore, scheduling strategies must strive to reduce the makespan while mapping workflow tasks on cloud resources and be aware of the user-defined deadline.

3.2.4.3 Workload Maximization

The maximization of the workload aims at maximizing the amount of work done, that is, the number of workflows executed.

3.2.4.4 Maximization of VM utilization

Idle time slots in provisioned VMs are deemed as a waste of money as they were paid for but not utilized and as a result, algorithms try to avoid them in their schedules. Minimizing idle time slots and maximizing the utilization of resources helps reduce execution costs as well as energy consumption, engraving profit to providers.

3.2.4.5 Energy Consumption

The current industries, organizations and governments are really concerned about the reduction of energy and to reduce the carbon footprint. For cloud computing providers, energy consumption reduction is key to upgrading their return on investment (ROI). Energy-efficient scheduling on the servers is one of the challenging problems in a dynamic environment such as the cloud domain for reducing energy consumption.

3.2.4.6 Reliability Awareness

Scheduling algorithms considering reliability as part of their objectives must put mechanisms in place to ensure that the workflow execution is completed within the users' QoS constraints even if resource or task failures occur. Or simply minimize possible failure during workflow execution.

3.2.4.7 Security Awareness

3.3 Problem modeling

This section consists of the workflow model, the cloud datacenter model, the VM allocation model and the formulation of the multi-objective optimization problem. Table 3.3.1 provides a list of the terms and definitions used.

Symbol	Definition	Unit
wt_i	workflow task	-
VM_k	Virtual Machine type k	-
EFT_{wt_i, VM_k}	Expected Finish Time of task wt_i executed on VM_k	Second
$S(wt_i)$	Size of wt_i	MI
$EC(VM_k)$	Execution Capacity of VM_k	MIPS
TE_E	Total Energy consumed for executing workflows	kW/h
E_{DT}	Energy consumed for Data Transferring	kW/h
TC	Total Cost	\$
P_j	Processing time of job j	\$
PC	Processing Cost	\$
TrC	Cost of Transferring the input files (F_{inj}) and the output files (F_{outj}).	\$

Table 3.3.1: Symbols used in the formulas

3.3.1 Workflow modelization

In the workflow scheduling problem, applications are defined by the directed acyclic graphs (DAGs). A workflow includes a set of interdependent tasks that are bounded together through data or functional dependencies[32].

We consider workflow W as a graph $G = (T, D)$, where $T = \{ T_0, T_1, \dots, T_n \}$ indicates n tasks and shows the data flow dependencies among them. The data-flow dependency (T_i, T_j) means that task T_i is an immediate predecessor of task T_j and task T_j is an immediate successor of task T_i .

- In some cases, there are several predecessors and successors and so $Pr(T_i)$ and $Su(T_i)$ are defined to indicate the set of immediate predecessors and successors for task T_i [32].

$$Pr(T_i) = \{T_j | (T_j, T_i) \in D\} \quad (3.3.1)$$

$$Su(T_i) = \{T_j | (T_i, T_j) \in D\} \quad (3.3.2)$$

T_{entry} and T_{exit} are tasks without any predecessors and a task without any successors, respectively.

- The degree of dependency of workflow tasks on wt_i can be calculated using this equation.

$$ddi = \left(\sum_{T_p \in Pr(T_i)} e(T_p, T_i) + \sum_{T_c \in Su(T_i)} e(T_i, T_c) \right) \quad (3.3.3)$$

where $\sum_{T_p \in Pr(T_i)} e(T_p, T_i)$ is the summation of all the inward edges of workflow task T_i .

and $\sum_{T_c \in Su(T_i)} e(T_i, T_c)$ is the summation of all the outward edges of workflow task T_i .

$T_{\{entry\}}$ and $T_{\{exit\}}$ is a task without any predecessors and a task without any successors, respectively.

3.3.2 Cloud datacenter model[28]

The cloud datacenter is a network of computing resources that enables application and data sharing.

We assume that a data center has a set of \mathbf{M} heterogeneous physical machines (PM) that are used to configure a set of \mathbf{k} VMs for workflow task scheduling.

Let $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, p_2, p_3 \dots p_n)$, denotes the different types of PMs available in a cloud data center. These PMs have different Processing capacities such as CPUs, memory, bandwidth, network I/O and the size of the storage which are measured in million instructions per second (MIPS).

VMs are deployed on PMs and each PM can host \mathbf{k} VMs. Let \mathbf{k} be a set of VM types ($vm_1, vm_2, vm_3, \dots vm_k$) provided to users at an hourly-based pricing model. We assume that the VMs are infinite and each VM type \mathbf{k} is capable of providing an infinite number of VMs for workflow tasks execution.

3.3.3 VM allocation model[28]

Reducing energy consumption in a cloud data center has recently become a major concern for many researchers. This is because the cloud environment has become a trusted platform that individuals, organizations and the government rely on to conduct business. So, if the energy consumption in the cloud data center is not reduced, it will have a direct or indirect impact on all the stakeholders.

A VM allocation model has been proposed (see Fig.3.1), which aims at managing cloud resources to reduce energy consumption in the cloud data center. In workflow scheduling, a scheduler is developed to assign the right tasks to the right VMs to improve the scheduling objectives. However, the biggest challenge is how to manage the cloud resources effectively to achieve the set goals. This is because cloud users turn in a large number of requests that require resources to schedule. This becomes even more obvious if these requests (tasks) are to be scheduled within certain deadlines. This challenge can be well managed if the scheduler is implemented with a well-defined resource management plan.

In the model, we assume that there are only three types of VMs (VM_{HEC} , VM_{MEC} and VM_{LEC}) in the cloud data center, which are specifically defined herein:

3.3.3.1 Definition 1: VM deployment

The VMs are deployed based on their energy consumption level. There are three (3) physical machines (PMs) hosting five VMs (three different types). Each VM type \mathbf{k} has an infinite number of instances to handle multiple workflow tasks. The VMs are defined by specifications as follows:

$$VM \ Type = \begin{cases} VM_{HEC} & (HEC_1), (HEC_2), (HEC_3) \dots HEC_k \\ VM_{MEC} & (MEC_1), (MEC_2), (MEC_3) \dots MEC_k \\ VM_{LEC} & (LEC_1), (LEC_2), (LEC_3) \dots LEC_k \end{cases}$$

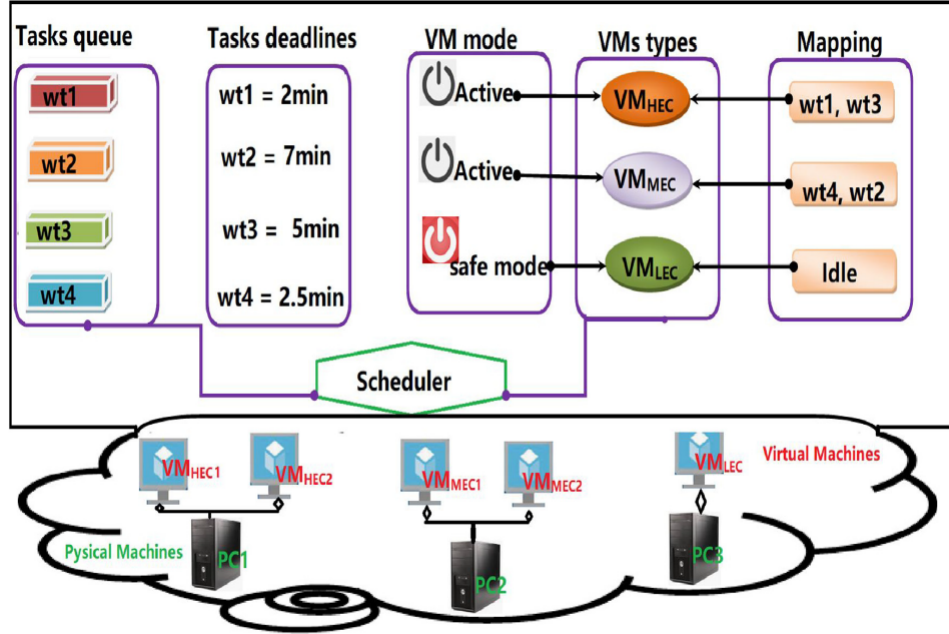


Figure 3.1: VM allocation model

- Where VM_{HEC} is a list of virtual machines with high processing speed (VMs with high energy consumption).
- Where VM_{MEC} represents a set of VMs with medium processing speed (VMs with medium energy consumption).
- Where VM_{LEC} is a group of virtual machines with lower processing speed (VMs with lower energy consumption).

3.3.3.2 Definition 2: Task representation

Each workflow contains several sets of workflow tasks representing ($Wt_1, Wt_2, Wt_3, Wt_4 \dots \dots \dots, Wt_n$); \mathbf{Wt} is a set of 'n' workflow tasks in a scientific workflow application. We assume there are three compositions of workflow tasks which are defined herein:

$$Tasks\ grouping = \begin{cases} HCT & (HCT1), (HCT2), (HCT3) \dots \dots \dots HCTn \\ MCT & (MCT1), (MCT2), (MCT3) \dots \dots \dots MCTn \\ LCT & (LCT1), (LCT2), (LCT3) \dots \dots \dots LCTn \end{cases}$$

- Where HCT is a set of tasks in the tasks ready queue that is defined as highly critical tasks that are at risk of missing their deadlines if they are not migrated to a high-speed procession VM immediately.
- Where MCT represents a group of queued workflow tasks that are classified as medium critical. This group of tasks is less critical compared to HCT, but more critical than LCT. These tasks can be migrated to medium-speed VMs for execution.
- Where LCT is a group of tasks in the ready queue defined as less critical tasks. This category of tasks does not need to be processed on high-speed VMs for scheduling.

The LCTs can be allocated on lower power VMs (VMs with lower processing speed) because their expected finish time (EFT) is far from their deadline.

The EFT of workflow task_{*i*} on VM type **k** can be calculated using this equation which represents the expected schedule.

$$EFT_{wt_i, VM_k} = \frac{S(wt_i)}{EC(VM_k)} \Longleftrightarrow ExpectedSchedule \quad (3.3.4)$$

- Where $S(wt_i)$ is the size of workflow task_{*i*},
- $EC(VM_k)$ is the execution capacity of VM type **k**.

3.3.3.3 Definition 3: task's deadline

Every workflow task has a deadline. A deadline is a time-based scheduling constraint that requires a workflow task to be scheduled within a specified time period. These deadlines are set by users. A task can have a shorter/earliest deadline or a longer deadline.

- A shorter/earliest deadline task is a task that is close to its specified scheduling time. Such tasks are assigned the highest priorities.
- Tasks with long deadlines are tasks that do not require higher priority. This is because such tasks are not close to their predefined deadlines and therefore can be assigned to resources after the higher priority tasks (shorter deadline tasks) have been scheduled.

Thus, each task must be executed before the specified deadline. If the execution of a workflow task *T* exceeds its deadline, it means that the deadline constraint set by the user has been violated.

As shown in Figure3.1, we have four workflow tasks that have arrived and are queued to be mapped to VMs. The arrived tasks are *wt1*, *wt2*, *wt3* and *wt4*. We also have three types of VMs (VM_{HEC} , VM_{MEC} and VM_{LEC}). These tasks have different deadlines and we need to map them to VMs based on their deadlines. *wt1* belongs to the HCT group because its deadline is 2 min, which is too tight and if it is not allocated immediately, it might miss its deadline. To prevent *wt1* from missing its deadline, we quickly mapped it to VM_{HEC} . The reason is that VM_{HEC} is a high-speed VM that can finish executing *wt1* before or on its deadline. The next task closer to its deadline is *wt4* and since VM_{HEC} is currently executing *wt1*, we mapped *wt4* to VM_{MEC} . The projections show that by the time *wt1* will meet its deadline, *wt3* will have 3 min left to also meet its deadline (5min-2 min). Therefore, *wt3* is classified as an HCT at that time and if there is no other HCT in the waiting queue at that time, then *wt3* is mapped to VM_{HEC} and *wt2* is mapped to VM_{MEC} . In this case, VM_{LEC} is idle. The idle VM is turned off or put into safe mode to save power.

3.3.3.4 Definition 4: VM migration time

The time cost of migrating a single VM can be expressed in terms of the statistics of the CPU content size and RAM size of this VM as well as the available bandwidth at the time of migration. It is important to stress that the RAM size is the main parameter that affects the VM migration time (and consequently RAM size affects the energy since energy is propositional with time).

$$VM_{vm}^{Migtime} = (C_{vm} + R_{vm})/BW \quad (3.3.5)$$

Where

- $VM_{vm}^{Migtime}$ is the time duration of VM_i migration
- C_{vm} is the CPU content size in Bytes.
- R_{vm} is the RAM content size of this VM in Bytes.
- BW is the available bandwidth, in Bytes/Seconds, between the source and destination PMs.

The total migration time ($TotalVM_{vm}^{Migtime}$) for n VMs is:

$$TotalVM_{vm}^{Migtime} = \sum_{vm=1}^n VM_{vm}^{Migtime} \quad (3.3.6)$$

3.3.4 Multi-objective optimization problem formulation[28]

The goal of workflow scheduling is to find the best optimal solution from various optimization methods that can give good results for the optimization problem. The optimization problem can be a single-objective or multi-objective optimization problem. Single-objective optimization involves optimizing only one scheduling objective, such as execution makespan or cost. Multi-objective optimization, on the other hand, focuses on optimizing two or more objectives.

The problem of multi-objective optimization varies from user to user and must be managed accordingly. Some users may want a reduced execution makespan and execution cost while ensuring that QoS constraints are not violated, others may want to reduce energy consumption and task execution time while ensuring effective utilization of cloud resources. In this work, a multi-objective scheduling problem has been considered.

We consider a workflow application as DAG. It is modeled with data dependencies representing precedence constraints between tasks. These tasks represent requests from the users to be processed on cloud resources (VM_{HEC} , VM_{MEC} , VM_{LEC}) so that the energy consumption, makespan and execution cost are reduced without violating the deadlines of the tasks. However, reducing energy consumption increases the execution cost of scientific workflow applications. This is because energy consumption and execution cost are conflicting metrics.

Our goal is to reduce the energy consumption, makespan and execution cost of workflow tasks with dependency constraints.

3.3.4.1 Definition 5: energy consumed by VM migration

The consumed energy is estimated as a function of memory content size as energy is proportional to R_{vm} (VM memory content size). So, the energy consumed during the process of VM migration can be expressed as:

$$VM_{vm}^{Migenergy} = (C_{vm} + R_{vm}) * VM_{vm}^{Migtime} \quad (3.3.7)$$

The value of C_{vm} (VM CPU context size) is negligible, so it may not be considered. The total migration energy ($TotalVM_{vm}^{Migenergy}$) for n VMs is:

$$TotalVM_{vm}^{Migenergy} = \sum_{vm=1}^n VM_{vm}^{Migenergy} \quad (3.3.8)$$

3.3.4.2 Definition 6: total energy consumed

Since we aim at improving resource management to reduce energy consumption in cloud data centers at a lower cost without violating scheduling constraints, energy consumption can be derived from the next equation. Here, TE_E is the total energy consumed for executing workflows, ED_E is the energy consumed for transferring all data and the sum of energy consumed for scheduling all tasks on all VM.

$$TE_E = ED_E + TotalVM_{vm}^{Migenergy} + \sum_{En}^{Ek} \quad (3.3.9)$$

3.3.4.3 Definition 7: PM utilization

It is worth transferring the hosted VMs and switching the PM to off mode. Such a case can result if the job prediction is not precise, or after finishing the execution of some VMs. To detect the under-load/over-load utilization, this study depends on the resource utilization of the node to select a threshold that specifies the under-load/over-load in that PM. Utilization of the host can be measured as follows:

$$U_{pm}(t) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{No\ of\ Resources\ in\ PM} \frac{actual\ use\ of\ Resource_i}{total\ capacity\ of\ Resource_i} \right) * 100 \quad (3.3.10)$$

where:

- $U_{PM}(t)$: utilization of the PM at time t .
- The resources are:
 - Number of cores.
 - RAM.
 - Storage.
 - bandwidth.

3.3.4.4 Definition 8: cost calculation

The metric for the execution cost is calculated using the following equation:

$$TC = (P_j * PC + (\sum_{f \in F_{in}j} Size(f) + \sum_{f \in F_{out}j} Size(f))) * TrC \quad (3.3.11)$$

where,

- TC is the total cost.
- P_j is the processing time of job j
- PC is the processing cost
- TrC is the cost of transferring the input files ($F_{in}j$) and the output files ($F_{out}j$).

3.4 Related works

In the literature, there are many works that address the problem of Workflow Scheduling Problem using different methods.

3.4.1 Energy optimization problem

Scientific workflows are the constitution of distinct tasks with complex dependencies. Resource provisioning and the order in which workflow tasks are executed are challenging problems. The inefficient utilization of resources while executing the workflows wastes a tremendous number of resources. The inefficient utilization of resources increases the number of unused provisioned resources. These unused resources increase energy consumption without performing any useful operation. Performance can be increased by efficient resource provisioning. An energy-efficient scheduling algorithm can be used to manage the resources that are required by the task while executing these scientific workflow tasks. In the literature, numerous workflow scheduling algorithms have been proposed. These scheduling algorithms focus on diminishing makespan and cost with inadequate resources. The selection and designing of a competent and operative workflow scheduling algorithm are also challenging tasks. The energy-aware scheduling algorithm must be selected which can provide a proper resource from the offered resources which are efficient enough to complete the workflow tasks within their deadline constriction and it can decrease the energy consumption[21].

Hard optimization A multi-objective optimization approach is suggested here for scientific workflow task-scheduling problems in cloud computing. More frequently, scientific workflow involves a large number of tasks. It requires more resources to perform all these tasks. Such a large amount of computing power can be supported only by cloud infrastructure. To implement complex science applications, more computing energy is expended, so the use of cloud virtual machines in an energy-saving way is essential.

However, even today, it is a difficult challenge to conduct a scientific workflow in an energy-aware cloud platform. The hardness of this problem increases even more with several contradictory goals. Most of the existing research does not consider the essential characteristic of the cloud and significant issues, such as energy variation and throughput besides makespan and cost[36].

3.4.2 Approximate optimization algorithms

Workflow scheduling in the cloud environment is an NP-hard optimization problem with rich literature over the last decade. Previous works have presented many meta-heuristic and heuristic-based methods to solve this problem[36]. We list here some of the related works which optimize energy consumption.

Accelerated Search (AS) Accelerated Search (AS) algorithm based on Dynamic Programming (DP) to obtain a combination of various task schemes which can be completed in a given time with the minimum possible energy by introducing the guaranteed probability and data migration energy[31].

Plain GA, CA+GA Plain genetic (Plain GA), (ii) cellular automata supported by genetic approach (CA + GA) and (iii) heuristic, giving preferences to high-efficiency machines in allocation (EAH), based on a typical FIFO algorithm The used fitness function is based on energy minimization only[3].

PBHGA The Parallel bi-objective hybrid genetic algorithm (PBHGA) is a parallel evolutionary algorithm for solving multi-objective optimization problems. It combines several optimization techniques including genetic algorithm (GA) and local search.

The algorithm works by using an initial population of random solutions. Individuals in this population are rated based on their goals and their fitness is assessed using a fitness function. Then, individuals are selected for breeding using a rank-based or roulette selection operator.

Reproduction is done using genetic operators such as mutation and crossover. Mutation involves modifying a single gene of the individual while crossbreeding involves creating new individuals by combining the characteristics of two different parents.

The process of selection and reproduction is repeated for several generations until an optimal solution is found. During the whole optimization process, PBHGA maintains a population of solutions to efficiently explore the search space.

The parallel approach of the algorithm helps to speed up the optimization process by running multiple search tasks simultaneously on different processors. It also makes it possible to efficiently explore regions of the search space that would otherwise be difficult to reach.

Finally, the hybrid genetic algorithm uses local search techniques to improve the quality of solutions by applying perturbation operations to existing solutions. These perturbation operations are designed to slightly perturb existing solutions to bring them closer to an optimal solution[35].

NSGA-II, MOCell, IBEA NSGA-II, MOCell and IBEA are popular multi-objective evolutionary algorithms for solving multi-objective optimization problems[42].

NSGA-II (Non-dominated Sorting Genetic Algorithm II) uses a non-dominated sorting approach to assess the quality of population solutions. Solutions are ranked according to their dominance over other solutions and non-dominated solutions are grouped into Pareto fronts. The Pareto fronts are then ranked in order of dominance to create a new population of parent solutions. This parent population is used to generate a new population of child solutions by crossover and mutation.

MOCell (Multi-Objective Cellular Genetic Algorithm) uses a grid approach to divide the search space into cells and each cell is treated as a separate optimization problem. The solutions are then evaluated locally and the best individuals are selected to reproduce within the cell. Then, the solutions are exchanged between cells to avoid local convergence.

IBEA (Indicator-Based Evolutionary Algorithm) uses quality indicators to assess the quality of solutions. It uses an indicator function that measures the distance of each solution to an approximation of the true Pareto front. The most distant solutions are selected for reproduction in order to favor the diversity of the population.

These algorithms all use an evolutionary approach to optimize multiple goals at the same time. Candidate solutions are evaluated against several optimization criteria and the best solutions are selected for replication. The algorithms then use crossover and mutation operators to generate a new population of candidate solutions. The process is repeated until solutions of sufficient quality are found.

EAH The EAH (Exploratory Adaptation Hyper-heuristics) algorithm is a hyper-heuristic optimization method for solving combinatorial optimization problems. The goal of the EAH algorithm is to solve combinatorial optimization problems using a heuristic approach that can adapt its behavior depending on the characteristics of the problem[3].

HCFS The Heuristics with Continuous Frequency Scaling (HCFS) algorithm is an optimization technique that solves scheduling problems using a heuristic approach. It is particularly suitable for solving task scheduling problems that have complex time dependencies and resource constraints[18].

EAMD new energy-aware scheduling algorithm called Energy Aware Scheduling by Minimizing Duplication(EAMD) which considers the energy consumption as well as the makespan of applications. It adopts a subtle energy-aware method to determine and delete the abundant task copies in the schedules generated by duplication-based algorithms, which is easier to operate than DVFS and produces no extra time and energy consumption. This algorithm can reduce a large amount of energy consumption while

having the same makespan compared with duplication-based algorithms without energy awareness[33].

MMF-DVFS The MMF-DVFS (Multi-Objective Multi-Frequency Dynamic Voltage and Frequency Scaling) algorithm is an optimization algorithm for power management in embedded systems. It aims to simultaneously minimize power consumption and execution time of multiple tasks with quality of service (QoS) constraints such as timeliness and reliability.

The MMF-DVFS algorithm uses an approach based on multi-objective optimization which seeks to find a compromise between the objectives of minimizing energy consumption and execution time. The algorithm uses a technique called "Dynamic Voltage and Frequency Scaling" (DVFS) which allows the frequency and voltage of the processor to be dynamically adjusted according to performance and power consumption requirements.

The MMF-DVFS algorithm is also able to take into account QoS constraints using a decomposition approach into several sub-problems. The algorithm decomposes the global problem into several sub-problems for which it individually optimizes the objectives while keeping the other objectives at an acceptable level.

The MMF-DVFS algorithm uses local and global search methods to find the best possible solution. Local search methods are used to improve local solutions while global search methods are used to explore new regions of the search space[39].

EASLA, Improved EASLA EASLA (Efficient Antlion Optimizer with a Small Local Attraction) is a metaheuristic optimization algorithm inspired by the hunting behavior of antlions. The algorithm is used for solving various optimization problems, including function optimization and feature selection.

The Improved EASLA algorithm is an enhanced version of EASLA, which incorporates some modifications to improve its performance. The key modifications include the incorporation of a mutation operator to explore the search space and the use of dynamic population size to adapt to the search problem.

The basic idea behind EASLA is to simulate the hunting behavior of antlions, which use a combination of ambush and trap techniques to capture their prey. In EASLA, the antlion represents the best solution found so far and the ants represent potential solutions in the search space.

The algorithm starts by randomly generating a population of ants and placing them in the search space. The ants move toward the antlion based on a probability function that takes into account both the distance to the antlion and the local attraction of the area. The antlion is then updated to the best solution found among the ants.

The Improved EASLA algorithm extends this basic framework by introducing a mutation operator that randomly modifies the position of some ants, which can help to explore new regions of the search space. The population size is also dynamically adjusted during the search to balance exploration and exploitation.

Overall, EASLA and its improved variant aim to balance exploration and exploitation in the search space, using a combination of local and global search strategies to find good solutions to optimization problems[45].

QHA The Quantum-Inspired Harmony Search Algorithm (QHA) is a quantum-inspired optimization method for solving optimization problems. The algorithm starts by initializing a set of candidate solutions for the optimization problem. Each candidate solution is represented by a vector of parameter values[12].

EADAGS Scheduling (EADAGS) on heterogeneous processors that can run on discrete operating voltages Such processors can scale down their voltages and slow down to reduce energy whenever they idle due to task dependencies. EADAGS combines dynamic voltage scaling (DVS) with Decisive Path Scheduling (DPS) to achieve the twin objectives[7].

eFLS The eFLS (enhanced fuzzy logic system) algorithm is a modeling method based on fuzzy logic for decision-making in uncertain environments. The goal of the eFLS algorithm is to create a robust decision system that can adapt to changing situations using fuzzy decision rules[40].

VHEST, EASA VHEST stands for Variable Hessian Estimation Search Technique. It is a type of derivative-based optimization algorithm that uses the Hessian matrix of the objective function to find the optimal solution. The algorithm uses an estimation of the Hessian matrix that is updated during the search process. VHEST has been used for various optimization problems, including parameter estimation and design optimization EASA stands for Efficient and Accurate Simulated Annealing. It is a metaheuristic optimization algorithm that is inspired by the annealing process in metallurgy. EASA starts with a high-temperature search process, during which the algorithm can accept worse solutions to escape from local optima. As the temperature is lowered, the algorithm becomes more selective and only accepts better solutions. EASA has been applied to various optimization problems, including parameter estimation, design optimization and clustering.

Both VHEST and EASA are known for their efficiency and accuracy in solving optimization problems and they have been applied to various real-world problems in engineering, science and other fields[17].

EDLS The Exponential Differencing Least Squares (EDLS) algorithm is a linear regression estimation algorithm that is used to model data that has exponential trends or time-varying growth rates. It is widely used in finance to model interest rates, exchange rates and asset prices.

The EDLS algorithm works by minimizing the sum of the squares of the deviations between the observed values and the values predicted by the model. Unlike classical linear regression methods which assume that errors have a normal distribution, the EDLS algorithm assumes that errors have an exponential distribution. This approach makes it possible to take into account exponential trends in the data and to better model variations in growth rates[25].

LESA GACSM: (GACSM), to address task scheduling on heterogeneous multiprocessor systems using Dynamic Voltage and Frequency Scaling (DVFS)[14].

EED, EEND algorithms, namely, Energy-Efficiency with Duplication (EED) and Energy-Efficiency with Non Duplication (EEND) Both algorithms, in contrast to their counterparts in the literature, strive to make a balance across the energy consumption, the schedule length and the number of processors used. Synthetic benchmarks and real-world applications are used to evaluate the performance of our algorithms[16].

RSMECC The RSMECC (Reed-Solomon-MDPC Code-based Encryption and Compression) algorithm is a data encryption and compression algorithm that uses Reed-Solomon codes and MDPC (Moderate Density Parity-Check) codes. The algorithm begins by generating a public key and a private key for data encryption. The public key is shared with the sender of the data while the private key is kept by the receiver[26].

ECS, ECS + idle ECS is a task scheduling algorithm that considers both the processing time and energy consumption of tasks when scheduling them on processors. The algorithm aims to find an optimal schedule that minimizes the energy consumption of the system while meeting the performance requirements. ECS uses a list scheduling approach to find a feasible schedule and then applies a genetic algorithm to optimize the schedule, ECS+Idle is an extension of ECS that exploits the idle time of processors to further reduce energy consumption. The algorithm schedules tasks in a way that allows processors to enter idle mode as much as possible without violating the performance requirements. ECS+Idle uses a greedy approach to find an initial schedule and then applies a genetic algorithm to optimize the schedule by exploiting the idle time of processors. Both ECS and ECS+Idle have been shown to be effective in reducing energy consumption in computing systems while maintaining performance requirements. These algorithms have been applied to various scheduling problems, including task scheduling on heterogeneous systems, scheduling in cloud computing environments and scheduling in real-time systems[56].

ESPA ESPA (Enhanced Scheduling Priority Algorithm) is a scheduling algorithm used in real-time systems that aims to improve the scheduling performance compared to traditional priority-based scheduling algorithms such as Earliest Deadline First (EDF) or Rate Monotonic (RM) scheduling. The ESPA algorithm works by assigning a scheduling priority to each task based on its execution history and the current system state. The algorithm uses a set of rules to determine the priority of a task[46].

GACSM GACSM stands for "Genetic Algorithm-based Clustering for Service Composition Management". It is an algorithm that aims to optimize the service composition process in a service-oriented architecture by clustering together services that are frequently used together[15].

EAD, PEBD Algorithms-Energy-Aware Duplication (EAD) scheduling and Performance-Energy Balanced Duplication (PEBD) scheduling. Existing duplication-based scheduling algorithms replicate all possible tasks to shorten schedule length without reducing energy consumption caused by duplication. Our algorithms, in contrast, strive to balance schedule lengths and energy savings by judiciously replicating predecessors of a task if the duplication can aid in performance without degrading energy efficiency. To illustrate the effectiveness of EAD and PEBD[57].

WPEP The Workflow performance evaluation platforms (WPEP) algorithm is not an optimization algorithm, but rather a method for evaluating the performance of workflows, i.e. automated work processes in which tasks are executed sequentially or in parallel. The first step is to model the workflow, identifying the tasks, transitions and resources needed for each task[4].

RMREC The "Reducing energy consumption using remapping of critical tasks" algorithm is an optimization method to minimize the power consumption of computing applications by remapping critical tasks to the most energy-efficient cores. Critical tasks are identified using performance profiling techniques to determine which tasks consume the most processing time[54].

MW-HBDCS is a scheduling method that makes it possible to efficiently plan the execution of several workflows on a set of heterogeneous resources while respecting budget and deadline constraints. The problem is modeled using a formal representation of workflows and resources, as well as budget and time constraints[55].

MinD + ED The "Minimum Dependencies Energy-efficient DAG (MinD+ED)" algorithm is a scheduling method for workflows represented in the form of a DAG (Directed Acyclic Graph) which aims to minimize energy consumption while guaranteeing the completion of the workflow on time. The workflow is represented as a DAG, where nodes represent tasks and arcs represent dependencies between tasks[44].

EnReal Method The EnReal Method (Energy and Reliability aware Method) algorithm is a scheduling method for scientific workflows that aims to minimize energy consumption while ensuring high reliability of results. The workflow is represented as a DAG (Directed Acyclic Graph), where the nodes represent the tasks and the arcs represent the dependencies between the tasks[50].

AVVMC the AVVMC VM consolidation scheme that focuses on the balanced Performance of servers across different computing resources (CPU, memory and network I/O) with the goal of minimizing power consumption and resource wastage, adaptation and integration of the Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) meta-heuristic with balanced usage of computing resources based on vector algebra[19].

Adaptive GA The Adaptive GA (Genetic Algorithm) algorithm is an optimization method inspired by Darwin's theory of evolution. The Adaptive GA algorithm begins by initializing a population of candidate solutions, which are sets of values representing the parameters to be optimized. These candidate solutions are often randomly generated. For each candidate solution in the population, the algorithm evaluates the quality of the solution using an objective function, also called a fitness function. This function assigns a numerical value to each solution based on the quality of that solution[49].

Hybrid Cultural and ACO The Hybrid Cultural and ACO algorithm combines two powerful optimization techniques: Cultural Algorithms (CA) and Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) to solve complex optimization problems. The combination of CA and ACO allows the algorithm to explore the solution space efficiently and effectively. The ACO approach is used to construct high-quality solutions, while the CA approach is used to improve the diversity of the population and prevent premature convergence[6].

MPSO-FGA The MPSO-FGA (Multi-Parent Particle Swarm Optimization with Fitness Gradient Adaptation) algorithm is a hybrid optimization method combining Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) and Evolutionary Optimization (EA). The MPSO-FGA algorithm begins by initializing a population of candidate solutions, which are sets of values representing the parameters to be optimized. These candidate solutions are often randomly generated. For each candidate solution in the population, the algorithm evaluates the quality of the solution using an objective function, also called a fitness function. This function assigns a numeric value to each solution based on the quality of that solution[20].

FOA-SA- LB The FOA-SA-LB (Fruit Fly Optimization Algorithm with Simulated Annealing and Levy Flight Backtracking) algorithm is a hybrid optimization method that combines the Fruit Fly Swarm Optimization (FOA) algorithm, the simulated annealing algorithm (SA) and Lévy's jump algorithm with backtracking (LB). The FOA-SA-LB algorithm begins by initializing a population of candidate solutions, which are sets of values representing the parameters to be optimized. These candidate solutions are often randomly generated[29].

REEWS The Real-coded Estimation of Distribution Algorithm with Re-Evaluation and Windowing Strategy (REEWS) algorithm is an optimization method that uses a distribution-based approach to find the optimal solution to a given optimization problem[38].

HUA The HUA (Hybridization of Harmony Search Algorithm and Univariate Marginal Distribution Algorithm) is an evolutionary hybrid algorithm that combines the advantages of two popular algorithms, namely the Harmony Search Algorithm and the Distribution Algorithm. Univariate Marginal Distribution Algorithm. The algorithm starts by generating a population of candidate solutions randomly[9].

MHRA The MHRA algorithm (Multi-Objective Harmony Search Algorithm with Reference-Point-Based Nondominated Sorting Approach) is an evolutionary algorithm used to solve multi-objective optimization problems. The algorithm starts by generating a population of candidate solutions randomly. Each candidate solution is evaluated using an objective function that measures its quality. This function assigns a vector of values[41].

EARES-D The EARES-D (Enhanced Adaptive Range Extended Search with Diversity) algorithm is a global optimization algorithm that has been proposed to solve complex optimization problems. The algorithm starts by generating a population of candidate solutions randomly in a given search space[22].

EViMA[28] The authors proposed resource management and VM allocation model and incorporated Idle “off” Busy “on” techniques that identify the status of all VMs. A slack time harvesting method is introduced and task selection method ensures the right task is allocated to the right VM.

We will study this algorithm in more detail in the next chapter.

3.4.3 Comparison between workflow scheduling approaches

Algorithm	Year	Params	System	Mechanism	Advantages	Limitations
Accelerated Search	2017	Probability of execution, EC, ExecT	Heterogeneous multicore	DVFS		
Plain GA, CA+GA	2014	EC	Heterogeneous cluster			
PBHGA	2011	Pareto front	Heterogeneous virtualized cluster	DVFS		
NSGA-II, MOCcell, IBEA	2013	Pareto front	Heterogeneous cluster	DVFS	Find several optimal solutions which are equivalent in terms of quality for different criteria. Explore the search space and help make informed decisions.	

EAH	2014	EC	Heterogeneous cluster			
HCFS	2019	EC, ExecT, Reliability	Homogeneous cluster	DVFS		
EAMD	2012	EC, ExecT	Heterogeneous cluster			
MMF-DVFS	2010	EC, ExecT	Heterogeneous cluster	DVFS		
EASLA, Improved EASLA	2017	EC, ExecT	Heterogeneous clusters	DVFS		
QHA	2015	EC, ExecT	Heterogeneous cluster	DVFS		
EADAGS	2010	EC, ExecT	Heterogeneous cluster	DVFS		
eFLS	2021	EC, ExecT	Heterogeneous cluster	DVFS		
VHEST, EASA	2015	Performance, ExecT	Homogeneous virtualized cluster			
EDLS	2005	EC, ExecT	Heterogeneous cluster	DVFS		
LESA	2020	ExecT, EC	Heterogeneous cluster	DVFS		
EED, EEND	2014	EC, ExecT	Homogeneous cluster	DVFS		
RSMECC	2019	SartT, FinishT, ExecT, EC	Heterogeneous cluster	DVFS		
ECS, ECS + idle	2009, 2011	EC, ExecT	Heterogeneous cluster	DVFS		
ESPA	1996	EC, ExecT	Heterogeneous cluster	DVFS, DPM		
GACSM	2019	EC, ExecT	Heterogeneous cluster	DVFS		
EAD, PEBD	2011	EC, ExecT	Homogeneous cluster			
WPEP	2021	fault-tolerance, EC	Cloud	DVFS		
RMREC	2020	EC	Cloud	DVFS		

MW-HBDCS	2018	Reliability, EC	Cloud			
MinD + ED	2016	EC, satisfiable level of tardiness	Cloud	DVFS		
EnReal Method	2015	EC, Performance	Cloud		improve Performance and energy consumption rate in datacenter	Workflow and user heterogeneity is ignored
AVVMC	2014	EC, Performance	Cloud		Improvement in both energy consumption and resource wastage	limited search space. This could lead to limited consolidation decisions
Adaptive GA	2016	EC, ExecT	Homogeneous cluster		It generate fair schedules with very low time complexity	Stuck in local optimal solution
Hybrid Cultural and ACO	2017	EC, ExecT	Cloud			Limited search space
MPSO-FGA	2017	EC, ExecT	Homogeneous cluster		Decreases energy and Makespan better than the compared algorithms	Less scalable
FOA-SA-LB	2017	Makespan, EC	Homogeneous cluster		Faster convergence in comparison with other methods	Less efficient with large search space
REEWS	2019	Reliability, EC	Cloud		Improved system efficiency	Limited parameters

HUA	2017	EC	Cloud		Overcomes VM overloaded and underloaded problem	It requires more time to execute workflows
MHRA	2018	EC, ExecT	Cloud	DVFS	It provide better scheduling options for both cloud users and service providers	Less efficient in scheduling deadline contains tasks
EARES-D	2014	EC, completing time, Performance	Cloud	DVFS	Efficient in performing VM allocation that shares workload evenly.	It requires more time to compute
EViMA	2022	EC, ExecT, Cost	Cloud		Efficient in managing cloud resources and generates faster solutions in comparison with other approaches	Not considering instance acquisition and termination delay

After comparison of all of these approaches, we can conclude:

- There is a variety of problem formulations and corresponding algorithm types that tackle the problem of workflow energy-aware scheduling for Cloud computing environment, including machine learning (with reinforcement and supervised learning), dynamic programming, fuzzy logic, integer programming, randomized algorithms, evolutionary algorithms, constraint programming and others.
- Most optimization goals involve metrics such as execution time/makespan, and energy. A limited number of works specifically consider costs, performance, reliability and fault tolerance.
- Most works use DVFS as a mechanism for controlling the power/energy of computing devices, just one combines DVFS and DPM (including turning off machines).

3.5 Conclusion

Cloud data centers generate massive energy consumption on a global scope. It needs to reduce the overall energy consumption of cloud data centers under the premise of satisfying QoS[11].

In the next chapter, we will suggest our proposed approach.

CHAPTER 4

Approach and solution design

4.1 Introduction

In recent years, the vast energy consumption generated by cloud data centers has attracted wide attention from society. Relevant survey data show that electricity demand in US data centers has increased from 29 billion kWh in 2000 to nearly 73 billion kWh in 2020. The computing device will also increase the thermal load while using electric energy. The thermal load of a single rack will reach 50 kW in 2025. In addition, it also leads to the decline of quality of service (QoS) and environmental deterioration, which runs counter to the concept of green sustainable development. Therefore, achieving energy conservation and emission reduction is the key to developing the next generation of green data centers[11].

We will present in this chapter the EViMA algorithm which is used for improving resource management in the cloud data center to obtain the best task schedules that reduce energy consumption, execution makespan and cost without violating deadline constraints. Then will introduce the VM placement and VM consolidation problem and its 4 sub-problems. Finally, we will present the objectives, the concept of our approach and also its description and explication.

4.2 Based algorithm EViMA

After comparing all the algorithms in Chapter 3, we have chosen the EViMA algorithm because it is a promoter in itself.

4.2.1 EViMA[28]

Energy-efficient virtual-machine mapping algorithm (EViMA) focuses on improving resource management in the cloud data center to obtain the best task schedules that reduce energy consumption, execution makespan and execution cost without violating deadline constraints.

The EViMA algorithm is supported by 4 other algorithms, namely:

- Highly Critical Workflow Task Selection Algorithm (HiCTSA)
- Low Critical Task Selection Algorithm (LoCTSA)
- VM Power Regulating Algorithm (VM-PRA),
- Slack Time Harvesting Algorithm (STiHA).

The algorithm takes as input a set of workflow tasks represented by $wt = (wt1, wt2, wt3, \dots, wtn)$ and a set of instances (VMs) represented by $(VM_{HEC}, VM_{MEC}$ and $VM_{LEC})$. The “n” workflow tasks can be any type of task in a queue that requires resources for scheduling.

1. The algorithm starts by identifying the arrived tasks and computing their expected finishing times (EFT) to determine the task execution order.

2. Then, a task priority queue is created in which the tasks are arranged in three execution orders based on their critical times (HCT, MCT and LCT). To determine the execution order of the tasks, their expected finishing times are calculated using Eq.(4). The tasks that are close to their deadline and need to be mapped to VMs at or before their deadline are given higher priority.
3. To generate cost-efficient and energy-optimized schedules, a VM assignment order is also introduced (Line 5). Once both the tasks execution order and VM assignment order are established, we employ EViMA to explore the various workflow tasks to find the overall critical tasks (HCTs), (tasks that are approaching their deadline) from the ready queue and immediately assign them to a high-speed procession VM (VM_{HEC}). This is done to find high-quality solutions to the workflow scheduling problem. For example, if wt_i through the searching process is found to belong to the HCT queue, Algorithm 4.2 is called to assign it to a VM with high processing speed (VM_{HEC}), as described in line 8. However, if the task belongs to the LCT group, Algorithm 4.3 is called to process it, as described in line 9.
4. On the other hand, if the expected finishing time of the task is less than or equal to the harvested slack time of VM_k , Algorithm 4.5 is applied to schedule the task as in lines 15 and 16.
5. If the expected end time is equal to the deadline, assign the task directly to VM_{MEC} as in lines 11 and 12. Otherwise, apply Algorithm 4.4 to shut down the VM when one of the VMs is idle to save power (line 18).

4.2.2 Highly critical task selection algorithm (HiCTSA)

Highly Critical Task Selection Algorithm (HiCTSA), presented as Algorithm 4.2, solve the problem of which workflow tasks should be selected first and to which VM and ensure that all workflow tasks meet their deadlines.

HiCTSA works at both the VM and task levels to ensure that tasks are selected and assigned to resources for execution to avoid delays. We consider a set of workflow tasks $WT = (wt1, tw2, tw3, \dots, wtn)$ in a workflow application. These tasks have different deadlines and therefore users expect them to be executed before their deadlines. Also, these tasks require some resources to start the scheduling process.

Algorithm 2 starts by checking the criticality of the tasks as in line 1. Then compares the expected finishing time of each workflow task in the ready queue (line 2). If the expected finishing time of workflow task $wt1$ approaches its deadline, this task is marked as an HCT task (line 4). A mapping is then created for all HCT (line 5). However, if two or more tasks have the same deadline, another high speed VM is deployed to map those tasks (lines 7 and 8)[28].

Algorithm 4.1 EViMA[28]

Require: Workflow, set of VMs and set of VM types ($VM_{HEC}, VM_{MEC}, VM_{LEC}$)

```

1:  $wt_{ReadyPool} = clustered(wt_1, wt_2, wt_3, \dots, wt_n)$ 
2: while  $wt_{ReadyPool} \neq \phi$  do
3:   Compute EFT of each tasks
4:   Group  $Tasks \Rightarrow$  HCT, MCT, LCT
5:   Group  $VMs \Rightarrow (VM_{HEC}, VM_{MEC}, VM_{LEC})$ 
6:   foreach  $wt$  in  $wt_{ReadyPool}$  do
7:     if  $wt_i$  in HCT and  $wt_j$  in LCT then
8:       apply algorithm 2 to execute HCT
9:       apply algorithm 3 to execute LCT
10:    else
11:      if EFT of  $wt_i = D_l$  of  $wt_i$  then
12:         $wt_i \mapsto VM_{MEC}$ 
13:        Update  $wt_{ReadyPool}$ 
14:      else
15:        if EFT of  $wt_i \leq ST$  then
16:          apply algorithm 5
17:        else
18:          apply algorithm 4 to save mood the idle VM
19:          Update  $wt_{ReadyPool}$ 
20:        end if
21:      end if
22:    end if
23:  end foreach
24: end while

```

Algorithm 4.2 HiCTSA[28]

Input : • Workflow DAG, $G=(W,T)$ where $W= (wt_1 ,wt_2 ,wt_3 ,\dots,wt_n)$
• A set of cloud resources with different CPU configuration and different pricing

Output:

```

1 Check tasks criticality in  $wt_{ReadyPool}$ 
2 Compare EFT of  $wt_1$  on  $VM_k$  to its Dl
3 if EFT of  $wt_1 > Dl$  of  $wt_1$  then
4   | Call  $wt_1$  HCT
5   | Map all HCT to  $VM_{HEC}$ 
6 else
7   | if  $DLwt_i == DLwt_j$ 
8   |   deploy  $VM_{HEC2}$ 
9   |   If EFT of  $wt_i = Dl$  of  $wt_i$ , then
10  |     Call the task MCT
11  |     Update  $wt_{ReadyPool}$ 
12  |     while  $wt_{ReadyPool} \neq \phi$  do
13  |       | Repeat step 3 to 8
14  |     end
15  |   else
16 end

```

4.2.3 Low critical task selection algorithm (LoCTSA)

Low Critical Task Selection Algorithm (LoCTSA) proposed in Algorithm 4.3, reduces the execution cost and consists of two phases[28]:

1. The first phase is the task identification and grouping phase, in which less critical tasks are identified and queued for execution. In the first phase, the algorithm compares the expected finishing time of each workflow task with its deadline. If a task's EFT is greater than its deadline, the task is moved to a new queue called the LCT queue (lines 1, 2 and 3). This is done to avoid mapping less critical tasks to HEC VM.
2. The second phase is the VM allocation phase. In the second phase, the quality of the solution is improved by ensuring that all less critical tasks are assigned to VMs with lower processing speed (VMs with lower cost and lower energy consumption) instead of assigning them to VMs with higher execution costs. This is done to reduce the cost of running workflow tasks.

Algorithm 4.3 LoCTSA[28]

```

1 Compare EFT of  $wt_1$  on  $VM_k$  to its Dl
2 if EFT of  $wt_1$  < Dl of  $wt_1$  then
3   | Call  $wt_1$  LCT
4   | Map all LCT to  $VM_{LEC}$ 
5 else
6   | if EFT of  $wt_i$  = Dl of  $wt_i$ , then
7   |   | move  $wt_i$  into MCT queue
8   |   | Update  $wt_{ReadyPool}$ 
9   | end
10 end

```

4.2.4 VM power regulating algorithm (VM-PRA)

VM-PRA (see Algorithm 4) checks the status of all VMs used to execute workflow tasks. Sometimes, underutilized VMs are not shut down, which can increase the power consumption of a data center. VM-PRA overcomes this drawback by introducing Idle “off” Busy “on” techniques that identify the status of all VMs.

The method starts by defining the status of all VMs that are used for workflow task execution. The VMs are divided into two stages, namely a busy stage and an idle stage. A VM is said to be busy when it is currently executing or processing a workflow task. Idle VMs, on the other hand, are VMs that have not yet been assigned any job or have completed the execution process and are waiting for more jobs to be executed. The algorithm checks, if there are some idle VMs and if so, it switches all idle VMs to the memory state. For example, when VM_{HEC} and VM_{LEC} are running and VM_{MEC} is idle, the VM-PRA algorithm quickly switches VM_{MEC} into power saving mode to save some energy. In reality, VMs do not consume power, but when the VM is powered off or put into power-saving mode, it reduces the power consumption of its PM and hence a reduction in data center power consumption.

4.2.5 Slack time harvesting method (STiHaM)

Slack time is a time interval that occurs when a particular task completes its execution before its actual scheduled completion time. In other words, it is a time difference between a task’s scheduled completion time and its actual completion time. The slack time is used to accumulate the slack times for each VM type in the VM pool as in line 5 of Algorithm 4.5. A slack time hub is attached to each VM to store the slack times of each VM (see line 6). If a slack time of VM_k is equal to the EFT of wt_i , the scheduler is asked to map wt_i to VM_k to use the slack time as in lines 7 and 8 of Algorithm 4.5. The slack time is used to further reduce the execution cost of the workflows. Since wt_i can be scheduled on VM_k using the obtained slack time, the cost of provisioning a new VM to schedule the tasks is saved.

Algorithm 4.4 VM-PRA[28]

```

1  VMPool = (VMHEC, VMMEC, VMLEC,.....VMk)
2  foreach VM in the VMPool do
3      Check VMs status (busy or idle)
4      if VMHEC is idle then
5          Put VMHEC on save mood
6      else
7          if VMMEC and VMLEC are idle then
8              Put VMMEC and VMLEC on save mood
9              Update VMPool
10         end
11     end
12 end

```

Algorithm 4.5 STiHaM[28]

Input : • Most workflow tasks have slack times
Output:

```

1  WtReadPool = (wt1, wt2, tw3,.....wtn)
2  VMPool = (VMa, VMb, VMc,.....VMK)
3  foreach VM in the VMPool do
4      Generate the EFT and ST of all tasks
5      Harvest the slack time of each VM
6      Store the slack times of each VM in STHub
7      Prompt the scheduler when EFT of wti,j = ST of VMk
8      Allocate wti,j to utilize the slack time
9      Update VMPool
10 end

```

4.3 VM placement & VM consolidation

Information and communications technology equipment (ICT) and cooling equipment consume most of the energy in the data centers. The server is the most critical ICT equipment. In most cases, the average CPU utilization rate of the server is only 15% to 20% and there are a large number of servers in an idle state which consumes much energy. Therefore, VMs can be relocated into as few physical machines (PM) as possible through VM consolidation technology and the low-load PM can be switched off. No-load PM can be switched to a sleep state to reduce the number of PMs during activities and avoid energy waste[11].

In addition, the problem of low server utilization is appearing to narrow the dynamic power ranges of servers: even completely idle servers still consume about 70% of their peak power. Therefore, keeping servers underutilized is highly inefficient from the energy consumption perspective[5].

VM Placement It is the process of mapping VMs to PMs.

VM Consolidation It refers to the replacement process using a fewer number of PMs, thus contributing to energy conservation[5]. Most of the existing methods are committed to consolidating VMs to a small number of servers to improve the utilization of server resources and reduce total energy consumption while preventing hot-spots[11].

Dynamic VM consolidation follows a distributed model, where the problem is divided into 4 sub-problems[5]:

1. **Host under-load detection:** Determining if a host is considered to be under-loaded so that all VMs should be migrated and the host should be switched to a low-power mode. There are 2 methods:
 - Static Thresholding: fixed value is set to a utilization threshold and below this value, the PM is considered under-loaded.
 - Dynamic Thresholding: Static Thresholding is unsuitable for a cloud computing environment that has dynamic and unpredictable workloads. The system should be able to automatically adjust its behavior depending on the workload patterns, there are 2 patterns:
 - Adaptive Thresholding (AT): This study proposes an Adaptive Thresholding (AT) technique based on statistical analysis of historical data, collected during the lifetime of VMs. AT adjusts the value of the CPU utilization threshold depending on:
 - * Mean Adaptive Thresholding: depending on the mean of the values of the minimum PMs utilization in the data center, an adaptive value is set to a utilization threshold. This value is changed frequently due to the dynamic and unpredictable workloads of the cloud environment.

- * Median Adaptive Thresholding: it depends on the median. An adaptive value is set to a utilization threshold. This value is also changed frequently in a cloud environment.
- Boxplot: It is one of the most frequently used graphical techniques for analyzing data sets, see Figure 4.1. To create a boxplot, the elements of any data set are arranged in ascending order. Then, the median value of the arranged numbers, (called in this method Q2), is calculated. Q2 divides the data into two subsets. To divide the data into quarters, the medians of these two subsets are calculated too. The median of the left subset is called Q1, while the median of the right one is called Q3. If the data set has an even number of elements, Q1 will be the average of the two middle elements. This works with the two subsets as well, if they have an even number of elements.

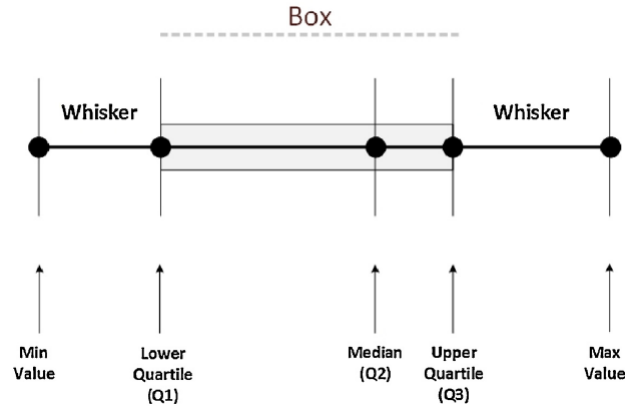


Figure 4.1: Description of the Boxplot Method

2. **Host overload detection:** Determining if a host is considered to be overloaded, so that some VMs should be migrated to other active, or reactivated hosts, to meet the QoS requirements. There are 2 methods which were explicated before:
 - Static Thresholding.
 - Dynamic Thresholding: there are 2 patterns:
 - Adaptive Thresholding (AT).
 - * Mean Adaptive Thresholding: depending on the mean of the values of the maximum PMs utilization in the data center, an adaptive value is set to a utilization threshold.
 - * Median Adaptive Thresholding: it depends on the median of the values of the maximum PMs utilization in the data center.
 - Boxplot (we will use this method in our approach).
3. **VM selection:** Selecting VMs that would be migrated from under/ overloaded hosts. There are many policies:

- Random Sampling (RS) Policy
 - Systematic Sampling (SS) Policy
 - Minimum Time Cost Migration (MTCM) Policy
 - Minimum Energy Cost Migration (MECM) Policy.
4. **VM placement:** Placing VMs selected for migration to other active, or reactivated hosts. To enhance the energy efficiency in virtualized cloud data centers, it could be noted that the approaches with conditional VM placement are much better compared with random VM placement approaches. The conditional VM placement approaches result in better energy efficiency[5].

4.4 Proposed approach

The objective of our project is to provide a workflow scheduling mechanism in Cloud Computing. We propose an approach that consists of managing the available resources within a Cloud Computing system in the most efficient way possible and properly assigning tasks to virtual machines in order to minimize cost, makespan and doing VM placement and consolidation for optimizing energy without violating the deadline constraints established for each task by the user, in order to satisfy QoS.

4.4.1 Objectives

Our approach considers the following metrics and constraints:

- Energy consumption
- Cost
- Maskespan

4.4.2 Principle and description

Our proposed approach is as follows:

- We suggest partitioning workflow and grouping tasks in the same partition as just one task, this can reduce the scheduling time.
- We suggest starting the EViMA algorithm first to assign proper tasks to virtual machines.
- We think that when the PM is under-loaded or overloaded, it will consume more energy this is why we think that if we apply during the execution some of the virtual machine migration strategies and policies as in this article[5], may be we will avoid this problem and so reducing energy consumed by hosts. After seeing the results of experiments and test performance[5], so we decide to apply the best policies which are:

- Boxplot: for both **host overload and under-load detection** where PM utilization is calculated as in Definition 3.3.4.3.
- MECM for **VM selection** where migration energy is calculated in Definition 3.3.4.1.
- For **VM placement** our algorithm is based on the greedy algorithm concept which sorts the containers in decreasing order based on their capacity before performing the packing process. Then, it picks one by one PM to pack the VMs on it based on KP.

4.4.3 Steps of our approach

Algorithm 4.6 Our approach

Require: Workflow, set of VMs and set of VM types ($VM_{HEC}, VM_{MEC}, VM_{LEC}$), PMs

```

1:  $wt_{ReadyPool} = clustered(wt_1, wt_2, wt_3, \dots, wt_n)$ 
2: Apply algorithm EViMA
3: Sort PMs based on PM utilisation
4:  $VM_{candidateList} = \phi$ 
5: Add all VMs that are in under-loaded PMs to  $VM_{candidateList}$ 
6: Add all VMs that are in over-loaded PMs to  $VM_{candidateList}$ 
7: Sort  $PMs$  based on capacity /availability in descending order
8:  $j=0$ 
9: while  $VM_{candidateList} \neq \phi$  and  $j < \text{size}(PMs)$  do
10:   pick  $PM_j$ 
11:    $VM_{selected}$  which results minimum energy is selected
12:   if  $\text{requirements}(VM_{selected}) \leq \text{availableCapacity}(PM_j)$  then
13:     place  $VM_{selected}$  on  $PM_j$ 
14:     Update  $VM_{candidateList}$ 
15:   end if
16:    $j = j + 1$ 
17: end while Until no more VM or no more PM
18: Migrate all VMs
19: foreach  $pm$  in  $PMs$  do
20:   if  $pm$  is not used then
21:     put  $pm$  on power save mode
22:   end if
23: end foreach

```

First, we apply the EViMA approach which focuses on improving resource management in the cloud data center to obtain the best task schedules that reduces energy consumption, execution makespan and execution cost without violating deadline constraints.

Then, we initialize the VM candidate list to an empty set and we add all VMs that are in under/over-loaded physical machines. Physical machines are considered under-

loaded if they are 1st quarter(Q1) using the boxplot method (see 4.1) and are overloaded if they are great than 4th quarter(Q4).

Repeat for all VMs in VM candidate list until no more VM or no more available hosts:

- Select VM with the minimum expected migration energy.
- If the selected VM requirements are satisfied in the selected PM then place VM in PMj.
- Pass to the next PM.

Finally, we map the selected VMs to suitable physical machines to do a VM consolidation, which will allow us then to switch off the PMs which are not used.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter was devoted to presenting our approach MOCS-OViC(Multi-Objective Cloud Scheduler with Optimized Virtual Machines Consolidation for Scientific Workflows).

So in the next chapter, we will present our experiment and simulation in order to evaluate the performance of the solutions generated by the proposed algorithm.

CHAPTER 5

Implementation, simulation and discussion of results

5.1 Introduction

Over the past few years, cloud computing has gained tremendous popularity since it presents a flexible and efficient solution for many services on the Internet. Cloud is a large and complex system since it is composed of several users, service providers, physical machines, service brokers, task scheduling algorithms, bandwidth, internet latency and storage technology, etc. On the other hand, all cloud-based implementations need various configurations. Therefore, it is very difficult for researchers to evaluate the performance of their policies in a real cloud environment[32].

In this chapter we will present the simulation tool, workflows used, experiments parameters, performance metrics and outcomes of the measurement will be presented.

5.2 Simulation tool: WorkflowSim

The simulator can play an important role in reducing cost, efficiency, infrastructure complexity and security risks before a solution can be deployed on a real infrastructure. By focusing on issues related to the quality of a particular component under various scenarios, cloud simulators enable performance analysts to monitor the behaviors of the system[32].

5.2.1 Description and main features

WorkflowSim was introduced for modeling Scientific Workflows in a cloud environment. Workflows in heterogeneous distributed systems show different levels of overheads that are explained based on computational operations and miscellaneous works.

Most simulators such as CloudSim do not consider fine granularity simulations of workflows and task clustering. Task clustering reduces the number of jobs to be executed and so execution overhead is decreased.

Generally, a job may have a high risk of suffering from failures since it consists of several tasks. Researchers with WorkflowSim can study the impact of job failures runtime performance of workflows for different clustering methods[32].

5.2.2 Architecture

Figure 5.1 shows the structure of WorkflowSim which is composed of several components:

1. Workflow Mapper that maps abstract workflows to concrete workflows.
2. Workflow Engine that controls the data dependencies.
3. Workflow Scheduler assigns jobs to resources.
4. Clustering Engine that groups small tasks into a large jobs.
5. Failure Generator that injects task failures for each execution site.

6. Failure Monitor that stores the failure information such as resource id and task id.

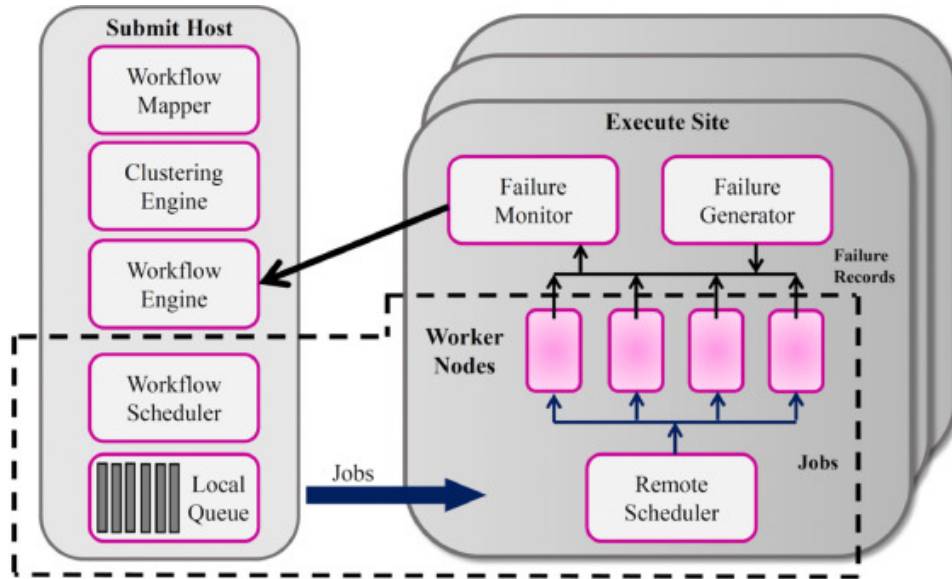


Figure 5.1: WorkflowSim's Architecture [32]

5.2.3 Downloading and Installing WorkflowSim with Eclipse without GitHub

To make the first WorkflowSim project, follow these steps[48]:

1. **Download Source Files** directly from <https://github.com/WorkflowSim/WorkflowSim-1.0/archive/master.zip> and unzip it to *your_repo_root*.
2. **Check out your source codes:**
 - (a) create a new Java project called 'WorkflowSim' (it doesn't have to be 'WorkflowSim').
 - (b) Right-click your project and choose 'Import'. Click 'General'->' Projects from Folder or Archive'. (see Figure 5.2)
 - (c) Set the URL to be your extracted folder (wait until the Finish button will be enabled as in Figure 5.3).
3. **Run an Example:** Run an example i.e. `org.workflowsim.examples.WorkflowSimBasicExample1.java`.
 - (a) Open `WorkflowSimBasicExample1.java`
 - (b) replace the String `daxPath = "/Users/chenweiwei/Work/WorkflowSim-1.0/config/dax/Montage_100.xml"`; with your real physical file path.
 - (c) Right-click on `WorkflowSimBasicExample1.java` and choose 'Run File'. You should be able to see some output.

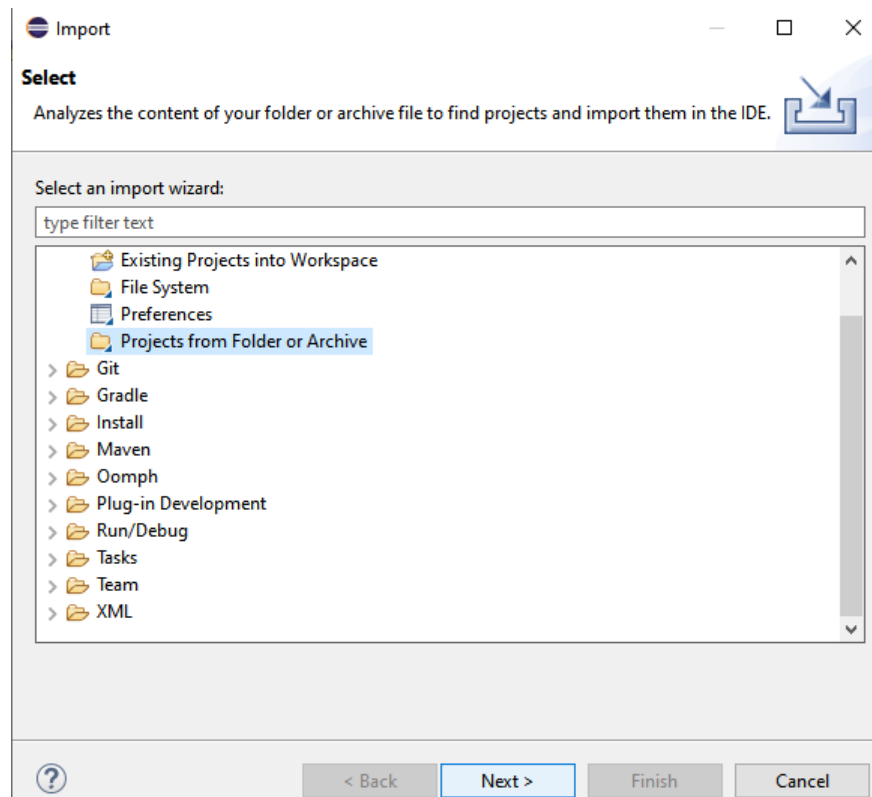


Figure 5.2: Import a project

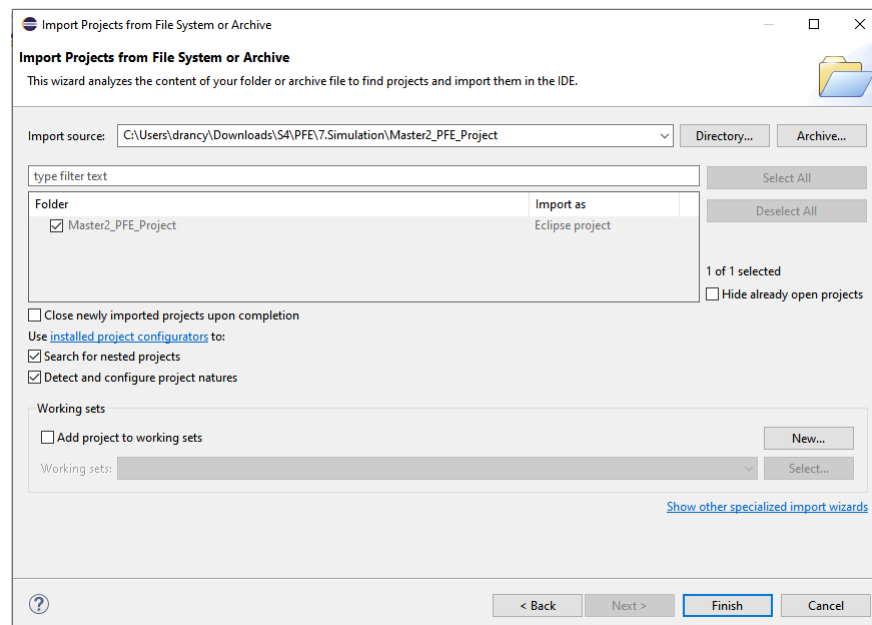


Figure 5.3: Set URL to be the extracted folder

5.2.4 Strengths

WorkflowSim has many advantages[32]:

1. It supports a stack of workflow parser and workflow engine delay to workflow optimization techniques with better accuracy are implemented.
2. It implements several workflow-scheduling methods such as HEFT, Min-Min and Max-Min and so developers can compare their algorithms with them in a simple way.
3. It considers task clustering and layered overhead in the workflow simulation. Therefore, developer scan and test various strategies based on a real trace of overheads.
4. It models failures for two layers (i. e., task/job) by an interface and hence developers can design fault-tolerant techniques.

5.2.5 Limitations

WorkflowSim has some limitations [32]:

1. It includes limited types of failures. Therefore, developers cannot simulate the situation when a task is not successfully sent due to network problems or workflow scheduler issues.
2. It does not consider the performance characteristic of file I/O. Therefore, developers cannot obtain suitable simulations for data-intensive applications since these applications involve reading or writing huge data files.
3. It supports only simple workflow techniques and so developers cannot use other important approaches like workflow partitioning in their implementations.

5.3 Workflows

We use five different types of benchmark workflows (Montage, Cybershake, LIGO, Epigenomics and Sipht) available on the Pegasus website.

These workflows typically involve complex data of various sizes and complicated computer simulations. They need high computation power and the availability of large infrastructures that cloud computing environments provide with different quality of service levels. The quality of schedules obtained by various algorithms is also compared using these workflows. Information about the task dependencies, the amount of data transmitted and the execution time estimates are presented in DAX format. DAX files include a single time estimate for each task. To simulate the case of different time constraints provided by users, the start time and a deadline for each workflow are randomly assigned [36].

Each of these workflow types has four different workloads. For example, the Cybershake workflow has four workloads, including 30, 50, 100 and 1000 [28].

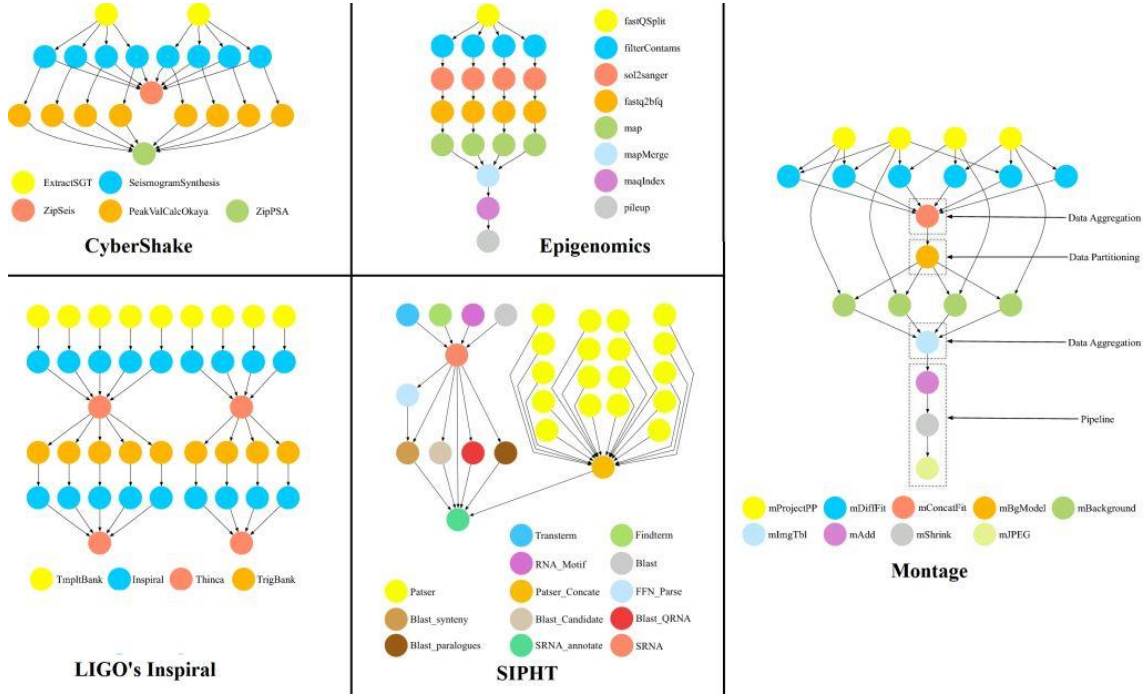


Figure 5.4: Structure of Scientific Workflows used confluence.pegasus.isi.edu

5.4 Simulation parameter

The inputs to the simulation environment are as follows:

- The average bandwidth between resources is 20 MBps.
- The processing matrix for each VM is measured in Million Instruction Per Second (MIPS).
- The task lengths are set in Million Instruction (MI).

In this work, we assumed that there are only three types of VMs (VM_{HEC} , VM_{MEC} and VM_{LEC}).

We further assumed that there are only 3 types of VMs in the cloud data center, each with an infinite number of instances. The computational capacities and the prices per hour for each VM type are set as the work. The instant capacity selection and pricing model are based on Amazon EC2 (see Table 5.4.1)[28].

5.5 Experimentations

In order to evaluate the performance of the solutions generated by the proposed algorithm and the benchmark algorithms, we conducted many experiments.

Virtual Machine	type	Capability (CU)	Price (\$/h)
LEC	1	1. 0	0. 12
LEC	2	1. 5	0. 195
MEC	3	2. 0	0. 28
MEC	4	2. 5	0. 375
HEC	5	3. 0	0. 48
HEC	6	3. 5	0. 595

Table 5.4.1: VM types and pricing model

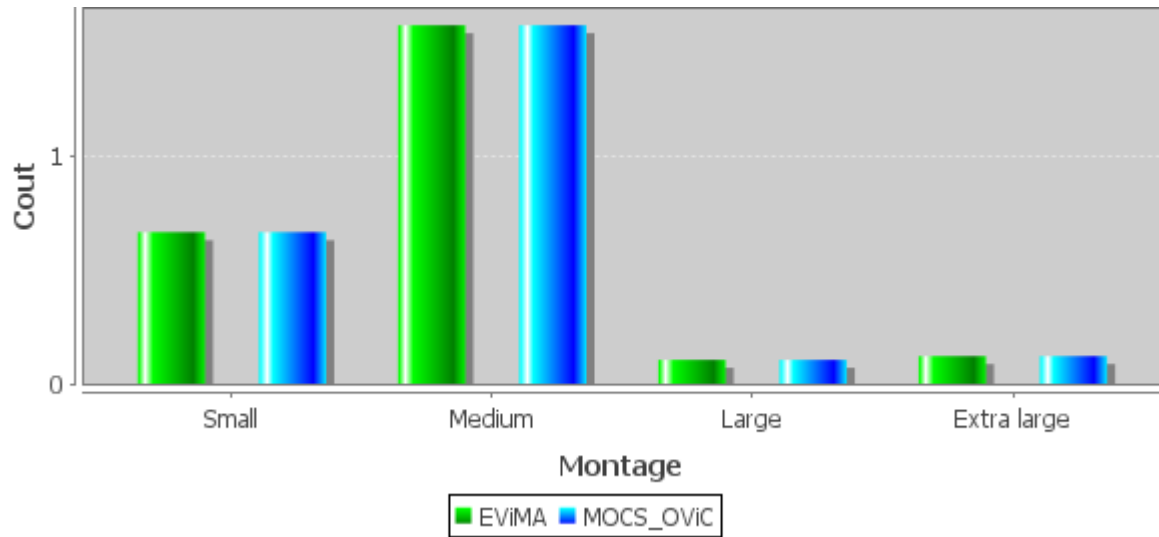


Figure 5.5: Cost results of Montage

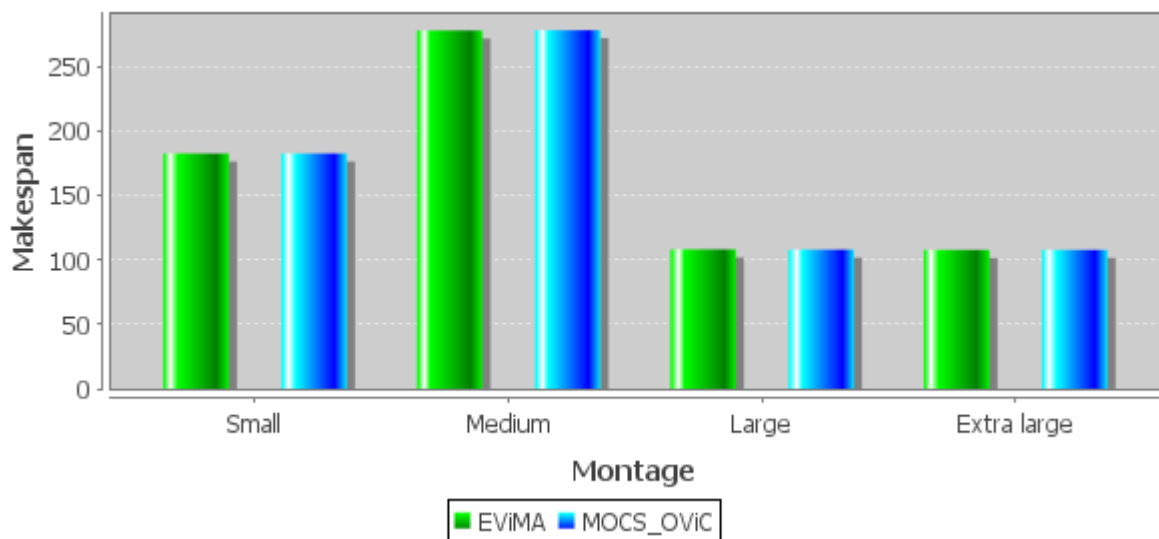


Figure 5.6: Makespan results of Montage

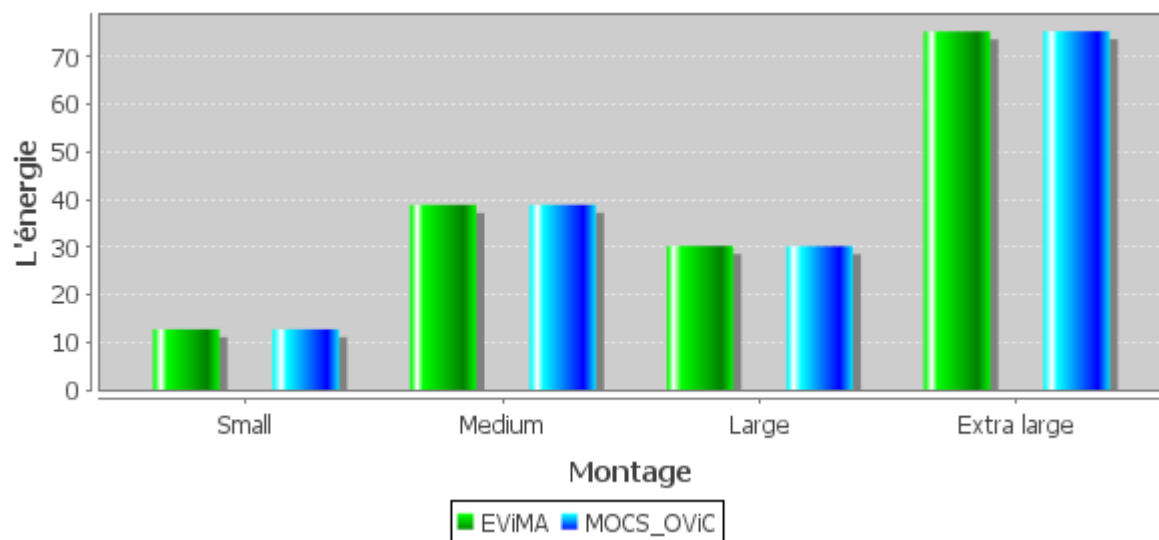


Figure 5.7: Energy results of Montage

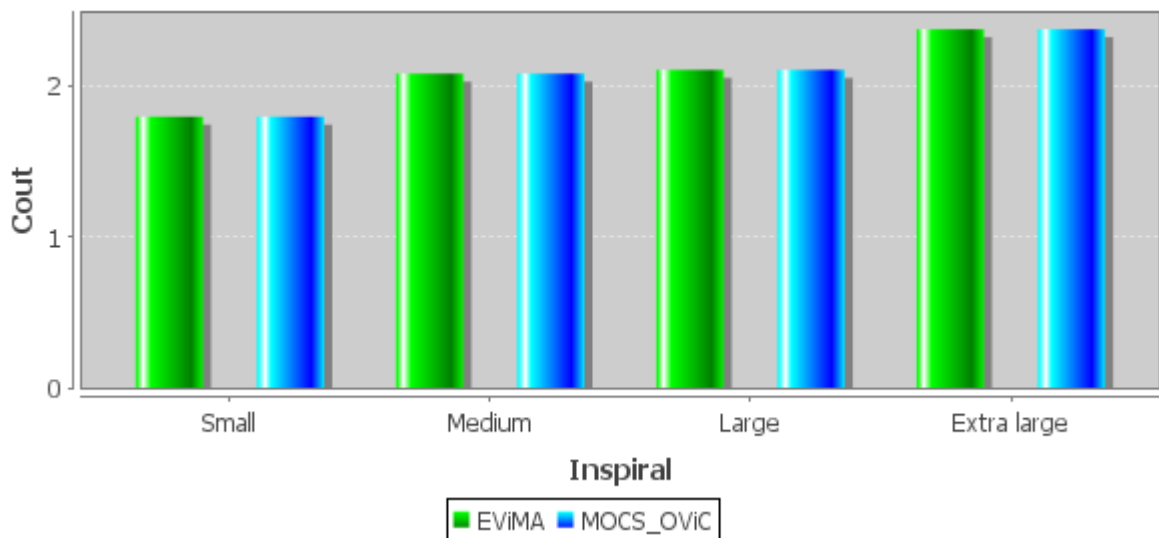


Figure 5.8: Cost results of Inspiral

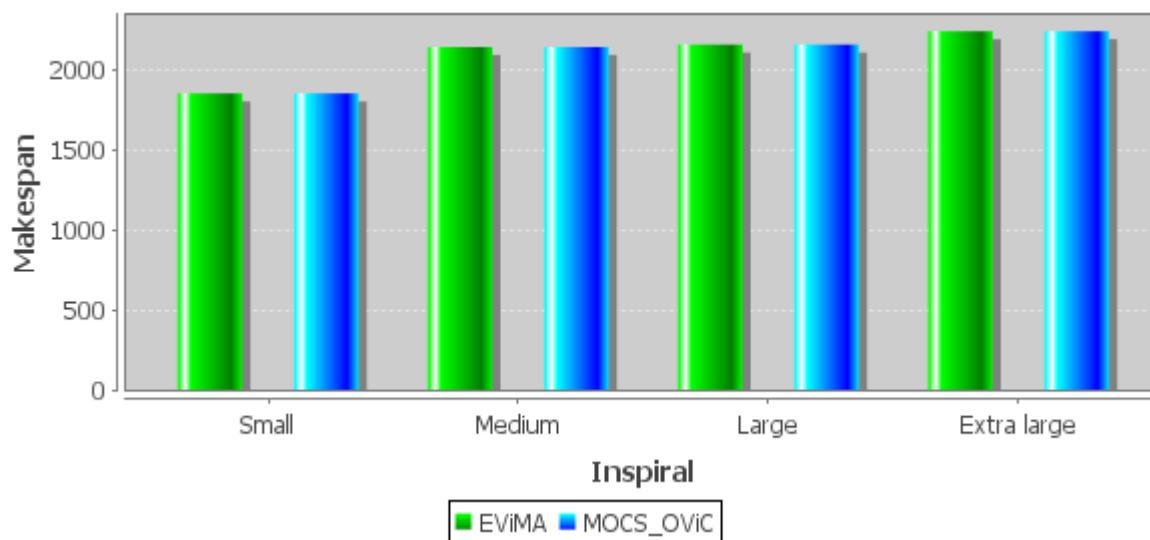


Figure 5.9: Makespan results of Inspiral

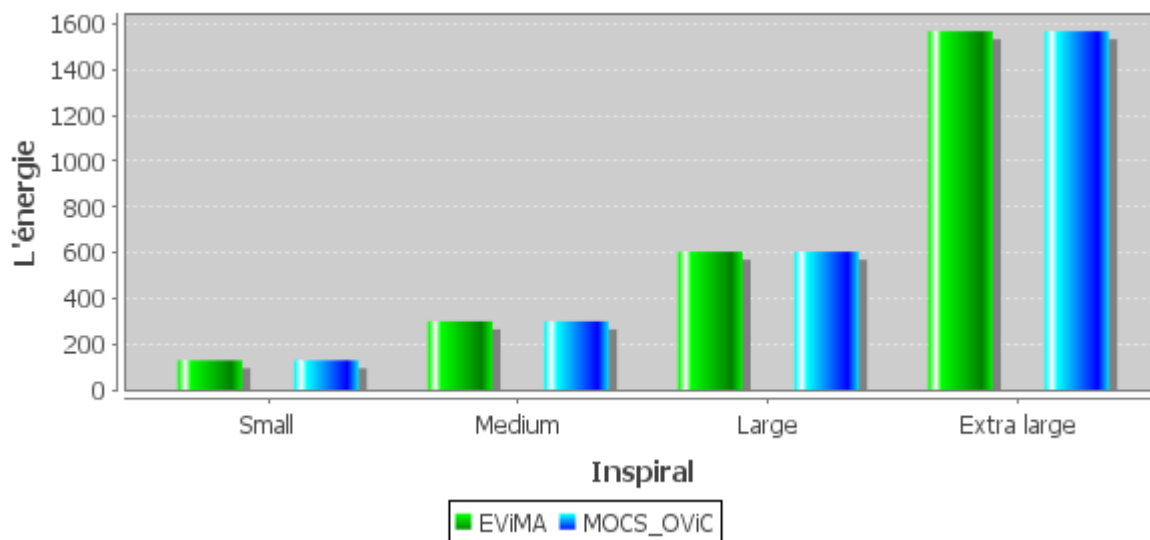


Figure 5.10: Energy results of Inspiral

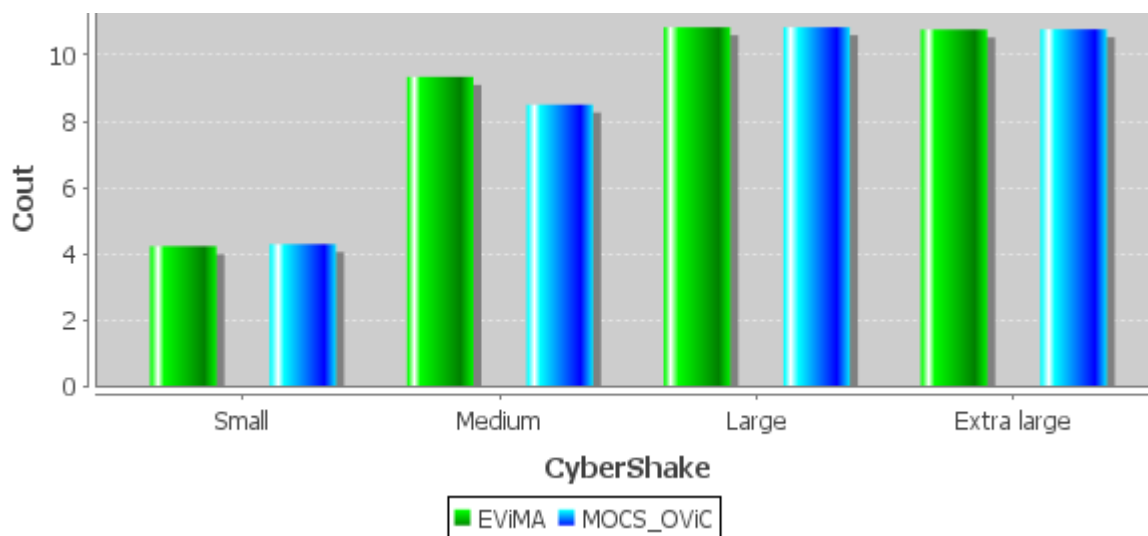


Figure 5.11: Cost results of CyberShake

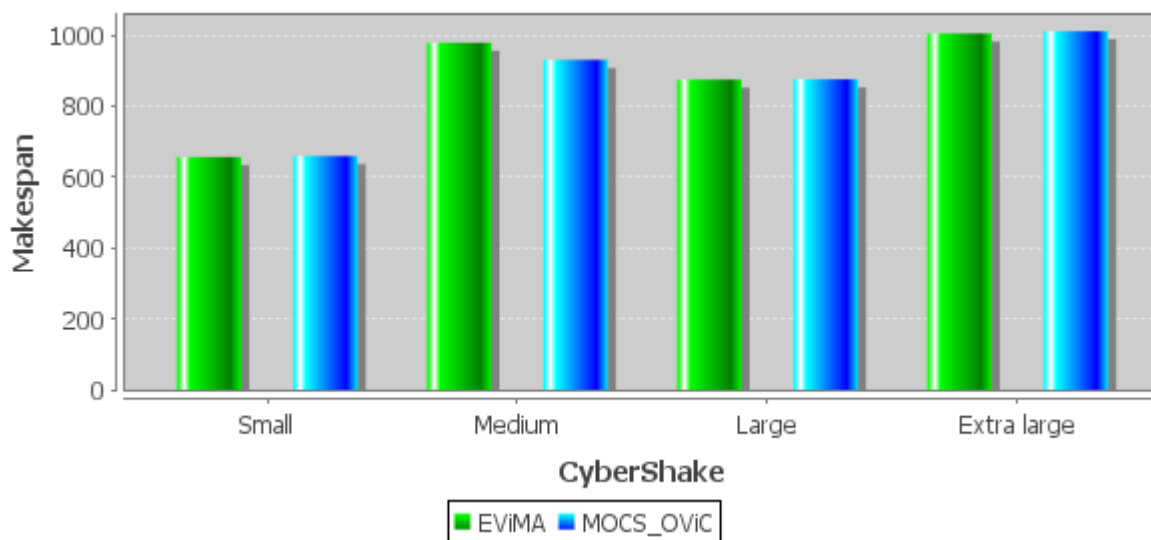


Figure 5.12: Makespan results of CyberShake

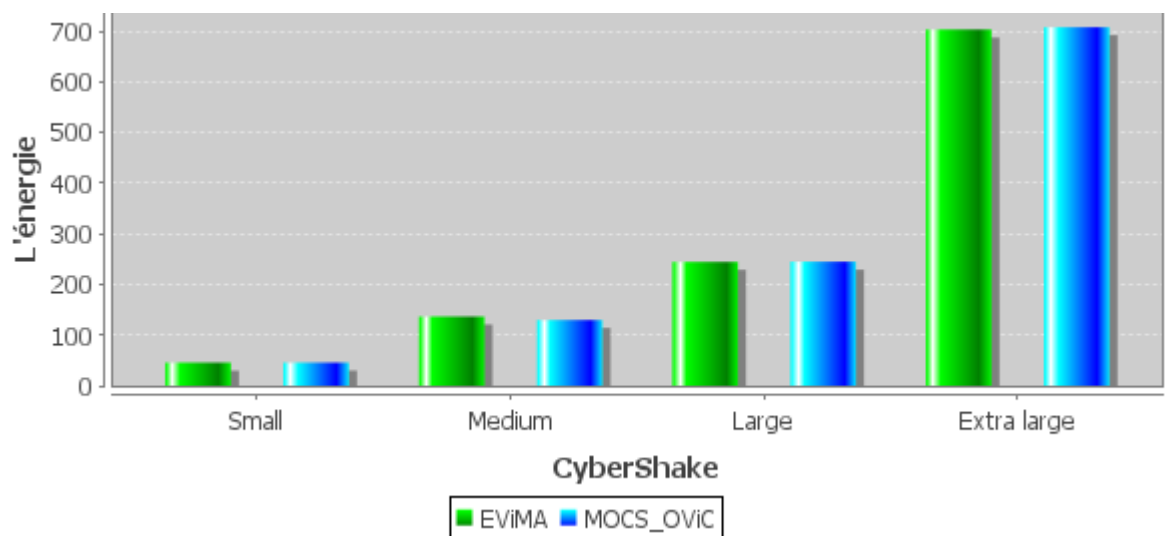


Figure 5.13: Energy results of CyberShake

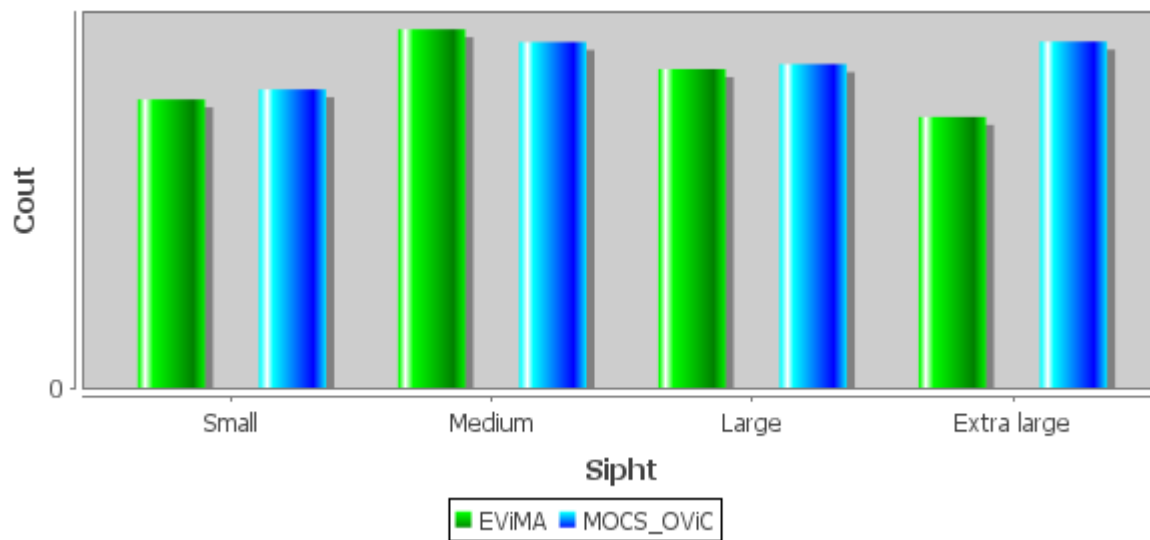


Figure 5.14: Cost results of Sipht

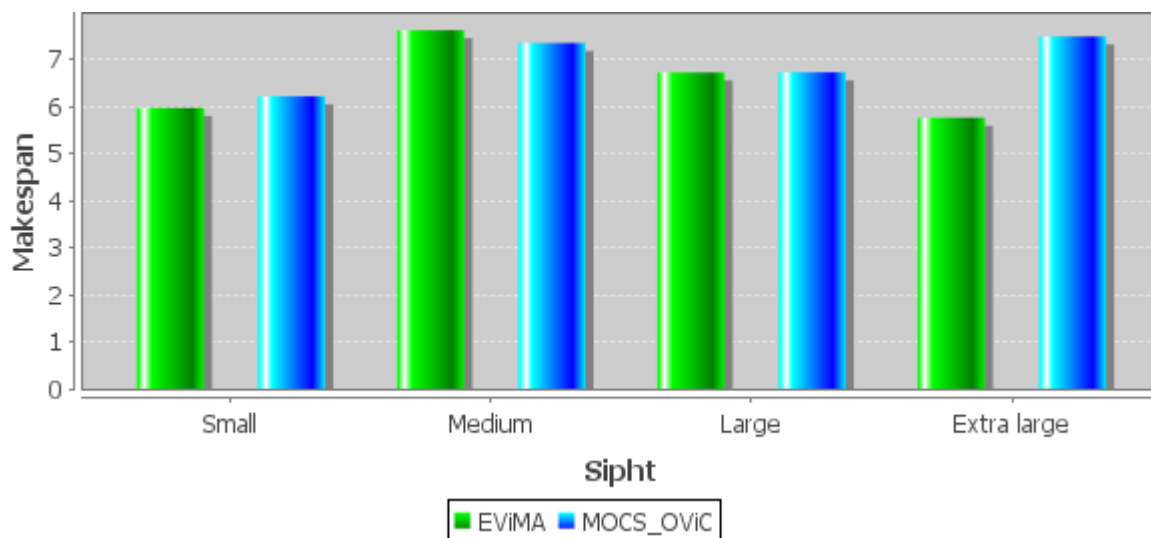


Figure 5.15: Makespan results of Sipht

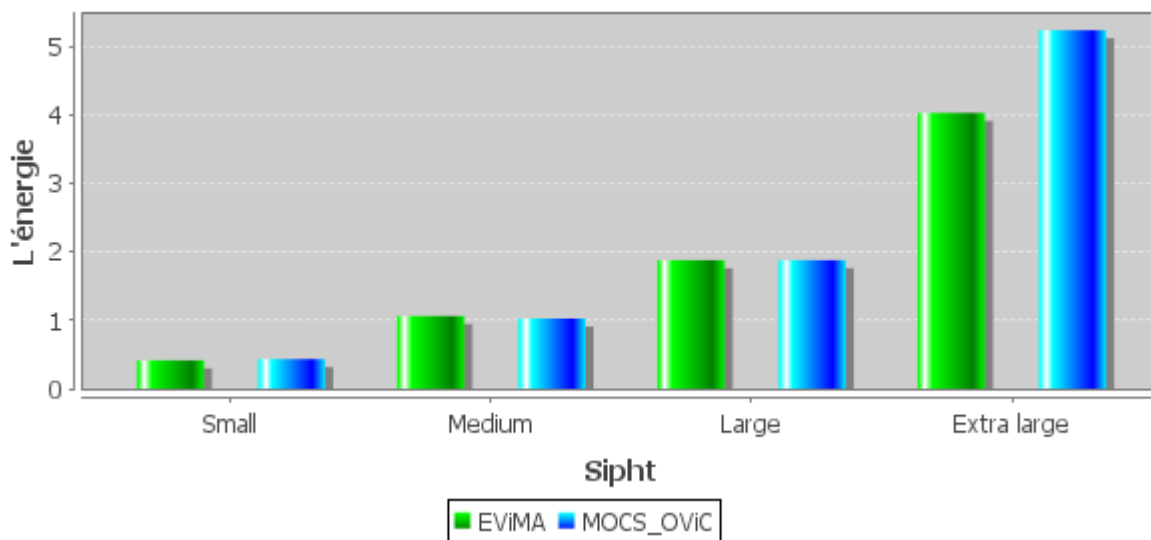


Figure 5.16: Energy results of Sipht

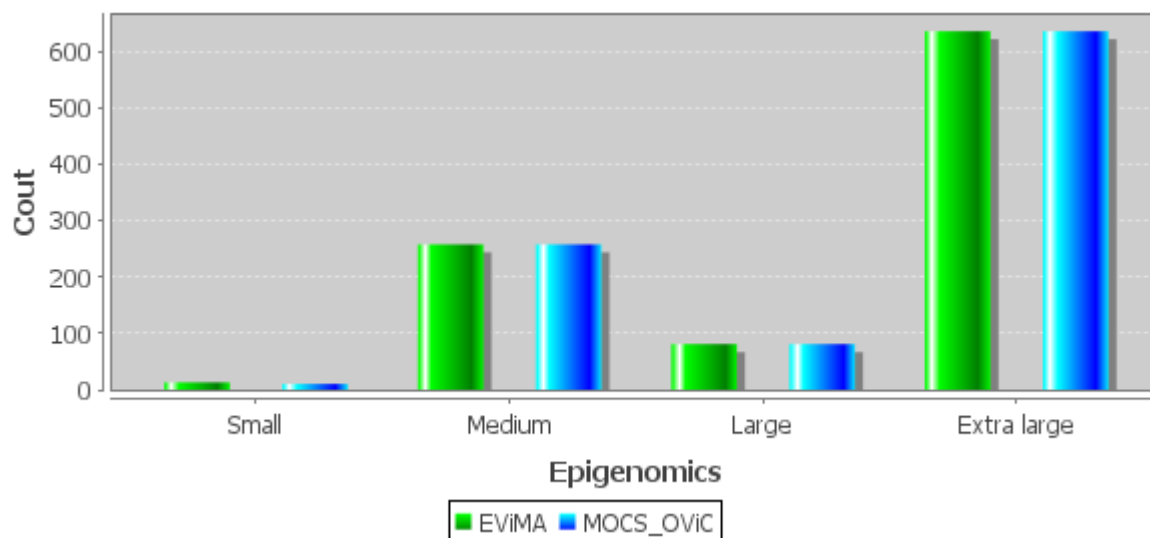


Figure 5.17: Cost results of Epigenomics

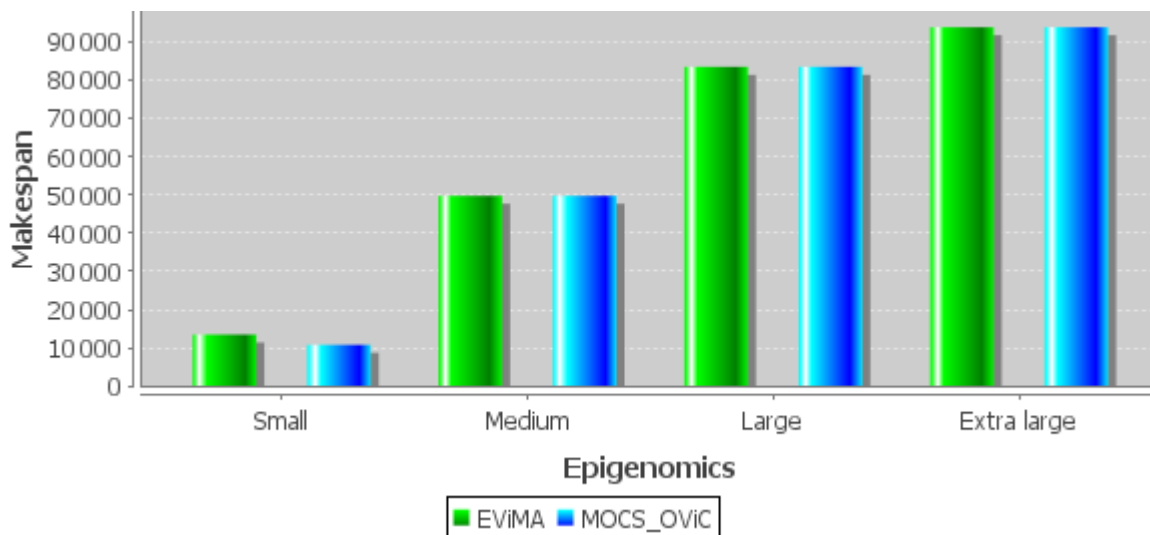


Figure 5.18: Makespan results of Epigenomics

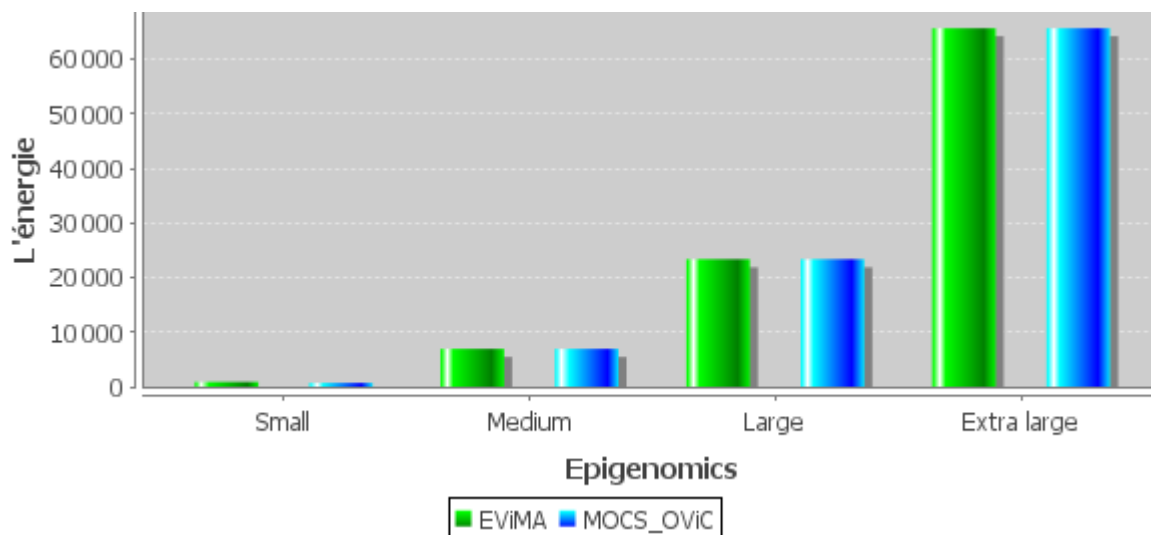


Figure 5.19: Energy results of Epigenomics

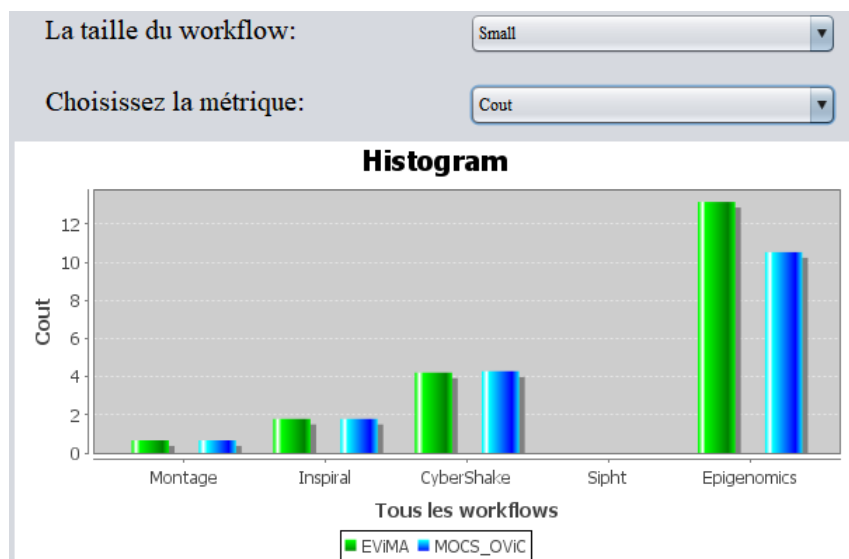


Figure 5.20: Cost results for small workload

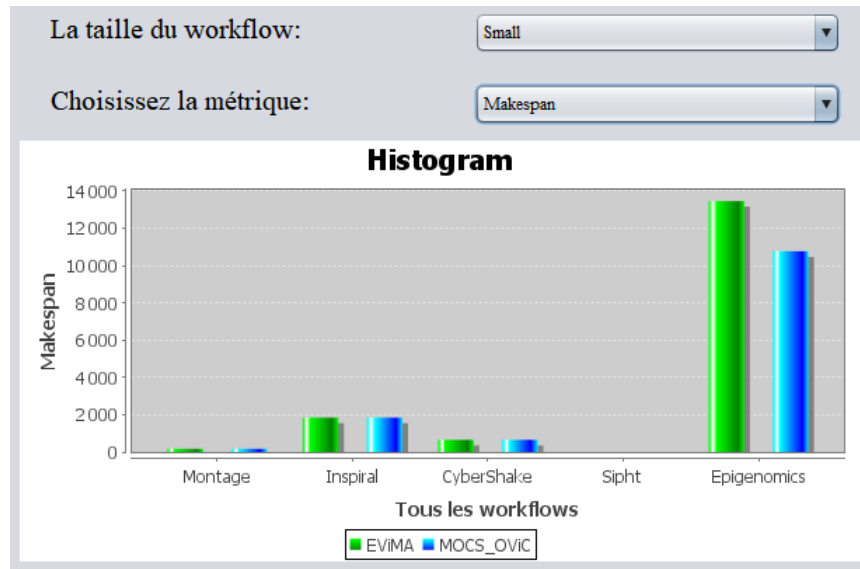


Figure 5.21: Makespan results for small workload

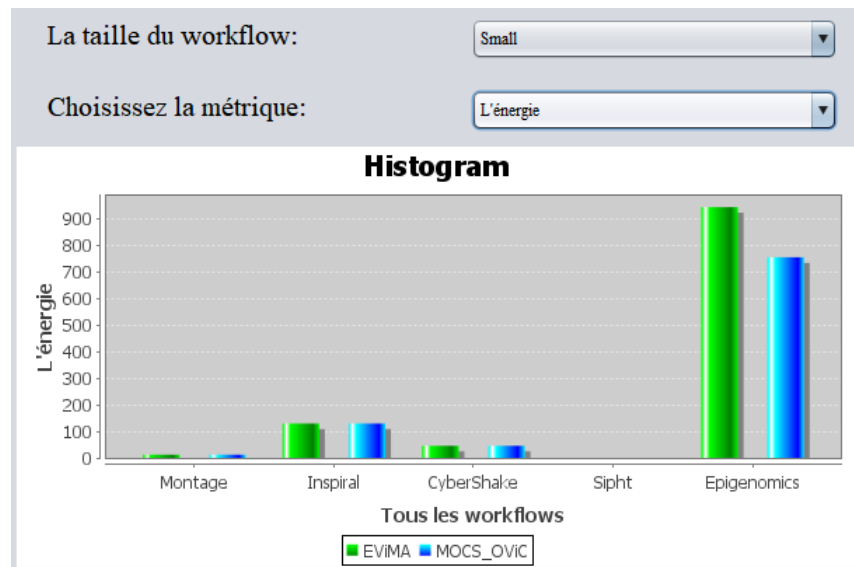


Figure 5.22: Energy results for small workload

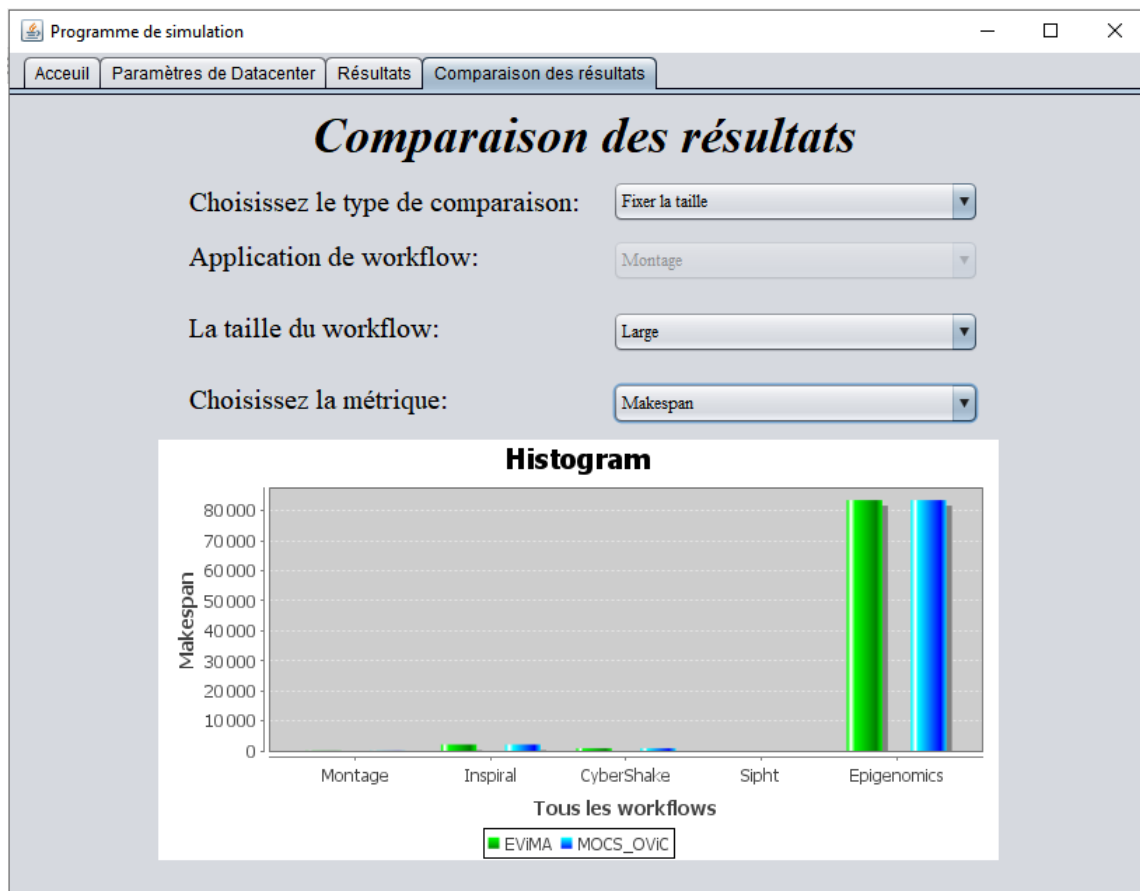


Figure 5.23: Cost results for small worklaod

5.6 Comparison and discussion of the results

From these experiments, we have these notes:

- Cost of execution for Montage and Epigenomics, it is noted that Medium is worst than Large (and extra-large for Montage).
- For Montage and Inspiral all of the results are close for all metrics.
- The energy consumed is the same for all workflows except for Sipht where EViMA has better results.
- For CyberShake in Medium workload our algorithm has better cost and makespan, but for the small and large and extra-large the performances are the same.
- For Sipht in Medium workload our algorithm is better in all metrics, but for the large and extra-large workloads EViMA is better. This is because a lot of migrations affect makespan and so on energy and cost.
- For small (and sometimes medium) workloads of all workflows applications our algorithm is better compared to EViMA algorithm in all metrics (see Figure5.20, Figure5.21, Figure5.22), but for large and extra-large workloads the results are close.

We can conclude that our approach is suitable for small and medium workflows.

5.7 Conclusion

Using the WorkflowSim simulator, we have tested our novel workflow scheduling algorithm. We have conducted many experiments and compared the results to evaluate the proposed approach. We have simulated five real-world scientific workflows with different task sizes: small, medium, large and extra-large.

General conclusion

We propose our novel workflow scheduling algorithm that is aimed at managing cloud resources to achieve this goal and meet the user's needs and the cloud provider's QoS. We evaluate our algorithm by running three experiments and comparing the results. We use five real-world scientific workflows with different sizes of tasks: small, medium, large and extra-large in the simulation process.

Our algorithm is not considering instance acquisition and termination delay which is essential for simulating realistic scenarios and optimizing the scheduling and scaling of cloud applications.

Furthermore, we intend to apply this work in a Fog computing environment to reduce energy consumption which can lower the operational costs and environmental impact of fog computing. Also reducing makespan can improve the quality of service and user experience of fog applications. This can enhance the reliability and scalability of fog computing by avoiding network congestion.

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