# Deadline Constrained Prediction of Job Resource Requirements to Manage High-Level SLAs for SaaS Cloud Providers

Gemma Reig, Javier Alonso, and Jordi Guitart
Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya (UPC) and Barcelona Supercomputing Center (BSC)
Barcelona, Spain
Email: {greig, alonso, jguitart}@ac.upc.edu

Abstract—For a non IT expert to use services in the Cloud is more natural to negotiate the OoS with the provider in terms of service-level metrics -e.g. job deadlines- instead of resourcelevel metrics -e.g. CPU MHz. However, current infrastructures only support resource-level metrics -e.g. CPU share and memory allocation- and there is not a well-known mechanism to translate from service-level metrics to resource-level metrics. Moreover, the lack of precise information regarding the requirements of the services leads to an inefficient resource allocation -usually, providers allocate whole resources to prevent SLA violations. According to this, we propose a novel mechanism to overcome this translation problem using an online prediction system which includes a fast analytical predictor and an adaptive machine learning based predictor. We also show how a deadline scheduler could use these predictions to help providers to make the most of their resources. Our evaluation shows: i) that fast algorithms are able to make predictions with an 11% and 17% of relative error for the CPU and memory respectively; ii) the potential of using accurate predictions in the scheduling compared to simple vet well-known schedulers.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Over the last years, the Cloud has suffered a huge expansion opening the IT complex infrastructures to users with quite different IT background. For these users to use the Cloud, as it occurs in every transaction, they are required to negotiate and agree a contract with the Cloud resource provider specifying the conditions in which the transaction takes place. This contract is called Service Level Agreement (SLA). Usually, these users know, for example, when they want their submitted tasks to be completed. However, they tend to do not know how many resources have to buy to achieve their target. Thus, for a non IT expert to use services is more natural to negotiate the SLA with the provider in high-level terms, representing the quality of their experience [1]. That is, expressing the QoS with service-level metrics -e.g. job deadlines- instead of resourcelevel metrics -e.g. CPU MHz-, which could depend on the underlying architecture and thus, they are not transferable from a Cloud provider to another. On the other hand, dealing with service-level metrics is also an advantage for the provider as it has more freedom deciding the resource allotments to users' applications whilst it fulfills their SLAs.

Moreover, the Cloud accommodates applications that exhibit very heterogeneous behavior. This heterogeneity has different dimensions: the nature of the application –ranging from

HPC jobs to Web services-, the application's use of resources -e.g. CPU-bounded, memory-bounded- and the workload as the arrival of jobs is variable -there are peak and off-peak hours. In order to be profitable, service providers tend to share their resources among multiple concurrent applications owned by different users. This is typically accomplished by means of virtualization, which allows sharing the underlying resources among several applications while offering an isolated view to each of them. However, because of applications heterogeneity, it is not assumable to statically provision dedicated resources to the applications, since this leads to an inefficient resource utilization. The solution is dynamically allocating resources to the applications depending on their needs, while guaranteeing that each of them has always enough resources to meet the agreed service-level metrics. In such an scenario, if the provider does not have precise information regarding the requirements of the services, this leads to an inefficient resource allocation -usually, providers allocate whole resources to prevent SLA violations.

For this reason, although service-level metrics are preferred by both users and providers, the latter require resource-level information in order to allocate the adequate amount of resources to the applications and charge for their execution. Thus, the provider should translate somehow these service-level metrics to resource requirements. However, there is not a well-known mechanism to translate from service-level metrics to resource-level metrics efficiently. That is, to decide the resource requirements to fulfill the service-level metrics.

Our contribution targets virtualized service providers that handle heterogeneous workloads. These providers dedicate part of their resources to execute web applications, and try to accommodate batch jobs in the remaining resources. We propose a prediction system to determine the minimum job resource requirements to be executed before its deadline. One key innovation of the prediction system is the usage of Machine Learning to enable the translation from service-level metrics to resource requirements. In addition, we demonstrate how different scheduling policies can take advantage of these predictions to do a more efficient resource allocation. In particular, we devise the architecture of a scheduler that enables the scheduling policies to discard the execution of a job in advance if they predict that it will not finalize before

its deadline, according to the resources available in the system in a specific moment.

Therefore, our contribution's aim is twofold: i) enabling the Cloud to non-expert IT users by means of using service-level metrics and ii) help providers to do a smart utilization of their resources by using the resources left by web applications to execute jobs in an efficient way —e.g. discard jobs in advance, avoiding the risk of wasting resources in executing jobs that will not meet their deadlines.

The rest of this paper is structured as follows: Section II presents our assumptions, Section III describes our proposal's architecture, Sections IV and V present the scheduler and the prediction system respectively, Section VI shows the results obtained, Section VII presents the related work and finally, Section VIII exposes our conclusions and future work.

#### II. ENVIRONMENT AND ASSUMPTIONS

For the scope of this paper, we make some assumptions: i) although we envision a heterogeneous workload, this work focus on providing resource predictions for repetitive CPU and memory intensive single threaded batch jobs. We do not deal with I/O intensive jobs because the virtualization mechanism used in the experimentation does not provide an interface to manage I/O allocation among VMs [2]. Predicting the resource requirements for the web workload is part of our future work. According to this, in our experimentation we have simulated the resource requirements of the web applications over time using a known predefined pattern. ii) SLAs for batch jobs have to specify the job to execute and the deadline date. Also, this SLA should reflect client's satisfaction in terms of rewards and penalties to be applied when the job's deadline is not met. We consider the approach in which the penalties do not exceed the reward to avoid malicious clients who would rather prefer to receive indemnities than to execute jobs. In this paper, these rewards can be thought as jobs' priorities or values which are required by some of the scheduling policies used through the experimentation Section VI.

# III. ARCHITECTURE

This section presents the logical architecture of the system (see Figure 1). This is composed by two main components:

- The **Scheduler** accepts incoming jobs and web applications to be planned. The *Policy* module queries the *Prediction System* and *Resource Status* module and decides, depending on the policy being used, how to allocate resources to the incoming jobs and how to elastically size up and down the resource allocation for web applications, in order to fulfill their respective QoS.
- The **Prediction System** is in charge of predicting the minimum resource requirements needed to meet SLAs. It consists of an *Analytical Predictor* module and a *Self-Adjusting Predictor* module that predicts by learning from previous job executions.

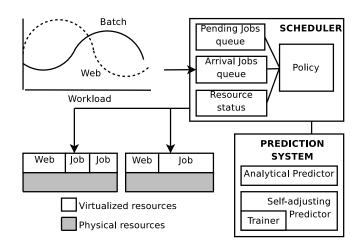


Fig. 1. System architecture

## IV. SCHEDULER

This section describes the *Scheduler*, which uses the prediction mechanisms to make the most of provider's resources. Once a job arrives at the system, the *Scheduler* queries the *Prediction System* about the minimum resource requirements of the job to meet its deadline. The *Scheduler* receives a prediction from both the *Analytical Predictor* and the *Self-Adjusting Predictor*. Initially, it only takes into account the prediction made by the *Analytical Predictor*, as the *Self-Adjusting Predictor* is not trained yet. Once the *Self-Adjusting Predictor* is trained and therefore, it performs lower error than the other –as it is shown in the experimentation Section VI—the *Scheduler* starts to obey the *Self-Adjusting Predictor*.

Using this prediction and the resource status information, the *Scheduler* might decide (depending on which scheduling policy it is being used): i) to discard the job if the amount of resources predicted is not available and consequently the job cannot be executed on time; ii) to run the job allocating to it the required resources; iii) to delay this decision along the lifetime of the job –e.g. the provider may accept a job, but later on discard it if a new job with highest priority arrives at the system and both SLAs cannot be fulfilled.

The Scheduler obtains from the Prediction System the minimum amount of required resources to execute a job before its deadline. However, if there are more resources available, the Scheduler allocates them to the job. This way, jobs potentially make more progress than the strictly required to meet the deadline. For example, CPU-bounded jobs will make more progress as more CPU they have allocated. However, a greater allotment of memory does not imply a decrease in the execution time –if the task working set already fits in memory, increasing the allocated memory to the task will not decrease its execution time. Thus, the provider gets ahead with the work, by means of fully using the resources when the system is underloaded in order to have more resources available for future overload periods. Thanks to virtualization, changing dynamically the resource allocation is straightforward [2].

Once a job is completed, the Scheduler stores the job's

execution information –job, amount of resources allocated and execution time– in the *Prediction System*. This information will be used to train the *Self-Adjusting Predictor*.

#### V. PREDICTION SYSTEM

The *Prediction System* stores and manages information of previous job executions in order to predict the amount of required resources –CPU share and memory allocation– by a job to be completed before its deadline. This prediction is carried out by means of two components: the *Analytical Predictor* and the *Self-Adjusting Predictor*.

## A. Analytical Predictor

The aim of the *Analytical Predictor* is to predict job resource requirements while the *Self-Adjusting Predictor* is not trained.

Regarding the prediction of CPU requirements, we approximate analytically  $T_{cpu}$ , which is the execution time of a CPU-bounded job assuming that it has allocated a CPU share of %CPU, by the following equation:  $T_{cpu} = \frac{T_{ref}}{\%CPU}$ , where  $T_{ref}$  is a reference of the execution time of the job weighted by the CPU share that was allocated to that execution e ( $T_{ref} = T_{cpu,e}\%CPU_e$ ). This data is obtained from the most similar –in terms of execution time– past execution of the same application with the same input data size.

Thus, the Analytical Predictor module can determine the minimum CPU requirements as follows:  $\%CPU = \frac{T_{ref}}{Deadline-Now}$ , where Deadline is the deadline for executing the job, and Now is the current time. According to this, whenever the Deadline is in the future (Deadline > Now), %CPU is a positive number. Then, the deadline potentially can be accomplished if  $\%CPU \le 100$ .

Whereas the amount of CPU allocated to a job directly determines its execution time, there are some differences when we are considering memory. In particular, whilst the amount of memory allocated to a job is greater or equal to the amount of memory it requires, the execution time is always the same, even if we allocate more memory to the job. Otherwise, if the memory allocated is lower than the required one, the job starts to use the swapping space and the lesser is the memory allocated to the job the longer is its execution time. Besides, there is a high variability of the execution time when the memory allocated is lower than the job requirement, making the analytical prediction imprecise. However, we use the same idea discussed for the CPU to predict analytically the memory requirement because it might be useful while the *Self-Adjusting Predictor* is not trained.

Therefore, the Analytical Predictor is able to predict memory and CPU requirements by using a similar –same application with the same input data size– past execution. Thus, the first time that an unknown job (or a known job but with different input data size) arrives at the system, the Prediction System will not be able to predict its resource requirements. To alleviate the effect of not having any resource requirements prediction, the Scheduler may apply several techniques to cover this eventuality. For example, by allocating to the job

all the available resources, or if the job's SLA is violated and the provider does not earn anything, charge the cost of the execution in future executions, etc. Alternatively, the *Prediction System* could request the customer an initial estimation of the job execution time in order to make the prediction. However, usually customers' estimations are very imprecise [3]. In addition, the system is more usable if the customers are not required to provide such low-level information.

Thus, the *Analytical Predictor* is useful to make predictions for CPU or memory bounded jobs whilst the *Self-Adjusting Predictor* is not trained. Nevertheless, it is not able to predict the requirements of a job that uses both memory and CPU.

## B. Self-Adjusting Predictor

The Self-Adjusting Predictor uses Machine Learning based models to predict the CPU share and the amount of memory required to execute a job before its deadline expires. The Analytical Predictor is non-flexible to changes in the behavior of the jobs and it requires a past execution of the same job with the same input data size to predict the resources needed. But the Self-Adjusting Predictor, thanks to the use of Machine Learning, offers a more flexible behavior, allowing to predict the resources needed by an application, without needing any previous execution of the same job. Furthermore, the Self-Adjusting Predictor has the capability to learn from different jobs and predict the resources needed from completely different jobs using a single model.

Every time that a job completes its execution, the Scheduler updates the Prediction System with information about the amount of resources allocated to the job and how long did it take to complete its execution. The Self-Adjusting Predictor uses this information of previous executions to train the prediction models and improve its prediction accuracy. When the Self-Adjusting Predictor overcomes the accuracy of the Analytical Predictor, the Scheduler switches to this predictor. Furthermore, new job executions are continuously used to build new models, which replace the used ones when higher accuracy is achieved.

We have chosen some algorithms to build the models that perform the predictions, basically because their prediction accuracy is high and their computational complexity is low. This introduces a low overhead, which is especially important in an on-line system. Through the experimentation in Section VI, we evaluate which algorithm is more suitable to predict each resource. In particular, we evaluate the following algorithms: **Linear Regression**, which computes the line that minimizes the sum of the squares of the vertical distances of the input samples from the line. M5P, which is based on the M5 algorithm [4], consists of a decision tree in which each leaf is a regression model itself. REPTree, which is a fast decision tree learner that builds a decision tree using information gain and variance and prunes it using reduced-error pruning with backfitting [5]. **Bagging**, which is a metalearning algorithm. It improves the accuracy of an underlying classifier –REPTree or M5P in our case- by means of reducing the variance error. It builds a set of models using the underlying classifier. These are trained with training sets, generated from the original one—by deleting and replicating examples— with the same number of examples as the original data set. The output of a prediction averages the outputs of the same predictions performed by all the models.

## VI. EXPERIMENTS

To evaluate our proposal, we first evaluate the accuracy of the *Self-Adjusting Predictor*. Thereafter, we compare the two prediction modules and estimate the learning curves for the *Self-Adjusting Predictor*. Finally, we show that the *Prediction System* is useful for discarding unfeasible jobs.

# A. Experimental environment

We test our proposal by means of simulation. First, the simulation of the Self-Adjusting Predictor uses the implementation of the learning algorithms provided by the WEKA toolkit [5] to build the prediction models. In order to train and test these models, we have used Euler, MolDyn, RayTracer, and Montecarlo benchmarks from the Java Grande Benchmarks [6] and the Mencoder application as CPU-bounded applications. Also, a microbenchmark that allocates 1924 MB of memory and access it randomly as a memory-bounded application, and finally, another microbenchmark as a CPU and memory intensive application with the following structure: its initialization phase uses CPU and memory; the second phase is intensive in memory; and finalizes with a CPU intensive phase. These applications run in a Xen virtual machine with an Intel(R) Xeon(TM) MP CPU 3.16GHz. In order to evaluate the performance of the built models, we have used two different datasets: one for training and one, totally different to validate the model.

Second, to evaluate the usefulness of the predictions for scheduling jobs, we have developed a *discrete time* simulator in Java, which considers two kind of events: job arrival and job completion and uses the *Analytical Predictor* to perform its predictions. The input workload of the simulator uses the workload of Grid'5000 [7], completing it with the additional job information we need. Specifically, it randomly sets the revenue for each job in the range [0,1) and generates a workload web assuming a sinus-periodic occupation of the resources between 0 and 100% (to simulate peak and off-peak hours). We also set to 20% the minimum CPU share that can be allocated to a job.

## B. Self-Adjusting Predictor accuracy

In this section, we show the accuracy of the predictions performed using the Machine Learning algorithms described in Section V-B. We test these algorithms in four different scenarios: i) to predict the amount of CPU for a job; ii) to predict the amount of CPU for a job taking into account the size of its input data; iii) to predict the amount of memory allocated to a job; iv) to predict both CPU or memory.

1) Predicting CPU: In Section V-A, we have explained that the relation between the CPU allocated to a job and its execution time varies as  $\frac{T_{ref}}{T_{cpu}}$ . Therefore, if we transform the examples into sets of CPU allocation, the inverse of the execution

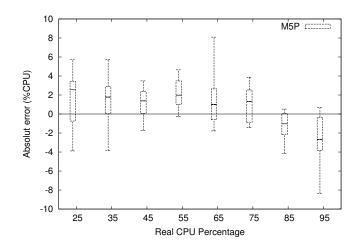


Fig. 2. CPU prediction accuracy evaluation.

time and the application's name, we would have a linear relation between the CPU share and the execution time. With this transformation we help the models to deduce the relation between the CPU and the execution time. Thus, we train Linear Regression, REPTree, M5P, Bagging with M5P, and Bagging with REPTree algorithms with these transformed examples.

The accuracy of these models in terms of mean absolute errors (MAE) is shown in Table I. M5P is the algorithm that performs better predictions on average -2.35 units of CPU percentage in absolute terms, or 5% of relative error–followed by Bagging with M5P. Figure 2 shows the distribution of the differences between the real CPU percentage required to meet the deadline with the predicted CPU percentage for the M5P model. It shows 5, 25, 50, 75 and 95 percentiles. The horizontal line in the figure separates those predictions that surpass the strictly required CPU percentage from those where the predicted CPU is lower than the required one. We make this distinction because the second case is more problematic for the provider as it leads to a deadline omission violating the SLA. As opposite, if the predicted amount of CPU is greater than the required one, we are over-provisioning the application with resources, though the job would probably use this CPU surplus to finish its execution earlier. Our results reveal that there is a tendency to predict more than the strictly required in the case of lower CPU percentages and to predict less than the required in higher CPU percentages. The knowledge of the error tendency could help us in designing scheduling policies that deal with these errors -e.g. if the CPU predicted is more than a 80%, the scheduler might allocate the whole CPU, as there is no room for another VM- but this is part of our future work.

TABLE I
MEAN ABSOLUTE ERROR (UNITS OF %CPU) PREDICTING CPU.

LR	M5P	REPTree	Bagging M5P	Bagging REPTree	
10.78	2.35	5.04	3.04	4.18	

We also have studied the possibility of predicting each

application separately instead of using a single model for all of them. That is, train the algorithms first with the examples of Montecarlo executions to build a model for the Montecarlo application and so forth for each application. Although having one application per model leads to improved accuracy we prefer to build a single model to avoid handling with unlimited models as the amount of applications might grow. Also, this way we could try to predict unseen applications using the information learned with the ones we know.

2) Predicting CPU regarding input size: In this section, we consider the same problem but now considering that the applications have different input data sizes. For the Mencoder and the Java Grande applications, we consider 5 sizes for training and 4 sizes for testing purposes. In this case, we also have applied a transformation to the examples. It consists of deriving a new attribute that represents that CPU requirements are proportional to the size of the input data and inversely proportional to the execution time –i.e. we append the attribute input\_data\_size execution\_time. Table II shows the MAEs of the models built using each of the Machine Learning algorithms. First rows use one model per application and the latest row corresponds to a single model to predict all the applications. We can observe that Bagging with M5P is the best algorithm to make this kind of predictions -11% of relative error. This is complemented with Figure 3 showing the percentage of predictions that surpass the required CPU and thus, the corresponding jobs meeting their deadlines. As in the case of CPU regardless its input size, the greater the amount of CPU to predict the worst predictions, but the effect of these errors could be reduced by means of smart scheduling policies.

TABLE II

MEAN ABSOLUTE ERROR (UNITS OF %CPU) PREDICTING CPU TAKING
INTO ACCOUNT INPUT DATA SIZE.

Application	LR	M5P	REPTree	Bagging	Bagging
				M5P	REPTree
montecarlo	9.71	4.37	5.43	3.13	3.96
mencoder	10.50	5.22	8.55	4.56	7.27
moldyn	15.43	8.85	11.72	8.68	9.64
euler	11.27	3.22	6.34	2.94	4.77
raytracer	13.39	7.88	8.74	7.61	7.97
all	15.39	8.69	8.92	6.77	7.11

3) Predicting memory: To study how well the amount of memory required by an application may be predicted, we use the same applications as in the case of CPU plus a memory intensive microbenchmark. We train and test the models with real executions using several memory allotments. The behavior of the applications is the following: if allocated with the required memory or greater the execution time does not vary—only varies a little if the application is implemented in Java because the garbage collector is executed more often with lower allotments— and thus, the memory allotment and the execution time are not correlated, making impossible to predict accurately. For this reason, we preprocess automatically the dataset changing the amount of memory of a sample if there is a similar sample—in terms of execution time— with less memory. As opposite, when the memory allotment is lower

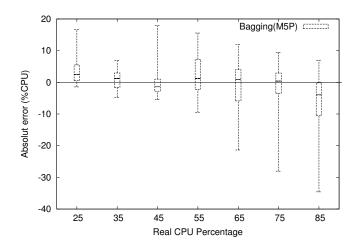


Fig. 3. CPU prediction accuracy taking into account input data size.

than the required the application begins to use the swap area increasing the variability of executions with the same allocation and thus, reducing the prediction accuracy with respect to the CPU case, as shown in Table III, which shows how accurate are the predictions made by the algorithms selected, and Figure 4, which shows the error distribution for the more accurate algorithm –i.e. Bagging with REPTree with 17% of relative error. As a result of the preprocess, there are not the same number of examples for each allotment. For instance, 512MB has 17% of the examples as most of the examples corresponding to CPU intensive applications have collapsed in the minimum memory allotment. As opposite, 1920MB only has 4% of the examples –see pondered results in Table III.

TABLE III
MEAN ABSOLUTE ERROR (MB) PREDICTING MEMORY.

Application	LR	M5P	REPTree	Bagging M5P	Bagging REPTree
montecarlo	186.60	227.45	221.76	188.41	226.86
mencoder	201.88	139.91	135.98	142.72	131.93
moldyn	289.00	368.01	277.33	289.04	174.80
euler	189.94	89.63	94.46	88.42	92.94
raytracer	188.58	308.65	257.36	302.86	249.81
micro	87.48	68.32	81.22	64.71	74.04
all	190.67	200.45	178.06	179.45	158.35

4) Predicting CPU and memory: Although we can combine both resources in a single model, we can only predict a resource at once –because there are several possible combinations of CPU and memory allotments for a job to be finished before its deadline. In order to overcome this difficulty, we offer different solutions: one possibility is to predict the execution time of the job assuming that it has allocated all the available resources. This way, if the predicted time is lower than the time remaining to the deadline, the provider could accept the job. A similar solution consists of fixing the amount of one resource and predicting the other. And the last proposal is to combine two predictions, but we discourage this approach as its total error accumulates the error of the two individual

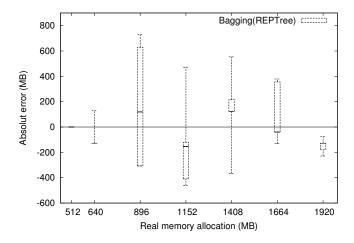


Fig. 4. Memory prediction accuracy evaluation

predictions.

Table IV shows the accuracy of the models predicting each resource. These models are trained and tested with all the applications used before to test memory and CPU separately, plus a CPU and memory intensive microbenchmark. The model with highest accuracy to predict CPU is Bagging with M5P with a 14% of relative error. Predicting memory is less accurate –for the reasons explained in Section VI-B3– with a relative error ranging from 36 to 43%. Finally, to predict execution time Bagging with M5P has a 15% of relative error.

Prediction	LR	M5P	REPTree	Bagging M5P	Bagging REPTree
%CPU	18.55	9.20	10.69	7.35	9.66
MEM MB	542.56	508.50	542.60	500.89	506.97
TIME sec	29.43	5.10	10.46	3.97	8.81

#### C. Predictors comparison

Regarding the accuracy of the *Analytical Predictor* with respect to the *Self-Adjusting Predictor*, we use the same set of data used in Section VI-B1 to train and test both predictors. We have obtained that the *Analytical Predictor* is able to make a prediction with an absolute error of 6.26 units of CPU percentage on average. In contrast, with the *Self-Adjusting Predictor*, when using Linear Regression, the average absolute error is much lesser, 1.62 units of CPU percentage. Nevertheless, we consider acceptable the *Analytical* results while the *Self-Adjusting Predictor* module is being trained.

This comparison has assumed one model per application and the input data size fixed. The rest of scenarios are not comparable because the *Analytical Predictor* cannot take into account data input sizes or derive a single model for all the applications. The *Analytical Predictor* deals each data input size as a different application. Thus, its usage is only useful while the *Self-Adjusting Predictor* is not enough trained.

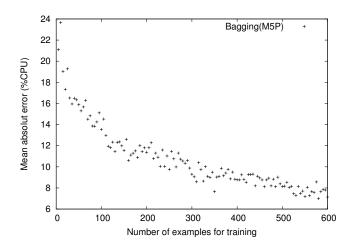


Fig. 5. Learning curve for CPU prediction.

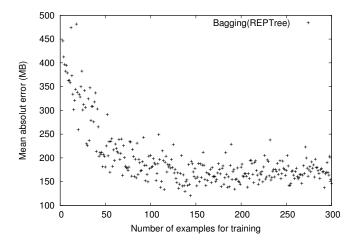


Fig. 6. Learning curve for memory prediction.

### D. Learning curves

Although a provider has the *Analytical Predictor* to make predictions whilst the *Self-Adjusting Predictor* is learning, a main concern is the learning speed of the built models.

Figure 5 shows the mean absolute error as a function of the number of examples used to build the models to predict the amount of CPU required by a job taking into account the input data size. It shows that with about five hundred examples the MAE of the models are near to the results obtained with a larger amount of examples.

The learning curve for the memory prediction is shown in Figure 6. We observe a short ramp-up phase. Thus, we conclude that the provider requires few examples to make predictions, which is a desirable characteristic for the system.

## E. Prediction usefulness for scheduling

The aim of this test is to demonstrate empirically that having predictions on required resources can help the schedulers to efficiently allocate resources to jobs whatever the policy used is. For demonstration purposes, we assume full accuracy on

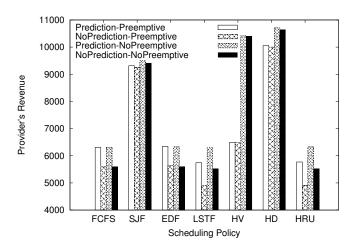


Fig. 7. Providers' benefit using prediction. Policies used: FCFS (First Come First Serve), SJF (Shortest Job First), EDF (Earliest Deadline First), LSTF (Least Slack Time First), HV (Highest Value), HD (Highest Density), HRU (Highest Reward and Urgency) [8]

the predictions. According to this, we configure our simulator to simulate 10 CPUs and to run 25000 jobs.

Figure 7 shows the revenue gained by a provider using a set of policies with and without prediction. This improvement is up to a 18% in the case of HRU with preemption. Notice, that the *Prediction System* allows providers to increase their revenue whatever policy they use, whether it is preemptive –a job that is executing can be resumed and enter in the queue again in favor of a more priority job- or not. To complement it, Figure 8 shows the number of jobs being discarded and the number of jobs being violated -i.e. breaking the SLAfor each policy. Notice that with prediction, providers do not violate any SLA, thus they charge for all the jobs they execute without suffering any penalty. They discard -i.e. reject- the jobs if they realize that SLA cannot be accomplished. Policies without using prediction only discard jobs when its deadline is in the past, leading to a potentially waste of resources -the job might be executed partially.

#### F. Discussion

We envision that provider's resources are just dedicated to execute user's jobs and web applications. Therefore, we have not considered in our models metrics such as the load of Xen's Dom0. Nevertheless, we have seen experimentally that system load influences on the execution time of the jobs running in unprivileged domains. Besides, other parameters of the virtual machine such as the number of virtual CPUs could lead to differences in the execution time between executions of the same program —we set this parameter to 1 as we only work with single-threaded jobs for the scope of this paper. Thus, if a provider wants to do some computational work in Dom0 or does not want to fix the number of virtual CPUs for all the virtual machines, these two parameters should be included as attributes in the examples to achieve more accurate predictions. Similarly, other virtualization technologies that

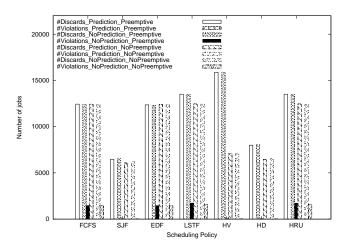


Fig. 8. Jobs discarded and SLA violations with and without using prediction.

might be used by resource providers would be required to study which parameters influence in the execution times of user's jobs to monitor and include them into the examples.

## VII. RELATED WORK

Autonomic resource management systems might be divided in reactive systems that use monitoring-based techniques to allocate resources to tasks [9]–[13], and predictive systems that use historical information to predict [14]–[16], as in our case. These systems use analytical and regression techniques to perform their predictions, however their allocation granularity is the whole node, not allowing the consolidation of services. Predictive systems which consider a fine-grain management include [17], which predicts CPU and memory requirements to maintain the response time for web servers, and [18], which search for a suboptimal solution in a finite space of possible allocations thus, they do not consider all the possible solutions.

The most similar system to our proposal is Gridbus [19]. It uses a user provided estimation of the job execution time to calculate the number of nodes required for a job to be completed before its deadline. To compute this, the estimation plus the time of staging is divided by the time remaining to the deadline and multiplied by an aggression factor to denote that the system preference is to execute the job as quick as possible. Our system also predicts the requirements to not violate jobs' deadlines. However, our granularity is finest –CPU share and memory allocation– instead of whole nodes and we do not need any user's estimation of the job's execution time.

Many systems instead of predicting the amount of resources focus on predicting the job's execution time. On the one hand, [11], [20] require that the user provides a good approximation of the execution time, then based on the prior CPU load that they are experimenting, they predict the job execution time. On the other hand, there are several techniques that do not need any user information in order to perform the execution time prediction, as occurs in [21], which uses historical information from similar tasks –in terms of job characteristics such as the user, submission time, etc.– to perform the prediction using

means and regressions. A locally-weighted learning technique is used in [22] to predict the execution time by means of constructing a database of experiences that include who submitted the job, the number of CPU requested, etc. and which data is the most relevant to perform predictions using a distance function. Our solution, also does not need user's information to perform predictions and our Scheduler exploits the elasticity of virtual machines by using the predicted information to make the most of provider's resources.

## VIII. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, we have contributed with an architecture to help providers to deal with the heterogeneity naturally present in the Cloud, making the most of their virtualized resources. This architecture includes a dual-purpose predictor that i) allows users to negotiate with providers in service-level terms and ii) provides a mean for the *Scheduler* to perform smart resource allocation using these predictions by discarding in advance jobs whose deadline cannot be accomplished.

We have introduced Machine Learning techniques in a *Self-Adjusting Predictor* that predicts the required resources to fulfill a given service-level metric using the results from previous executions. We have seen that regarding the CPU prediction, we achieve high prediction accuracy (11% of relative error) using the Bagging with M5P algorithm. Regarding memory prediction, a 17% of relative error is achieved using Bagging with REPTree. Moreover, the learning curves of the built models are promising because they achieve high accuracy with few examples. This characteristic, in conjunction with the low overhead incurred, makes our system suitable for making decisions online. Besides, we have proposed an *Analytical Predictor* that is used to predict the resource requirements whilst the *Self-Adjusting Predictor* is not enough trained.

Regarding our future work, we are going to build a real prototype of the system by means of integrating the *Prediction System* and the EMOTIVE (Elastic Management Of Tasks In Virtualized Environments) Cloud middleware [23]. On a second place, our research is going to be focused on the resource prediction for web applications and how to predict the requirements of jobs' phases using the work proposed in [24] to identify these phases. Finally, we are going to focus on new scheduling policies aware of the predictions.

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